The Future of U.S.-China Relations Is Conflict Inevitable?
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For four years following the terrorist attacks on New York and Washington on September 11, 2001, relations between the United States and the People’s Republic of China (PRC) appeared to be on a steadily rising course. As U.S. decisionmakers turned their attention to the urgent dangers of terrorism and proliferation, they seemed less inclined to view China as an actual or potential strategic competitor and more hopeful that, in the post–September 11 world, all the great powers would be “united by common dangers . . . [and] increasingly . . . by common values.”

As President George W. Bush began his second term in office, however, there were signs of mounting friction between Washington and Beijing and increasing skepticism, on the U.S. side at least, that the relationship was as harmonious, and the interests (still less the values) of the two parties as compatible, as had often been claimed. Alarm over the possible lifting of the European arms embargo helped to draw renewed attention to the pace and scope of China’s military buildup. Frustration with stalled negotiations over North Korea’s nuclear weapons program caused some observers to question whether Beijing truly shared the U.S. commitment to halting proliferation. Reports of a PRC diplomatic “charm offensive” in Southeast Asia stirred fears of waning U.S. influence and incipient Chinese regional hegemony. Meanwhile, evidence that China was expanding its interactions with Europe, Latin America, Africa, and the Middle East raised the specter of a new global rivalry for power and influence. To this combustible mix was added an official spat over trade balances and currency values, as well as a flurry of sensational news stories about the impact of China’s extraordinary demand on world prices of energy and materials and the planned purchases of U.S. companies by their newly flush Chinese rivals. “The old China bet is off,” announced one

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observer in mid-2005, while another (surveying the economic scene) proclaimed “the end of the China love affair.”

Recent events may prove to be little more than a passing chill. Whatever their ultimate significance, however, these developments raise fundamental questions about the future direction and underlying determinants of U.S.-China relations. What is likely to be the character of the relationship between the United States and the PRC over the next two or three decades? Will it be marked by convergence toward deepening cooperation, stability, and peace or by deterioration, leading to increasingly open competition, and perhaps even war?

The answers to these questions are of enormous importance. If tensions between the two Pacific powers worsen, the whole of Eastern Eurasia could become divided in a new cold war, and the prospects for confrontation and conflict would seem certain to rise. On the other hand, a deepening U.S.-China entente could bring with it increased possibilities for sustained worldwide economic growth, the peaceful resolution of outstanding regional disputes, and the successful management of pressing global problems, including terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction. Whether for good or ill, the most significant bilateral international relationship over the course of the next several decades is likely to be that between the United States and the PRC.

As far-reaching as its impact may be, however, the future character of the U.S.-China relationship is also profoundly uncertain. Most experts have opinions about this question but, if pressed, few would claim to be sure about what lies ahead. Such modesty is entirely appropriate. Not only are the answers to the questions posed here unknown; they are also, at present, unknowable. Twenty years ago, few people foresaw that the confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union was about to undergo a radical transformation, and fewer still imagined that the latter might soon cease to exist. As regards their ability to anticipate events, today’s observers are no better equipped than their counterparts of the early 1980s. At this point, scholars and analysts lack the kinds of powerful predictive tools that would allow them to say with any degree of assurance what the state of relations between the United States and China will be in five years time, to say nothing of ten or

twenty. And although opinions vary about what kinds of analytical advances are possible, there are good reasons to believe that such instruments are, in fact, unattainable.  

While they differ in their degree of confidence, and in their willingness to make explicit predictions, most of those who think and write about the U.S.-China relationship nevertheless have beliefs and expectations about where it is headed and about the factors that will be most influential in determining its course. Not all of the participants in this discussion are theorists of international relations, to be sure, and many would eschew the labels and language of academic debate. To the extent that they have coherent and internally consistent views, however, most analysts deploy arguments that derive from one or the other of the three main camps in contemporary international relations theorizing: liberalism, realism, and constructivism. To make matters more interesting, and more complicated, those whose basic analytical premises place...
them in one of these three broad schools of thought do not necessarily have similar views regarding the future of U.S.-China relations. On this issue, it is possible to identify liberals who expect confrontation and conflict, realists who believe that the relationship will basically be stable and peaceful, and constructivists who think that events could go either way. Each of the three theoretical schools, in sum, has two variants, one of which is essentially optimistic about the future of U.S.-China relations, the other distinctly pessimistic.

Perhaps the most common manifestation of the debate over the future of U.S.-China relations is the disagreement between liberal optimists and realist pessimists. Following an examination of the views of those who reside in these contending camps, I next turn to a discussion of their somewhat less familiar cousins: the realist optimists, on the one hand, and those who can best be described as liberal pessimists, on the other. An exploration of the assertions made by adherents of constructivism rounds out this survey. Although scholars who fall into this broad category have tended to be optimistic about U.S.-China relations (and about East Asian international politics more generally), the perceptual and ideational factors they emphasize could just as easily be invoked to arrive at considerably gloomier conclusions, a fact that some self-avowed constructivists have been at pains to point out.

Each of the positions elaborated below makes claims about the importance of a particular causal mechanism or a set of similarly aligned causal forces. It is possible that, in the real world, one set of forces will be so powerful in its effects as to overwhelm the rest. It may turn out, in other words, that one of the six camps identified here is basically “right” and the others “wrong.” But it is also conceivable that the future will be shaped by a confluence of different forces, some mutually reinforcing and others opposed. Indeed it may be that all of the arguments examined here are in some sense correct, at least to the extent that they identify causal mechanisms that are actually at work, albeit perhaps with less ultimate impact than their analytical advocates expect.

Peter Katzenstein and Nobuo Okawara have observed that intellectual discourse in the field of international relations has come increasingly to be dominated by “paradigmatic clashes” in which champions extol “the virtues of a specific analytical perspective to the exclusion of others.” Driven by the desire to construct parsimonious theories and to establish the preponderance of one paradigm or school, scholars have often been inclined to adopt an all-or-nothing attitude, asserting the overwhelming importance of the causal mechanisms central to their preferred paradigm while downplaying or ignoring the possible significance of others. Katzenstein and Okawara argue that, whatever
else can be said for it, this approach ultimately hinders efforts to understand the complexities of the real world. In its place they urge a posture of “analytical eclecticism” and an awareness that important empirical puzzles in international relations can often best be explained by a combination of forces and factors, including those highlighted by paradigms that are typically regarded as being diametrically opposed to one another.\(^5\)

If such an approach is helpful in explaining past events and emerging patterns, it is absolutely essential to any attempt to think about the longer-term future of U.S.-China relations. As Robert Jervis pointed out in his post–Cold War meditation on the future of world politics, “Only rarely does a single factor determine the way politics will work out.”\(^6\) Instead, significant outcomes are invariably shaped by what John Lewis Gaddis describes as “the convergence or intersection of complementary processes [and] . . . the potential fratricide of contradictory ones.”\(^7\) Having catalogued a wide array of such processes, I then speculate on the various ways in which they could converge and combine to mold the future of U.S.-China relations.

Before turning to the present and the future, it is helpful for a moment to reflect on the past. In his brilliant analysis of the “rise of the Anglo-German antagonism,” Paul Kennedy describes how an assortment of factors—including bilateral economic relations; shifts in the global distribution of power; developments in military technology; domestic political processes; ideological trends; questions of racial, religious, cultural, and national identity; the actions of key individuals; and the sequencing of critical events—combined to lead Britain and Germany to the brink of World War I.\(^8\) Whether the story turns out well or poorly, tomorrow’s historians will have to do something similar if they are to construct satisfactory explanations for the evolution of U.S.-China relations in the latter part of the twentieth century and the early decades of the twenty-first. As they try to peer into a future that is necessarily obscured from their view, today’s political scientists and foreign policy analysts also need to

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try to find ways of apprehending the full array of causal forces that are at work, assessing their relative strengths and thinking about the ways in which they are likely to combine with one another. This is not an easy task and, indeed, it is impossible to accomplish with any degree of assurance or precision. Nevertheless, it is an important exercise to attempt.

