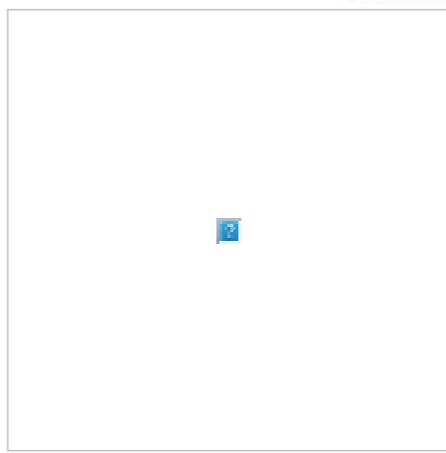


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## Self strengthening movement china



**Self strengthening movement china pdf. The self strengthening movement did not succeed in china because. The self strengthening movement in china during the 19th century aimed to. Self strengthening movement china ignou. Self strengthening movement china definition. Self strengthening movement china cause. Why did china's self strengthening movement fail. Self strengthening movement china ap world. What led to problems within the self strengthening movement in china in the 1860s. What was the goal of china's self strengthening movement. Which of the following was accomplished by the self strengthening movement in china. Self strengthening movement china cause and effect. The self strengthening movement in china resulted in. Self strengthening movement china studocu. Self strengthening movement china in hindi.**



China's modernization push during the 19th century was marked by the Self-Strengthening Movement, a period of trying to bridge the gap with European nations in terms of industry and defense. The movement was sparked by China's defeat in the Second Opium War, the humiliating Treaty of Tientsin, and the Taiping Rebellion. Instead of overthrowing the Qing dynasty, advocates of Self-Strengthening aimed to preserve traditional Confucian values while embracing Western military and industrial practices. This meant engaging with foreign nations, studying their languages, and adopting their technology. Key figures like Zeng Guofan and Zuo Zongtang initiated projects in ship-building and armaments production, but the most prominent advocate was Li Hongzhang. He set up Western-style military academies, built fortifications around Chinese ports, and developed capitalist enterprises including railways, shipping infrastructure, and telegraph lines. Despite efforts to balance Confucian ethics with Western science, the Self-Strengthening Movement ultimately failed due to inadequate government support, bureaucratic opposition, and China's decentralised administration. The Self-Strengthening Movement in Qing China, initiated in the mid-19th century, was an attempt to address military weakness by adopting Western methods. Despite producing some provincial successes in economic and military reforms, the movement ultimately failed due to its narrow focus, lack of national support, and decentralised governance. The failure became evident with consecutive defeats against France and Japan, leading to increased calls for change. Japan's remarkable transformation from a feudal society to a modern industrial nation served as a stark contrast, prompting debate among Chinese leaders about whether to adopt the Meiji reforms or forge their own path towards modernisation. This webpage describes the Self-Strengthening Movement in Qing China, which took place from 1861 to 1895. The movement aimed to modernize and reform China through adopting Western technology, military tactics, and administrative systems. It was also known as the Western Affairs Movement. The movement had several key figures, including Dai Jitao, who advocated for an authoritarian approach to governance. Other influential thinkers of the time included Changism, a form of nationalism that emphasized the importance of the state and traditional values. The Self-Strengthening Movement is often seen as part of a larger ideological shift in China, which included the adoption of new ideas such as capitalism and democracy. However, this movement was also marked by authoritarianism and a strong emphasis on tradition. List of political parties in Hong Kong List of political parties in Taiwan Alliance for Change Alliance for Stability Chinese Nationalist Party Chinese Unification Promotion Party For Public Good Party New Century Forum New People's Party Young China Party People First Party Patriot Alliance Association Republic of China (Taiwan) People First Party Republic of China (Taiwan, other) Democratic Alliance Progressive Party Republican Party Roundtable Strategic Roundtable The Motorists' Party Pro-Kuomintang camp Pro-Beijing camp Confucian Hui pan-nationalism Three Principles of the People Three Represents Xi Jinping Thought Baizuo Chinese Unification Promotion Party Republic of China (Taiwan) Chinese Nationalist Party Republican Party Conservatism in Hong Kong Taiwanese nationalism World League for Freedom and Democracy History of the Kuomintang Liberalism in China Authoritarian capitalism Carl Schmitt Thought Fascism in East Asia The Self-Strengthening Movement was a key moment in Chinese history, marked by Prince Gong's appointment as regent, Grand Councilor, and head of the Zongli Yamen. Local officials like Zeng Guofan established private militias and imported Western military technology to defeat rebels