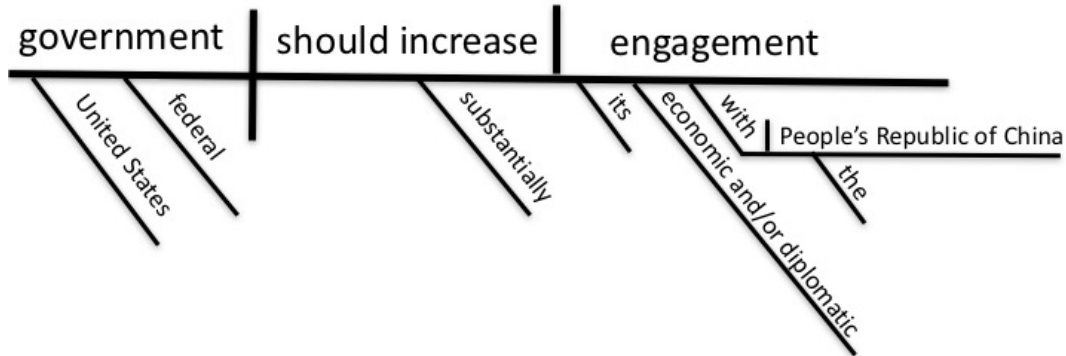


DEFINITIONS OF TERMS ON THE CHINA TOPIC

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The 2016-17 Interscholastic Debate Resolution: *Resolved: The United States federal government should substantially increase its economic and/or diplomatic engagement with the People's Republic of China.*



The resolution on the China topic originated with a proposal submitted by Dyane Hyland of Yorktown High School in Virginia. Mr. Hyland and the members of the Topic Selection Committee Wording Committee jointly wrote a topic paragraph for inclusion on the ballot. The paragraph for the China topic follows:

TOPIC PARAGRAPH AS INCLUDED ON THE 2016-17 BALLOT: Among the possible areas could be: Reforming segments of U.S./China trade; working with China to increase respect for human rights; working with China to better understand and manage its territorial ambitions in the South China Sea and other parts of Asia; how to work with China to best mitigate ongoing concerns over Taiwan; how to work with China to ensure sustainable energy and resource policies; how best to protect indigenous groups within China; how best to handle ongoing concerns over Tibet; how best to work together on the threat posed by world terrorism and many others. Given the amount of literature on the topic, and the number of policy experts opining about China – teams can be assured of finding case ideas in a wide range of areas, with novel and unique Affirmatives being proposed by policy experts almost monthly. The topic's literature base ensures a dynamic range of case options. Negatives will have ample ground to explore the solvency of diplomatic or economic engagement; the effects of changes in China policy on surrounding Asian nations; the implications for U.S. allies in the region should any change to U.S. policy toward China occur and the effect of change on the U.S. in light of its other national interests and obligations. Case specific disadvantages, again, given the literature base, will move beyond the generic, allowing for case advantages to be weighed by countervailing arguments – including arguments pertaining to the crack-down on rights within China; land use arguments, and specific species protection disadvantages; implications for China/Taiwan relations; labor specific disadvantages; and disadvantages dealing with economic issues specific to plan action (inflation, currency collapse, etc., all directly related to case specific action in China. Counterplan and Kritik ground will be fertile with both case specific and generic arguments in play. There will be plenty of case specific debate, given the literature base on the topic and the number of international experts that write on China there will be no shortage of clashing ideas on how best to engage China, giving teams many possibilities to find proposals for action directly counter to the Affirmative's. These clashing ideas would affect debate over specific solvency options and case specific advantages. With China rising in stature on the national stage, the resolution is education, timely and necessary to debate.

Usually, the topic paragraph has very little influence on topicality debates – such matters are typically left to the arguments made by debaters in each individual round of policy debate.

TOPICALITY VIOLATIONS THAT SHOULD BE ANTICIPATED:

Note: Below is the list of topicality violations supported with evidence and argument in Volume 3 of the Baylor Briefs “Topicality Casebook” prepared by Dr. Ryan Galloway of Samford University.

1. The affirmative is not topical because it does not increase *economic engagement*.

This topicality argument states that the affirmative plan must require a response or quid pro quo with China when offering economic benefits. Economic engagement is a term of art that requires a response from the target country. Therefore, it is not enough for the United States to increase trade with China, it must increase trade with China *only if* China agrees to take some action.

2. The affirmative is not topical because it does not increase *diplomatic engagement*.

This topicality argument states that the affirmative plan must use diplomatic engagement, and not military engagement. A temptation on this topic is to promise to deploy or not deploy individual weapons systems, such as cases that condition the deployment of missile defense on a Chinese reaction, or cases that stop surveillance flights over Chinese territory, or the navy from entering Chinese waters. However, diplomatic engagement refers to the use of dialogue, and not the use of military assets.

3. The affirmative is not topical because it does not increase *economic engagement*.

This topicality argument states that the affirmative plan must offer positive economic incentives to China, and not offer negative incentives like sanctions, aid cut-offs, etc. Economic engagement is the opposite of economic isolation, with the goal being that a nation work closely with another nation in order to achieve a desirable result. Meanwhile economic isolation is the policy of putting sanctions and economic pressure on another nation.

4. The affirmative is not topical because it does not *increase economic and/or diplomatic engagement with China*.

This argument states that the affirmative plan must increase presently existing economic or diplomatic engagement with the People’s Republic of China, and not come up with a new engagement policy not already employed by the federal government. Many affirmative teams may argue that existing engagement programs are inadequate for reasons that have nothing to do with the size or funding of the program itself. These affirmatives do not “increase” economic or diplomatic engagement, but rather change the nature of engagement in order to claim an Affirmative advantage.

5. The affirmative is not topical because it does not *increase economic and/or diplomatic engagement with China*.

This argument states that the affirmative plan must increase the overall amount of engagement, not merely improve existing programs. Many teams may argue for a definition of increase which means to improve engagement, meaning making it more effective according to some standard the affirmative comes up with. For example, they may argue that existing funding for global warming initiatives is adequate, but it is misallocated to prioritize solar energy over more effective measures. However, this violation is designed to argue that increase means to make a net increase in funding, to deny the affirmative team the ability to make such an argument.

6. The Affirmative plan is not topical because it does not increase *its economic and/or diplomatic engagement*.

This topicality argument states that the Affirmative plan must deal with US economic and/or diplomatic engagement, and not engage in multilateral economic or diplomatic engagement. An extremely tempting affirmative option on this topic is to argue that the United States should engage China through a multilateral organization, like the United Nations, the World Trade Organization, and the International Monetary Fund. However, the actions by the other nations in the organization are not part of the US federal government, and therefore run afoul of the resolution.

7. The Affirmative plan is not topical because it does not *substantially increase economic and/or diplomatic engagement*.

This topicality argument states that the Affirmative plan must increase economic or diplomatic engagement by at least twenty percent compared to the current level of economic or diplomatic engagement with China. One fear on this topic is that it will devolve quickly into affirmative teams increasing engagement by a tiny amount, such as engaging China with one new product or good, or engage China in a plan to save one species of fish in the South China Sea. Such “squirrel cases” will be difficult to defeat, as the negative team is unlikely to have specific evidence on this small facet of economic or diplomatic policy, and the affirmative will attempt to argue that negative disadvantages do not apply because the increase is so small. This violation attempts to rectify such situations by setting a standard by which the Affirmative must increase economic or diplomatic engagement.

8. The Affirmative plan is not topical because it does not *substantially* increase economic and/or diplomatic engagement.

This topicality argument focuses on a definition of the word “substantially,” meaning “without material qualification.” *Black’s Law Dictionary* offers the following definition of “substantially:” “Essentially; without material qualification; in the main; in substance, materially; in a substantial manner. About, actually, competently, and essentially” (<https://novogradac.wordpress.com/2014/02/05/close-enough-how-to-measure-substantially-similar-under-fasbs-new-lihtc-investment-guidance/>). Some affirmative teams will provide in their plan numerous conditions for engagement with China. This Black’s Law definition indicates that the use of “material qualifications” violates the meaning of the word “substantially” because the engagement proposed by the plan is conditional.

9. The Affirmative plan is not topical because it does not increase economic and/or diplomatic engagement *with* China.

This topicality argument states that the word with in the resolution requires that the action be directly with the People’s Republic of China. Many teams may be tempted to take actions tangentially related toward China, but use a definition of with that need not be directly with China. One example would be to decrease taxes in the United States. One could argue that decreasing taxes in the United States would lead to a stronger economy, thus leading to greater economic engagement with China. Such an action would not be with China, and thus would not be topical.

