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Is There a Correlation between Academic Achievement and Behavior in Mainland Chinese Students?

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Abstract
Academic achievement and behavior have been demonstrated to be clearly associated in the western literature. However, few studies concerning these relationships have been conducted in Asian contexts. This study attempts to provide empirical evidence from the east to complement the wealth of research in the west and examine whether the findings in the west can be generalized to Asian cultures. Data were collected from 636 students in year 11 at four Chinese high schools. Students’ academic achievement was assessed using their grade point average (GPA). Behavior was assessed from students’ reports and three aspects: truancy; substance use and antisocial behavior were focused on. Correlation analysis indicated that some problematic behaviors (e.g., truancy, stealing, receiving, and vandalism) were not related to GPA and some problematic behaviors (e.g., drinking, smoking and violence) were weakly, negatively but significantly related to students’ GPA. Moreover, high academic achievement was negatively but weakly related to a number of problematic behaviors. There was also no statistically significant difference in the strength of the relationship for males and females.

Keywords: Chinese adolescents, Academic achievement, Behavior, Sex difference

1. Introduction
Recently, the dramatic increase in the prevalence of problematic behaviors during adolescence has broken the traditional view that academic success is the only standard in assessing good students. In many western countries, not only students’ school performance, but also their behavior has been given considerable public attention. For example, Masten and her associates (1995) proposed that for school-age children, high academic achievement and behavioral competence should be regarded as two important indicators for their success. Therefore, to explore the relationship between students’ behavior and academic achievement has important implications for developing effective intervention programs.

The relationship between behavior and academic achievement has been demonstrated in a number of studies. The balance of evidence from long-standing research suggests that problematic behavior and academic failure are clearly associated both concurrently and predictively in western literature (see Hinshaw, 1992 for a review). Generally, the link between the two variables is explained from two points of view.

The first is the “common-developmental-antecedent” explanation. People who hold this view think that the association
between academic achievement and behavior problems is influenced by either genetic/intrapersonal factors (Gayan & Olson, 1999; Rhee & Waldman, 2002) or environmental antecedents (Ary, Duncan, Duncan, & Hops, 1999; Richman, Stevenson, & Graham, 1982).

An alternative view is the “causal relation” explanation. Three plausible models have been proposed to explain the causal association between school performance and problematic behavior. The first is that underachievement leads to problematic behavior (McGee, Williams, Share, Anderson, & Silva, 1986; Stevenson, Richman, & Graham, 1985). Thus, low academic achievement leads to a loss of self-esteem, low commitment to school, and frustration, which in turn, results in delinquency, and antisocial behavior. The second is that problem behavior precedes and causes underachievement (Dishion, 1990; Jorm, Share, Matthews, & Maclean, 1986; Sanson, Prior, & Smart, 1996). This mechanism is explained as follows. The amount of time children are engaged in meaningful learning activities is reduced due to their time spent acting out or being disciplined for aggressive behavior. Additionally, aggressive children may also develop negative relationships with teachers and peers or negative feelings about school, and as a consequence be less inclined to exert effort on academic work (Arnold, 1997; Wentzel & Asher, 1995). The third is that each domain leads to the other (Arnold, 1997; McMichael, 1979), in other words, the causal relations between school performance and problematic behavior are bidirectional instead of unidirectional. This view holds that when poor learners become increasingly frustrated, their antisocial behavior increases, which in turn disrupts the processes of learning, which then creates more antisocial problems, and so on.

From this evidence, it might be predicted that high academic achievement would be clearly associated with lack of problematic behavior and either “common-developmental-antecedent” or the “causal relation” mechanisms should be applicable to explaining the relation between the two variables. However, two news reports (Kang & Saar, 1996; Seo, 1995) have argued that some Asian students in the USA involved in violence had attained top grade-point averages, which indicates that high academic achievement is not strongly associated with a lower level of problematic behavior among Asian Pacific Islander American youth compared with other racial and ethnic groups of youth.

Differences between western and eastern culture may lead to different outcomes in the relations between academic achievement and behavior. The studies reported in the newspaper articles had entirely male samples and this may have skewed the findings.

In Chinese culture, popular maxims such as “to be a scholar is to be the top of society” and “through studying you will gain beautiful girls and houses made of gold” drive most Chinese to believe that, by excelling academically, they will gain success and fortune will follow. Additionally, the goals of Chinese school education are to help students develop well in behavior, as well as academic achievement (Chen, Rubin, & Li, 1997; The goals of school education, 1970). However, due to the current limited opportunities to receive higher education, academic competition is extremely strong in schools, especially in high schools. Consequently, Chinese students are pushed very hard to excel in school by their families and schools. If students are doing well in school, their parents and teachers think everything is OK. On the contrary, if students fail to achieve high standards in academic achievement, they are often regarded as abnormal and problematic by parents, teachers, and peers (Wu & Tseng, 1985). As a result, students’ academic competence has received much attention while any behavioral problems have been largely neglected in practice.

Too few studies concerning the association of academic achievement and behavior have been conducted in Asian contexts. Therefore, there is a pressing need to examine the problem from this perspective and provide empirical evidence from the east to complement the wealth of research in the west. In this study, we especially concentrate on adolescence because this is the developmental stage during which problematic behavior peaks in onset, prevalence, and incidence (Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001) and when academic competition is strong.

Moreover, we want to examine whether gender plays a role in the relation between achievement and behavior. In the literature, girls have long been demonstrated by criminologists (e.g., Kruttschnitt, 1994) or psychologists (e.g., Bettencourt & Miller, 1996) to have higher academic competence and be less violent than boys at every age. This sex difference could be interpreted as meaning that females lack the underlying motivation or capacity for violence that men have (Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001). However, as to whether gender mediates the relationship between academic achievement and behavior, there is a key debate. Two studies by Sanson et al. (1996) and Willcutt & Pennington (2000) showed the relation was significantly stronger for boys than girls. This result is in contrast to an earlier report. For instance, Stevenson, Richman, and Graham (1985) indicated no difference between boys and girls. These few, inconsistent findings do not provide sufficient evidence for making predictions about gender and so demand further evidence.

Prompted by the newspaper articles mentioned above and based on the gaps in the literature, two main hypotheses were derived:

1). high academic achievement and behavioral competence are weakly related in the Chinese context;

2). relationship between achievement and behavior is mediated by gender.
2. Method

2.1 Participants

Adolescents were recruited from four high schools, situated in three different districts (big city, small city and rural area) in Jiangsu Province, eastern China. Participants were 636 students (375 boys, 260 girls, and 1 case sex unspecified) enrolled in the 11th grade. These students ranged in age from 15 years to 19 years (mean=16.8, SD=0.788). Jiangsu province was selected because the area has a high population density and resident average annual incomes are ranked in the middle level of the country, and polarization of rich and poor is quite large. Our sample of parents was socio-economically mixed, ranging from the very affluent to those at the lower end of the socio-economic scale. Of all participants, 72% of them were from families in which parents were workers or peasants and 28% were from professional families in which one or both parents were teachers, doctors, or officials. Seventy-six percent of the students reported one or both of the parents had an educational level of high school or below.

2.2 Measures

Academic Achievement. Students’ academic achievement was assessed using their grades in the major subjects (e.g., Chinese, Maths, and English). The average grade (e.g., A, B, C, D, or F) of the first semester mid-term examination was taken directly from the school records. Grades were coded on a continuous scale ranging from A (4) to F (0), with M=1.56, SD=1.211, and range=0 to 4.

Behavior. Behaviors were measured by self-reports. According to Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, and Silva (2001), self-reports from adolescents are reliable and valid while in adolescence much antisocial behavior is always concealed from other reporters (e.g., parents and teachers). Students completed a 10-item behavior inventory originally from the On Track Youth Lifestyles Surveys (Armstrong et al., 2005). The 10 items cover three categories of problematic behaviors: truancy, use of substance (alcohol and smoking), and antisocial behaviors (stealing, receiving, attacking and vandalizing). Students were asked how many times in the previous year they exhibited these antisocial behaviors and how many times in the last four weeks they involved truancy and use of substance. Responses options for these items were “none” (0), “once” (1), twice (2), “3-5 times” (3), 6 or more times (4). A Chinese translation was made by a bilingual translator (English and Mandarin) and sent to another translator for back translation. The bilingual translator also verified, subsequently, that the final Chinese version conformed to the original English version. Responses from the questions in this study were recoded into a binary response. “0” was coded if the respondent had never committed the act, and “1” was coded if the student had done it once or more.

2.3 Procedure

The research received ethical approval from the University’s Human Ethics Review Committee. Participants in the study were completely voluntary. Before the study was conducted, students and their parents/guardians were provided with a written summary of the research procedure, its benefits, harms and risks through a letter with a permission form enclosed. Only those students and their parents/guardians who both signed the consent forms were included in the study. Students were also fully informed about the study and were able to withdraw from the process at any stage with no penalty to them.

2.4 Analysis

Preliminary analyses included descriptive statistics’ comparisons of the two main variables (GPA and behavior) across three samples (full sample, males and females). In the next step, relationships among behavior variables and between academic achievement and behavior were tested via correlation analysis. In the study, 18 questionnaires had missing data and these were excluded.

3. Results

In order to examine the relationship between school attainment and behavior, three broad aspects of the results were investigated. The first concerned the levels of academic achievement and the total number of behavior problems. The second concerned interrelations among GPA, aspects of truancy, substance use, and antisocial behaviors. The third concerned the correlation between GPA and number of problematic behaviors in three different groups (males, females and total sample).

3.1 Profiles of students’ academic achievement and problematic behaviors

Table 1 presents means and standard deviations for each variable (GPA and the total number of behavior problems) for the boys and girls separately. The mean GPA mark in total students (n=636) is 1.56 with the high score being 4 and both boys and girls presented less than 1 problematic behavior (mean=.55). Compared with girls, boys had lower scores on GPA and higher scores on problematic behavior.
3.2 Intercorrelations among variables

Intercorrelations among the GPA and behavior variables are presented in Table 2. Generally, the correlations between academic achievement scores and the 7 problematic behavior scores were weak ($r<.30$) with most at or near zero level. The associations indicate that the level of problematic behavior engaged in by adolescents generally has little relationship with their academic achievement. These correlations also indicate negative relations between GPA and these problematic behaviors. The one exception was students’ GPA and their stealing behaviors, with a correlation of $r = 0$, which indicated that there was completely no relation between the two variables. In addition, four of these coefficients were statistically significant ($p< 0.01$), and it tells us the relations did not happen by chance.