and modernize China's heavy industry and military. By the 1870s and 1880s, provincial officials built shipping lines, telegraph networks, and railways, making significant progress in modernization. While the movement succeeded in revitalizing the Qing dynasty, its conservative Confucian worldview limited social reform to economic and military modernization. The Self-Strengthening Movement's successes ended abruptly with China's defeat in the First Sino-Japanese War in 1895. The Westernization Movement in China emerged as early as the early 19th century, with scholars advocating for the adoption of Western military technology and weapon production. Commissioner Lin Zexu's efforts during the First Opium War, including purchasing Western arms and warships, set a precedent for future reforms. The Taiping rebellion showcased the modernity of Western weapons, which were also adopted by the Xiang Army and Imperial forces. By the 1860s, the Chinese political class had recognized the need for change and began advocating for deeper studies of Western technology. Prince Gong's declaration in July 1861 marked the beginning of a three-phase reform movement. Phase one focused on the adoption of Western firearms, machines, scientific knowledge, and training of technical personnel. Establishment of diplomatic offices and language schools played a crucial role in promoting Western studies. The Tongwen Guan in Beijing offered classes in English, French, Russian, and German, while Li Hongzhang founded similar language schools in Shanghai and other cities. These institutions became the pioneers of Western education, with astronomy and mathematics added to their curriculum in 1867. The Chinese government officials sought to maintain peaceful relations with Western powers through "trust", "faithfulness", "softness", and "patience". China began to allow Western presence in specific treaty ports while strictly prohibiting any other foreign activities. After the First Opium War, Chinese intellectuals showed great enthusiasm for Western science by translating and distributing Western books and newspapers throughout the country. This led to a surge in interest in Western knowledge and technology. In response to treaties with Western powers, the ports of Tianjin and Shanghai were opened to Western trade. Officials were appointed to oversee foreign trade matters at these newly opened ports, effectively confining diplomatic dealings with foreigners to these areas. These officials also took charge of new undertakings utilizing Western knowledge and personnel, making them coordinators of China's self-strengthening efforts. During this phase, communication between the imperial court and foreign diplomats in Beijing was handled by the Self-Strengthening reformers, led by Li Hongzhang. This period saw the establishment of a British-led Inspector-General of the Imperial Maritime Customs Service, which evolved from a previous system established by foreign powers. The service was designed to collect tariffs equitably and generate new revenues for the Qing imperial court. For the remainder of the nineteenth century, China would face significant exploitation through the foreign Maritime Customs system, with Western powers maximizing their control over Chinese trade and revenue collection. The exercise of treaty tariffs on opium and other goods, along with inland navigation, colonies, concession territories, and extraterritoriality, played a crucial role in generating revenue for the Chinese government. The maritime customs service proved to be a reliable source of new income, with revenues increasing from 8.5 million taels of silver in 1865 to 14.5 million taels in 1885, effectively paying off the 1860 indemnities. Additionally, customs revenue supported various new undertakings, such as the Beijing Tongwen Guan and educational missions abroad. However, the customs service faced opposition from the Chinese government regarding the use of British naval units to suppress the Taiping Rebellion, leading to Sir Robert Hart's replacement by Lay in 1863. Hart attempted to introduce reforms aimed at contributing towards China's Self-Strengthening Movement, including establishing a national mint and post office, but his efforts were met with resistance from the imperial court. The Self-Strengthening Movement prioritized the development of military industries, including military arsenals and shipbuilding dockyards, in order to strengthen the Chinese navy. However, regional leaders such as Zeng Guofan and Li Hongzhang, often aided by foreign advisors like Léonce Verny and Prosper Ciquel, established these facilities with varying degrees of success. Despite efforts from powerful regional strongmen, coordination between provinces and the central government remained limited due to bureaucratic inefficiency and nepotism. Many administrative