**Liberal Optimists**

In foreign affairs, most Americans are liberals. As regards the prospects for peace, cooperation, and understanding among nations, most liberals are optimists. It should therefore come as no surprise that liberal optimists are common and probably, in numerical terms, dominant among U.S. analysts, policymakers, and China watchers. On the question of the future of U.S.-China relations and, more generally, regarding the future of world politics, liberal optimists believe in the pacifying power of three interrelated and mutually reinforcing causal mechanisms: economic interdependence, international institutions, and democratization.

**ECONOMIC INTERDEPENDENCE**

Liberal optimists believe that bilateral economic exchange creates shared interests in good relations between states. The greater the volume of trade and investment flowing between two countries, the more groups on both sides will have a strong interest in avoiding conflict and preserving peace.

Liberal optimists note that economic exchange between the United States and China has increased dramatically since the onset of market reforms in China in the late 1970s. From the start of reform in 1978 to the end of the twentieth century, the value of the trade moving between the two countries grew by more than two orders of magnitude, from $1 billion to almost $120 billion annually. By 2004 that figure had doubled to a reported total of $245 billion.

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9. This is a fact lamented by U.S. realists. See, for example, the writings of George Kennan, Henry Kissinger, Hans Morgenthau and, most recently, John Mearsheimer.

10. For an examination of the original formulation of these arguments by Immanuel Kant, see Michael Doyle, *Ways of War and Peace: Realism, Liberalism, and Socialism* (New York: W.W. Norton, 1997), pp. 251–300. For an overview of recent evidence regarding the existence of what liberal optimists describe as the “Kantian triangle,” see Bruce Russett and John Oneal, *Triangulating Peace: Democracy, Interdependence, and International Organizations* (New York: W.W. Norton, 2001).


Capital flows have also risen, with U.S. investors pouring significant resources each year into China. As China enters the World Trade Organization (WTO) and opens its markets even wider to foreign goods and capital, the density of commercial linkages between the United States and the PRC will increase. Economic interdependence has already helped to create a strong mutual interest in peace between the two Pacific powers. Barring some major disruption, economic forces will probably continue to draw them together, constraining and damping any tendencies toward conflict.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

In addition to their faith in trade as an instrument of peace, liberal optimists place great store in the role of international institutions of various kinds. These can help to improve communication between states, reducing uncertainty about intentions and increasing the capacity of governments to make credible, binding commitments to one another. By so doing, they can help to ease or counteract some of the pernicious effects of international anarchy, clearing the way for higher levels of cooperation and trust than would otherwise be attainable.

As regards U.S.-China relations, liberal optimists note that since the end of the Cold War there has been a proliferation of regional institutions in East Asia. Included among these are APEC (the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation forum); the ARF (the ASEAN [Association of Southeast Asian Nations] Regional Forum); ASEAN + 3; the East Asia Summit; an expanding network of international institutions


bilateral military-to-military talks; and an even wider array of quasi-official track-2 security dialogues involving scholars, analysts, and bureaucrats from countries in the region. Over the course of the last decade, China has also sought entry into several important global institutions, including the WTO (which it entered in 2001) and the nuclear nonproliferation regime (which it joined in 1996). In addition, it has begun to play a more active and prominent role in the United Nations. By one count, the PRC’s membership in formal, international governmental organizations more than doubled between 1977 and 1997 (from 21 to 52), while its membership in international nongovernmental organizations soared during the same period from 71 to 1,163.17

The growth of international institutions in Asia and the expansion of both U.S. and Chinese participation in them are drawing the United States and the PRC into a thickening web of ties that liberal optimists believe will promote contact, communication and, over time, greater mutual understanding and even trust, or at the very least, a reduced likelihood of gross misperception. Aside from whatever direct effects it may have on bilateral relations with the United States, China’s increasing participation in international institutions should also give it a growing, albeit more diffuse, stake in the stability and continuity of the existing global order. The desire of China’s leaders to continue to enjoy the benefits of membership in that order should make them less likely to take steps that would threaten the status quo. This, in turn, should reduce the probability that the PRC will act in ways that could bring it into conflict with the United States, which is, after all, the principal architect, defender, and beneficiary of the contemporary international system.18

DEMOCRATIZATION
Above all else, liberal optimists believe that democracy is a force for peace. Regimes that rely for their power and legitimacy on the consent of the governed are less likely to enter lightly into military adventures or to engage in wars whose true purpose is to line the pockets, and satisfy the vainglory, of their leaders. Although democracies may at times behave belligerently toward nondemocracies, they have rarely, if ever, gone to war with one another. As the number of democracies in the world increases (as it has quite dramatically, albeit at an uneven pace, over the course of the last two centuries), the likelihood of international conflict should diminish.¹⁹

Liberal optimists believe that, although it is still far from finished, the process of democratization is already well under way in China.²⁰ This process is being driven largely by economic development, which, in turn, is being accelerated by China’s increasing openness to trade. Rising per capita incomes are creating a growing Chinese middle class. In Europe and North America, and more recently in Asia, those whose rising incomes allow them to do more than attend to the struggle for daily existence have been the prime movers behind progress toward democracy, and there is every reason to hope that they will play a similar role in China.²¹

Liberals also believe that, in addition to stirring the desire for political rights, economic development creates an objective, functional need for political liberalization. Without courts, contracts, and a reliable rule of law, economic progress will surely falter. Moreover, in an era in which sustained growth depends increasingly on free flows of information, regimes that seek to restrict speech and control communications will be at a fatal disadvantage. Over time, if it wishes even to approach the levels of well-being already attained by its advanced industrial counterparts (all of which are democracies),

China too must become democratic.\textsuperscript{22} As it does, the liberal optimists expect that its relations with the United States will stabilize and that, ultimately, it will enter into the democratic “zone of peace.” Although the process may take time fully to unfold, before too long open conflict between the United States and a democratic China will be as improbable as war among the members of the European Union appears to be today.

Since the mid-1990s the presumed links between trade, growth, democracy, and peace have been staple features of official U.S. rhetoric regarding relations with China. President Bill Clinton began to make these arguments after abandoning his initial flirtation with the idea of linking China’s access to the U.S. market to its performance on human rights issues.\textsuperscript{23} Despite his harsh criticisms of some aspects of the Clinton administration’s policy of “engagement,” candidate and later President George W. Bush embraced the basic logic of the idea that trade promotes democracy, and, ultimately, peace. Thus in a 1999 campaign speech, Bush declared, “Economic freedom creates habits of liberty. And habits of liberty create expectations of democracy. . . . Trade freely with China, and time is on our side.”\textsuperscript{24}

\textbf{Realist Pessimists}

In contrast to liberals, most realists are pessimists. Where liberals see progressive forces leading the world ineluctably to ever-higher levels of prosperity and peace, realists see inescapable laws of nature compelling a recurrent struggle for power and survival. For liberals, history is a smoothly ascending curve;
for realists, it is a vicious circle. The reason, most contemporary realists claim, is the persistence of international anarchy. In the absence of any higher authority to resolve disputes and impose order, peace has usually proved fleeting and conflict has been the norm. Under conditions of anarchy, it is the material power and, in particular, the military strength of the various units in an international system that has typically been decisive in shaping the patterns of relations among them.\(^{25}\)

**CHINA’S POWER: RISING**

For realist pessimists, the single most important feature of the PRC today is its rising power. Everything else, including the likely character of the U.S.-China relationship, follows from this fact. Taking aggregate economic capacity as a rough surrogate for overall national power, it is apparent that China’s growth has been extraordinarily rapid. Since the start of economic reforms in 1978, the PRC’s gross national product (GNP) is thought to have increased by a factor of four and, according to some estimates, it could double again by the middle of the second decade of the twenty-first century.\(^{26}\) What is especially impressive about the Chinese economy is not only the speed with which it appears to be expanding but its growing mass and enormous potential. Given the sheer size of its population and the rising productivity of its workers, China may one day regain its historic position as the world’s largest economy. Although such projections are fraught with difficulties and uncertainties, some experts have calculated that China’s economy could overtake that of the United States as early as 2015.\(^{27}\) The combination of the speed and the magnitude of China’s growth in recent decades appears to be unprecedented. The closest analogy is proba-

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27. See Angus Maddison, *Chinese Economic Performance in the Long-Run* (Paris: Development Center of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1998), pp. 95–99. See also the projections in Yeh, “China’s Economic Growth,” p. 110. These estimates are all based on optimistic projections of China’s future growth rates and the use of purchasing power parity (as compared to exchange rate) conversion methods that tend systematically to increase the apparent size of the Chinese economy in relation to that of the United States. For an estimate that shows China’s gross domestic product exceeding that of the United States in current dollar terms by 2039, see Dominic
bly the emergence of the United States as the world’s preponderant economy over the course of the nineteenth century.