UNITED STATES FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Amy Blackwell, (J.D., Staff, U. Virginia Law Library), *THE ESSENTIAL LAW DICTIONARY*, 2008, 187. Federal: Relating to the central government of a union of states, such as the national government of the United States.

Carol-June Cassidy, (Editor), *CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH*, 2nd Ed., 2008, 308. Federal government: of or connected with the central government

Carol-June Cassidy, (Editor), *CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH*, 2nd Ed., 2008, 308. Federal government: a system of government in which states unite and give up some of their powers to a central authority

Daniel Oran, (Assistant Dir., National Paralegal Institute & J.D., Yale Law School), *ORAN’S DICTIONARY OF THE LAW*, 4th Ed., 2008, 206. Federal government: The U.S. federal government is the national, as opposed to state, government.

James Clapp, (Member of the New York Bar, Editor), *RANDOM HOUSE WEBSTER’S POCKET LEGAL DICTIONARY*, 3rd Ed., 2007, 103. Federal government: Relating to the government and law of the United States, as distinguished from a state.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), *OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS*, 2007, 377. Federal government: relating to the central government of a federation.

Michael Agnes, (Editor), *WEBSTER’S NEW WORLD DICTIONARY*, 4th College Edition, 2007, 290. Federal government: Of the central government.

Michael Agnes, (Editor), *WEBSTER’S NEW WORLD DICTIONARY*, 4th College Edition, 2007, 290. Federal government: Of a union of states under a central government.

Susan Spitz, (Sr. Editor), *AMERICAN HERITAGE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE*, 4th Ed., 2006, 647. Federal: The central government of the United States.

SUBSTANTIALLY

“Substantial” means the “essential” part of something.

Christine Lindberg, (Editor), *OXFORD COLLEGE DICTIONARY*, 2nd Ed., 2007, 1369. Substantially: Concerning the essentials of something.

Elizabeth Jewell, (Editor), *THE OXFORD DESK DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS*, 2nd Ed., 2007, 835. Substantially: Essentially, at bottom, fundamentally, basically, in essence, intrinsically.

Elizabeth Jewell, (Editor), *THE OXFORD DESK DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS*, 2nd Ed., 2007, 835. Substantially: Essential; true in large part.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), *OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS*, 2007, 1032. Substantially: in essence, basically, fundamentally.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: concerning the essential points of something

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: fundamental, essential, basic.

Michael Agnes, (Editor), WEBSTER'S NEW WORLD DICTIONARY, 4th College Edition, 2007, 780. Substantial: In essentials.

“Substantial” means “valuable.”

Christopher Leonesio, (Managing Editor), AMERICAN HERITAGE HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY, 4th Ed., 2007, 1376. Substantial: Considerable in importance, value, degree, amount, or extent.

Daniel Oran, (Assitant Dir., National Paralegal Institute & J.D., Yale Law School), ORAN'S DICTIONARY OF THE LAW, 4th Ed., 2008, 510. Substantial: Valuable, real, worthwhile.

“Substantial” means permanent as opposed to temporary.

Richard Bowyer, (Editor), DICTIONARY OF MILITARY TERMS, 3rd Ed. 2004, 235. Substantive: Permanent (as opposed to acting or temporary).

“Substantial” means relating to the “fundamental substance” of a thing.

Sandra Anderson, (Editor), COLLINS ENGLISH DICTIONARY, 8th Ed., 2006, 1606. Substantial: Of or relating to the basic or fundamental substance or aspects of a thing.

Christopher Leonesio, (Managing Editor), AMERICAN HERITAGE HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY, 4th Ed., 2007, 1376. Substantial: Of, relating to, or having substance.

“Substantial” means of a “corporeal or material nature.”

Stuart Flexner, (Editor-in-chief), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 2nd Ed., 1987, 1897. Substantial: Of a corporeal or material nature; tangible; real.

“Substantially” means more than 25%.

Federal Tax Regulation, Section 1.409A-3(j)6, INCOME TAX REGULATIONS (Wolters Kluwer Business Publication), 2008, 723. For this purpose, a reduction that is less than 25% of the deferred amount in dispute is not a substantial reduction.”

A reduction of less than 15% is not substantial.

WORDS AND PHRASES, Vol. 40B, 2002, 326. Where debtor-jewelry retailers historically obtained 15-25% of the inventory of their two divisions through consignments, they were not, as a matter of law, substantially engaged in selling the goods of others. In re Wedlo Holdings, Inc. (North Dakota case)

“Substantial” means “important.”

Amy Blackwell, (J.D., Staff, U. Virginia Law Library), THE ESSENTIAL LAW DICTIONARY, 2008, 477. Substantial: Important, large, considerable, valuable.

Carol-June Cassidy, (Editor), CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH, 2nd Ed., 2008, 873. Substantially: large in size, value, or importance

Christine Lindberg, (Editor), OXFORD COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2nd Ed., 2007, 1369. Substantially: Of considerable importance, size, or worth.

Elizabeth Jewell, (Editor), THE OXFORD DESK DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2nd Ed., 2007, 835. Substantially: Of real importance, value, or validity.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: real, significant, important, major, valuable.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: of great importance, size, or value.

“Substantial” means “mainly.”

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: for the most part; mainly.

“Substantial” means “markedly.”

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: greatly, markedly, appreciably.

“Substantial” is an inexact term.

Daniel Oran, (Assistant Dir., National Paralegal Institute & J.D., Yale Law School), ORAN’S DICTIONARY OF THE LAW, 4th Ed., 2008, 510. Substantial: “A lot,” when it’s hard to pin down just how much “a lot” really is. For example, substantial evidence is more than a mere scintilla of evidence but less than a full preponderance of evidence.

“Substantial” means “to a great extent.”

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: to a great extent.

Carol-June Cassidy, (Editor), CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH, 2nd Ed., 2008, 873. Substantially: to a large degree.

“Substantial” means “large.”

Michael Agnes, (Editor), WEBSTER’S NEW WORLD DICTIONARY, 4th College Edition, 2007, 780. Substantial: Material, strong, large.

“Substantial” means “socially important.”

Christine Lindberg, (Editor), OXFORD COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2nd Ed., 2007, 1369. Substantially: Important in material or social terms.

“Substantial” means “not imaginary.”

Christopher Leonesio, (Managing Editor), AMERICAN HERITAGE HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY, 4th Ed., 2007, 1376. Substantial: True or real; not imaginary.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 1032. Substantially: real and tangible rather than imaginary.

The creation of a CHUSTIA agreement with China would be “substantial.”

Fred Bergsten, (Dir., Emeritus, Peterson Institute), BRIDGING THE PACIFIC, 2014, 420. China and the United States have a strong mutual interest in continuing and completing their pursuit of free trade and investment. Both would achieve substantial economic benefits through an agreement, or series of agreements, between them. Both would gain greatly from reducing the risk of future economic and perhaps broader conflict. The compact itself and the increased exchanges that would be necessary to create it would increase mutual understanding and begin to counter the mistrust that now poisons much of the overall relationship.

Gary Hufbauer, (Sr. Fellow, Peterson Institute), BRIDGING THE PACIFIC, 2014, 10. There are six reasons to consider engaging in such a historic venture even though it is a very challenging proposition and is unlikely to eventuate in the near future. First are the substantial economic gains both countries could reap. The sharp increases in exports would enable both countries to do more of what they do best, expanding their scale of production and jobs in sectors where they have demonstrable comparative advantages.

Fred Bergsten, (Dir., Emeritus, Peterson Institute), BRIDGING THE PACIFIC, 2014, 3-4. Economically, annual exports for each country under a CHUSTIA could increase by as much as \$500 billion. US exports to China, which now fall far short of what normal economic relationships would suggest, could almost double. National income could grow by about 2 percent in China and 0.6 percent in the United States. The level of productivity could rise by almost 2 percent in China and almost 1 percent in the United States. These would be substantial economic spurs for both countries.

Sean Miner, (Research Analyst, Peterson Institute), BRIDGING THE PACIFIC, 2014, 11. The second reason to engage in a historic CHUSTIA venture is that the trade and investment liberalization achieved under the agreement would promote and enhance economic reform in both countries. This would add substantially to its direct payoff, as described above, and reinforce some of the top policy priorities of each country's leadership, notably the rebalancing of their economies

Fred Bergsten, (Dir., Emeritus, Peterson Institute), BRIDGING THE PACIFIC, 2014, 420. China is seeking to rebalance and restructure its economy in the direction of greater domestic consumption and services. Trade liberalization could affect both these efforts positively and substantially. This, in turn, would reinforce the effects of the macroeconomic rebalancing steps that are already under way.