From Table 2, it can be observed that the coefficients among problematic behavior variables ranged from .03 to .53 with most at a significant level ($p< 0.01$). It implied that these problematic behaviors are low to moderate correlated positively with each other.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

3.3 Relationship between problematic behavior and academic achievement

Bivariate correlation was used to explore the relationship between students’ achievement (GPA) and number of problematic behaviors in three separate groups (full sample, male and female). From Table 3, it can be seen that there was weak, negative and significant correlation between achievement and behavior problem ($r=-.17$, $n=620$, $p<.01$), with high achievement being weakly associated with low problematic behaviors.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Inspecting the two separate groups (male and female), the correlation between GPA and total problematic behaviors for males was $r=-.12$, while for females it was slightly higher, $r=-.17$. The coefficients -.12 and -.17 suggested that GPA and problematic behaviors were negatively and low correlated at a significant level. To assess the probability that difference in the correlations observed for the two groups would occur as a function of a sampling error, the authors convert the $r$ values into $z$ scores. Then through using the equation $Z = \frac{r - \rho}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} - 1}}$ (Pallant, 2002), the $Z$ is-0.695, which is between -1.96 and +1.96. Therefore, there is no statistically significant difference in the strength of the relationship for males and females.

4. Discussion

The first hypothesis was that competencies in academic and behavioral domains are weakly related in Chinese context. The second hypothesis was that the association between school performance and adolescent behaviors is moderated by gender. The findings of the current study provide support for the first hypothesis but reject the second hypothesis.

The results of the correlational analyses indicate that, even though the relationships between high achievement and low problematic behavior were statistically significant, the correlations were typically quite low. This means that students with high academic scores may not exhibit behavioral competence. Additionally, the findings are clear-cut in showing that girls had higher scores on GPA and less problematic behaviors than boys, which is similar to earlier results (e.g., Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001; Rutter et al., 2004). However, there is no statistically significant difference in the strength of the relationship between males and females.

The findings reject the notion that the reciprocal co-existing relationship between high academic achievement and good behaviors found in the west is present among Chinese adolescents. The results did not mesh well with the conclusion from western literature (e.g., Hinshaw, 1992). On the contrary, they are consistent with the news reports about Asian Pacific Islander American youth (e.g., Kang & Saar, 1996; Seo, 1995). The study provides evidence that compared with the western counterparts, Asian adolescents can achieve good academic performance in school, but at the same time, exhibit behavior problems. It could be explained that in China, academic competition is extremely strong for high school students. Under the high pressure, they have no time to conduct those problematic behaviors. Sometimes, engaging in those problematic behaviors was regarded as a way to relieving pressure from examination for all students. However, due to the limited samples, the conclusion can only be confirmed at a very minimal level.

The results yield useful information that contributes to theoretical knowledge on the link between academic achievement and behavior. In this study, we can not determine any causal relationship between the two variables. However, these correlational results force us to reflect on the “common-developmental-antecedent” explanation in interpreting the relationship between academic achievement and problematic behavior (e.g., Hinshaw, 1992). The 3% variance ($r=.17$) between the two variables indicated that few or no common factors influence the academic and behavioral outcomes.

The study also found that males had more problematic behavior than females in the Chinese context. However, there is no difference in the relation between high GPA and behavioral competence for males and females. If we excluded the fact that female high school students are not representative of the general female population, then doubt is cast on the
theory that females have less motivation or capacity for violence than men (Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001).

4.1 Strengths and limitations of the design of the study

Some strengths of this study need to be mentioned. Firstly, the results of the present study are important because relatively few existing studies have addressed this relationship in Asian cultures or among Asian youth. Taking a prospective approach has helped delineate the relation between high academic achievement and good behaviors. Secondly, though the sample was not a representative one of Chinese adolescents, it is based on a mixed SES sample. Results can be generalized to most Chinese high school adolescents.

Despite these advantages, a few limitations should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings. First, the correlational nature of the research precludes conclusions concerning a causal prediction between the two variables. Longitudinal studies may reveal a recursive effect between behaviors and school achievement in one or the other direction. Second, in the present study, adolescents’ family characteristics and problematic behavior were self-reported. The mono-informant character of that information could have skewed the relations between school attainment and behavior.

4.2 Further research and applications to practice

The findings yield useful information that contributes to theoretical knowledge on the relationship between competencies in academic and social domains and also has applications for work with adolescents in preventive intervention programs. The weak link between high GPA and good behavior request educators to consider why some students with high achievement have behavior problem. Failure to account for the question may lead to inappropriate or inefficient training programs. In addition, the findings indicated that the relationship is weak and there is no sex difference in the association between academic attainment and problematic behavior. This suggests that, for both boys and girls, it is impractical to improve academic achievement through reducing behavior problems, or vice versa.

This study suggests several directions for future research. Firstly, a longitudinal study should be conducted to identify any causal relationship between academic achievement and behavioral outcomes in the Chinese context. Such evidence would highlight whether the two variables are related both concurrently and predictively, and then allow a comparison with the western results systematically. Secondly, the data for behavior variables in this study were obtained from students’ self-reports. If data can be obtained by multimehods and from multisources (e.g., the participants themselves, peers, teachers and parents), some common method and source biases that can inflate relationships could be remedied. Thirdly, we need to design a study to systematically explore why academic attainment and behavior among Chinese youth are only weakly linked and reconsider what kind of underlying factors play determinant roles in promoting academic or behavioral competencies in the Chinese context. For example, a qualitative research such as case studies or interview can be designed for students in trouble to ascertain what other factors need to be included, and then path analysis or structural equation modeling could be used to analyze the correlation among these required variables. Lastly, a recent study (Choi, 2007) found that, if age, gender, parental education and earlier problematic behaviors are controlled, generally academic achievement is a significant predictor of the problematic behaviors regardless of one’s race or ethnicity. If this is the case, future research needs to control the variables mentioned above and examine whether academic achievement is a significant predictor of the problematic behavior among Chinese adolescents.

References


Psychiatry, 8, 52-55.


Table 1. Profiles of Chinese adolescent achievement and behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grade Point Average (GPA)</th>
<th>Total Number of Problematic Behaviors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Full Sample</td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>0-4</td>
<td>0-4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Intercorrelations among variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.GPA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.Truancy</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Alcohol</td>
<td>-.14**</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.Smoking</td>
<td>-.29**</td>
<td>.12**</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.Stealing</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.Receiving</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.Violence</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
<td>.10**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.Vandalism</td>
<td>-.08**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>_</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. GPA=grade point average in three subjects (Chinese, Math, and English).
2. ** p< 0.01 (2-tailed), * p< 0.05 (2-tailed).

Table 3. Summary of correlations highlighting the relationship between Chinese adolescents’ achievement and number of problematic behaviors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Point Average (GPA)</th>
<th>Total Number of Problematic behaviors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full Sample(n=620)</td>
<td>-.17**(.000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males(n=365)</td>
<td>-.12*(.026)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females(n=255)</td>
<td>-.17**(.006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note Correlations in this table are tested using Pearson’s r.
* p<.05;  ** p<.01
Science and Religion from the Perspective of Post-Modernism
--- Knowledge System and Religious System

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Abstract
All knowledge belongs to narrative knowledge, and also local knowledge. Post-modernism can be defined as “elimination of grand narrative”, so in the world of post-modernism, validity of knowledge has become an issue. Local knowledge emphasizes that generation and justification of knowledge has its local features, so it has no way to surpass the dilemma of cultural relativism. Theoretically, in this article, the author believes that the standpoint of “moderate relativism” is advisable, which, not only sufficiently respects cultural diversification and particularity of each nation, but emphasizes possibility and necessity of culturally mutual communication of all nations, which attains mutual understanding and recognition during participation and share.

Keywords: Post-modernism, Cultural relativism, Local knowledge, Validity

1. Validity issue of knowledge by Post-modernism

1.1 Lyotard: knowledge status of Post-modern society

The French philosopher Lyotard, who is well-known as “Father of Post-modernism” gave the sub-title to his masterpiece “Post-Modern State” “Report on Knowledge”. In the introduction, he declared at the very beginning:

The target of this book is the knowledge status in the most developed society, and I decide to apply “Post-modern” to nominate this status. This word is currently extremely popular among sociologists and critics in the American continent. Human being apply it to denote the cultural context for the time being: multiple revolutions since the end of the 19th century, and game rules from science, literature and art have all be replaced. This book tries to place the above revolutions into the scope of narrative crisis for review.

From this quotation, we can at least obtain three pieces of information: (1) “Post-modern” is both a cultural context and a general description of knowledge status in the most developed society; (2) Science, literature and art are different language games, which respectively abide by their own game rules, and, furthermore, these game rules are in frequent change; (3) Due to changes of these rules, the “narrative crisis” happens in the Post-modern society. It is obvious that, thinking source of Post-modernism is closely related to the knowledge status of a developed society. Accurately speaking, what Lyotard cares about is the validity issue of our knowledge in the changing Post-modern society.

Validity of knowledge has become an issue, which highlights obvious differences of Post-modernism and Modernism in terms of knowledge characteristics. In ancient traditional society and the modern society, validity of knowledge was either regarded as natural or shielded. However, it is only in the post-modern society that validity of knowledge is highlighted as a keen issue. Max Weber and Habermas both mentioned the “legitimation crisis” of Late Capitalism, while Lyotard revealed cultural predicaments of Post-modern society from the particular perspective of validity of knowledge. In order to have a better understanding of Lyotard’s description of knowledge condition of Post-modern society, we should at first straighten out the concept and classification of knowledge.

1.2 Validity of two varieties of knowledge

Knowledge is constructed by narration, but not any narration is knowledge. Only accurate or appropriate knowledge can be named “knowledge”. Narration can be divided into several varieties, including indicative and descriptive narration, and also order, stipulative, imperative, and exclamatory narration, etc. Therefore, knowledge can be correspondingly
classified into two varieties: scientific knowledge and narrative knowledge. Scientific knowledge is composed of by indicative and descriptive narration, and it has true and false differentiation in indicating and describing its targets. However, narrative knowledge is connected with tradition and culture, which altogether constitute a set of fixed pragmatic rules on social association. Lyotard borrowed the concept of language game by the later Wittgenstein, which believes that different narration or knowledge constitute language games of different varieties. Game is like a contest, and each speech is a different “trick”, which reflects and stipulates different social and cultural contexts of speakers. Here, whether “game” or “narration”, they are literally understood and applied, but not in the meaning of metaphor.