As was true of the United States in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, so too is China’s rapidly growing economy bringing expanding military capabilities in its train. A fast-growing GNP has made it comparatively easy for the PRC to sustain a large and expanding military effort and, in recent years, China’s spending on arms and military equipment has grown at an impressive pace.\(^{28}\) The rising levels of productivity, per capita incomes, and technological competence that accompany economic growth should also translate into an increasing ability both to absorb sophisticated weapons imported from foreign suppliers and eventually to develop such systems indigenously.\(^{29}\) Although the picture is mixed, and the PRC continues to lag in many areas, these expectations too are borne out by the general pattern of Chinese military development over the last several decades. There are good reasons to expect that China will be able to build and deploy more increasingly capable military systems in the years ahead.\(^{30}\)

**CHINA’S AIDS: EXPANDING**

Realist pessimists note that, throughout history, rising powers have tended to be troublemakers, at least insofar as their more established counterparts in the international system are concerned. This is the case, in the realists’ view, regardless of regime type; it was as true of a rising, democratic United States as it was of a rising, autocratic Germany. As Samuel Huntington has pointed out, Wilson and Roopa Purushothaman, “Dreaming with BRICs: The Path to 2050,” Goldman Sachs Global Economics Paper No. 99 (New York: Goldman Sachs Group, 2003).


29. For an analysis of Chinese military imports, see Bates Gill and Taeho Kim, China’s Arms Acquisitions from Abroad: A Quest for “Superb and Secret Weapons” (New York: Oxford University Press, 1995). Regarding China’s protracted and painful efforts to develop its own ballistic missile submarines, see John Wilson Lewis and Xue Litai, China’s Strategic Seapower: The Politics of Force Modernization in the Nuclear Age (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1994).

“The external expansion of the UK and France, Germany and Japan, the Soviet Union and the United States coincided with phases of intense industrialization and economic development.”\(^{31}\)

There appear to be a number of reasons for this pattern. As a state’s capabilities grow, its leaders tend to define their interests more expansively and to seek a greater degree of influence over what is going on around them. Rising powers seek not only to secure their frontiers but to reach out beyond them, taking steps to ensure access to markets, materials, and transportation routes; to protect their citizens far from home, defend their foreign friends and allies, and promulgate their values; and, in general, to have what they consider to be their legitimate say in the affairs of their region and of the wider world. This correlation between growing power and expanding interests has been succinctly summarized by Robert Gilpin: “A more wealthy and more powerful state . . . will select a larger bundle of security and welfare goals than a less wealthy and less powerful state.”\(^{32}\)

As they seek to assert themselves, rising powers are often drawn to challenge territorial boundaries, international institutional arrangements, and hierarchies of prestige that were put in place when they were relatively weak. Their leaders and people often feel that they were unfairly left out when the pie was divided up, and may even believe that, because of their prior weakness, they were robbed of what was rightfully theirs. Like Germany at the turn of the twentieth century, rising powers tend to want their “place in the sun,” and this often brings them into conflict with more established great powers, which are typically the architects and principal beneficiaries of the existing international system.\(^{33}\)

The collision between the expanding interests of a rising power and those of its more established counterparts can be dealt with in a number of ways, but the resulting disputes are seldom resolved peacefully. Recognizing the growing threat to its position, a dominant power (or coalition of status quo powers)

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may attempt to use force preventively to destroy a rising state before it can achieve its full potential. Less bellicose, established powers have also at times sought to appease emerging states, looking for ways to satisfy their demands and ambitions without conflict and to engage them and incorporate them peacefully into an existing international order. However sincere and well-intentioned these efforts may be, they have usually failed. Sometimes the reason is clearly the character of the demands of the rising state. As was true of Adolf Hitler’s Germany, for example, a rising power may have ambitions that are so extensive as to be impossible for the status quo powers to satisfy without effectively committing suicide. Even when the demands being made of them are less extensive, the status quo powers may be too reluctant to make reasonable concessions, thereby fueling the frustrations and resentments of the rising power, or too eager to do so, feeding its ambitions and leading to escalating demands. Successful policies of engagement/appeasement are certainly possible in theory, but in practice they have proven to be difficult to implement.\textsuperscript{34}

Looking at the raw facts of its expanding economy and growing military capabilities, most realist pessimists would be content to conclude that China is a rising power and that, as such, it is unlikely to behave differently than have others of its type throughout history. Thus Huntington, after describing the correlation in past cases between rapid internal growth and external expansion, predicts that China too will “undoubtedly be moving into such a phase in the coming decades.”\textsuperscript{35} Similarly, according to John Mearsheimer, so long as China’s power continues to grow, “China, like all previous potential hegemons, [will] be strongly inclined to become a real hegemon.”\textsuperscript{36}

Some analysts go a step further, arguing that China is especially likely to behave assertively, even at the risk of coming into conflict with others. Recent Chinese history, the “century of humiliation” that began with the Opium Wars of the 1840s and ended only with the final expulsion of foreign powers from the mainland after World War II, appears to have left China’s leaders and its people acutely sensitive to perceived slights to national honor and prestige.

\textsuperscript{34} For an overview of the various alternative strategies states have used to deal with rising powers, see Randall L. Schweller “Managing the Rise of Great Powers: Theory and History,” in Johnston and Ross, Engaging China, pp. 7–17. For an analysis of the unhappy history of past efforts to incorporate rising powers peacefully into existing international systems, see Michael D. Swaine and Ashley J. Tellis, Interpreting China’s Grand Strategy: Past, Present, and Future (Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND, 2000), pp. 197–229.

\textsuperscript{35} Huntington, “America’s Changing Strategic Interests,” p. 12.

\textsuperscript{36} Mearsheimer, The Tragedy of Great Power Politics, p. 400.
and especially alert to threats around their periphery.\textsuperscript{37} As a result of the painful experiences of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, contemporary Chinese strategists may be even more eager than they might otherwise be to establish a sphere of influence or zone of control that would prevent such threats from reemerging in the future.\textsuperscript{38}

Reaching even further back into the past, other observers point to the fact that, before its decline and domination by outside powers, China was for many centuries the preponderant force in Asia and the hub of a Sinocentric Asian international system. As they adapt to the reality of their growing power and look for models to guide their behavior under increasingly favorable conditions, the leadership in Beijing could hearken back to this earlier era of glory and seek to reestablish China as East Asia’s preponderant power.\textsuperscript{39}

Some U.S. government agencies have concluded that China’s current leaders aim to “maximize [China’s] influence within East Asia relative to the U.S.” or, more bluntly, to become “the preeminent power in Asia.”\textsuperscript{40} If this is true, and assuming that the United States continues to adhere to its century-old policy of


\textsuperscript{38} For an analysis that stresses the connections between the past two hundred years of “national decline” and China’s likely goals in “a renewed period of international strength and power,” see Richard Bernstein and Ross H. Munro, \textit{The Coming Conflict with China} (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1997), especially pp. 51–81, at p. 53. Although they reach different conclusions about the likely implications for China’s external behavior, Sinologists Andrew J. Nathan and Robert S. Ross also place considerable emphasis on China’s comparatively recent experiences of vulnerability and weakness. See Nathan and Ross, \textit{The Great Wall and the Empty Fortress: China’s Search for Security} (New York: W.W. Norton, 1997), pp. 19–34.