personnel were sinecure holders who gained positions through influence rather than merit. The program's high costs were largely borne by the government, which struggled to overcome these challenges in its pursuit of military modernization. The production of breech-loading rifles based on the Remington design was initiated in 1871 but ultimately produced only 4,200 rifles by 1873, which were not only more expensive but also inferior to imported Remington arms. The shipbuilding efforts during this period were equally disappointing, consuming half of the arsenal's annual income while resulting in vessels that were at least twice as costly as comparable ships available for purchase in Britain. Furthermore, the program faced significant challenges due to a lack of material and human resources, relying heavily on foreign expertise and materials, which led to increased costs. Inadequate procurement practices also contributed to escalating expenses, with many opportunities for corruption existing in construction contracts and worker wage distribution. During this period, army organization underwent reforms driven by the Chinese government's significant spending on military equipment and guidance from the West. The imperial court sought to utilize these learnings to establish a new army, including the modernization of military organization and structure. The most pressing reform was reducing the Green Standard forces to a fraction of their size and upgrading the remainder, which began with the training of the Peking Field Force in 1862. This unit consisted of 30,000 Western-armed and -drilled soldiers drawn from the Eight Banners under the direction of Wenxiang and Prince Chun. Due to a shortage of capable Manchu recruits, reform efforts shifted towards modernizing the Green Standard forces by scaling down their size, upgrading weapons, and modifying their structure. The retrained, westernized forces were subsequently known as the lianzhun (retrained troops). Some units of the old Green Standard Army were integrated under the command of the modernized Hual Army's commanders, who advocated for the purchase and proper maintenance of Western armaments alongside training in their use. This included support for modern medicine, rail, and telegraphy as well as combat tactics such as prone position and night fighting. In 1872, U.S. Ambassador Frederick Low noted that Chinese military forces had significant gaps, except for troops immediately surrounding Peking (Beijing), highlighting the need for further reforms to strengthen their capabilities. The Qing Empire relied on separate armies led by high provincial officers, who were responsible to the imperial government for maintaining order within their jurisdictions. These officers were not directly appointed by the emperor but were instead selected by the viceroys, whose nominations were approved by the central government. Foreigners employed in training troops were subject to provincial authority and held little influence or recognition. Historically, the Chinese government had been resistant to adopting Western technologies and practices, as exemplified by General Charles Gordon's preference for supporting regional leaders over the central government. The establishment of a school for the navy in Fuzhou in 1866 marked a shift towards incorporating Western knowledge into the Imperial examinations. In the late 19th century, Li Hongzhang emerged as a key leader in the Self-Strengthening Movement, advocating for the adoption of Western technologies and practices to modernize China. His efforts led to significant reforms, with over 90% of modernization projects launched under his direction. This phase saw increased focus on commerce, industry, agriculture, and wealth creation, marking a departure from traditional Chinese values that prioritized land-based activities. The Qing government established "government-supervised merchant undertakings" to promote industrial development through profit-oriented enterprises run by private merchants but overseen by government officials. These ventures received funding from both private sources and government subsidies, with examples including the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company and the Imperial Telegraph Administration. However, due to bureaucratic inefficiencies, these enterprises suffered from corruption, nepotism, and lack of initiative, ultimately stifling economic growth. Despite these challenges, the merchant-bureaucrat combination remained a primary driver for initiating industrial projects. To address this issue, Li Hongzhang sought to extend government assistance to Chinese entrepreneurs competing with foreign businesses. The China Merchants' Steam Company successfully expanded its operations, regaining control of shipping traffic markets through private management and capital. Li