A U.S.-China agreement on climate change would be “substantial.”

Lyle Goldstein, (Prof., *China Maritime Studies Institute, U.S. Naval War College*), MEETING CHINA HALF WAY, 2015, 131-132. Not surprisingly, the new environmental consciousness that is evident in China evinces intense admiration for the environmental movement in the West and its important successes. Building on this admiration, and also on a seemingly new appreciation of the dangers of global warming in the United States, there could be a basis for substantial forward movement in US-China environmental cooperation, over and above the substantial efforts already under way.

An agreement with China concerning the South China Sea would be “substantial.”

Lyle Goldstein, (Prof., *China Maritime Studies Institute, U.S. Naval War College*), MEETING CHINA HALF WAY, 2015, 285. In this case, the diplomacy would be challenging, but the dividends from building trust and confidence would be substantial. The feasibility of the initiative would be grounded on proven PLA Navy interest and competence in maintaining counterpiracy operations since 2008 in the Gulf of Aden.

INCREASE

“Increase” means to make something greater or larger.

Carol-June Cassidy, (Editor), CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH, 2nd Ed., 2008, 441. Increase: to become or make something larger or greater.

Christopher Leonesio, (Managing Editor), AMERICAN HERITAGE HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY, 4th Ed., 2007, 702. Increase: To become greater or larger.

“Increase” means to make greater in size.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY & THESAURUS, 2007, 526. Increase: Become or make greater in size, amount, or intensity.

“Increase” means to advance in quality.

Erin McKean, (Sr. Editor), THE OXFORD AMERICAN DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2003, 751. Increase: Advance in quality, attainment, etc.

Erin McKean, (Sr. Editor), THE OXFORD AMERICAN DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2003, 751. Increase: Intensify a quality.

“Increase” can mean to start from zero.

WORDS AND PHRASES, Vol. 20B, 2008, 265. Increase: Salary change of from zero to \$12,000 and \$1,200 annually for mayor and councilmen respectively was an "increase" in salary, and not merely the "fixing" of salary; thus, in absence of compliance with Home Rule Act provisions concerning increase in compensation of elected members of governing authority, mayor and councilmen were properly enjoined from receiving further compensation. Code, § 69-1019; Laws 1967, p. 3323. —King v. Herron, 243 S.E.2d 36, 241 Ga. 5.

“Increase” refers to the quantity of something.

Bryan Garner, (Editor), BLACK’S LAW DICTIONARY, 2009, 835. Increase: The extent of growth or enlargement.

Sidney Landau, (Sr. Editor), CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH, 2nd ed., 2008, 440. Increase: To become or make something larger or greater.

“Increase” refers to that which already exists.

Ian Brookes, (Sr. Editor), THE CHAMBERS DICTIONARY, 10th ed., 2006, 754. Increase: Growth; increment; addition to the original stock.

ITS

“Its” means belonging to the thing previously mentioned.

Augustus Stevenson, (Editor), NEW OXFORD AMERICAN DICTIONARY, 3rd Ed., 2010, 924. Its: Belonging to or associated with a thing previously mentioned or easily identified.

“Its” means “relating to itself” or “possessing” something.

Frederick Mish, (Editor-in-chief), WEBSTER'S COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY, 10th ed., 1993, 623. Its: Of or relating to it or itself, esp. as possessor.

“Its” means “belonging to.”

Justin Crozier, (Editor), COLLINS DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2005, 448. Its: Of or belonging to it.

Jean McKechnie, (Sr. Editor), WEBSTER’S NEW TWENTIETH CENTURY DICTIONARY, UNABRIDGED, 2nd Ed., 1979, 977. Its: Of, or belonging to, or done by it.

Erin McKean, (Sr. Editor), THE OXFORD AMERICAN DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2003, 798. Its: Of itself.

Carol-June Cassidy, (Managing Editor), CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH, 2nd Ed., 2008, 464. Its: Belonging to or connected with the thing or animal mentioned; the possessive form of it.

Stuart Flexner, (Editor-in-chief), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 2nd Ed., 1987, 1017. Its: The possessive form of it.

“Its” can mean simply “relating to” or “associated with.”

Frederick Mish, (Editor-in-chief), WEBSTER’S COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY, 10th ed., 1993, 623. Its: Of or relating to it or itself, esp. as possessor.

Sandra Anderson, (Editor), COLLINS ENGLISH DICTIONARY, 8th Ed., 2006, 867. Its: Belonging to, or associated in some way with.

Carol-June Cassidy, (Managing Editor), CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH, 2nd Ed., 2008, 464. Its: Belonging to or connected with the thing or animal mentioned; the possessive form of it.

ECONOMIC

“Economic” means “capable of achieving a profit.”

Ian Brookes, (Editor), THE CHAMBERS DICTIONARY, 2006, 475. Economic: Operating at, or capable of achieving, a profit.

“Economic” means “pertaining to the production, distribution, and use of income, wealth, and commodities.”

Stuart Flexner, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 1987, 618. Economic: Pertaining to the production, distribution, and use of income, wealth, and commodities.

Wendalyn Nichols, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2000, 417. Economic: Of or pertaining to the production, distribution, and use of income, wealth, and commodities.

“Economic” means “affecting material resources or welfare.”

Sandra Anderson, (Editor), COLLINS ENGLISH DICTIONARY UNABRIDGED, 2006, 520. Economic: Concerning or affecting material resources or welfare.

“Economic” means “pertaining to the use of resources in the economy.”

Stuart Flexner, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 1987, 618. Economic: Pertaining to the use of resources in the economy.

“Economic” means relating to the consumption of goods and services. (34)

Frederick Mish, (Editor), MERRIAM WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 1998, 365. Economic: Of, relating, to, or based on the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services.

“Economic” means related to industry or business. (35)

Ian Brookes, (Editor), THE CHAMBERS DICTIONARY, 2006, 475. Economic: Relating to industry or business.

“Economic” means related to the management of money. (36)

Stephen Bullon, (Editor), LONGMAN DICTIONARY OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH, 2005, 499. Economic: Relating to trade, industry, and the management of money.

DIPLOMATIC

“Diplomacy” is defined by the U.S. State Department as “the art and practice of conducting negotiations and maintaining relations between nations.”

U.S. Department of State. DIPLOMATIC DICTIONARY, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://diplomacy.state.gov/discoverdiplomacy/references/169792.htm#D>. Diplomacy: The art and practice of conducting negotiations and maintaining relations between nations; skill in handling affairs without arousing hostility.

“Diplomatic” is defined as “maintaining good relations between governments.”

MERRIAM WEBSTER DICTIONARY, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/diplomatic>. Diplomatic: Involving the work of maintaining good relations between the governments of different countries : of or relating to diplomats or their work.

“Diplomatic” is defined as “maintaining friendly relations between countries.”

MACMILLAN DICTIONARY, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.macmillandictionary.com/us/dictionary/american/diplomatic>. Diplomatic: Relating to the profession or skill of preserving or creating friendly relationships between countries.

“Diplomatic refers to contact with other nations.

U.S. LEGAL DICTIONARY, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://definitions.uslegal.com/d/diplomatic-relations/>. Diplomatic relations refers to the customary diplomatic intercourse between nations. It involves permanent contact and communication between sovereign countries. As a part of the diplomatic relations two countries send diplomats to work in each other’s country and to deal with each other formally.

“Diplomatic” relations includes cybersecurity issues.

Jon Lindsay, (Prof., Global Affairs, U. Toronto), CHINA AND CYBERSECURITY: ESPIONAGE, STRATEGY, AND POLITICS IN THE DIGITAL DOMAIN, 2015, 351. It is increasingly clear that the United States and China, or any other advanced industrial countries for that matter, will not be able to separate cybersecurity from their diplomatic relations.

ENGAGEMENT

“Engagement” is defined as the state of being involved in something.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2007, 337. Engagement: The state of being involved in something.

“Engagement” is defined as a promise to do something.

Maurice Waite, (Editor), OXFORD DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS, 2007, 337. Engage: A promise to do something.

“Engagement” is defined as a pledge or obligation.

Stuart Flexner, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 1987, 644. Engagement: A pledge; an obligation or agreement.

“Engagement” means to “bind.”