Whether scientific knowledge or narrative knowledge, they should both seek for a way that validates themselves, but the approach to seeking for this way is totally different. Validity standard of scientific knowledge roots in proof, falsification consensus, or appointment. Specifically speaking, there are two items in validity standard of scientific knowledge, namely, internal logic consistency and external experiential validity, which was the knowledge standard of logic positivism popular among western academic field in the early 1900s. Whether the Vienna school or Karl Raimund Popper school, they were both convinced about these two items. However, narrative knowledge seeks for its validity standard in its culture and tradition. Here, Lyotard’s definition of narrative knowledge originated from description of original society by anthropology, and he took Karshnarvas who like to tell stories as an example:

What we would like to talk about lies in folk narrative pragmatics of narration. For example, a Karshnarva who likes to tell a story always starts his narration in the same way, “The following is a story of …, which is the same as what I have always heard. Now I would like to take turns to tell as story to you, and please listen carefully.” And his way of ending the story is also unalterable, “… the story ends by now. The one who tells the story to you is … (name of a Karshnarva), and the buckra who listens to the story is … (name of a Spanish or Portuguese)”.

This is a typical occasion of narration, and Lyotard analyzed it with great interest. Of course, we may make a little expansion on the analysis. An occasion is composed of by three factors: speaker, receiver and protagonists in a story (“denotation” in a language). The reason why the narrator can occupy the position of a speaker is that this story has been “heard” by him. And the narrator used to be in the position of a receiver, namely, validity of narrative knowledge originates from particular cultural heritage. This also implies that, by listening to this story, the receiver is also able to acquire similar authority, that is, validity of narrative knowledge is transferrable. Furthermore, there is one more important factor, namely, the speaker might at the same time be the protagonist of the story, who is denoted in the story, just because he has a name of Karshnarva, (which is a sign of clan consanguinity heritage), while the actual receiver (the buckra) at this time doesn’t have this authority. Therefore, the key whether the actual receiver can obtain the authority of retelling (speaker) by listening to the story lies in whether the receiver recognizes validity of narrative knowledge. If the buckra receivers judge the story by the validity standard of scientific knowledge, and negate validity of narration, then they will actually lose the authority of acting as the speaker (retelling) in the tradition. If we regard language as a game which contains social relationships, then “A set of pragmatic rules that constitute social relationships will get transferred together with narration”.

Here we are confronted with conflict of validity issues in two kinds of knowledge. From the angle of scientific knowledge, narrative knowledge is by no means a kind of knowledge, because these narrations have never been demonstrated. Through transferrable pragmatics, narrative knowledge gets itself trusted without debate and proposing of evidence. Scientific knowledge classifies it into a thought condition which is constituted by public opinions, convention, authority, prejudice, ignorance, and escapism, etc: barbarism, originality, lag, underdevelopment and dissimilation …, while from the angle of narrative knowledge, scientific knowledge is not only incapable of acting as validity standard of other knowledge, like overrated logical positivists, but has never discovered its validity standard. Whether the internal logic consistency or external experiential validity, they are continually animadverted and doubted even inside scientific philosophy.

Lyotard opposed to regarding scientific knowledge (primarily natural scientific knowledge) as the unique knowledge, and to the tendency of excluding narrative knowledge. He believed that these two kinds of knowledge were different, and they differed from each other in the respects of functions, expressing way, and validation methods, so we couldn’t negate the status and effect of narrative knowledge just due to differences between these two. He also believed that scientific knowledge needs to validate itself in virtue of narrative knowledge, which enables scientific knowledge to obtain its deserved meaning and value. Scientific knowledge still needs to resort to narrative knowledge, tradition, culture and authority to confirm its validity. Both Kuhn and Feyerabend have revealed close association between science and culture of its era. In this respect, all knowledge belongs to narrative knowledge, and scientific knowledge is merely a special variety of narrative knowledge. As one kind of language games, development of new “trick” of scientific knowledge is just like correction of Kepler on the planet orbit theory of Copernicus; or it just alters the entire game by inventing new rules, just like relation between Einstein’s theory of relativity and the classical physics of Newton, which is the scientific revolution defined by Kuhn.
1.3 Post-modernism: elimination of “grand narrative”

It has been mentioned previously that, the purpose of Lyotard is to study knowledge status of a developed society, on the basis of which he developed his Post-modernism theory. He believed that, in order to validate itself, scientific knowledge of the modern society is accustomed to apply the metadiscourse with an integrative function. Once this metadiscourse is discovered, all sorts of knowledge forms can be integrated into a comprehensive narrative framework, which is “the dream of modernism”:

I use the word “modern” to refer to the science that has to resort to a certain type of metadiscourse with a large narrative framework to validate itself, such as Spiritual Dialectics, Meaning Hermeneutics, liberation of rational subject or labor subject, or creation of fortune.

Post-modernism can thereby be defined as “doubt about meta-narrative framework”. In the post-modern society, with deconstruction of “grand narrative”, validity of knowledge was in crisis. The way to resolve the issue lies in the “deconstruction” per se. In a post-modern society, we had to face diversity of discourse and different language games --- all decided by ourselves, not obtaining validity from the outside world, and furthermore, various narrative frameworks are not mutually reductive.

Narrative function is losing its subject, its great hero, its great adventure and target. It disappears under cover of narrative language factors --- narrative, referential, clairvoyant, and descriptive, etc, …Whatsoever, we needn’t establish stable language combination, and the features of language combination we establish are not necessarily communicative.

It goes without saying that, this is doubt and clearing up about rational spirit and subject spirit of human beings since the Enlightenment Era. In the field of scientific philosophy, Lyotard refused to explain science as expression of all actual knowledge. He advocated “narrative understanding” in science, namely, describing it as a perfect “small narrative” in the particular context appropriate to it. This doesn’t necessarily mean that it is impossible to acquire knowledge. On the contrary, “it refines our sensitivity towards differences, and strengthens our ability to put up with incommensurability”. Feature of Post-modernism is not only diverse accretion of different words, but harmonious coexistence of distinguished cultures from a positive perspective.

2. Scientific relativism and local knowledge

2.1 Feyerabend: a scientific philosophy of Post-modernism

It has been mentioned previously that, the two validity standards of logic positivism about scientific knowledge are confronted with difficulties, which originate from self-development of scientific philosophy: (1) Falsificationism of Poppe’s counter-induction and an experientially-observed thinking that negates the existence of “theory-free”; (2) Kuhn’s thinking that metaphysics hypothesis and “incommensurability” were contained in the scientific normal formulas; (3) proposing of “incompleteness theorem” by Kurt Gödel. The above (1) and (2) collapse validity of external experiences in the scientific theory, while (3) suspects the consistency of internal logic in the scientific theory. With development of these thinking trends, demarcation between science and non-science has become obscure, and scientific philosophy has gradually started to lose its traditional theoretical field. By the time of Feyerabend, an extreme scientific relativism or scientific anarchism had come into existence, which claimed “opposition of methods”, and “valediction of sense”, and which integrated scientific philosophy and Post-modernism.

The previous validity issue about scientific knowledge and delimitation issue of science and nonscience both concern similarities and differences between religions and witchcrafts in the society of science (Occidentally) and disindustrialization. According to Lyotard, the latter two belong to “narrative knowledge”. Feyerabend believes that, since theorists always control an experiment based on their own favor, myths and witchcrafts can also endure confirmation and falsification. Those decisive adoptionists can always provide experiential proof for their theories, so that myths can also be based firmly on experiences just as the highly praised scientific theory. Myth is not merely outcome of imagination.

Myth is far from the imaginative thing that contradicts with the reality, but a thinking system maintained by several direct and persuasive experiences. Furthermore, through experiences, myths are more convincing than the complicated experimental results of the world prospect of the science nowadays on which they are based.

Feyerabend pointed out, similar to myths, once science becomes an ideology, it will be degenerated into a dictatorial religion. Nowadays, ideology of scientism has turned science into a sacred church. Myth is a bygone science and science is a myth today. This conclusion is not applied in its metaphorical meaning. If we look back to origin of science, we should discover that, science was not inborn “nobly”: as is well known, chemistry originates from alchemy, and astronomy from the ancient astrology.

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Astronomy benefits from pythagoras and preference of Plato towards the circumference, and medical science from Herbalism, psychology, metaphysics, physiology of a witch, howdies, and guileful people and mountebanks… Science is enriched by methods and achievements of nonscience everywhere, but procedures which are often seen as the essential part of science are abandoned or replaced without any notice.
Here another example: Evans-Prichard, the British social anthropologist well known for his inspection in African culture, mentioned that, Azande witchcraft has a cosmology, which can handle easily what might be “uncertain” for a layman. If one person tries to kill or hurt another man with a witch craft, but without any effect, then Azande witchcraft could easily explain the reason underlying. Or if one asks for instructions of gods, something unknown “happens mistakenly” at this particular period; or a curse of a ceremony is not correctly fulfilled; or this person has a witchcraft stronger than that of the one who tries to hurt others. Then, Pritchard questions: if there exists such a case, then in what meaning can the Occidental science declares that they understand the world based on more truths than Azande?

Here we come back again to conclusion of Lyotard: all knowledge is narrative, while validity of narrative knowledge should resort to its own cultural heritage. Therefore, each kind of knowledge can only be “truth” within its own cultural tradition. Here contains mystery of witchcrafts and many original mysterious phenomena, which we will go into detailed analysis in the case study in Part 3.