Hongzhang also initiated various initiatives, including the construction of the Keelung Coal Mine in Taiwan, the establishment of "Bureaus of Western Learning" in coastal provinces, and the expansion of the Tianjin Arsenal. These efforts aimed to modernize Chinese education and technological capabilities by introducing Western mathematics and science into government schools. Shen Baozhen submitted proposals for reforming the Military Imperial Examinations to include mathematics and abolishing archery-based military examinations, but these were rejected due to concerns about candidate pool sizes. The Chinese government recognized the importance of modern education, particularly in military training, during the late 19th century. In 1872, Premier Li Hongzhang sponsored the Chinese Educational Mission to the United States, with the goal of enrolling Chinese cadets in the US Military Academy and Naval Academy. However, due to conservative opposition and refusal by the academies to admit Chinese students, the mission was short-lived. Undeterred, Li Hongzhang continued to support modern military education, including sending batches of navy cadets to France and England for further study. In 1877, he deployed 30 trainees to Great Britain and France, laying the groundwork for the formation of the Beiyang Fleet, Asia's largest fleet at the time. The Chinese government also established naval academies in Tianjin in 1880 and Fuzhou in 1882, with Li Hongzhang providing significant support for modern military education. However, despite these efforts, the Qing army did not uniformly adopt Western military training methods, with many officers opposing centralized training and traditional practices persisting. Despite this, the Chinese government continued to pursue modernization, including studying abroad at German and Japanese institutions. Modern science and technology were taken up with developed countries like Germany and Japan. Chinese military capabilities expanded significantly in the late 19th century. During the II crisis, China acquired modern weapons from Germany, including thousands of rifles. This buildup was evident when massive amounts of military equipment and rifles were shipped to China from Antwerp in 1880, as part of a larger arms purchase from Europe. In contrast, Russian-controlled areas offered fewer benefits to Muslim Kirghiz populations, leading the Russians to view them as a liability in any conflict with China. Meanwhile, Chinese forces on Taiwan successfully repelled French attempts to seize key forts and attack near Tamsui during the Sino-French war. The Hual Army's victories were particularly embarrassing for the French government, contributing to the Prime Minister's downfall. China also planned to raise an army in Manchuria for regional defense, aiming to train 30,000 troops annually. Although actual enrollment fell short of expectations, the resulting force was deemed superior to those from other regions by Japanese observers. By 1888, the Manchurian army had grown to around 60,000-80,000 men strong, with a significant portion trained in Western tactics and equipped with modern firearms like Remington rifles. Chinese artillery also boasted a few foreign-made gun batteries, complemented by more traditional melee weapons and jingals. The Qing dynasty's military modernization efforts were seen as a diplomatic success, forcing Russia to concede and return disputed territory in the Treaty of Saint Petersburg (1881). The majority of the militia were armed with small muzzleloaders. James noted that 15,000 bannermen were supposed to become regulars and a Jilin arsenal was set up. Wu Dacheng oversaw the Manchurian army but only managed to assemble 170,000 soldiers instead of the planned 300,000, with less than 15,000 being battle-ready, which was seen as a significant failure. During this time, efforts were made to modernize the military and navy, and industries like textiles started growing rapidly. The government reduced interference in industrial projects to boost profitability and encouraged the development of light industry. However, the enthusiasm for reform slowed down due to opposition from conservative factions at court. New enterprises began popping up, such as Guizhou Ironworks (1891) and Hubei Textile Company (1894), but they struggled financially. Zhang Zhidong established a state-owned textile mill in 1869, but its profits went towards funding the Hanyang Ironworks. The "dragon dollars" silver coinage was introduced, aiming to counter foreign coins. The Shanghai Cotton Cloth Mill turned a profit, distributing a 25% dividend in 1893, while the Mohe Gold Mining Company processed 62,000 ounces of gold from 1888 to 1891. However, concerns about foreign investment and erosion of sovereignty stalled railway construction proposals. The Kaiping Mines produced 187,000 tons