Wendalyn Nichols, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2000, 437. Engage: To bind, as by a pledge or compromise.

“Engagement” means “an arrangement.”

Stuart Flexner, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 1987, 644. Engagement: An appointment or arrangement.

“Engagement” as applied to China has three major objectives.

Bonnie Glaser, (Sr. Fellow, China Studies, Center for Strategic and International Studies), TANGLED TITANS: THE UNITED STATES AND CHINA, 2013, 152-153. Eight consecutive U.S. presidents, beginning with President Nixon, have pursued engagement with China. As an approach, engagement has evolved to include interaction at the highest levels and across the various bureaucracies of both the U.S. and Chinese governments. In an increasingly globalized world in which the U.S. and China have a great deal at stake and have both overlapping and divergent interests, engagement serves three main U.S. objectives: (1) to promote greater Chinese acceptance of Western norms and practices, constrain China's policy choices and behaviors, and enmesh China into the prevailing international system; (2) to persuade China to contribute more actively to addressing regional and global problems (essentially to become a "responsible stakeholder," although use of the phrase lapsed with the end of the George W Bush administration); and (3) to increase mutual understanding, reduce mutual distrust, and avoid miscalculation.

“Engagement” means to perform a balancing role.

Vali Nasr, (Prof., Advanced International Studies, Johns Hopkins U.), THE DISPENSABLE NATION: AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY IN RETREAT, 2013, 254-255. Zbigniew Brzezinski writes that America has played a critical balancing role in East Asia, fostering peace and prosperity by maintaining a delicate balance between China and its neighbors. But it is not just in Asia that America has kept the balance. In the Middle East, too, America has played a balancing role, between Iran and its neighbors on one side of the region, and Israel and its neighbors on the other. Without American engagement the region would have to arrive at its own balance, and that will be a violent and destabilizing process. Without American leadership in the Middle East, the region's future, left to China and Russia to figure out, or to Turkey, Iran, and Saudi Arabia to fight over, will not be hopeful.

“Engagement” refers to an attempt to get a positive change in a target state.

Robert Litwak, (Dir., Division of International Security Studies, Woodrow Wilson International for Scholars), REGIME CHANGE: U.S. STRATEGY THROUGH THE PRISM OF 9/11, 2007, 116. Engagement may then be undertaken as part of a broader strategy to promote a positive political evolution within the target state. Once the threshold conditions are present and the timing is deemed appropriate, the focus shifts to what form the engagement should take. The scholarly literature on the role of incentives or inducements in strategy development toward problem countries distinguishes between two types of engagement—unconditional and conditional. These strategies vary significantly in terms of the actors involved, the incentives employed, and the political objective desired.

“Engagement” refers to an attempt to maintain peaceful relations.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 8. In a world dominated by power politics, rivalry between states and the narrow pursuit of national interests typically trump collaboration and peacemaking. To speak the language of engagement is to risk ridicule or worse. Nevertheless, engagement is or can be an aspect of national security strategy, an honorable path to peaceable relations with adversaries. Knowing that coercion fails more often than it succeeds, we need to devise strategies for engagement rather than more credible, and dangerous, ways to threaten and punish.

“Engagement” is not coercive.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 9. Engagement invites reciprocity, thus setting in motion a succession of positive changes in policy and outlook quite opposite from the ladder of escalation that characterizes all too many international conflicts. Engagement is not carrots and sticks, where one side offers an adversary the chance to benefit while holding over it the threat of punishment if it fails to accept or reciprocate the offer. When a government announces a policy of engagement toward a particular foe while also threatening, or carrying out, sanctions, it is practicing coercive diplomacy, not engagement.

“Engagement” is not the same as “negotiation.”

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 9. While engagement may include negotiating, they are not the same thing. Often, the purpose of negotiating is to promote a winning strategy. Engagement, however, does not aim at winning; it is about finding common ground in order to build trust. Talks between adversaries may result in give-and-take that leads to agreement; but they may also get nowhere, setting back engagement plans.

“Engagement” is distinguished from “using force.”

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 9. Engagement is not always an acceptable foreign-policy option. There are times when it is a morally and strategically foolish pursuit — when, in fact, the use of force is the right and necessary thing to do, as the United Nations' "Responsibility to Protect" resolution recognizes. A government that engages in genocide, ethnic cleansing or other heinous crimes does not deserve to be "engaged." In cases such as these engagement amounts to appeasement and the abandonment of vulnerable populations.

“Engagement” refers to the use of positive incentives.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 11. Engagement is not a one-size-fits-all activity. It may take place in different formats — unilateral, bilateral and multilateral — under the three tracks. The panel on the opposite page lists the kind of initiatives that might be used. Many of the actions mentioned amount to incentives to engage. But there is no guarantee that one side's best intentions will be received as such.

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 18. In this sense, engagement implies a willingness to use positive incentives as a means of rewarding good behavior and, to a certain degree, linking these incentives to other areas of behavior. National Security Adviser Anthony Lake, in a speech delivered the day after the Christopher speech cited above, appeared to be reflecting both this somewhat more strategic understanding of the term engagement and the ambivalence about China that had characterized the administration from its outset.

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 109-110. In another analysis of the term, Richard Haas and Meghan O'Sullivan describe engagement as "a foreign-policy strategy that depends to a significant degree on positive incentives to achieve its objectives". They argue that the distinguishing characteristic of American engagement strategies historically, is their reliance "on the extension or provision of incentives to shape the behaviour of countries with which the U.S. has important disagreements."

“Engagement” means that benefits are to be expected in return.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 12. Engagement is not an act of charity or a weak-kneed attempt to postpone the inevitable; it is a course of action chosen because of its expected benefits. Adversaries need to be aware of the opportunity costs of rejecting engagement, such as reduction or elimination of aid; sanctions on official travel, trade and banking and activation of an alliance dedicated to pressuring them. Moreover, the side that rejects diplomatic engagement will be seen by the other party as being unalterably hostile, deepening suspicions and possibly setting the stage for reprisals.

“Engagement” refers to the normal state of U.S. policy toward China.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 12. The treacherous politics of engagement may be illustrated by US policy toward China. President Richard Nixon got away with normalizing relations with China because the strategy of befriending "the enemy of my enemy" (the Soviet Union) made sense to the US public, many members of Congress and later the business community. Presidents since Nixon have all engaged China to one degree or another, and have had public support for doing so.

“Engagement” means a search for common ground with China.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Political Science, Portland State U.), WILL THIS BE CHINA'S CENTURY?, 2013, 7. The China Engagers, on the opposite end from the Critics, have held sway in the US government ever since Richard Nixon's groundbreaking trip to Beijing in 1972. They also are the dominant voice in the European Union (EU). Though engagement has always meant different things to different government leaders, business leaders, and academic specialists, it rests on the search for common ground with China as a matter of national self-interest. Engagers have diverse answers to the question, What makes it necessary and desirable to engage China? So-called liberal Engagers rest their case on globalization, arguing that the more China's rise rests on deep economic interdependence and acceptance of the rules of the multilateral trade and financial institutions, the more likely it is that China will become a democratic and peace-seeking country.

“Engagement” refers to the acceptance of a rising power.

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 108-109. One theoretical treatment of engagement has been put forward by Alastair Iain Johnston and Robert Ross. Johnston and Ross argue that engagement has two distinct yet complementary meanings. First, it implies adjustment on the part of status quo powers to the legitimate interests of a rising power. In this approach, conflict is minimized and peace maintained because existing powers recognize that balance of power requires the rising power to be peacefully incorporated into the international system. According to Johnston and Ross, "stability is maintained because the established powers engage the interests of the rising power, that is they allocate it enhanced global responsibilities commensurate with its new capabilities." This approach to engagement is based upon two assumptions. First, it assumes that the rising power is engageable — it does not have an insatiable appetite for power. Second, the conception assumes that there are no irreconcilable differences between the existing powers and the rising power.

“Engagement” sees diplomacy as the preferable foreign policy tool.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Political Science, Portland State U.), WILL THIS BE CHINA’S CENTURY?, 2013, 8. Engagers also differ among themselves about when, how, and what to engage China about. Moreover, Engagers find no contradiction in occasionally advocating confronting China even while insisting that engagement is their policy preference—a circumstance that occurred during the Clinton and Obama presidencies. But in seeking ways to work with China, the distinguishing characteristic of the Engagers may be that they regard diplomacy as the preferable tool of foreign policy and are optimistic about the prospects for engagement itself. Though some Engagers may believe in the virtues of US primacy in international affairs, all prefer to treat China as a great power in a world where shared power is becoming very important.