2.2 Locality and validity of knowledge

Local knowledge was proposed by the American Interpretive Anthropology master, Clifford Geertz and the philosopher of science, Joseph Rouse. The background of Interpretive Anthropology was that profound theoretical crisis which happened in the field of Anthropology in 1960s. Due to the popularization of cultural relativism, people doubted about the objectiveness and effectiveness of the work by anthropologists: if mutual communication is not possible between different cultural normal formulas, then is it possible for the description of a cultural sign and its research method to explain the culture? Do they still have any guiding meaning upon the methodology? Whether on earth is it possible for communication between different cultures? Some scholars even doubted about the field work by anthropologists fundamentally, and proposed the interrogation of “Is cultural sign really reliable?” Furthermore, some noted cultural anthropologists at that time came to opposite conclusions for the field work done at the same place, which further made the academic reputation of a cultural sign in a shaky crisis. The Interpretative Anthropology of Geertz resorted to the concept of local knowledge and the method of “thick description” to try to save this crisis. The so-called local knowledge means that, generation and justification of knowledge is related to specific context, which here includes value concept of culture and subculture groups formed under a given historical condition, and the standpoint and field of view determined by given interest relations. All knowledge is local, and the so-called generally applied knowledge is no more than an imagination. Spread and utilization of knowledge is also not an “exemplification” of general knowledge, but a result of “laboratory transplant” and “standardization”, namely, knowledge under one cultural background transplanted into another cultural background, and a re-production process of knowledge under the same condition. The so-called “thick description” just borrows the thought of the philosopher Gilbert Ryle. Taking the fact of a boy winking as an example, Ryle revealed the complicated features of social behavior and cultural symbols. Pure winking, winking to another person, winking of imitating others to mock them, practice winking in the presence of a mirror, and intentionally winking so as to let the third party mistakenly believe that there exists a special relationship between the other two that doesn’t actually exist…. All these behaviors with totally different implications are merely one action in the thin description like a camera --- nothing more than winking, and their respective rich social and cultural information can only be fully revealed in thick description. Even a simple winking is so complicated, let alone description of human behaviors with the characteristic of a highly complicated cultural sign. Geertz used the two concepts of local knowledge and thick description for two reasons. On the one hand, he followed the tradition of cultural relativism, admitted the local feature of knowledge, and placed emphasis on observation of a different culture “from the native’s point of view”, especially non-western culture. On the other hand, he used the method of description to reveal a certain objectiveness of the culture, so as to pioneer a way that would surpass extremely cultural relativism. Particularly, Geertz emphasized “to observe oneself from the angle of another one”, referred to the non-western culture as a reference, and reflected upon the cultural reality of anthropologists themselves, so as to eliminate “Occident-centered view” and “Cultural Hegemonism”. Geertz made great contributions to development of western cultural anthropology.

Local knowledge is obviously a narrative knowledge, whose validity originates from its cultural heritage. From the previous definition, it is concluded that, validity of local knowledge is not only reflected in the generation process, but in the justification process, while justification of knowledge is closely related to the validity issue of knowledge. If the “locality” of local knowledge is also displayed in the process of justification, then it undoubtedly equals to admitting that validity of local knowledge also has the feature of “locality”. In other words, local knowledge is only valid to the particular cultural tradition that produces it. And then, we come back to the original topic again: how one member in a cultural tradition to understand local knowledge in another cultural tradition? In this way, Geertz, who was deeply influenced by western cultural relativism, could finally find no way out of the dilemma of cultural relativism.

However, Geertz knew for sure that, paradox of a theory can sometimes only be resolved in practice. For these things, “the same as riding a bike, action is easier than words.” Geertz practiced what he had preached, and observation of the social and cultural meaning of cockfighting in Bali in his book entitled <<Deep Game: Description of Cockfighting in Bali>> has been a typical model of Interpretive Anthropology. In this article, Geertz recorded the transition process from his
being excluded to being accepted by residents in Bali just by a chance --- being dispersed by the police because of watching a cockfighting. Being recognized and accepted by this cultural system, he had the authority to retail narrative knowledge within the system, and his analysis of the social and cultural meaning of cockfighting in Bali then had its reliable authority. Here, Geertz tried not only to overcome the cultural relativism with his actual action, but led the way for our field work.

3. Case analysis

The basic conclusions we have got are as follows: all knowledge belongs to local knowledge, and also narrative knowledge. Validity of knowledge depends on the particular cultural tradition which produces knowledge, and, thereby, it is only valid within its own particular cultural tradition. The effective path to overcoming cultural relativism lies in participation in that cultural tradition through practice, so as to give certain “thick description” to that cultural tradition. In the following, we are going to briefly analyze three typical cases: “god-man communication”, “miracle” and “alternative medicine”.

3.1  “God-man communication”

At first, limbs of the conjurator begin to wobble, with an accelerating frequency. In a flash, he sways from head to foot, and his head whirls continually more and more fast for approximately a couple of minutes. Then, his long hair begins to flutter in the air, and his neck swings with an inconceivable angle… When the sound of the drum attains its summit, he begins to waver… his mouth slobbering, his head shaking. He leaps staggeringly with his tiptoe from one side to another in the house, and he makes a weird sound. By this time, he begins to cut his tongue with a sharp sword… He pierces a spike into his cheeks, beats himself with an acanthosphere, or climbs a knife ladder.

This is a record of telepathizing occasion in a temple of Singapore. The weird body language of the conjurator is a cultural sign for communication with the Deity, while his later super performance is a proof that he has succeeded in communication with the deity. For instance, climbing of a knife ladder symbolizes elevation of the soul. However, here the supernormal capacity of the conjurator or the necromancer tends to surprise a large majority of anthropologists: How they manage to do this? In addition to magic or deceit, there is another cultural explanation on this phenomenon. In the analysis of the Azande witchcraft, we have mentioned this point, and believe that here conceals mystery of many mysterious phenomena. willis. W. Hamann has mentioned, people with different cultural background usually experience different realities, which is just like the case in which a deeply mesmerized subject has a totally different realistic world with the ordinary people. This is a sort of “cultural hypnosis”. A person who lives in a cultural atmosphere of worship of gods and who deeply believes that he can communicate with gods, can’t experience the pain of an ordinary person if he is in a state of extremely craziness, which is quite possible. Another instance is the “fire-walking training” popular in American: people living under a certain cultural background know that, sometimes walking on a burning charcoal fire barefooted might not burn one’s skin. Thousands of well educated people, with only training of several hours, can manage to do this, which merely needs to train them to accept the psychological hint that fire wouldn’t burn their skin.

3.2 “Miracle”

A man with a first name of Jin, is an old follower who believes in God for 25 years, and he now holds the position of Presbyter in a nearby village. According to him, he suffered from nephritis when he was young, and the disease tortured him almost to death. But in 1982, there was someone in the village who passed to him “Gospel” which was said to be able to cure his disease. Then he believed in God just with an attitude of trying. However, what was mysterious, later after he believed in God, his symptom began to mitigate, and afterwards, he gradually recovered. He said, “within these 25 years, I have never suffered again, and this is owing to the blessing endowed by God. Thank God.” At present, he often witnesses with his personal experiences and passes “Gospel” to others.

The above case is chosen from a field work material of a Chinese scholar about the relief situation of Christian in Chinese rural areas. The Presbyter in the material is a typical example among Chinese adoptionists. I still prefer to regarding this as another typical case of “cultural hypnosis”. Mitigation or recovery of his disease might be merely a coincidence, but as for the presbyer who has already been convinced of Christian, it is natural that he owes this “miracle” to bestow of God. Likewise, There appeared a wave of persecuting witches in Europe in the 16th century. Robin. Briggs recorded that, an elderly woman named Bobby in a small town in England was unfortunately charged as a witch. After excruciation, she began to make a confession, admitting she had conjured many of her enemies. With development of the case, Bobby began to deeply believe that she was a witch who had a magic, and she had murdered numerous men, women and children with drug powder. She also recalled her confederates whom she saw in the ghost-worship ceremony (an occasion for get-together of witches) at midnight, then she also pointed out three other elderly women, who got arrested and trialed soon. Here, whether persecutors or casualties, they were all mesmerized by the strong witchcraft culture at that time, and their imagination and the reality were confused as a whole. Maybe we think that it’s self-contradictive that the primitives believed they were both humans and crows, which is unbelievable. However, just as Anthony Giddes pointed out: What is the logic of thought to believe that bread fragment in the Eucharist is the body of Jesus, and the liquor is his blood, or to
believe that time swells with acceleration of speed in the Theory of Relativity? What people believe or not actually depends on what they “would like” to believe or not. As a matter of fact, difference between knowledge system and belief system is not so much as we imagine.

3.3 “Alternative medicine”

The following is an excerpt of recollection by the American doctor Lewis Mehl-Madrona on his own experience, which has changed his view about the overall traditional medicine. Wesley in this article is a Native American. Doctors in the Medical Center of Duluth University diagnosed that he had suffered from lymphoma, and disclosed that he could live for at most six months. Wesley turned to an Ojibway witchwoman named Carolyn to hold a ceremony for him.

Carolyn “mesmerized” Wesley with a psychological cure, which was the antecedent procedure in a ceremony. In the following four nights, she took us into a shanty: a bungalow made with sallows, which was covered with carpets, coverlids and paulins outside. Each night, we stayed here and prayed for approximately five hours for Wesley. In the daytime of the four days, Carolyn stayed alone with Wesley --- they two praying, telling stories, and burning herbs. She also met his family. By the fifth day, she walked out with Wesley, and told him that he should stoop for worship several times each day until when a glede appeared, which symbolized that he would recover.

In that afternoon, Wesley discovered a glede, and was in a trance. Carolyn conjured on the spot, and she scattered tobacco and corn flour onto the ground to purify it. She burned sage to repel the evil, she intonated the hymn, she asked for instructions from the Holy Spirit, and she also smoked a Holy pipe. Finally, Carolyn told Wesley that, the White Buffalo goddess ordered to her that he had already recovered.

When Wesley returned to the City, his doctor unexpectedly couldn’t find any trace of his lymphoma --- but unable to give any explanation for disappearance of his lymphoma. They just recorded this case in his medical record as a rare and unexplainable spontaneous alleviation of a symptom. … The observation time limit of the doctor having passed, his doctors finally agreed with words of the Goddess. They declared that, Wesley had already totally recovered.

The author of this article Lewis Mehl-Madrona is a student trained in American Medical College, who has a doctor license recognized by the country. His own experience again pushed the demarcation issue of science and non-science to us in a sharp way which has been eliminated by Feyerabend. As one form of alternative medicine, does the traditional medicine have any effect? Is it scientific? At what meaning do we define science? Within the limit of western cultural tradition? As local knowledge, is it that it only has effect within its own internal cultural tradition? … In the frame of reference in western cultural tradition, there is another case of “alternative medicine”, which is obviously traditional Chinese medical science. However, its efficiency in curing has been obvious to all.

This kind of issue is not of little importance, but desiderates a definite answer, because it is concerned with the subsidization of the government and the society to research of “alternative medicine”. Taking America as an example: in addition to formal National Institutes of Health (NIH), it also has established “Organization of Alternative Medicine” (OAM) and “National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine” (NCCAM). In 2001, The US Congress appropriated a fund of $ 5 million to OAM; in 2003, it again appropriated a fund of $ 113.4 million to NCCAM. After the foundation of PRC, support of the Chinese government enabled this ancient medical technique to survive in this modern society and play an important role. Validity of local knowledge sometimes needs to resort to support of the national authority, which is another exemplification of the relation between modern social knowledge and authority pointed out by Joseph Rouse.