of coal by 1892, significantly reducing reliance on foreign imports. The Sino-French War led to financial troubles in Shanghai, causing many businesses to collapse due to embezzlement and lack of oversight. Despite this, the Qing government continued deploying trainees for the navy. With the first Sino-Japanese War serving as a catalyst, military leaders increasingly recognized the significance of training. Prior to this conflict, the Qing government had unevenly focused on two types of military forces, but they soon shifted their emphasis towards land army training after experiencing a major failure and the destruction of the Beiyang Fleet. Beginning in 1876, thousands of officers were sent to military academies abroad, including those in Japan, Germany, Great Britain, and France. In 1885, with German assistance, Li Hongzhang established the Tientsin Military Academy. This institution offered a two-year program taught by Imperial German Army officers and covered subjects such as drill, fortifications, surveying, mathematics, and science. Furthermore, naval academies were founded in Lüshun (Dalian or Port Arthur), Guangzhou (1887), Weihai (1889), and Jiangning (Nanjing) (1891). The British observer Demetrius Charles de Kavanagh Boulger proposed a British-Chinese alliance to counter Russian expansion in Central Asia, highlighting his confidence in the Chinese military's capabilities. D. V. Putiatia, a Russian military observer, visited China's border with Russia in 1888 and observed Chinese soldiers in northeastern China, which had been reduced by the Russian Amur Annexation of Outer Manchuria two decades earlier. Putiatia noted that these soldiers had the potential to master "European tactics" and were armed with modern weapons like Krupp artillery, Winchester carbines, and Mauser rifles. Foreign observers reported that Chinese troops stationed in the Wuchang garrison were on par with contemporary European forces after completing their training. Mass media in the West portrayed China as a rising military power due to its modernization programs, invoking fears that it would successfully conquer western colonies like Australia. Chinese armies were praised by John Russell Young, who commented that "nothing seemed more perfect" in military capabilities and predicted a future confrontation between America and China. On the eve of the First Sino-Japanese War, the German General Staff predicted a victory for China, and William Lang, a British advisor to the Chinese military, lauded Chinese training, ships, guns, and fortifications, stating that "in the end, there is no doubt that Japan must be utterly crushed." The decline of China's military following Cixi's retirement was attributed to various factors rather than her personal involvement. Historians have extensively researched the matter, revealing that Emperor Guangxu's lack of interest in developing and maintaining the military was a primary cause. His close advisor, Grand Tutor Weng Tonghe, advised cutting funding for the navy and army due to perceived natural disasters being more pressing concerns. The Self-Strengthening Movement in China was met with varying degrees of acceptance among the gentry and Mandarins, with many viewing foreign affairs and Western influence as inferior and hostile to Chinese civilization. However, some historians argue that Confucian ideology was not incompatible with Western ideas, but rather provided a foundation for adapting new concepts such as science, technology, and politics. As China sought to modernize, its understanding of Confucianism shifted towards practicality, incorporating Western principles into the traditional Confucian worldview. Some reformist scholars even adopted Legalist principles to focus on state reform, wealth, and economic warfare. Despite efforts to modernize, China's failure in comparison to Japan's Meiji Restoration was attributed to its greater economic exposure to the West, leading to more severe socioeconomic upheavals due to the Opium Wars and associated rebellions. This weakened the Chinese government's ability to finance development. Two key conflicts characterized court politics during this period: the struggle between conservative and progressive factions, as well as the tension between central government interests and new regional interests. Opponents of reform argued that Westernized officials were disloyal to China and that industrialization could worsen income inequality and unemployment. They also feared that foreign powers would exploit Chinese infrastructure for their own gain. The anti-Western sentiment in China was reflected in advertisements highlighting the struggles of African and Indian nations under Western rule, warning that China would be next. Foreign industrial products flooded into China, causing economic damage, and disrupted traditional transportation