opposing the dominance of either half of Eurasia by a hostile power or coalition, the stage will be set for an intense and possibly protracted strategic competition between the two Pacific giants.\footnote{For a restatement of the view that “America’s geopolitical objective must remain to prevent Asia’s domination by any single power or its coalescence into an unfriendly bloc,” see Henry A. Kissinger, \textit{Does America Need a Foreign Policy? Towards a Diplomacy for the Twenty-first Century} (New York: Simon and Schuster, 2001), pp. 110–163, at p. 112.}

\section*{The Security Dilemma: Intense}

Even if one does not accept the view that the PRC’s goal is to displace the United States as East Asia’s preponderant power, it is still possible to reach fairly pessimistic conclusions about the likely future character of the U.S.-China relationship by invoking the mechanism of the security dilemma.\footnote{The distinction here is between so-called offensive realists, who believe that states necessarily aim to enhance their power to the greatest extent possible, and “defensive realists,” who believe that most states seek security. See Robert Jervis, “Cooperation under the Security Dilemma,” \textit{World Politics}, Vol. 30, No. 2 (January 1978), pp. 167–174; and Robert Jervis, \textit{Perception and Misperception in International Politics} (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1978), pp. 58–113. For an insightful application to the East Asian context, see Thomas J. Christensen, “China, the U.S.-Japan Alliance, and the Security Dilemma in East Asia,” \textit{International Security}, Vol. 23, No. 4 (Spring 1999), pp. 49–80.} In other words, even if the larger political goals of both sides are, in some sense, purely defensive, the measures that each takes to secure its position and achieve its objectives may still arouse alarm and stimulate countermeasures on the other side. Such processes appear to be at work in several aspects of contemporary U.S.-China relations.

As regards Taiwan, China’s goal may be only to prevent that island from sliding toward independence. The PRC’s leaders may be perfectly willing to live with the status quo indefinitely, but they may believe that they have to issue periodic threats to prevent Taiwan from breaking free. The U.S. objective may be only to prevent forcible reunification. But China’s threats and ongoing military buildup may increase fears that Beijing will eventually feel capable of achieving its objectives through the use of force. To maintain deterrence, Washington may then feel compelled to increase military assistance to Taipei and to take other measures designed to make it appear more likely that the United States would intervene if Taiwan were attacked. But these steps will almost certainly make the PRC more fearful of a Taiwanese bolt for independence, which will cause Beijing to further intensify its military efforts and heighten its rhetoric, and so on.\footnote{For an insightful application to the East Asian context, see Thomas J. Christensen, “China, the U.S.-Japan Alliance, and the Security Dilemma in East Asia,” \textit{International Security}, Vol. 23, No. 4 (Spring 1999), pp. 49–80.}
China’s aim in deploying large numbers of theater ballistic missiles may be primarily to deter Taiwan from declaring independence. But those deployments inevitably appear threatening not only to Taiwan but also to Japan, the United States, and others in the region. Conversely, the U.S. aim in moving toward deployment of some kind of theater missile defense (TMD) system may be to provide a measure of protection to U.S. friends and allies and to its bases and forces in the Western Pacific. But the possibility of such a deployment is obviously deeply threatening to the Chinese, who see it as undermining their ability to prevent unfavorable regional developments, especially if a U.S.-orchestrated TMD system is extended to include Taiwan. Beijing’s concerns about TMD will be further heightened by the deployment of a U.S. national missile defense system, which the Chinese could see as reducing their ability to deter an attack on their own territory. The Chinese response to these developments is likely to include steps to augment both their theater- and intercontinental-range strike forces, which will tend to heighten U.S. anxieties about their intentions.

U.S. government officials see regional alliances as defensive bulwarks of stability and bend over backward to disclaim any intention of encircling or containing China. Not surprisingly, however, Chinese strategists tend to see U.S. behavior in a less benign light. Since the end of the Cold War, the United States has been busy trying to strengthen and solidify its ties to its traditional regional allies (including Japan, South Korea, and Australia) in large part out of concern over the growth of Chinese power. Especially since the latter part of the 1990s, the United States has also been working to expand its network of alliances and quasi alliances in Southeast, South, and Central Asia. The September 11 terrorist attacks have only intensified this trend. Whatever U.S. spokespeople may say, Chinese observers are likely to view much of this activ-


ity as directed at China and as hostile to its interests. Should China seek to oppose U.S. actions, however, by criticizing the persistence of American alliances, or by attempting to bolster its own relationship with Russia or with the Central Asian republics, its actions will be seen by many in the United States as evidence of hostile, expansionist tendencies.\(^\text{45}\)

**Realist Optimists**

Although most realists are pessimists, it is nevertheless possible to arrive at fairly optimistic conclusions about the future of U.S.-China relations on what are essentially realist grounds (i.e., having to do primarily with the distribution of material power and without invoking the Kantian trinity of trade, institutions, and democracy). As discussed earlier, most realist pessimists see China’s power growing and its aims expanding. Even those who do not believe that the emergence of a rising power must lead inevitably to conflict worry about the pernicious workings of the security dilemma. Still, some realists maintain that China’s power is not increasing as rapidly as is often claimed and that its ambitions are, and are likely to remain, modest, even conservative. As to the security dilemma, optimistic realists argue that there may be a variety of other factors at work that will mitigate its effects and help keep relations between Washington and Beijing from spiraling out of control.

**China’s power: limited, and likely to remain so**

All realists would agree that the balance of power between the United States and China will be critical in determining the character of their unfolding relationship. Most would also acknowledge that, at the moment, the United States is vastly more powerful than China, but that, at least in some respects, over the last several decades the PRC’s power has been increasing relative to that of the United States. Where disagreements arise is over the slopes of the two power curves.

Optimistic realists believe both that China is weaker today than it is sometimes made to appear and that the growth of its power over the next several

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decades is likely to be a good deal slower than the pessimists assume.46 Both in
the economic and military domains, there are substantial obstacles to be over-
come if recent rates of growth are to be sustained. In fact, there is a significant
probability that China’s power will not continue to grow at anything resem-
bling the pace of the past two decades. The process of economic expansion, in
particular, may well be disrupted by domestic social and political turbulence.
Moreover, even in the absence of major upheavals, growth could be sig-
ificantly slowed by difficulties in creating efficient, equitable, and open legal
and financial institutions.47 Substantially slower or more uneven economic
growth will make it more difficult for Beijing to fund a sustained expansion in
military capabilities. Noneconomic factors, such as shortcomings in organiza-
tion, education, training, and doctrinal development, may also impede China’s
emergence as a first-class military power.48

Far from drawing closer to the United States in most measures of national
power (to say nothing of surpassing it), China will most likely continue to lag
and may fall even further behind. The likelihood that Beijing will want (or be
able) to mount a serious challenge to the United States is therefore small. To
the contrary, assuming that they are rational, China’s leaders will try to lie low
and to avoid tension or confrontations with the United States, more or less as
they are doing today. China’s continuing weakness, in short, will help to keep
the peace.49

Some realist optimists argue that the United States is now so overwhelm-
ingly powerful that its position is essentially unassailable. For the first time in