4. Epilogue: “moderate relativism”

Culture is an intangible and lasting spiritual power. It exists in mind of each cultural holder, and is reflected in the social organization and living method of a nation. There exists a “cultural map” in the mind of each cultural holder, while the task of anthropologists is to study this map. How to deal with “cultural others” reflects the social civilization development of mankind fundamentally. The self-important cultural absolutism is a hotbed for chauvinism and cultural hæ曾任ism to attempt to measure cultures of all nations with an unchangeable standard and to regard all other cultural forms as a reflection of primitiveness, barbarousness and backwardness. This cultural absolutism might bring disastrous damage to civilization of human beings. However, due to the fact that the extreme cultural relativism emphasizes cultural particularity of each nation in the wrong perspective, it also objectively negates possibility of mutual communication between cultures. If we have to adopt a theoretical standpoint on this issue, then I believe that, the standpoint of a “moderate relativism” is feasible. This “moderate relativism” on the one hand opposes cultural absolutism, extremely respects diversity and particularity of ethnic culture of each nation and fully respects particular values and living ways of each nation; on the other hand, it differs from the extreme relativism, but emphasizes possibility and necessity of mutual communication between all national cultures. In mutual communication, they achieve mutual understanding and recognition. This sort of cultural recognition neither changes itself totally into a member of another cultural community, nor regards culture of the other nation as a “sample” or “fossil” for appreciation with a predominant attitude. Since “action is easier than words” in this kind of job, and theory goes in advance of practice, then we should start from the most
ordinary and tough field work with a modest and equal attitude, listen to their heart, touch their emotional pulse, experience and blend into their culture. During this process, we participate in and share their living, and feel that they are just the same as us, who are all members of this global cultural family. This is a tough but valuable task:

Culture of a nation is collection of a text and itself, while anthropologists try to translate them passing the shoulder of those people who they were supposed to belong to. A difficulty in such a situation is tremendous, …However, on whatever level, and however complicated, the guidance principle is the same: society, exactly like life, contains its own explanation. One can only learn how to get approached to them.

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Commonness and Differences between Chinese and Western Market Economic Systems

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Abstract
The initially established market economic system in China has had several common features by comparison with those typical ones in western countries, and market mechanism has been a fundamental means for adjusting economic activities. However, in terms of ownership, scope of functioning in market subject and market mechanism, relations between government and enterprises, legal guarantee and moral constraints of market economy, the market economic system in China is still immature, and further reform is a necessary choice. Emphasis of the future reform lies in the following: to further perfect property right system, to improve macro-control policy, and to quicken political system reform so as to promote transition of government functions.

Keywords: China, Western countries, Market economic system

Market economy originated from western countries, and has been quite mature after its development and evolvement of almost a century, gradually accepted and adopted by many developing countries. To be specially mentioned, from the first socialist country in the early 1900s Soviet Russia, to other socialist countries founded after the Second World War in 1940s, all of them switched to the more efficient market economic system one by one after difficult exploration of planned economic system of almost a decade, which fully certified strong vitality of the market economy. Under such a circumstance, developing countries switching to market economy later, especially the transforming China, can’t but carefully look into successful experiences and many disadvantages of western market economy, so as to learn from their strengths to make up for its weaknesses. Especially today when China has taken its first step in establishing the basic framework of market economic system and when is a key period for several aspects to be perfected, we should make more comprehensive and profound comparative analysis, in order to further absorb refined parts in those mature market economic systems, and to offer reference for successful progress of the key stage of the reform.

When analyzing and comparing the Chinese and western market economic systems, we could only regard the current (the beginning of the 21st century) Chinese rudimental market economic system as a sample.

1. In terms of ownership and market subject

Western countries with the market economy all carry out private ownership of productive means. “Inviolability of private property” is the foundation for their building the country and the ground of their social system.

Of course, in different historical periods and in different countries, proportion of state-owned economy and private-owned economy respectively is different. In America, production value and employed population in state-owned enterprises was approximately 2%. In Japanese, state-owned enterprises since the Second World War are mainly distributed in the fields of infrastructures, city public utilities, resource and energy exploitation, etc, and in fields of financing, insurance and medical treatment connected with social security causes, and their proportion are generally between 5% and 10%. In Germany, state-owned economy accounts for an important status in the country. Especially in such fields as infrastructure projects, post and telegraph, communications, railway, water supply and ports etc, state-owned economy occupies a proportion above 90%. Among the Gross National Product, state-owned economy accounts for nearly 10%. In addition to completely nationalized enterprises, there also exist some enterprises with a combination of public ownership and private ownership. Although similar to private enterprises in terms of
management mechanism, large part of risks in these enterprises are assumed by the government since their government possesses its shares. In different countries, proportion of shareholding by the government is different. For instance, in Italy, proportion of shareholding by the country in large-sized enterprises attains above 50%.

Generally speaking, although all countries have developed the state-owned economy to a certain extent after the Second World War, still private-owned economy occupies an absolutely dominant status among the total economic amount. This is the starting point and basis of western economic system. Private enterprises (mainly in the form of corporations, namely, the associated form of private capital) are distinctive in property and rights, and definite in responsibilities and rights, which supplies appropriate micro-subject for design and operation of all sorts of mechanisms in the market economy.

In the current China, through 30 years’ advancement of reform in state-owned enterprises, most traditional state-owned enterprises have been transformed into corporate entity and market competition subject with independent management and sole responsibility. Since the reform and opening, China firstly enlarged self-operation of state-owned enterprises, then reformed their operation means (introducing several forms, such as contract and lease etc), which intensified their vigor. For resolution of contradictions at a deep level, China has advocated since 1993 that, establishment of a modern enterprise system with distinctive property and rights, definite rights and responsibilities, separate functions of government and enterprises, and scientific management is direction for reform of state-owned enterprises. Thereout, reform of state-owned enterprises has entered a stage of enterprise system innovation. So far, a modern enterprise system has been established at large among state-owned enterprises. Meanwhile, state-owned enterprises with a feature of grasping the large and neglecting the small have also achieved remarkable effects in their strategic reorganization, state-owned enterprises seceding and forwarding and some small-sized enterprises transformed into private-owned enterprises. Up to now, large-sized state-owned enterprises directly under the central government have been reduced to approximately 140.

At the same time, according to the guideline of “the public ownership as the main form and the joint development of diversified forms of ownership”, government at all levels has created for private-owned economy a policy environment and legal environment of fair competition, and has rapidly developed private enterprises. Due to natural profit chasing and flexibility of the mechanism among private enterprises, their economic benefits are generally better than those of state-owned enterprises.

The above state-owned enterprises and private-owned enterprises altogether constitute the micro-subject of Chinese market economy. Compared with western enterprises, they have both commonness with western enterprises and their own characteristics.

1.1 Their commonness is mainly indicated in the following:

1.1.1 Distinctive property and rights relations. An enterprise enjoys all the property rights of the legal person formed by investment of the investor (including the state, private individuals or other enterprises) of an enterprise, and becomes a corporate entity which enjoys civil rights and assumes civil responsibilities. Corporation, individually invested enterprise, and partnership are the primary organizational forms of enterprise property and rights.

1.1.2 Based on all of its corporate property, an enterprise, operates independently pursuant to the law, is responsible for its own profits or losses, pays taxes according to regulations, and assumes responsibility of value maintenance and appreciation for its investors.

1.1.3 Based on his invested capital, an investor enjoys interests of a proprietor.

1.1.4 According to market demands, an enterprise organizes its production and operation, with pursuit of profits as the direct target, and survives the market competition or is eliminated. Government has no direct intervene in production and operation of enterprises.

1.1.5 There exists a standardized governance structure within an enterprise, which is used to adjust and constrain relations of responsibility, rights and interests of proprietors, operators and employees.

1.2 Differences between Chinese and western enterprises are mainly indicated in the following:

1.2.1 Quantity and controlling force of their state-owned economy are six to one. As stated previously, state-owned economy in western countries merely account for less than 10% of the total national economy, and its impacts on the overall economy is relatively small. However, although quantity of state-owned enterprises and state-controlled enterprises in China has reduced from the original 238,000 to the current 150,000 approximately, their total assets have increased considerably. Among the significant industries and fields related to the national security and life of national economy, state-owned economy still occupies an absolute controlling force.

1.2.2 Enterprise reform in China, especially state-owned enterprise reform, is still not thorough. For example, constraint on property and rights in part of enterprises is not enough, a competence and motive of independent operation and self-innovation is lacking, extensive operation is relatively at large, and especially efficiency and benefits of
state-owned enterprises still lag behind. However, enterprise system in western countries has been quite perfect, which is indicated in sound operation mechanism and sufficient operation independence. Therefore, for China, it is still extremely necessary to further deepen systems in state-owned enterprises, township enterprises, and collective enterprises. What’s more, there still exist disadvantages in the structure of property and rights of some collective enterprises (whether in the city or in rural areas).

1.2.3 In terms of internal management system (or governance structure) of an enterprise, influences of political system result in great differences. Organizations of the Party are set up in most of internal enterprises (in addition to small-sized private enterprises) in China, which are responsible for supervising the carrying out and implementation of guidelines and policies of the Party and the nation. Although the Party organizations don’t participate in daily operation of an enterprise, key issues are discussed and determined by the Party, especially when such issues related to human resource arrangement etc, are involved. Of course, the role of Party organizations may be more obvious in state-owned enterprises than that in private enterprises. In China, the primary function of corporate Labor Union and Employee Congress is to organize employees to participate in democratic management of the enterprise. However, this function has been weakened in the process of reform, let alone being strengthened, because this function endowed by the law is somewhat vacant, lacking in specific content and maneuverability. Meanwhile, the function of Labor Union negotiating with the investors on behalf of employees has not gained its deserved focus. As a specially established department within an enterprise, neither the membership nor the welfare of the professional Labor Union organizations and personnel is decided by employees, and their self-interests have no way to be in compliance with those of employees, so their helping employees to maintain their rights on behalf of them will not have a bright future. However, there doesn’t exist any political organizations in western enterprises, and their operation and decision-making power in fastened on managerial personnel. The primary function of the Labor Union is to maintain interests of employees and to negotiate with investors on behalf of employees. Therefore, interests of employees in western enterprises can get more favorable protection.

2. In terms of the role of market mechanism

Through practices of reform and opening in the recent thirty years, there has formed a relatively complete market system with multi levels. At present, price of commodities and service is basically determined by the market. According to the statistics, among the total retail amount of social consumer goods, total takeover amount of agricultural products and total sale amount of production means, proportion of market regulation price respectively accounts for 95%, 96% and 87.8%. Capital market has had its initial scope, and become enriched and perfect day by day. Primary land market has fundamentally taken the place of former planned supply system. Labor market has been expanded increasingly, and has stepped towards the target of consolidated rural-urban. Such intangible assets markets as technological market, and information consultation market have also been formed and been more and more standardized. All the above have reinforced the comprehensive regulating effect of market mechanism on economic activities within the national scope and in foreign economic cooperation. Market has become the primary means for distributing resources, and played a basic role. It is just in this sense that we say the market economic system has been basically established in China.