systems like the Grand Canal. The conservative faction, led by Prince Duan and Empress Dowager Cixi, advocated for military modernization and adopting Western technology, but differed on reforming the political system. The conservatives, who were xenophobic and disliked foreigners, adopted Western weaponry despite this. During the Boxer Rebellion, they equipped their troops with western rifles while wearing traditional uniforms. The faction was divided between Empress Dowager Cixi's leadership and Prince Gong's influence. Despite initial support for reforms, she began to undermine Prince Gong's faction as her political acumen grew. The reformist faction wanted recentralization of power in the Imperial court, but the court refused to take clear stances due to concerns about alienating either side. Empress Dowager Cixi had to appease conservatives by maintaining her puppet status over the Guangxu Emperor. This led to a strategy of decentralization, allowing the Aisin-Giuro family to divide their opponents and maintain control. China's imperial court was criticized for being ineffective in maintaining control and modernizing its military. Instead of reinventing themselves, they manipulated the subjects against each other to maintain power. The Qing dynasty's regional and provincial finances were not properly regulated, leading to inefficiencies. Historians have pointed out that China's weakness in the 19th century was largely due to its naval maritime vulnerability, despite achieving successes on land. This was attributed to a lack of a unified navy and understanding of sea-based threats. Despite military advancements on land against Western armies, China struggled with naval defeats, forcing them to accept unfavorable terms in peace agreements. The country's fragmented naval forces and factionalism among regional governors contributed to its weaknesses, making it difficult for China to present a united front against foreign powers. The Qing dynasty's regional armies and militias were criticized by historians Franz Michael, Stanley Spector, Lo Erh-kang, and P'eng Yü-hsin for undermining central governance. In contrast to the standardized Green Standard and Banner forces, these regional groups emphasized personal bonds between officers and troops, often based on shared origins and backgrounds. This led to cliques forming around specific leaders, such as Zuo Zongtang's Chu Army and Li Hongzhang's Hual Army, which frequently clashed with other groups. Despite efforts by some leaders, like Zeng Guofan, to dismantle their forces and limit power, the regional armies remained a major obstacle to modernization. This was in contrast to Japan, where feudal lords independently drove military innovation, leading to the emergence of a more unified national army. The Confucian tradition's emphasis on civilian authority over the military was increasingly disregarded as scholars became militarized and non-scholarly officers rose through the ranks. This shift led to the fragmentation of power in China during the Warlord era, with various cliques vying for control. Additionally, regional officials like Li Hongzhang and Zhang Zhidong played significant roles in supervising government-backed industrial projects, further decentralizing power. The provinces were a crucial area for Li's influence, allowing him to control arms production, maritime customs revenue, and military forces in the northern half of the country. To strengthen his position, he advanced several industrial projects, which further fragmented power among regional strongmen. A common issue was securing funding for these projects, leading to internal conflicts between factions. Following the Taiping rebellion, the balance of power shifted towards provincial governors who gained control over tax revenue within their territories. This allowed them to exert significant influence despite foreign imposed tariffs resulting by unequal treaties. In contrast, the Meiji Japan's 1873 tax reform unified land taxes and centralize collection under the new government, resulting in a substantial portion of funding for military and industrial projects. China's tax rates at the time were relatively low, with the central government generating less than 3% of its Gross National Product. Minister Shenq Xuanhuai argued that the emphasis on cultural conservatism hindered China's industrialization, pointing to successful businessmen who prioritized calculated risk management. He believed these early industrialists generated substantial profit and faced challenges such as imbalanced trade terms, capital shortages, and foreign competition. Albert Feuerwerker highlighted the diversity of fields in which these projects operated, including coal mining, steel production, and telegraphy, making them groundbreaking but also hampered by external factors. Feuerwerker notes that