“Engagement” refers to a cooperative approach.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Political Science, Portland State U.), WILL THIS BE CHINA’S CENTURY?, 2013, 8. The China Duopolists believe in taking engagement to the next level: a US-China duopoly. This "G-2" or, in the historian Niall Ferguson's phrasing, "Chimerica," is based on the assumption that these are the two most important countries in world affairs, that they can and must cooperate in the common cause of international peace and stability, and that their economic interdependence has already created a single fused economy.

Precision is the standard that should be used when defining the word “engagement” as used in the foreign policy context.

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 108. In the literature on security in the Asia-Pacific, engagement most commonly refers to policies regarding the People's Republic of China. However, the term has been used in many different ways leading to a great deal of confusion and uncertainty. A Business Week interview with the Chinese Vice-Premier summed this up with the headline: "Li Lanqing: Does 'engagement' mean fight or marry?"

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 108. An article in the New York Times noted that "there are many definitions of engagement" and described the Clinton administration's use of the phrase as a "moving target". This indeterminacy has prompted a host of scholars and officials to offer their own modified interpretations of engagement — the number of which now exceeds thirty. These, in turn, have arguably made for less, rather than greater conceptual clarity.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 113-114. The term “engagement” was popularized in the early 1980s amid controversy about the Reagan administration’s policy of “constructive engagement” towards South Africa. However, the term itself remains a source of confusion. Except in the few instances where the U.S. has sought to isolate a regime or country, America arguably “engages” states and actors all the time simply by interacting with them. To be a meaningful subject of analysis, the term “engagement” must refer to something more specific than a policy of “non-isolation.” As used in this article, “engagement” refers to a foreign policy strategy which depends to a significant degree on positive incentives to achieve its objectives.

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 26-27. The twists and turns of the U.S. policy of engagement with China suggests several problems and lessons. The first is that it is essential to provide more conceptual and substantive clarity to the use of the term engagement. The expression has become shopworn to the point that there is little agreement on what it actually means.

“Engagement” refers to something other than coercive measures.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 114. Today’s rapidly growing globalizing world, no longer beset by Cold War competitions, creates new possibilities for engagement as a foreign policy option. In particular, the growing recognition of the drawbacks of punitive policies in this new environment has spurred a search for alternative strategies.

“Engagement” is not a unilateral process.

Titus Chen, (Prof., Institute of China and Asia-Pacific Studies, National Sun Yat-sen U., Taiwan), INTERNATIONAL ENGAGEMENT IN CHINA'S HUMAN RIGHTS, 2016, xxiv. Engagement remains a vast, complex, slow, uneven process. It is plainly not a unilateral process involving only the participation of the Chinese people. We should not neglect the importance of those of us outside the Mainland, and the variety of ways we can make some contribution.

“Engagement” is an attempt to change the behavior of the target state.

Arda Celik, (Prof., International Studies, Uppsala U.), ECONOMIC SANCTIONS AND ENGAGEMENT POLICIES, 2011, 11. Economic engagement policies are strategic integration behavior which involves with the target state. Engagement policies differ from other tools in Economic Diplomacy. They target to deepen the economic relations to create economic intersection, interconnectedness, and mutual dependence and finally seeks economic interdependence. This interdependence serves the sender state to change the political behavior of the target state.

Miles Kahler & Scott Kastner, (Prof., International Relations, U. California at San Diego/Prof., Government, U. Maryland), JOURNAL OF PEACE RESEARCH, Sept. 2006, 524. Economic engagement – a policy of deliberately expanding economic ties with an adversary in order to change the behavior of the target state and improve bilateral political relations – is a subject of growing interest in international relations. Most research on economic statecraft emphasizes coercive policies such as economic sanctions. This emphasis on negative forms of economic statecraft is not without justification: the use of economic sanctions is widespread and well documented, and several quantitative studies have shown that adversarial relations between countries tend to correspond to reduced, rather than enhanced, levels of trade. At the same time, however, relatively little is known about how often strategies of economic engagement are deployed.

“Engagement” is the opposite of sanctions.

Miles Kahler & Scott Kastner, (Prof., International Relations, U. California at San Diego/Prof., Government, U. Maryland), JOURNAL OF PEACE RESEARCH, Sept. 2006, 523. While the determinants and effectiveness of economic sanctions have been the subject of a substantial and growing literature in international relations, much less attention has been given to economic engagement strategies, where a country deliberately expands economic ties with an adversary to change the target’s behavior.

“Engagement” refers to the use of “carrots” rather than “sticks.”

Michael Mastanduno, (Prof., Government, Dartmouth College), ECONOMIC INTERDEPENDENCE AND INTERNATIONAL CONFLICT, July 2010, 175. Under what circumstances does the cultivation of economic ties, that is, the fostering of economic interdependence as a conscious state strategy, lead to important and predictable changes in the foreign policy behavior of a target state? Students of economic statecraft refer to this strategy variously as economic engagement, economic inducement, economic diplomacy, positive sanctions, positive economic linkage, or the use of economic “carrots” instead of sticks. Critics of the strategy call it economic appeasement.

“Economic engagement” refers to the policy the U.S. has followed with Russia and China.

Michael Mastanduno, (Prof., Government, Dartmouth College), ECONOMIC INTERDEPENDENCE AND INTERNATIONAL CONFLICT, July 2010, 175. Whatever one calls it, economic engagement is the subject of renewed interest among political scientists. It has profound policy significance as well. During the first decade following the Cold War, economic engagement proved to be the centerpiece of U.S. foreign policy toward its two most important potential competitors, Russia and China. In both cases, U.S. officials relied heavily on economic instruments in an effort to integrate would-be challengers into a U.S.-centered international order. The United States has also relied on economic incentives, since 1994, in an effort to dissuade North Korea from breaking out of the nuclear nonproliferation regime.

Michael Mastanduno, (Prof., Government, Dartmouth College), ECONOMIC INTERDEPENDENCE AND INTERNATIONAL CONFLICT, July 2010, 178. How the Cold War ended is also relevant. Economic engagement proved to be a key factor in Gorbachev’s calculation that the Soviet Union should accept the risks and consequences inherent in the significant reform of its economy. Although Gorbachev eagerly anticipated the expansion of economic ties with the United States, the Cold War endgame was shaped even more profoundly by German economic statecraft.

“Economic engagement” is not the same as political engagement.

Kenneth Juster, (Former U.S. Undersecretary of Commerce), HONEY AND VINEGAR: INCENTIVES, SANCTIONS, AND FOREIGN POLICY, 2000, 62. While moral indignation may underlie a policy of sanctions, other factors within the sanctioning country and among its friends and allies, such as commercial interests, people-to-people relationships, humanitarian concerns, and even historical ties, may eventually push policy in the direction of some form of engagement, especially economic engagement – which often is less visible publicly, and thus less contentious, than full-blown political engagement.

“Economic engagement” is not the same as military engagement.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 115. Similarly, political engagement can involve the lure of diplomatic recognition, access to regional or international institutions, the scheduling of summits between leaders – or the termination of these benefits. Military engagement could involve the extension of international military-educational training in order both to strengthen respect for civilian authority and human rights among a country’s armed forces and, more feasibly, to establish relationships between Americans and young foreign military officers.

“Engagement” means the state of being engaged.

Wendalyn Nichols, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2000, 437. Engagement: The act of engaging or the state of being engaged.

“Engagement” means a promise that is binding.

Sandra Anderson, (Editor), COLLINS ENGLISH DICTIONARY UNABRIDGED, 2006, 543. Engagement: A promise, obligation, or other condition that binds.

“Engagement” means to bring together.

Frederick Mish, (Editor), MERRIAM WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 1998, 383. Engage: To bring together, or interlock.

“Engagement” means an encounter or conflict.

Wendalyn Nichols, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2000, 437. Engagement: An encounter, conflict, or battle.

“Engagement” means to assume an obligation.

Wendalyn Nichols, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 2000, 437. Engage: To assume an obligation.

“Engagement” means to commit to an action.

Ian Brookes, (Editor), THE CHAMBERS DICTIONARY, 2006, 496. Engagement: The state of being committed to a point of view or action.

“Engagement” means to attract.

Frederick Mish, (Editor), MERRIAM WEBSTER’S COLLEGE DICTIONARY, 1998, 383. Engage: To attract and hold by influence or power.

“Engagement” means to become involved with someone.