However, compared with perfect market system formed within almost a decade in western countries, the market system in China is still not perfect, which is mainly indicated in the following:

There exist defects in the pricing mechanism of some significant economic resources. For instance, price of land, energy and mining is still based on that predominated by government, and is not regulated by the market. When intervening price of these resources, the government is often influenced by several nonmarket factors (even non-economic factors), which causes incapability of the price of some products to exactly reflect their value and scarcity. For example, in recent years, the price of petroleum product deviates from the volatility of the international market. In addition, there exists the phenomenon of administrative monopoly in several industries, and their pricing mechanism is not perfect and transparent, which can’t motivate managerial improvement and profit increasing in these enterprises. What’s more, although each level of local government in China has played a positive role in organizing economic activities, they tend to become negative forces for the market mechanism due to their own interests (achievements, local fiscal revenue, benefits and welfare of officials, and even a desire for power rent-seeking). These negative forces might directly or indirectly result in regional blockade, market partition, repeated construction, and cut-throat competition (mainly manifested in terms of investment invitation, ne project launching, and image projects, etc). The result is that, some significant production resources and commodities can’t flow freely to a larger extent, and therefore, the optimized distribution of production means can’t be implemented.

3. In terms of government intervene in economy and the relations between government and enterprises

Modern market economy is no longer a laissez-faire market economy, since both Chinese and western market economy can’t go without intervene and regulation by the government. Of course, in different countries, means and degree of economic intervene by the government differ largely, and differences between China and western countries are more obvious.
In America, government intervene is mainly by means of policies of financing, revenue, and monetary policy, as well as government purchasing, eliminating the means of national plan. The country has no annual or medium-and-long-term development plan. Specific investment, production and operation activities are completely and independently decided by the enterprise. Similar to America, Britain is known as the typical market economy nation. Japan and France are known as nations with a planned and market economic system. Japanese government attaches great importance to the use of medium-and-long-term plan to intervene macroscopic economy. Economic plan and industrial policy are two distinctive means used by Japanese government to introduce enterprise investment and make operational decisions, which had positive effect in the economic growth after the Second World War. Besides, Japan also pays great attention to regulating means, such as financial policy, and monetary policy, etc. However, Japanese governmental intervene in the economy gives priority to economic and indirect means, without direct administrative command or compulsory plan. And France is noted for its instructive economic plan. The first task for the French plan is to set up a constructive target, and then achieve this target through coordination of enterprises, the nation and all levels of economic departments. This plan has coordinated interests of all economic subjects, and has created a relatively harmonious economic environment. Meanwhile, the government makes use of public budget and demonstrative driving role of state-owned enterprises to realize economic development target. German is known as a social market economic system nation. Its primary characteristics include three aspects: firstly, to promote efficiency, to ensure that market mechanism will play a basic role in resource distribution, to tap enthusiasm of humans and to realize economic development and prosperity through market competition; secondly, to pursue and establish a system of fair competition. For this, the government has constituted policies and laws to maintain free competition; thirdly, to pursue realization of social fairness. It emphasizes that unfairness in distribution should be overcome through governmental intervene, and emphasizes that interests of all the people should be protected, not of particular interest groups. Thereby, the government strives to construct a social guarantee network (negating those nations implementing welfare). Economic policies to realize the previous targets by the government mainly include monopoly restraint, monetary stabilization, sufficient employment, and guarantee of balance of international balance of payments.

In China, although the government doesn’t run enterprises directly, it still holds two identities concurrently, namely, the subject of macro-economic management and the subject of national ownership. To deal with the relationships between these two, an essential method is to separate politics from capital, and to separate the function of state-owned capital by the government to be taken charge of by special institutions (or authorized investors), while the government provides special service in the market economy. And the government should play a role of “macro-regulator” and “economic policeman”. Due to incomplete reform, transition of governmental function lags behind reform of other systems, which leads to the coexistence of “Offside and “Omission”. On one hand, there still exists the situation when the government intervenes the micro-economic behaviors, which causes the result that, some behaviors of an enterprise deviates from market signal, value rule and maximal principle of profits. On the other hand, the phenomenon of omission is serious in public service function of the government, which results in unfair market competition, infestation of various potential rules, extremely imperfect social guarantee and some significant and inextricable livelihood issues of citizens. Unfair social distribution phenomena spread all over, legal rights and interests of city-and-rural laborers can’t get guaranteed, and social credit system is not sound, etc. All the above indicates that, political system reform should go hand in hand with that of economic system, and transition of governmental functions has to shoulder heavy responsibilities none the less.

Macro-regulation function of the government in China exceeds that in western countries. The task of macro-regulation is to maintain basic balance of total economic gross, to promote optimization of economic structure, and to lead sustainable, rapid and healthy development of economy. Its primary means include financial and revenue policy, financing and monetary policy, investment policy, and planned management. The current plan is generally instructive, and plays a guiding role with the market as the basis, which mainly provides service in macro-economic target and industrial policy. There still exist some disadvantages in macro-regulation issues for Chinese government, which are mainly indicated in the following: target of macro-regulation over-focuses on ensuring economic growth, especially growth of GDP, which is caused by unilateral performance concept; alternating emergence of frequent alteration of regulating policy and its lagging; competition of interests between the central government and local results in unsuccessful implementation of policies, and therefore emerges the phenomenon of Policy, under countermeasures (such as the real estate market regulation policy); redundant examining and approval systems have become a “forcing house” for the phenomena of power rent-seeking and corruption.

4. **In terms of standardized degree of market economic system**

The market economic system with its initial shape is still not perfect in China, and several game rules are still open to be standardized and perfected, which lies in two aspects:

4.1 **Legal economic system is still not perfect**

Since the reform and opening, achievements of the legal system establishment in China has been striking. So far, most
fields of economic activities have had a law to abide by, but legislative task is still rather tough. On one hand, laws are lacking in some fields, and are out-dated in other fields, therefore needed to be updated and perfected. On the other hand, some laws are short of systematization, even mutually contradictory, some laws are lacking in maneuverability, too general, and some laws are in defect of corresponding regulations and implementation rules. Particularly, with the daily development of information technology and fantasticality of the financial market, new legal rules are in great need for regulating. In the fields of social guarantee and income distribution, and in terms of planning rural-and-city economic and social development, construction of legal systems still lags behind.

4.2 Economic orders are open to be standardized

Social credit system is not sound, with imperfect credit service system, and punishment for faith breaking has just been established. There exists administrative monopoly in a large number of industries and economic fields, lacking in an open, fair and equitable market competition order. Construction of economic and ethic morality is weak. And furthermore, in the situation when the traditional ideology and political education gradually loses its effect, no more effective means has been found to improve the ethic morality quality of economic activity participants. Under the impelling of a strong desire of getting enriched, commercial bribe gets popularized. Potential rules everywhere has largely counteracted regulating role of apparent rules (namely, laws and policies), which results in distorted economic behaviors in enterprises, individuals and the government. From the perspective of the entire society, the result not only impairs impartiality, but also blocks efficiency.

However, market rules and legal systems formed for a long period of time in western market economic countries are more mature and perfect. Of course, there also exist lots of issues in these countries. For instance, supervision of the government on the financial market and capital market is weak, and virtual economy is over-developed, etc, which, likewise, need being reformed and perfected, and require a continually optimized market.

References


The Emergence of India as New Military Power:
Threat or Opportunity to Southeast Asia?

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Abstract
South Asia is a region often tinted with crisis, conflict and war. Historically, this region is undeniably a region exposed by military activities or 'use of force'. Therefore, military development has become a main agenda in South Asian countries in hope to strengthen the defense system and ensure security and national sovereignty. The need of this military development agenda has successfully made India, which obtained independence in 1947, to emerge as a new military power through certain stages to date. This military development will give some impact on Southeast Asian countries either in the form of threat or opportunity. In threat aspect, military development by India definitely will give some implications due to geopolitical issue. However, this development can be seen is more to deterrence approach. In opportunity aspect, ASEAN should take this chance to make relation with India particularly in economic cooperation as they have done with Japan and China. The cooperation measure must be taken by setting up bilateral discussion and formulating the policy in which favor to cooperate with India. Due to this cooperation, India is seen will give some balance to Japan and China influence to Southeast Asian countries.

Keywords: Military Power, Military Development, Security

1. Introduction
Since 1947, after the independence from British, India had given attention to national development in line with the existence of India as an independent and sovereign country. Now, India can no longer be considered as an insignificant country in the international system, on the other hand, India is now a country that would become one of the world's big powers. India’s rapid development in the field of economy, politics and security had an important effect to India’s power in the South Asian region. India’s rise and dominant role in the geopolitics of the South Asian region has placed India as the region’s superpower. In line with the rapid economy and politic development, India has also given immense focus on
the military and defense development. India’s success in developing its military field especially in building nuclear power had given a huge effect to the international geopolitics. India’s speedy development and its rise as a military power have aroused concern among regional countries especially pertaining to security threat.

India’s location as a neighboring country of East Asia and Southeast Asia has often become measurements by legislators of national policy and scholars to discuss the impact on security of other countries. China’s emergence as a military power in East Asia caused concern among Southeast Asian countries. Now, Southeast Asian countries have started to pay more attention on India as India’s influence on security aspect has increasingly expanded. India power on Indian Ocean is similar to China’s power over the South China Sea. Southeast Asia’s location that lies between South China Sea and Indian Ocean becomes a factor that has raise Southeast Asian countries concern on India’s military power rise as India is a dominant power in the Indian Ocean.

2. Factors and Process of India’s Military Development

The emergence of India as a new military power in South Asia has prompted researchers to study and describe factors and political development in South Asia. According to Chris Smith (1994) the political upheaval, conflict and war during India’s early history are the many elements that have influenced Indian policies formation after achieving independence in 1947 (Chris Smith,1994:4;Wayne Wilcox,1972:15-16). Factors such as history, leadership, security, national interest, internal and external conflicts and the situation in the international system have given significant impact to develop the reinforcement of the defense system to strengthen the safety and security level (Chris Smith,1994:8). The emergence of India as a new power in the region South Asia is related to the military modernization development in China during the end of 1980. Additionally, these two superpowers were involved in war related to border dispute in 1962 (Ross Babbage & Sandy Gordon,1992:174). This conflict has left a significant impact to India in addressing and developing their military capabilities. The situation deteriorated when China attempted to expand power in Southeast Asia which has propelled India to toughen their maritime defense force in an effort to prevent the influence of China’s military development in Southeast Asia and South Asia. Michael Leifer (1996:17) also stated that China’s action to claim the island in South China Sea in February 1992 encouraged India to increase security surveillance in Indian Ocean waters.