46. For the argument that China’s power and importance have been greatly overstated, see Gerald
47. For a useful survey of China’s economic challenges, see Nicholas R. Lardy, China’s Unªnished
of China’s recent economic growth has been considerably overstated. See Thomas G. Rawski, “China
by the Numbers: How Reform Has Affected China’s Economic Statistics,” China Perspectives, No.
33 (January–February 2001), pp. 25–34. Making the case that China’s growth continues to be robust
is Nicholas R. Lardy, “China’s Economy after the WTO,” paper presented to the Thirty-ªrst Sino-
American Conference on Contemporary China, National Chengchi University, Taipei, Taiwan,
June 2–4, 2002. For the argument that China is on the brink of collapse, see Gordon G. Chang, The
48. On China’s present and likely future military shortcomings, see, for example, Solomon
Karmel, China and the People’s Liberation Army: Great Power or Struggling Developing State? (London:
St. Martin’s, 2000); Michael G. Gallagher, “China’s Illusory Threat to the South China Sea,” Interna-
“China’s Hollow Military,” National Interest, No. 56 (Summer 1999), pp. 55–62; and Michael
pp. 51–86.
49. For a statement of many of the arguments laid out above, see Michael R. Chambers, “Rising
modern history, the structure of the international system is truly unipolar. As a result, many traditional assumptions and expectations regarding the conduct of international politics no longer apply. Neither China, nor any other potential rising power, nor any plausible combination of potential opposing nations has sufficient resources to match those of the United States. Instead of balancing against American power, most other states will seek to jump on the U.S. bandwagon, or at least to stay well out of its way. Moreover, the very size of the power gap separating the United States from the rest of the world is so large as to diminish the prospects for misperception or miscalculation. Fine-grained calculations of relative capabilities will not be necessary to determine the likely outcome of any direct confrontation with the United States. This fact should help to reduce the likelihood that China’s leaders or those of any other country will be able to convince themselves that they stand to gain by challenging U.S. interests.  

ists rather than revolutionaries, states that seek marginal adjustments to the status quo rather than fundamental change.  

In contrast to the 1950s and 1960s, China today does not appear to be a revolutionary power in any sense of the term. It has abandoned its earlier goal of spreading communism throughout Asia and, indeed, is no longer itself an adherent to Marxist-Leninist-Maoist ideology. The concrete changes to the status quo that China’s leaders seek are, arguably, comparatively limited: the reintegration of Taiwan with the mainland, rectification of some disputed borders, and the acceptance by the international community of its claims to portions of the South China Sea. If these issues can be peacefully resolved, China could well enter the ranks of the satisfied states. Chinese spokespeople assert (and many American China-watchers agree) that China has no modern history of extensive territorial conquest and, with the few exceptions already noted, no visible desire to expand. China may not yet be a status quo power, but it is a cautious power with limited aims, a “conservative power,” in the words of one leading American China expert. Putting aside the question of the rate at which its capabilities are growing, China’s ambitions are such that the prospects for conflict with the United States should be limited.

THE SECURITY DILEMMA: MUTED

Even those observers who accept the realist optimists’ judgments about China’s true power and capabilities might still be concerned about the workings of the security dilemma. Whatever the objective realities, mutual fear and suspicion can still fuel arms races and trigger downward spirals. Realist optimists respond to this concern by pointing to the existence of several counter-

51. In addition, Schweller points out that rising powers may vary in their propensity to take risks, with some risk acceptant and others highly risk averse. See the discussion in Randall L. Schweller, “Managing the Rise of Great Powers: Theory and History,” in Johnston and Ross, Engaging China, pp. 18–22.
vailing mechanisms that they believe will tend to reduce the danger of misperception and conflict.

First, some realist optimists argue that the structure of the emerging post–Cold War East Asian system is essentially bipolar. The Soviet Union’s collapse and Japan’s prolonged economic stagnation have left the United States and the PRC as the two leading regional powers. Assuming that the United States remains engaged and that China’s power continues to grow at least to some degree, the basic trend toward bipolarity should become even more pronounced over the next several decades. Following the logic developed by Kenneth Waltz, and drawing on the experience of the Cold War, realist optimists believe that a bipolar Asia is likely to be tense but basically stable. Under conditions of bipolarity, the two preeminent powers will eye each other with mistrust. In part because they focus so intently on each other, however, they are less likely to make misjudgments about their respective capabilities and intentions. The huge gap between the two poles and other states in the system also reduces the possibility of sudden shifts in the balance of power resulting from changes in the allegiance of third parties.  

As during the Cold War, the mutual possession of nuclear weapons by the two polar powers should serve as an additional source of constraint on their behavior. This factor is stressed, for example, by Avery Goldstein who argues that it provides “the strongest reasons to expect that the dangers associated with China’s arrival as a full-fledged great power will be limited.” Goldstein suggests that, as participants in what Robert Jervis has called the “nuclear revolution,” the United States and China have already entered into an “easily established [relationship] of mutual deterrence that provide[s] not only a robust buffer against general war, but also a strong constraint on both limited war and crisis behavior.”

Finally, realist optimists such as Robert Ross and Michael McDevitt believe that geography will greatly enhance the stability of the emerging U.S.-China


relationship. The United States, in this view, is a maritime power. Its interests and sphere of influence are, and likely will remain, centered offshore in Northeast and maritime Southeast Asia. China, by contrast, is and has historically been primarily a land power. Its “natural” sphere of influence will include Central Asia and continental Southeast Asia. Ross maintains that these spheres of influence do not overlap, with the possible exceptions of the Korean Peninsula, Taiwan, and the Spratly Islands. Provided that the issues relating to these three areas can be properly managed, there should be little reason or occasion for the United States and China to come into direct conflict. These circumstances stand in marked contrast to those that prevailed during the Cold War, when the United States and the Soviet Union had overlapping, physically contiguous spheres of influence in Central Europe, a situation that produced much tension and considerable danger, especially during the initial stages of the superpower competition.  

Liberal Pessimists

Just as there can be optimistic realists, so also it is possible to be pessimistic on what are essentially liberal grounds—that is, with reference primarily to the internal structures and domestic political dynamics of the United States and China—and to the interactions between them that may arise as a result of their very different regimes.

CHINA: AN AUTHORITARIAN REGIME IN TRANSITION?

Whatever it may eventually become, most observers would agree that China today is neither a totalitarian state nor a democracy, but rather an authoritarian regime of dubious legitimacy with an uncertain grip on power. Its leaders are the inheritors of an ideology that has lost most of its appeal and, far from being able to rely on the freely given support of their people, they are heavily dependent on the military and domestic security services for the preservation


of domestic order. The Beijing government now bases its claim to rule less on communist principles than on the promise of continued increases in prosperity (and the avoidance of social chaos), combined with appeals to nationalism. This is a dangerous and unstable mixture. If economic progress falters, the present government will have little choice but to lean even more heavily on nationalist appeals as its sole remaining source of support. It may also be inclined to resort to assertive external policies as a way of rallying the Chinese people and turning their energies and frustrations outward, most likely toward Taiwan or Japan or the United States, rather than inward, toward Beijing. Indeed, many analysts believe that China’s rulers have already shown an increased inclination to behave in this way over the course of the past decade.\textsuperscript{58}

These tendencies toward hypernationalist rhetoric and action may actually be made worse by movement toward a more open and competitive political system. Based on a statistical analysis of historical cases, Edward Mansfield and Jack Snyder have concluded that it is precisely when nations are in transition from authoritarianism toward democracy that they are most likely to initiate conflict with their neighbors. Both stable autocracies and stable democracies are generally less war-prone.\textsuperscript{59} The reasons for this pattern appear to lie in the internal processes of societies in which the pressures for political participation are increasing, but in which effective democratic institutions have yet to emerge. Elites in such societies often use militant nationalist appeals in an attempt to mobilize and channel mass support without surrendering their grip on power. In Snyder’s words, the resort to nationalism has often been accompanied by militarism and by “the scapegoating of enemies of the nation at home and abroad.”\textsuperscript{60} If past patterns hold, and if China is indeed in the early


stages of democratization, the road ahead may well be bumpy. Ironically, the
prospects for a worsening in U.S.-China relations may actually be greater than
they would be if China were to remain a stable autocracy.

Suppose that China does come to more closely resemble a fully functioning
democracy, with elections, competing political parties, and an open press. Will
this lead to a transformation in relations between it and the United States? Lib-
eral pessimists might agree that, in the long run, this will probably be the case.
But they would also point out that even a much more democratic China may
still be prone to behave in ways that could bring it into conflict with the United
States. Democracies are not always placid or peaceful, especially in the early
stages of their political development. Some observers have suggested that, at
least for a time, a democratic government in Beijing could well be more nation-
alist and assertive than the present regime. According to one scholar, such a
regime “free from the debilitating concerns for its own survival but likely
driven by popular emotions, could make the rising Chinese power a much
more assertive, impatient, belligerent, even aggressive force, at least during the
unstable period of fast ascendance to the ranks of a world-class power.”