Stephen Bullon, (Editor), LONGMAN DICTIONARY OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH, 2005, 518. Engagement: To become involved with someone or something in order to understand them. Ex: A strategy of engagement and cooperation with China.

“Engagement” means to attract or please.

Stuart Flexner, (Editor), RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, UNABRIDGED, 1987, 644. Engage: To attract or please.

The policy of the Clinton administration was “engagement.”

Robert Sutter, (Prof., International Affairs, George Washington U.), FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE PRC: THE LEGACIES AND CONSTRAINTS OF CHINA’S INTERNATIONAL POLITICS SINCE 1949, 2013, 196. The Clinton policy of engagement with China also came under attack from organized labor interests within the Democratic Party, some of which used the attacks on the administration’s China policy as a means to get the administration to pay more attention to broader labor interests within the Democratic Party.

Trade policy is “engagement.”

Robert Sutter, (Prof., International Affairs, George Washington U.), FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE PRC: THE LEGACIES AND CONSTRAINTS OF CHINA’S INTERNATIONAL POLITICS SINCE 1949, 2013, 197. The U.S.-China relationship improved but also encountered significant setbacks and resistance. The president’s more activist and positive policy of engagement with China brought such high points as the China-U.S. summits in 1997 and 1998, the Sino-American agreement on China’s entry into the WTO in 1999, and passage of U.S. legislation in 2000 granting China permanent normal trade relations status.

“Engagement” can be positive or negative; it can include pressure.

Marco Aliberti, (Fellow, European Space Policy Institute), WHEN CHINA GOES TO THE MOON, 2015, 225. The second China policy is that promoted by the Department of State, which explicitly aims to confront China. Such a policy recognises the importance of engaging China in the economic spheres and certainly values cooperation with China whenever it is forthcoming, but at the same time remains carefully on guard against the rise of a strategic competitor. In short, unlike the US Treasury, the State Department does not see good reasons for pandering to China and its expanding ambitions. Accordingly, it has generally adopted different lines of conduct to reconcile the various US interests, which for many commentators has translated into a policy of "hedging". Typified by Obama’s Pivot to Asia strategy, this policy could be defined as a softer, gentler form of containment.

Robert Sutter, (Prof., International Affairs, George Washington U.), FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE PRC: THE LEGACIES AND CONSTRAINTS OF CHINA'S INTERNATIONAL POLITICS SINCE 1949, 2013, 204-205. The U.S. government's emphasis on positive engagement with China did not hide the many continuing differences or U.S. efforts to plan for contingencies in case a rising China turned aggressive or otherwise disrupted U.S. interests. The United States endeavored to use growing interdependence, engagement, and dialogues with China to foster webs of relationships that would tie down or constrain possible Chinese policies and actions deemed negative to U.S. interests.

Nicola Horsburgh, (Prof., International Relations, Oxford U.), CHINA AND GLOBAL NUCLEAR ORDER: FROM ESTRANGEMENT TO ACTIVE ENGAGEMENT, 2015, 29-30. For instance, engagement can be positive, such as China and the United States ratifying the CTBT, or negative and destructive, from self-imposed marginalization and criticism of nuclear order (India), to violating laws within nuclear order (North Korea and Iran). In reality, an actor can simultaneously adopt positive and negative forms of engagement, or adopt different forms in different historical eras. In addition, the significance may vary, from the unexpected (and significant) success of negotiations in Libya which led to its decision to denuclearize, to the declaration of a nuclear weapons free zone in the Caribbean, which had somewhat less of an impact.

Nicola Horsburgh, (Prof., International Relations, Oxford U.), CHINA AND GLOBAL NUCLEAR ORDER: FROM ESTRANGEMENT TO ACTIVE ENGAGEMENT, 2015, 28. Engagement includes both positive and negative actions that can either help or hinder the process of creating, consolidating, and maintaining nuclear order. Assessment of engagement can be broken down into three areas: the methods employed by a state to engage, the motivations behind engagement, and what that engagement means for nuclear order.

“Engagement” is the opposite of containment.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Political Science, Portland State U.), WILL THIS BE CHINA'S CENTURY?, 2013, 125. At a summit meeting in 1996, President Jiang Zemin asked Bill Clinton: "Are you trying to contain China or not?" Clinton said, "No, no, I'm trying to engage, I don't want to contain you."

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 18. In its broadest and most general sense, the Clinton administration used the term engagement to signify a policy that implied involvement and interaction as opposed to isolationism. Such a formulation was largely intended for the domestic American audience. This usage entailed a willingness to continue to be involved actively in international affairs, and especially to provide international leadership, rather than retreating from international responsibilities and paying more attention to American domestic issues.

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 111. Engagement can be described as a kind of loosely defined association. The example that has received the most attention in the literature on Asia-Pacific security is that of the United States' engagement of China. In this sense, engagement connotes a relationship of dialogue and involvement, and is often contrasted with "containment" or "isolation". Nye has said "the attitude that 'engagement' implies is important." He claims the United States' decision to engage China "means that [it] has rejected the argument that conflict is inevitable".

“Engagement” is a broad term.

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 17-18. The term engagement can be used and understood in a number of ways, depending upon the context of the relationship being described. With respect to China, the Clinton administration has used the term in three ways. This conceptual confusion has resulted from the fact that the word itself has been overused and poorly defined by a variety of policymakers and speech writers. This ambiguity has contributed to domestic and international bewilderment about both the meaning of the term and the various policies and attitudes that engagement has been intended to portray.

“Engagement” does not always require concessions.

Miles Kahler & Scott Kastner, (Prof., International Relations, U. California at San Diego/Prof., Government, U. Maryland), JOURNAL OF PEACE RESEARCH, Sept. 2006, 524. Scholars have usefully distinguished between two types of economic engagement: conditional policies that require an explicit quid pro quo on the part of the target country and policies that are unconditional. Conditional policies, sometimes labeled linkage or economic 'carrots', are the inverse of economic sanctions. Instead of threatening a target country with economic loss (sanction) in the absence of policy change, conditional engagement policies promise increased economic benefits in return for desired policy change.

The Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty (CTBT) is an example of “engagement.”

Nicola Horsburgh, (Prof., International Relations, Oxford U.), CHINA AND GLOBAL NUCLEAR ORDER: FROM ESTRANGEMENT TO ACTIVE ENGAGEMENT, 2015, 29. Organizational forms of engagement refer to treaties like the CTBT, which a state can join and promote. Strategic behaviour may be determined by domestic legislation restricting the export of dual-use and sensitive technology, or the direction of nuclear force modernization, if such a programme is underway.

“Engagement” can mean dialogue.

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 19. The third manner in which the term engagement has been used is in the sense of a general dialogue between high-level U.S. and Chinese officials. This usage of the term is not entirely distinct from the second usage; originally, engagement in the second, or strategic, sense of the word was believed to encompass dialogue as an incentive to be offered to the Chinese. However, as U.S.-Chinese relations progressed, this dialogue came to represent the engagement itself.

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 28. Engagement in the third sense of a dialogue, as a process of communication and management of relations or as a means to an end, should be not only maintained, but also strengthened and reaffirmed. Engagement in this most modest sense of the word is indispensable to the achievement of any American foreign policy goals with China and, when clearly understood and effectively practiced, can achieve significant results in changing Chinese behavior. It should not be seen as an alternative to sanctions, nor should it be regarded as relying principally on incentives (or in the overused metaphor, the "carrot") rather than disincentives (the stick).

“Engagement” is not mutually exclusive with hedging.

Michael Swaine, (Sr. Associate, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace). AMERICA'S CHALLENGE: ENGAGING A RISING CHINA IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY, 2011, 25. These two basic objectives and strategic approaches (that is, cooperative engagement and hedging or balancing) obviously exist in some tension with one another, although they are certainly not mutually exclusive. Actions and signals designed to encourage or facilitate cooperation and accommodation in some areas can weaken those designed to deter or dissuade problematic behavior in other areas, and vice versa.

Human rights can be a focus of “engagement.”

L. Kathleen Roberts, (J.D. Candidate), BERKELEY JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL LAW, 2003, 638. In sum, when President Bush took office, mechanisms for human rights diplomacy were already in motion. The U.S. government was engaged in a multi-pronged strategy of multilateral, bilateral, and unilateral engagement with a variety of state and non-state actors to promote human rights goals.

“Engagement” refers to a process; it is a means to an end.