Scalapino (1975:122) explained that the development of expansion and power among Soviet Union and United States has also motivated India's awareness on security threats. This factor is proven important because superpower involvement in South Asia and Southeast Asia had influenced India to increase the defense system. Expansion and competition of the superpowers in the South Asia involve aspects such as strategic alliances, military aid, containment policy, service support, technology and so forth (Joseph S. Nye Jr.,2000:59-61). Even the support and assistance of the superpowers on countries in the South Asian region is considered as factor to the increase in military technology and development. India’s military modernization in late 1980s was seen by Shekhar Gupta (1975:62) as an obvious desire for India to emerge as a new military power in the region of South Asia and Asia in general. This is because if it is studied, India has allocated large amount of expenditure in the development of military during the late 1980, in fact India was one of the largest arms importer in the world between year 1985-1989.

Since 1947 under Nehru's administration, India practiced a 'non alignment' policy and socialism (Shekhar Gupta,1995:3). He adopted a 'do not intervene' and non-aligned policy although there were differences in ideology aspects and emphasize on peace, besides dealing conflict resolution through diplomacy (Raju G.C. Thomas,1986:66). This is because he himself was a socialist and an idealist (Raju G.C. Thomas,1987:275). India's defense policy under Nehru can be divided into 2 stages namely among year 1947-1949 and 1950-1962. Because India was granted independence in 1947, Nehru implemented policies that have more tendencies to economic development and did not focus on military development (Chris Smith,1994:47). This is because India was facing an economic recession and social problems during the early phase of his administration (Amit Gupta,1995:443). Nehru's policies directly forced budget and national budget to be more focused on economic development. This is the reason why the process of military development and military modernization was delayed during Nehru's era. Although these policies were objected by the other Indian leaders, the concentration was towards economic development.

In 1962, India-China's war directly effected and become the starting point in the change of India's defense policy. In 1962 also India’s Prime Minister Nehru died and his death has opened a space for new policies implementation particularly in the development of military. The war between India and China in 1962 was favorable to China due to its strong military compare to India. This event has triggered India to develop its military power to ensure their defense and security. For this reason the allocation of expenditure on defense has recorded a high increase (Amit Gupta,1995:443). Concentration and modernization of India’s military entails all three force of defense namely land, navy and air. Additionally emphasis also was focused on the development military technology and research. India has proven its effort and has yielded success whereby in May 18 1974 India has successfully produced its first's nuclear bomb that was tested in Pokran (Amit Gupta,1995:448: Farzana Shaikh,2002:43). Realizing their defeat during the China-India war in 1962, India started the move to strengthen its defense and military modernization. With that, India cooperated with the Soviet to receive weaponry supply for the purpose of military developments. India-Soviet's cooperation is visibly successful in
modernizing Indian military power until the end 1980, whereby India has owned weapons equipment imported from Soviet such as cannon 155mm, T-72's tank, MIG-21, Mirage's aircraft 2000, and long-range bomber (Shekhar Gupta,1995:3). In terms of allocation, India's defense expenditure recorded an increase, for example at the end of the year 1985, an increase from 2% to 4.2% to 1989 was seen from the GDP. India's allocation and expenditure has been recorded as the world largest importers of arms with cost nearly worth US$ 10 billion (Asian Defence Yearbook 2000-2001:51).

The superpower development and competition among United State and Soviet Union in South Asian region had aroused security threat and political instability. This is because Soviet Union's communist power evolved in Afghanistan in 1980's, while America's assistance and support has been given to Pakistani for the purpose to prevent Soviet’s energy development base on 'containment policy' strategy (V. Longer,1988:56). This development has directly given security threats to India with the superpowers and United States assistance to Pakistan. Developments such as arms race, China-Pakistan relationship, United State-Pakistan and separatist rebellion in Kashmir and Punjab have raised Indian leader awareness to re-examine policies such as the neutral policy and independent region from the grip of superpower and national defense policy (Amit Gupta,1995:448). This current development has prompted India which was under the government of Prime Minister Indira Ghandi to study and make changes on national defense policies. Thus, India has made military development, implemented 'South Asian Doctrine', rejects intervention of foreign power on South Asia’s countries internal problem and neutral policy. Therefore, Indira Ghandi infers if any South Asian country accepts the entry of a foreign power, it will be assumed as a threat to regional security especially South Asia. However, all changes that were made by Indira Ghandi have been deferred when she was assassinated by the Sikh militants in 1984 (Amit Gupta,1995:448).

While India was under the administration of Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi, major changes were made when he realized that the policies implemented previously were ineffective. Internal crisis such as the conflicts in Kashmir and Punjab and threats from outside has prompted to implement more effective new policies particularly in the development of military. This situation had caused India to undergo a more drastic move to develop its nuclear weapons. This is because through the development of nuclear it can create deterrence or prevent enemy’s confrontation beside modernizing the military power (V. Longer,1988:305). To create regional peace Rajiv Ghandi implemented policies enhancing relationship with regional countries and superpowers especially Pakistan, China, Soviet Union and US. By early 1990s the international structure has undergone a big change with the collapse of the power of Soviet Union. Soviet Union's down fall gave an effect on India because Soviet Union was a very close ally and had good ties with India (Shekhar Gupta,1995:3). Thus, India realized it should develop its military capabilities more rapidly to ensure national security. This situation motivated India to develop military aspects particularly in the development of nuclear-weapons that can become a prevention of enemy’s threats (Asian Defence Journal,1997:72).

India has implemented its nuclear development program to protect national interest, security and create balance of power through quantity and quality of strategic arms possession. These strategic weapons refer to nuclear weapons or modern weaponry of mass destruction and are able to provide an advantage to a country. This decision is considered a rational decision because India thinks the world is in state of anarchy and in moving towards military modernization. India is developing a powerful military not only in the field of modern defense but also in the aspect nuclear, biology, and chemical (NBC) weapons (Ashok Kapur,1997:113;Mohd Rashid Darham,1996:44). This is because India thinks ownership of nuclear weapons can ensure India’s survival, security and progress (Francois Heisbourg,1998/1999:78). When China carried out their nuclear-weapons test in Lop Nor on the 16th of October 1964, this made India realize the importance of nuclear-weapons as device to prevent confrontation in the field of military politics (East Asian Strategic Review,2002:109). Concern towards China’s nuclear-weapon threat occurred because of two reasons namely, unresolved border problem and China channeling nuclear program aid to Islamabad. Since China's nuclear weapon test was executed, New Delhi has been actively practicing nuclear choices (Avery Goldstein,2000:251). Furthermore India has tried to develop a medium (IRBM) and long distance (ICBM) missile (Bary Buzan,2002:9). Soviet Union has given help in terms of expertise and 2 nuclear reactors to India in 1992. India also received help from Israel for the purpose of countering Islamic bomb (Asian Military Review,December 1993:38-40).

Edward Mead Earle (1973: 418-420) has underlined 6 key features to emerge as a maritime power are history, physical location, size of region, national population character and institutions of the country to be a maritime power. The maritime interest is base on the need to provide security coverage to hundreds of archipelago, thousands of kilometers of beach, a wide Exclusive Economic Zone area (EEZ) and geographical position interest and the strategic location of the Indian subcontinent which is located in the middle of Europe and East Asia (K.M. Panikkar,1995:93). This situation has prompted India to design a maritime defense strategy that incorporates capacity and military force that directly protects the nation from land, air and sea which includes land borders, archipelago province, maritime asset and important trade routes. India also aims to develop a navy that can operate transcending geo-strategic area covering the entire Indian Ocean and South-East Asia. This includes the purchase of Admiral Gorkshkov aircraft carrier, three Kvirok and two kilo submarines for the navy (Asian Military Review,November 1999:26). India’s territorial maritime defense interest has started since the 1960s following the development competition of big powers in Asia Pacific and South Asia that could
threaten India's security (Chris Smith,1994:70. Although since 1960s India has not develop its maritime defense strategy extensively but this development will provide significant capacity to ensure security on its strategic territories Chris Smith,1994:65).

Besides strategic weapon development, India has also implemented a long term plan of conventional military development called the 20 years plan to modernize the defense forces. They allocated USD 20 billions to purchase artillery, tanks, ammunition, surveillance system and visual night aid (Military Review, November 1999:39). This plan involved the purchase of modern and sophisticated defense equipment such as 310 T 90 tanks, Unmanned Aircraft Vehicles (UAVs), 155mm Howitzers cannons, land missile on air, rocket launcher and other equipment (Jane’s Defence Weekly, January 2001:32.). This military development is not just limited to the army, India has also give attention to its air force development which provides modern and sophisticated air defense equipment. They have purchased equipment and aircraft such as the Advanced Jet Trainers, Dassault Mirage 2000s, SU–30 aircrafts, Tupolev Tu bomber–22M3 (Backfire) and many more (Asian military Review, February–March 2000:74). Their Air force has also large allocation which amounted to USD$30 billion to purchase aircraft and training, surveyor aircraft, AWACS, missile and repair of air defense equipment. For the navy, the Indian government has allocated as much as USD$20 billion to buy 2 airplane carrier tankers, submarines, missiles and surveyor aircraft besides having cooperation with foreign country in defense.

This military development process has made India emergence as a new military power when India came forward as a nuclear power. The world was stunned by the threat during the South Asia conflict in 1998 (India and Pakistan) that can bring to the use of nuclear in the clash (Muḥd Izhar Abu Samah,2001:46-47). Directly the conflict among these two states has enlightened the world with the emergence of India as a military power and as a developed nation in the field of nuclear technology. According to Zin Mahmud (2002:30-31):

“\textit{In terms of strength, India exceeds Pakistan, although both have nuclear weapons. Yet India's nuclear power is greater than Pakistan’s. In terms of population and economic strength, Indian is also in a higher position than Pakistan.}”

3. Security Threats Analysis on ASEAN

The emergence of India as South Asia’s military power had raised other countries concern especially Southeast Asian countries on the impact on security. In reality, India’s emergence as a military power would in fact present a security threat, either directly or indirect on Southeast Asian countries because of its geographical location with South Asia. This emergence has a similar scenario when the Southeast Asian Nations (SAN) were worried when China emerged as a military power. The geographical location aspect is a measurement for Southeast Asia countries’ concern which is located near to East Asia and is compel to share the South China Sea (SCS).