THE UNITED STATES: A CRUSADING LIBERAL DEMOCRACY?
Changes in Chinese political institutions may increase the likelihood that
China will collide with the United States. If China does not change, however,
certain persistent features of America’s domestic regime appear likely to in-
cline the United States toward conflict with the PRC. This conclusion follows
first of all from the obverse of the “democratic peace” argument. Democracies
may be less likely to come into conflict with other democracies, but they have
historically been more prone to be suspicious of, and hostile toward, what they
perceive to be nondemocratic regimes. As Michael Doyle has pointed out,
“The very constitutional restraint, shared commercial interests, and interna-
tional respect for individual rights that promote peace among liberal societies

60. Jack Snyder, From Voting to Violence: Democratization and Nationalist Conflict (New York: W.W.
61. Fei-Ling Wang, “Self-Image and Strategic Intentions: National Confidence and Political Inse-
curity,” in Yong Deng and Wang, eds., In the Eyes of the Dragon: China Views the World (Lanham,
Md.: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999), p. 35. For the contrary argument, see Willy Wo-Lap Lam, “The
Prospects of Political Liberalization in China,” paper presented at a seminar of the Project for the
New American Century, Washington, D.C., October 8, 1999. See also the provocative analysis in
Bruce Gilley, China’s Democratic Future: How It Will Happen and Where It Will Lead (New York: Co-
can exacerbate conflicts in relations between liberal and nonliberal societies.” Relations between liberal and nonliberal states are always conducted in an “atmosphere of suspicion” in part because of “the perception by liberal states that nonliberal states are in a permanent state of aggression against their own people.”

Whatever it may ultimately become, China is not now a liberal democracy. It should therefore come as no surprise that many Americans regard it with suspicion and a measure of hostility. Seen in this light, disputes between the United States and China over human rights (for example) are not just a minor irritant in the relationship. They are instead symptomatic of a deeper difficulty that cannot easily be smoothed over. From the U.S. perspective, human rights violations are not only intrinsically wrong; they are also a sure sign that a regime is evil and illegitimate, and therefore cannot be trusted. The possibility of a stable relationship with such a regime is remote, at best.

If the United States is more likely to be hostile toward China because it is not a democracy, it is also more inclined to assist polities that it perceives to be democratic if they are threatened by China, even if this is not what a pure realpolitik calculation of its interests might seem to demand. Thus it was one thing for Henry Kissinger and Richard Nixon to distance the United States from Taiwan when it was widely perceived by Americans to have a corrupt, authoritarian government. It will be considerably more difficult for future U.S. leaders to do so to the extent that the American people come to regard Taiwan as a functioning fellow democracy—even if U.S. support for Taiwan risks a worsening in relations with the PRC and perhaps even if it threatens to lead to war. For better or worse, the United States is a profoundly ideological country, and its foreign policy has always been shaped by its ideals, even when those might appear to conflict with its material interests.


Liberal pessimists worry that the disparate character of the U.S. and Chinese regimes could produce a vicious cycle of mutually reinforcing suspicions and fears. As has already been suggested, many Americans regard China as a repressive, authoritarian country. Actions that the present Chinese regime has taken in the past and may take in the future to retain its grip on power—such as cracking down on dissidents, persecuting religious groups, restricting access to the internet, or issuing blood-curdling threats against Taiwan—are merely going to bolster this view. For its part, no matter what the U.S. government says, the present Chinese leadership is likely to remain convinced that the ultimate goal of the American policy of “engagement” is to undermine their legitimacy and to overthrow them through a process of “peaceful evolution.”

Actions that the U.S. government (or simply the Congress or even private American citizens) have taken and are likely to take to express disapproval of Chinese behavior—such as criticizing Beijing on human rights, funding Radio Free Asia, issuing statements of support for Taiwan, or displaying sympathy for the Dali Lama—will inevitably confirm some Chinese leaders’ darkest view of U.S. intentions. Ideological differences, and ideologically rooted animosities, may thus tend to reinforce the dynamics of mutual insecurity at work in the U.S.-China relationship in ways that an exclusively realist analysis would tend to downplay or ignore.

Even though the domestic structures of the Chinese and U.S. regimes are obviously profoundly different, their internal workings may be similar in certain respects. Some liberal pessimists would argue that, just as there are groups in China whose narrow political or bureaucratic interests may be served by a competitive relationship with the United States, so also there may be groups in the United States whose members believe they will gain from U.S.-China tension. Such groups will naturally be inclined to favor more confrontational policies, and they will point to each other’s utterances as evidence of the need for such policies. In short, there may exist a tacit, mutually reinforcing alliance of “hawks” that will make it much harder to achieve better, more stable relations. Assessments that overlook the existence of such factors will overstate the prospects for harmony between the United States and the PRC.

65. Although his conclusions are not entirely pessimistic, David Lampton describes how domestic
Constructivist Optimists

Constructivists believe that international relationships (like all political relations) are “socially constructed.” The nature of the interactions between two states is not simply the product of objective, material factors, such as the balance of trade or the balance of military power or the structure of domestic institutions. Interstate relations are also shaped to a considerable degree by subjective factors, by the beliefs and ideas that people carry around in their heads and that cause them to interpret events and data in particular ways. The most important of these can be grouped into three categories: “identities” (i.e., the collective self-perceptions of political actors and their shared perceptions of others); “strategic cultures” (i.e., sets of beliefs about the fundamental character of international politics and about the best ways of coping with it, especially as regards the utility of force and the prospects for cooperation); and “norms” (i.e., beliefs not only about what is efficacious but also about what is right or appropriate in the international realm).66

Identities, strategic cultures, and norms are strongly shaped by the prevailing interpretations of a society’s shared historical experiences. They are transmitted across generational lines by processes of education and acculturation and, though not cast in stone, they do tend to be highly resistant to change. The primary mechanism by which widely held beliefs evolve and are sometimes transformed is through interaction with others. Such interactions convey new information and ideas that can help to displace prevailing conceptions.67

Because their theoretical perspective causes them to be attentive to the po-

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tential malleability of social relationships, constructivists tend to be optimists. If international politics is truly governed by scientific laws rooted in material reality, like the laws of physics, then what people believe about how the world works will matter only to the extent that it conforms to or deviates from reality. A man who chooses to step off the roof of a tall building because he prefers not to believe in the force of gravity will nevertheless fall quickly to the ground. Similarly, in the view of the pessimistic realists, the leader of a dominant state who does not believe that his country’s position will be challenged by a rising power (or who believes that such a power can be dissuaded from pursuing its ambitions by gentle diplomacy) is destined to be disappointed. But if relations between nations are shaped above all by beliefs, rather than objective material factors, there is always the possibility that people can change the world by changing how they think. At the most general level, constructivists assert that international politics tends to be competitive and violent, not because some immutable principles of human behavior require that it be so but rather because, across the centuries, national leaders have tended to believe this to be the case. By acting in accordance with their pessimistic expectations, leaders have helped to make them come true. As Alexander Wendt puts it, “Realism is a self-fulfilling prophecy.” Provided that it was widely shared among the world’s most powerful nations, a more optimistic assessment of the prospects for, and benefits of, international cooperation could achieve similar status.