Mel Gurtov, (Prof., Emeritus, Political Science, Portland State U.), GLOBAL ASIA, Summer 2013, 8. Engagement is a process more than a policy. As one of President Barack Obama's foreign-policy advisers reportedly said, "Engagement should be judged as a means to an end, not as a policy goal itself." Those means involve reaching out to the other side in a variety of ways that may catalyze new directions for policy — one's own and the rival state's — with the aim of reducing tensions and establishing a co-operative, mutually beneficial relationship. It does not entail sanctifying or otherwise rewarding a particular government. But it does mean respecting the rival state's leaders, giving assurances of security from threat, and most importantly, providing an opportunity to benefit from the changed relationship through "sufficient and credible" inducements. In all, engagement seeks to create the space for resetting relationships.

“Engagement” can be multilateral.

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 109. Johnston and Ross's second definition stresses the use of multilateral institutions in the engagement of a rising power. They argue that engagement can involve incorporating the rising power into a leadership position in existing international organizations and regimes, including arms control and international economic regimes. In doing so, established powers seek to accommodate the new power's demands for a "place at the table". The membership of international institutions allows international norms to evolve and develop, reflecting the interests of all powers, including the rising power. This process aims to minimize the interest the rising power has in pursuing policies that might destabilize the international order.

Paul Evans, (Prof., Asian Studies, U. of British Columbia), THE ASIA-PACIFIC SECURITY LEXICON, 2002, 112. The basic premise that underpins the many different policies of engagement towards China is the assumption that incorporating the country in as many international regimes, institutions, and binding commitments as possible, will minimize its potential for "disruptive" behaviour in the future and will maximize the chances for its smooth integration into the international order. Engagement aims to get China to recognize and abide by the existing rules and norms of the international community.

“Engagement” and pressure tactics are not mutually exclusive.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 114. Certainly it does not preclude the simultaneous use of other foreign policy instruments such as sanctions or military force; in practice, there is often considerable overlap of strategies, particularly when the termination or lifting of sanctions is used as a positive inducement. The distinguishing feature of American engagement strategies is their reliance on the extension or provision of incentives to shape the behavior of countries with which the U.S. has important disagreements.

Robert Suettinger, (Visiting Fellow, Foreign Policy Studies Program, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR, 2000, 29. Engagement does not have to equate to being nice. Sanctions and other disincentives will be necessary in dealing with the Chinese. There should be no illusions about friendship or partnership when important interests are at stake. Used sparingly and carefully, sanctions have proven effective in some instances.

The Trans-Pacific Partnership would be an example of “engagement.”

Bruce Jones, (Dir., Foreign Policy Program, Brookings Institution), STILL OURS TO LEAD: AMERICA, RISING POWERS, AND THE TENSIONS BETWEEN RIVALRY AND RESTRAINT, 2014, 106. In 2011 and 2013 respectively, President Obama announced U.S. engagement on two more major trade initiatives—the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) and the Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership (TTIP). Both initiatives have a double logic: driving economic growth and reinforcing core alliances.

“Engagement” can be either conditional or unconditional.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 114. Many different types of engagement strategies exist, depending on who is engaged, the kind of incentives employed, and the sorts of objectives pursued. Engagement may be conditional when it entails a negotiated series of exchanges, such as where the U.S. extends positive inducements for changes undertaken by the target country. Or engagement may be unconditional if it offers modifications in U.S. policy towards a country without the explicit expectation that a reciprocal act will follow. Generally, conditional engagement is geared towards a government; unconditional engagement works with a country’s civil society or private actor in the hope of promoting forces that will eventually facilitate cooperation.

Robert Litwak, (Dir., Division of International Security Studies, Woodrow Wilson International for Scholars), REGIME CHANGE: U.S. STRATEGY THROUGH THE PRISM OF 9/11, 2007, 116-117. Under unconditional engagement, a policy change is made with no explicit expectation of reciprocation by the target state. This shift can take the form of a political gesture at the governmental level to reduce tensions and facilitate additional steps to improve relations—such as the United States’s symbolic lifting of some minor economic sanctions on Iran in March 2000.

“ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT” AS A CONTEXTUAL PHRASE IS DEFINED

“Constructive engagement” is the same as “economic engagement.”

Maria Welau, (Prof., International Relations, George Washington U.), CUBA IN TRANSITION, 1996, 456. Although the term commercial engagement generally refers to diverse international commercial and financial transactions, we will use it primarily in reference to foreign investment. The term “constructive engagement” encompasses economic engagement and is normally used within the context of a more comprehensive diplomatic and political relationship.

“Economic engagement” can include international lending institutions.

Andrew Rose & Mark Spiegel, (Prof., International Relations, U. California at Berkeley/Vice President, Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco), NON-ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT AND INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE, Feb. 2007, 1. We examine the role of non-economic partnerships in promoting international economic exchange. Since far-sighted countries are more willing to join costly international partnerships such as environmental treaties, environmental engagement tends to encourage international lending.

Rule of law programs are “economic engagement.”

Ellen Reinstein, (Attorney, Palo Alto Office of Morrison & Foerster), CONNECTICUT JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL LAW, Fall 2004, 30. Many U.S. policymakers, especially under the Clinton Administration, have argued that increased economic engagement with China will eventually lead to lessened religious persecution. Stanley Roth, the Assistant Secretary of State for East Asian and Pacific Affairs, described this approach: “[o]ur strategy is to integrate China into regional and global institutions, helping it become a country that plays by the accepted international rules, cooperating and competing peacefully within those rules.” Roth predicted that a prosperous, integrated China would be more dependent on the rule of law and upon the free flow of information. This could, in turn, advance the power and the rights of its own citizens.

Democracy promotion programs are “economic engagement.”

Craig Foreese, (Attorney, Hughes, Hubbard & Reed, Washington, D.C.), YALE HUMAN RIGHTS AND DEVELOPMENT LAW JOURNAL, 2002, 8. U.S. companies are not alone in urging constructive economic engagement as a viable human rights-sensitive foreign policy. In Canada, for example, the Business Council on National Issues (BCNI), the country’s foremost business lobby group, has argued that companies should engage in more business with non-democratic countries because “trade will act as a positive catalyst for change.” Canadian business people have defended Canada’s policy of strong constructive engagement with China by urging “that exposure to western products, technology and the free market will inspire Chinese citizens to pursue freedom and democracy.”

Economic assistance constitutes “economic engagement.”

Carol Adelman, (Dir., Center for Science in Public Policy), AMERICA’S TOTAL ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DEVELOPING WORLD, June 28, 2005, 1. The following table, using the latest official government figures as well, shows total U.S. economic engagement with developing countries. This engagement includes our government foreign aid or ODA, our private assistance or philanthropy, and our private capital flows or private investment overseas.

John Delury, (Prof., International Relations, Yonsei U., Seoul), AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY INTERESTS, Apr. 26, 2012, 71-72. Economic engagement includes state-backed assistance, market-based provincial trade, and long-term strategic investment. Assistance includes technical assistance, knowledge sharing and human capacity building – in effect, educating North Korean counterparts on the China model of market transition and authoritarian capitalism.

Helen Milner, (Prof., Politics, Princeton U.), INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION, Winter 2011, 58. Even though aid is a smaller part of the U.S. economy than trade, aid is often seen as an important means of economic engagement with the world economy.

“Economic engagement” includes direct foreign investment.

Carol Adelman, (Dir., Center for Science in Public Policy), AMERICA’S TOTAL ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DEVELOPING WORLD, June 28, 2005, 3. U.S. Private Capital Flows: This number includes foreign direct investment and net capital markets in developing and emerging economies, and is an important measure of U.S. total economic engagement with developing nations. This category is most indicative of the U.S. contribution to long-lasting economic growth and prosperity in these countries. The number includes direct investment by American companies in agriculture, manufacturing and service industries that creates jobs and income for poor people. It represents the involvement of U.S. companies and institutions in foreign capital markets as well, investment that helps develop permanent economic and social infrastructure in the developing world.

Carol Adelman, (Dir., Center for Science in Public Policy), AMERICA’S TOTAL ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DEVELOPING WORLD, June 28, 2005, 8. Now that Official Development Assistance makes up a much smaller part of the developing world economy and private flows of both philanthropy and investment prevail, the way we measure and think about foreign aid must change. In short, ODA is the handout of the last century. It is America’s total economic engagement with the developing world that creates prosperity.

“Economic engagement” is a broad term including a long list of things.