Western powers exploited China's market by establishing factories and utilizing cheap local labor, siphoning off the benefits of industrialization. The Jiangnan Arsenal produced a substantial amount of military equipment from 1867 to 1895, including rifles, cannons, gunpowder, shells, bullets, land and naval mines, and ships. Despite this effort, it was insufficient to equip the standing armies of Japan or China's Qing bannermen. The Fuzhou arsenal produced warships and other vessels between 1875 and 1884, while the Hanyang Arsenal in 1891 had the potential to produce annually when complete a total of 15,000 rifles, 100 artillery pieces, and sufficient ammunition. In contrast, the factories suffered from a lack of human and financial capital due to the Qing government's limited investment. References to John K. Fairbank's works and other publications on Chinese history are abundant. His contributions span multiple volumes of "The Cambridge History of China" (1978-1980), covering late Ch'ing period developments. Specific mention is made of his involvement in editing the series, working alongside Kwang-Ching Liu and Denis Crispin Twitchett. Other notable works include "Trade and Diplomacy on the China Coast: The Opening of the Treaty Ports, 1842-1854" (1953) and "China's Response to the West: A Documentary survey 1839-1923" (1979), co-authored with Seu-yü Teng. Furthermore, Fairbank is referenced in publications such as "God's Chinese Son: The Taiping Heavenly Kingdom of Hong Xiuquan" by Jonathan D. Spence and "Some Corner of a Chinese Field: The politics of remembering foreign veterans of the Taiping civil war" by J. Chappell (2018). His contributions are also acknowledged in more recent studies, including Orazio Cocco's work on China's early industrialization and William T. Rowe's exploration of the Qing empire. In the late Qing dynasty, Li Hongzhang implemented strategic military and economic initiatives to strengthen China's defenses against foreign powers. He built a fortified city on the coast, near the mouth of the Taku River, to protect the region from sea-based threats. Additionally, he expanded the Tientsin Arsenal using funds allocated by the local maritime customs office. These efforts were part of a broader movement known as self-strengthening, which aimed to modernize China's military and economy while maintaining its sovereignty in the face of Western and Japanese encroachment. The Sino-French War, also known as the Franco-Chinese War, took place from 1884 to 1885. The war was fought between China and France over control of Vietnam (then known as Tonkin). There were several key battles during this conflict, including the Battle of Lang-Son. Historians have written extensively about the Sino-French War, with many publishing books and articles on the subject. Some notable sources include "The Cambridge History of China" series, which has volumes dedicated to the late Qing dynasty (1800-1911), as well as individual works by scholars such as John King Fairbank, Kwang-Ching Liu, and Denis Crispin Twitchett. Other historians have also contributed to our understanding of this conflict, including Armengaud, Boniface, Harmant, Lecomte, Lung Chang, Thomazi, Huard, Du Boulay, James, Volpicelli, Feuerwerker, and Shigeru Akita. In addition to historical accounts, there are also works that provide a broader context for understanding the Sino-French War. For example, Jin Xu's "Empire of Silver: A New Monetary History of China" (2021) provides an overview of China's monetary system during this time period. Identities and Change in Modern Chinese History, Routledge, ISBN: 9781351219884. References: 1. Su, Xiaodong, Cheng, Zhihua, Wu, Jiezheng (1989). A History of the Qing Navy. 2. Chen, Zhenshou (2002). 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Please note that I have removed the specific page numbers from the original text as they are not necessary for paraphrasing. Many modern ships were part of Li Hongzhang's northern fleet in 2012, but they did not engage in the Sino-French conflict. Li's fear of losing control over his fleet led him to refuse sending his ships southward to aid the Fuzhou fleet against France. A study on the Self-Strengthening Movement in late Qing China reveals a complex blend of modernization efforts. This movement, which spanned from 1861 to 1895, aimed at introducing Western ideas and technologies to strengthen China's military, economy, and education systems. Key figures like Zhang Zhidong, Shen Pao-Chen, and Sheng Hsuan-Huai played crucial roles in driving this reform. Several scholars have contributed significantly to our understanding of the Self-Strengthening Movement. Works by Antian Yang, Adam Y. Chang, Jean Chesneaux, Marianne Bastid, Marie-Claire Bergère, Samuel C. Chu, and Kwang-Ching Liu offer valuable insights into the movement's various aspects.