As regards the U.S.-China relationship, optimistic constructivists generally emphasize the possibility that China’s increasing participation in international institutions of various kinds will lead to shifts in its strategic culture, in the norms of international behavior accepted by its leaders, and ultimately in their conceptions of national identity. In contrast to liberal optimists, who stress the role of institutions in altering the narrow cost-benefit calculations of rational decisionmakers, constructivists believe that repeated interactions can actually change the underlying beliefs, interests, and mental categories of those who participate in them. Thus it may be true that some significant fraction of China’s rulers are still in the grips of old-fashioned ideas about the zero-sum character of international relations and about the potential utility of deception, surprise, and force in resolving interstate disputes. These ideas may appear to be deeply rooted in traditional Chinese statecraft, as passed down in ancient

texts, taught in military academies, and absorbed through the skin, as it were, by anyone raised in Chinese culture. But what Iain Johnston has referred to as the “parabellum paradigm” can be softened over time by repeated contacts between Chinese statesmen, scholars, and soldiers and their less fatalistic foreign counterparts.69 Optimistic constructivists believe that it was exactly these types of interactions between Soviet and Western scientists and arms control experts that helped to alter the course of Soviet foreign policy in the 1980s and to bring the Cold War to a peaceful conclusion.70 A similar process of externally induced intellectual evolution is certainly possible in China and indeed, in the view of some optimists, it may already be well under way.

At the same time as China’s strategic culture is shifting, its leaders may be moving toward a much broader embrace of what are essentially liberal norms and expectations regarding international behavior. Again, the mechanism at work here is not merely a calculation of material benefits but a process of socialization that reflects China’s profound desire to be accepted as a modern, advanced country and a citizen in good standing of the world community. According to Johnston and coauthor Paul Evans, China’s recent willingness to enter into multilateral international institutions such as the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty reflects the fact that its leaders are becoming “more sensitive to social incentives” and more fearful “of appearing to be the pariah.”71 Whereas only a few years ago China’s rulers would have shunned participation in international institutions in the belief that it would impose unacceptable constraints on their freedom of action, today they are increasingly ready, even eager to join up. Participation and norm change are thus mutually reinforcing mechanisms: the more deeply embedded China becomes in the web of regional and global institutions, the more the beliefs and expectations of its leaders will come to conform to the emerging universal consensus that those institutions embody.72

70. See, for example, Matthew Evangelista, Unarmed Forces: The Transnational Movement to End the Cold War (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1999).
72. For a careful assessment of what he describes as China’s gradually increasing “comfort level” with regional security institutions, see Alastair Iain Johnston, “The Myth of the ASEAN Way? Ex-
Optimistic constructivists hope that repeated interactions with the outside world will cause the beliefs of China’s leaders and its people to evolve in ways that are conducive to and, indeed, productive of, long-term improvements in U.S.-PRC relations. But there is no reason why this must necessarily be the case and several reasons to fear that it might not be. First, as constructivists of all types would be quick to point out, existing mental constructs and the social structures to which they give rise are deeply rooted. Even under the best of conditions, positive change is likely to be a long time in coming; it may be the product of years, even decades of dialogue and exchange. In the meantime it may well be, as Thomas Berger claims, that “the chief source of instability in [Asia] today lies in the peculiar construction of national identity and interest on the part of the chief regional actors.” Scholars have noted the intensity and persistence of the hostile images that Chinese and Korean observers have of Japan. The mutual perceptions of Americans and Chinese are not nearly so problematic, at least at present. As has already been noted, however, there is a significant measure of suspicion on both sides. Pending some truly dramatic shift in the character of the Chinese regime, many Americans are likely to continue to regard it as illegitimate and potentially dangerous and to see themselves as the defenders of freedom in Asia. Unless the United States draws back from its present position of preponderance in the region or simply changes its policies on Taiwan, many Chinese are likely to continue to regard it
as an intrusive bully and to see themselves as the aggrieved victims of yet another aggressive foreign power.

Repeated interaction can erode old identities and transform existing social structures, but it can also reinforce them. Indeed, as Wendt notes, the tendency of any structure of beliefs and expectations, once established, is to become “an objective social fact that reinforces certain behaviors and discourages others.” Thus, in situations characterized by intense competition and minimal trust, self-denying gestures intended to reduce tensions are prone to misinterpretation or exploitation, thereby making them less likely to be repeated. Participants in an established social system may also have a strong desire to maintain “relatively stable role identities,” in part because of the psychological need “to minimize uncertainty and anxiety.” Frequent contact with others, especially those who challenge existing identities, can lead to “perceptions of threat and these may cause resistance to transformations of the self and thus to social change.”

It is not difficult to imagine how such processes might be at work in the current U.S.-China relationship. Ritualized U.S. criticism of the PRC’s human rights practices probably reinforces the impression that the United States seeks to undermine the current Chinese regime. Repeated instances of what the United States regards as cheating or evasion on agreements intended to limit the proliferation of missiles and weapons of mass destruction give credence to the view that Chinese and U.S. interests on this important issue do not truly coincide. And despite all that has been claimed for them, there is no guarantee that repeated contacts between U.S. and Chinese military officers will build trust or make either side regard the other as less threatening.

In addition to regular, sustained, and institutionalized contact, existing beliefs can be shaped, and sometimes either transformed or strongly reinforced, by more dramatic forms of interaction. Intense, often unanticipated crises, in particular, can be defining moments that leave people on one side or the other (or both) convinced that those they are confronting are good (or bad), friends (or foes). So, for example, the accidental U.S. bombing of the Chinese embassy in Serbia in 1999 during the Kosovo conflict may appear, in retrospect, as one such moment. Future historians may come to regard it as a critical turning

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point at which a rising generation of Chinese leaders were confirmed in their realpolitik view of the world; militant, assertive forms of nationalism began to dominate Chinese political discourse; and public perceptions of the United States became harsher and less favorable.78 Such negative shifts in attitude are not inevitable, but they are possible. A hardening of hostile images and attitudes would make it that much more difficult to steer U.S.-China relations onto a peaceful path, whatever the “objective” balance of factors and forces might be.

Synthesis

Each of the six sets of arguments reviewed here and summarized in Table 1 is at least superficially plausible; each is logical and can be bolstered with empirical evidence from contemporary U.S.-China relations or from the history of great power politics. It may be, in fact, that each of the six positions surveyed captures some aspect of reality and that most, and perhaps all, of the causal mechanisms that they describe are at work simultaneously. The real questions concern the comparative strength and combined effects of those mechanisms.

A simple physical metaphor can help in thinking through this issue. The contemporary U.S.-China relationship is clearly mixed, consisting of an array of cooperative and competitive elements. At any given moment, the relationship can be pictured as residing somewhere along a spectrum that extends from pure cooperation at one extreme to unrestrained competition and conflict at the other.

There are causal forces at work today that are pushing the relationship toward conflict (those identified by the pessimists) and other, countervailing forces (emphasized by the optimists) that, operating alone, would tend to promote peace. The future of the U.S.-China relationship will be determined by the collision between these two opposing sets of forces; where matters stand in ten or twenty years will depend either on the relative strength of those two causal vectors over time or on the shifting size and direction of the resultant vector that is produced by their collision. In Figure 1, by way of illustration, the forces tending toward cooperation are pictured as stronger than those that point toward competition. As a result, the relationship improves with the passage of time, moving from a state in which the competitive aspects dominate ($x_t$) to one in which there is a larger element of cooperation ($x_{t+1}$).

How might the assortment of causal mechanisms discussed earlier combine to shape the future of U.S.-China relations? There are three broad categories of answers to this question. I discuss each briefly below, concluding with the one that, for reasons I suggest later, seems the most plausible.

**SIMPLE PREPONDERANCE**
The first possibility is the one asserted or implied by the advocates of what might be termed “simple paradigmatic preponderance.” Such individuals (usually either liberal optimists or realist pessimists) believe that the mechanisms they have identified are so powerful as to outweigh the effects of any
other forces, whether opposing or reinforcing. Thus a true realist pessimist would argue that, assuming China’s power continues to grow, the PRC will be led inevitably into conflict with the United States, regardless of whatever changes may occur in the character of its domestic regime. The mutual hostilities and suspicions that liberal and constructivist pessimists point to as contributing causes to possible conflict are, in this view, mere by-products of the shifting power relations between the United States and the PRC; they lack independent causal significance. The allegedly peace-producing mechanisms emphasized by the optimists, on the other hand, are, at best, weak reeds and more likely illusions. Optimistic realists who believe that China’s ambitions will be limited (assuming, again, that the PRC’s power grows), or who put their faith in the possibility that geography or technology (or arms control treaties) can mute the security dilemma, are misguided and perhaps should not even be considered realists. As in the past, the liberal panaceas of international trade and institutions will prove insufficient to keep the peace between contending great powers. The notion that dialogue between U.S. and Chinese government officials will lead to a convergence of norms, identities, and strategic cultures is laughable, if not downright dangerous. To return to Figure 1, if these assertions are correct, the vector pointing toward conflict will be far larger than the one opposing it, and it will derive most, if not all, of its strength from the causal forces identified by the realist pessimists.