Bureau of Economic, Energy, and Business Affairs, U.S. Department of State, WHAT IS TOTAL ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT?, Jan. 17, 2009. Retrieved Mar. 20, 2016 from <http://2001-2009.state.gov/e/eeb/92986.htm>. An accurate accounting of a nation’s total engagement must include economic policies as well as, trade, remittances, and foreign direct investment. In these areas, the U.S. leads the world in total economic engagement with the developing world. The private donations of American citizens, military emergency aid and peacekeeping and government assistance provide the primary sources for development financing.

Richard Haass, (President, Council on Foreign Relations & Former Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), HONEY AND VINEGAR: INCENTIVES, SANCTIONS, AND FOREIGN POLICY, 2000, 5. Architects of engagement strategies have a wide variety of incentives from which to choose. Economic engagement might offer tangible incentives such as export credits, investment insurance or promotion, access to technology, loans, and economic aid. Other equally useful economic incentives involve the removal of penalties, whether they be trade embargoes, investment bans, or high tariffs that have impeded economic relations between the United States and the target country. In addition, facilitated entry into the global economic arena and the institutions that govern it rank among the most potent incentives in today’s global market.

Bureau of Economic, Energy, and Business Affairs, U.S. Department of State, WHAT IS TOTAL ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT?, Jan. 17, 2009. Retrieved Mar. 20, 2016 from <http://2001-2009.state.gov/e/eeb/92986.htm>. Total Economic Engagement seeks to integrate and coordinate all U.S. economic instruments and programs into our regional and country strategies. The Bureau of Economic, Energy and Business Affairs’ (EEB) broad cross-section of economic disciplines, interagency contacts, and expertise in such areas as trade, finance, energy, development, transportation, and telecommunications help ensure this coordination.

Trade is “economic engagement.”

Bureau of Economic, Energy, and Business Affairs, U.S. Department of State, WHAT IS TOTAL ECONOMIC ENGAGEMENT?, Jan. 17, 2009. Retrieved Mar. 20, 2016 from <http://2001-2009.state.gov/e/eeb/92986.htm>. Our goal, therefore, must be the creation of the right conditions for individual economic growth and success. We must cultivate conditions for private sector growth, investment and trade. This cannot be accomplished through Official Development Assistance (ODA) funds alone. Foreign assistance must support a developing country’s own effort to improve their economic climate. Total economic engagement is putting all of the players to the same plow.

“Economic engagement” is an alternative to conflict.

Arda Celik, (Prof., International Studies, Uppsala U.), ECONOMIC SANCTIONS AND ENGAGEMENT POLICIES, 2011, 11. Economic engagement targets to seek deeper economic linkages via promoting institutionalized mutual trade thus mentioned interdependence creates two major concepts. Firstly it builds strong trade partnership to avoid possible militarized and non-militarized conflicts. Secondly it gives a leeway to perceive the international political atmosphere from the same and harmonized perspective.

“Economic engagement” can be non-governmental.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 115. While these areas of engagement are likely to involve working with state institutions, cultural or civil society engagement entails building people-to-people contacts. Funding non-governmental organizations, facilitating the flow of remittances and promoting the exchange of students, tourists and other non-governmental people between countries are just some of the possible incentives used in this form of engagement.

“Economic engagement” includes the right to make treaties.

Daniel Silander, (Prof., Political Science, Linnaeus U., Sweden), RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT AND PREVENT, 2014, 16. Diplomatic engagement includes the right to make treaties and to seek other forms of reciprocity designed to enhance the security of the state.

“Economic engagement” can mean the removal of penalties.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 114-115. Architects of engagement strategies can choose from a wide variety of incentives. Economic engagement might offer tangible incentives such as export credits, investment insurance or promotion, access to technology, loans or economic aid. Other equally useful economic incentives involve the removal of penalties such as trade embargoes, investment bans or high tariffs, which have impeded economic relations between the United States and the target country.

“Economic engagement” attempts to change the behavior of the target state.

Richard Haass, (Dir., Foreign Policy Studies, Brookings Institution), SURVIVAL, SUMMER 2000, 114-115. Architects of engagement strategies can choose from a wide variety of incentives. Economic engagement might offer tangible incentives such as export credits, investment insurance or promotion, access to technology, loans or economic aid. Other equally useful economic incentives involve the removal of penalties such as trade embargoes, investment bans or high tariffs, which have impeded economic relations between the United States and the target country.

“Economic engagement” is the opposite of isolation.

Arda Celik, (Prof., International Studies, Uppsala U.), ECONOMIC SANCTIONS AND ENGAGEMENT POLICIES, 2011, 11. Kahler and Kastner define the engagement policies as follows: “It is a policy of deliberately expanding economic ties with an adversary in order to change the behavior of the target state and improve bilateral relations.” It is an intentional economic strategy that expects bigger benefits such as long term economic gains and, more importantly, political gains.

WITH

“With” indicates a participant in an action.

MERRIAM WEBSTER DICTIONARY, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/with>. With: Used as a function word to indicate a participant in an action, transaction, or arrangement

“With” indicates the object of attention.

MERRIAM WEBSTER DICTIONARY, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/with>. With: Used as a function word to indicate the object of attention, behavior, or feeling

“With” means “in relation to.”

OXFORD DICTIONARY, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/with. With: In relation to.

“With” refers to something that is done together with another.

MACMILLAN DICTIONARY, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.macmillandictionary.com/us/dictionary/american/with>. With: If one person or thing is with another or does something with them, they are together or they do it together.

“With” means to share or exchange things.

MACMILLAN DICTIONARY, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.macmillandictionary.com/us/dictionary/american/with>. With: Used for saying that people share or exchange things.

“With” means “in support of.”

COLLINS ENGLISH DICTIONARY, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/american/with>. With: In support of; on the side of

“With” means to have an association.

COLLINS ENGLISH DICTIONARY, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/american/with>. With: As an associate, or companion, of

“With” means “in the same direction as.”

LONGMAN DICTIONARY OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/with>. With: In the same direction as something.

OXFORD DICTIONARY, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/with. With: In the same direction as.

“With” means “including.”

LONGMAN DICTIONARY OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH, 2014. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/with>. With: Including.

PEOPLE’S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Kluwer Law International, TAX PLANNING FOR EXPATRIATES IN CHINA, 2005, Vol. 1, 102. In a typical treaty, the “People’s Republic of China” is defined as including: All the territory of the People’s Republic of China, including its territorial sea, in which the laws relating to Chinese tax law are in force; and All the areas beyond the territorial sea of the People’s Republic of China, include the sea-bed and subsoil thereof, over which the People’s Republic of China has jurisdiction in accordance with international law and in which the laws relating to Chinese tax law are in force.

WORLD ATLAS, 2015. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/asia/cn.htm>. The People's Republic of China is the world's fourth largest country (by total area), and one of only five remaining Communist states in the world. It has a population of 1,349,585,838 and gained its independence in 1368.

Law of the People’s Republic of China as adopted by the Seventh National People’s Congress, CHINA KNOWLEDGE: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE, 1992. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.lehmanlaw.com/resource-centre/laws-and-regulations/general/law-of-the-peoples-republic-of-china-concerning-the-territorial-sea-and-the-contiguous-zone-1992.html>. The land territory of the People's Republic of China includes the mainland of the People's Republic of China and its offshore islands, Taiwan and all islands appertaining thereto including the Diaoyu Islands; the Penghu Islands; the Dongsha Islands; the Xisha Islands; the Zhongsha Islands and the Nansha Islands; as well as all the other islands that belong to the People's Republic of China.

MAPS OF THE WORLD, 2016. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.mapsofworld.com/china/>. The People’s Republic of China is located in Asia. It is bound by Kazakhstan, Mongolia, and Russia in the north; Japan, North Korea, South Korea, Taiwan and Philippines in the east; Vietnam, Laos, Burma, Bhutan, and Nepal in the south; and India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Kyrgyzstan in the west. Administratively, China is divided into 22 Provinces (shengs), five Autonomous Regions (zizhiqu), four Government-controlled Municipalities (shihs) and two Special Autonomous Regions (Hong Kong and Macau). The country claims sovereignty over Taiwan as its 23rd province.

CHINA TOUR MAP, Feb. 9, 2011. Retrieved Apr. 25, 2016 from <http://www.chinatourmap.com/china.html>. The People's Republic of China is the third-largest country in the world in terms of area (9.6 million square kilometers) and the largest in terms of population (1.2 billion). China has shared its borders for centuries with Korea, the former Soviet Union, Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Skim, Bhutan, Burma, Laos and Vietnam. Under the central government there are 23 provinces, five autonomous regions -- Inner Mongolia, Ningxia, Xinjiang, Guangxi and Tibet -- and four cities -- Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai and Chongqing.