A thoroughgoing liberal optimist would follow a similarly linear chain of reasoning to arrive at opposite conclusions. Thus even as China becomes wealthy and powerful, the attractive force of shared economic interests and the soothing effects of institutional integration will be sufficient to forestall any prospect of direct conflict. China’s inevitable transition to democracy will effectively eliminate the possibility of a U.S.-PRC war and smooth the way for a lasting accommodation between the two great powers. All the forces that might seem to oppose this development will appear in retrospect to have been weak and, in the grand sweep of history, insignificant.

ADDITIVE EFFECTS
A second possibility is that the future will be determined by the combined effects of similarly aligned causal forces. Thus, the deepest and most fundamental cause of an emerging U.S.-China competition may well be the kind of raw power political competition emphasized by the realist pessimists. As has been suggested, however, the dynamics of power politics can be amplified by other
types of forces that fall outside the realists’ ken. As some liberal pessimists suggest, the evolution of the U.S.-PRC relationship may be strongly shaped by ideological factors. Certainly if China were a liberal democracy instead of a one-party authoritarian state, it would be easier to imagine that Americans would not feel as threatened by a continuing expansion in its national power. For as long as they persist, the differences in ideology and regime type that presently separate the United States and China will make it far more difficult for the two countries’ leaders to work out some kind of mutually acceptable modus vivendi. The reinforcement of hostile images and opposing identities that pessimistic constructivists worry about could also play a critical role in this process. If Americans or Chinese (or both) become convinced that their counterparts are implacably hostile and that conflict is therefore inevitable, they will no doubt act in ways that make it far more likely.

The factors stressed by the different brands of optimism could also act in mutually reinforcing ways. It may be the case, for example, that the processes of economic growth, institutional entanglement, and domestic liberalization on which liberal optimists pin their hopes will exert profound, albeit gradual, effects on U.S.-China relations. The softening of strategic cultures and the normative convergence that optimistic constructivists believe to be possible could also take years, if not decades, to make their impact felt. In the meantime, however, if China’s power grows relatively slowly, if its ambitions stay constrained, and if the security dilemma is muted, the prospects for direct confrontation with the United States could remain limited. Absent the mechanisms identified by the realist optimists, the prospects for peace might not be very good, especially in the near term; once they are factored into the equation, the chances for an eventual stable, cooperative outcome appear much better. In this case, the vector pointing toward peace will be the product of several contributing forces, and it will be all the more potent as a result.

Offsetting Effects
There is, finally, the strong possibility that, in addition to amplifying one another in certain respects, some of the forces catalogued above will prove to be mutually offsetting. The future of U.S.-China relations is likely to be determined, in short, by what John Lewis Gaddis calls the “fratricide” of contradic-

tory tendencies as well as the “convergence” of complementary ones. Indeed, it may be the case that the two opposing vectors pictured in Figure 1 are now of roughly equal strength and that they will remain so for some time to come. If so, then the fundamentally mixed character of the U.S.-China relationship will not change very much, perhaps oscillating within a fairly narrow range, with periodic shifts toward greater cooperation or increased competition, but without a clear trend in either direction. This is a plausible characterization of the course of events since 1989, and there are reasons to believe that the pattern will be sustained in the immediate future and perhaps well beyond.

In the near term, as in the recent past, the competition-inducing mechanisms identified by the pessimists will continue to exert a strong influence. The two most important factors on this side of the equation will be the rate of growth of China’s material power and the developmental trajectory of its domestic political institutions. If the PRC continues to grow wealthier and stronger without significant political liberalization, the tendencies toward competition with the United States will remain and will likely become more intense, amplified by the workings of the security dilemma, by mutual, ideologically rooted fear and suspicion, and, perhaps, by the expanding ambitions of China’s autocratic rulers. Even without a major, transformative crisis, under such circumstances hostile images of the other side could become more pervasive in both societies, and the domestic political incentives for tougher, more confrontational policies may also grow.

Fortunately, a number of the factors to which the optimists point seem likely to continue to act as a brake on what might otherwise be an unchecked slide toward mounting competition and increasingly open confrontation. Assuming that they persist and grow, the mutual gains from an expanding economic relationship will remain the single most important peace-inducing force at work in U.S.-China relations. The potential costs of a conflict between the two powers, especially given that both possess nuclear weapons, should also help to keep competitive impulses within bounds and to make both sides very wary of embarking on any course that could risk direct conflict. The emergence of a group of Chinese “new thinkers” could also contribute to a less zero-sum, hard realpolitik approach to relations with the United States. As with the Soviet Union during the era of perestroika, so also in this case changes in high-level thinking could have a calming effect on bilateral relations, even if they were not accompanied immediately by more profound and far-reaching domestic political reforms.
The collision between these opposing sets of forces will produce a U.S.-China relationship that continues to be characterized by constrained, or bounded, competition. As they do today, the two countries will trade, talk, and cooperate on some issues, but they will still regard each other with profound mistrust, maneuvering for diplomatic advantage and developing their military capabilities with an eye toward a possible future confrontation. This kind of ambivalent situation will be different from those the United States has generally had to deal with over the past half century, a period during which the world tended to be divided neatly between major U.S. allies and economic partners, on the one hand, and open enemies (with whom the United States traded and talked relatively little, if at all), on the other. Mixed relations are, however, far more typical of the history of great power politics.

Could the competition-enhancing tendencies inherent in the growth of China’s wealth and power eventually be overcome by the cooperation-inducing tendencies produced by the liberalization of its domestic political system? This is a possibility, but it is by no means a certainty. If the realist pessimist purists are right, the policies pursued by a rising, democratic China will not differ greatly from those of a rising, authoritarian state. Even if this turns out not to be the case in the long run, there may well be an uncomfortable interval during which (as the liberal pessimists predict) a more open Chinese political system gives rise to more nationalistic and assertive foreign policies. In short, relations between Washington and Beijing may worsen before they improve. Navigating the dangers of a transitional period in China could well be among the greatest geopolitical challenges facing the United States in the years ahead.

The physical image of roughly balanced opposing forces suggests a degree of tension and potential instability. In such circumstances a change on one side or the other can yield dramatic, discontinuous shifts. Such possibilities exist in the political world as well. With reference once again to the end of the U.S.-Soviet Cold War, it is possible to imagine that a sudden breakthrough toward domestic political reform in China could open the way for radically improved relations with the United States. At the same time, however, it is conceivable that an unanticipated or mismanaged crisis (over Taiwan, for example, or North Korea, or in South Asia) could lead to the opposite result. If the United States and China were somehow to lurch from constrained competition to direct confrontation, their relationship would be transformed overnight. Trade and diplomacy would be disrupted; hostile images would harden; domestic
political reform in China might be derailed; and the prospect of a genuine entente between the two Pacific powers could be put off for a generation or even more.

Here again the history of the Anglo-German relationship comes to mind. At the turn of the twentieth century, many observers in both Britain and Germany predicted that the two powers would be drawn together ineluctably by their growing economic links and societal connections, by a recognition of the underlying compatibility of their strategic interests, and by the eventual convergence of their domestic political systems. Such hopes were eventually borne out, of course, but only after the passage of another half century and two horrific wars. There is every reason to hope that U.S.-China relations will follow a smoother and more peaceful course. But neither history nor theory can provide any assurances that it will be so.