China's action in claiming the right on a particular region in SCS using military approach has become a standard for researches to predict India’s superpower actions. SAN had witnessed China utilizing the gunboat diplomacy in SCS which several times had trigger military tension with SAN the armed forces in SCS (Newsweek,1995:10;B.A Hamzah,1998:160 161). The close geography location of Southeast Asian Nation (SAN) and China, besides the fact that they share the South China Sea (SCS) has become a platform for researches to assess the impact of India’s emergence. India’s power over the Indian Ocean and its close sea position with Southeast Asia region has become subject to SAN’s concern.

“As China is on the verge of developing its maritime capability, it is looking at its southern shores more cautiously. It is also vital for China to fight any challenges that come from the south given its conflicting territorial claims. It is also important for China to be able in position to control the sea lanes during times of crises or escalation of tension... If China needs to be recognized as a superpower its ability to control the southern sea is vital (K.S Balakrishnan,1999:50)”.

The emergence of China as a superpower and SAN's concern are almost similar to the anxiety on the emergence of India. The close geography location with the region has become a factor that triggers SAN’s concern. At the same time, India's authority in the Indian Ocean which is an ocean that connects Southeast Asia with the West is almost a similar scenario as China’s control on SCS. The Southeast Asian region is situated amidst the two of the world’s very important ocean; Indian Ocean to the west and South China Sea to the east which is dominated by two superpowers of the world that is India and China. SAN's concern on India is not only about geographical aspect but also involved other factors such as politics, military and regional threats.

In analyzing the impact of India’s emergence towards SAN, it is necessary to examine the early history and relations of India with SAN. At an early stage especially during the establishment of ASEAN, India had its own different opinion with SAN. SAN's objective to set up ASEAN is to create a non-aligned zone of freedom and peace. In other words, ASEAN tries to avoid the domination of any superpower over the Southeast Asian region (Zin Mahmud,2005:11 14). From India’s point of view, ASEAN is established as another political pact and defense similar to the establishment of SEATO (Southeast Asian Treaty Organization) supported by the United States. India had been uncomfortable ever since the US facilitated Pakistan, particularly when it sent airplane carrier tanker, USS Enterprise, to the Indian Ocean during the Indo-Pakistan war in the year 1971 (K.S Balakrishnan, 2000:51). It had influenced India to strengthen its relationship with
the Soviet Union. Nevertheless India had not objected or opposed the establishment of ASEAN. Although India is concerned with the expansion of superpowers, especially the US in the Asia Pacific, yet India is not against the presence of Soviet Union in this region. It had raised conflict of interest between India and ASEAN, whereby during the Cold War ASEAN had been more comfortable with the presence the United States than the Soviet Union (K.S Balakrishnan, 2002:32).

The early relationship of India-ASEAN was also influenced by ASEAN criticizing India’s action during Pakistan's internal crisis in 1971. According to ASEAN, India should not have interfere in the conflict between West Pakistan and East Pakistan (Bangladesh). India’s military presence supporting West Pakistan was seen as meddling in the international affairs of a country’s sovereign. This incident had soured India-ASEAN’s relationship. ASEAN had tried to improved the relationship with India by inviting India as an ASEAN’s dialogue partner in the1970s, however it was aborted when India resort to recognized the Vietnam’s puppet government in Cambodia in 1979. It is contrary to ASEAN’s stance that opposed Vietnam's invasion and occupation over Cambodia. This state of affairs had caused the ASEAN-India relationship to deteriorate. The Communist regime Vietcong control on Vietnam backed by Soviet Union in 1975 indicated US's defeat and withdrawal. It had indirectly opened a room for India to strengthen the relationship with Vietnam’s communist regime.

In fact Vietnam-China's strained relationship since the Sino-Vietnamese war in 1979 was a great opportunity for India to strengthen its relationship with China’s enemy (R.S Sassheen, 1987:111). India also viewed US's withdrawal from Vietnam a an opportunity for China to conquer Southeast Asia (Pushpindar Singh, 1987:60). India’s high concerned of China’s development in Southeast Asia for India was involved in the Sino-India war in 1962 (Asian Defense and Diplomacy, May 2005:10 11). To avoid SAN misunderstanding India’s relationship with Vietnam and Russia, India through Indira Gandhi adopted a wise approach to support the decision during the ASEAN Conference in Bali 1976, for the purpose of creating regional peace and stability.

Military modernization and development of India had also influence SAN’s perception on India. Rajiv Gandhi’s decision to develop the navy force to strengthen the control of Indian Ocean had aroused SAN's concern. India's choices lead by Rajiv Ghandi, in several South Asian ethnic conflicts particularly involving ethnic Indian in Sri Lanka, Maldives and Fiji had also raised SAN’s concern (Zin Mahmud, 2005:11 14). This is because ethnic Indians is a large ethnic community in several SAN countries. Hence, ASEAN is worried of any conflict with Indian ethnic in SAN that will open an opportunity to India to interfere in internal affairs. In strengthen its control over Indian Ocean, India has rapidly developed its maritime defense strategy by combining capacity and military force directed to the national defense of land, air and sea including land border, archipelago, maritime asset and important trade route. Indian also intends to develop its navy that can operate beyond geo–strategic area, covering the entire Indian Ocean and Southeast Asia. USS Enterprise's presence in the Indian Ocean during the Indo-Pakistan war in 971 to aid Pakistan had vested a large awareness on India to emerge as a maritime power in its interest in the Indian Ocean.

"U-S Pakistani ties annoys India relation with Washington in many ways. The 1971 Indo-Pakistani War for the first time witnessed the threat of their alliance with the US. US dispatched its aircraft carrier USS Enterprise during the war. Though India was able to liberate Bangladesh, it for the first time learned the importance of protecting Indian Ocean. It was at this time India realised that it must be a maritime power in the region and to ensure that no countries are able to dictate terms in the Indian Ocean" (K.S Balakrishnan, 2000:51-52).

The interest to defend Indian Territory had started since 1960, following the development competition of big powers in the Asia Pacific and South Asia that could threatened India's security. Although since 1960 India had not extensively developed its maritime defense strategy, the military development had still enable India to protect its strategic territories. India perceives its control on Indian Ocean as important considering it is a route linking Europe and East Asia (K.M Panikkar, 1995:93). India’s aims to develop several military harbors in some islands neighboring Southeast Asian countries, also raised concerned. India’s military settlement proposal in Nicobar and Andaman islands of Benggal Bay had received Indonesia's protest due its extremely close location to Indonesian territory.

Although India is prioritizing developments in South Asia, the expanding influence of China in Asia Pacific is alarming India. This is because China have started strengthening ties with Myanmar and Bangladesh, two countries sharing borders with India (Haris Zalkapli, 2005:24 25). Additionally, China's decision to develop Tibet and Xinjiang rapidly stimulated India’s interest, as both of these areas sharing borders with the western part of India. China-Pakistan and China-Myanmar relationship equally had elevated India's concern on China (Philips HJ Davies, 2001:55). Similarly, close diplomatic ties and India-Vietnam's military cooperation also had provoked China’s attention. This is because military training between India, Korea Selatan and Vietnam and witnessing India sending five warships and Kilo submarines in October and November of 2002 has enabled India to experience training South China Sea. In term of nuclear threats, SAN is increasingly worried about nuclear crisis between India and China. This is because the geography of Southeast Asia is located in the heart of both superpower nations.
On the 16th of May 2001, India’s Prime Minister on an official visit to Malaysia had delivered a speech on India’s decision to maintain the defense doctrine that uses nuclear weapons as device of deterrence and respect ASEAN’s stand for regional peace. (Asian Defense and Diplomacy, December 2002:27). Although in 2001 India had announced its up-to-date ability in successfully developing a sub based deterrent that is capable to strike in seconds, the nuclear doctrine practiced by India is not a strike policy (Asian Defense and Diplomacy, December 2002:27). India’s nuclear development success can directly be deterrence towards China (Dipankar Banerjee, 1999:12 14). Even though this is a miraculous achievement and pride to India, for Southeast Asia it is a disturbing development. This is because ballistic missile blast from Indian Ocean will need to pass over Southeast Asia and South China Sea to reach to China. On the other hand, land ballistic missile would pass areas that are neighboring Southeast Asia to reach the target in China. ASEAN's airspace would also be use if India decides to explode its airborne nuclear deterrent towards China (Philips HJ Davies,2001:55).

Security is the main objective of India in conducting its nuclear weapons development program. India views its nuclear weapon development program as efforts to prevent confrontations from Pakistan and China. Therefore, India has positioned its military at all borders with both countries and located their nuclear weapons that are always ready to face threats (Suhaimi Mokhtar,Mac 2002:62). Indian is also very careful with Pakistan because the conflict among these two nations may trigger war that has happen in 1971 (Asian Defence Journal,1997:78). India's firmness in safeguarding the security through the position of military forces at its border was perform tactically and began in December 2001. President Vladimir Putin speculated that, “they (India) do not want war, but they will go to war when the circumstances forced them to do so” (Suhaimi Mokhtar,August 2002:49). In easier words, “nuclear weapons can prevent nuclear weapons” and India can always be ready to face nuclear threat from the foreign countries (Kenneth Waltz,1979:188-189). This theory is an idea that can convince one country to guarantee the safety of the country under threats (Asian Defence Journal,1997:72).

The ownership of nuclear weapons will cause the aggressor to cancel its intention when they find out that the stated country has nuclear weapons (Howard H. Letner,1997:210). To this date, India's security is said to be guaranteed base on the theory of deterrence.

Although the India-China early relation was majorly influenced by border conflicts that resulted in military development, yet it does not mean the cold relationship will continue. This is because, both countries are always attempting to repair their relationship and tackle the misunderstanding. Since year 1962, both countries have carried out 15 settlement negotiations to resolve the crisis of their 2,500 miles border (Asian Defense and Diplomacy, May 2005:12). Although negotiations constantly failed, it demonstrated both country seriousness and readiness to find solution through diplomacy. India-China's relationship improved after Indian Prime Minister, Atal Behari Vajpayee’s official visit to China in 2003. It was a visit focusing towards restoration of the relationship and overcoming unsolved problems. This visit can be concluded that both countries were not attempting to threaten one another. Vajpayee explained that:-

“The simple truth is that there is no objective reason for discord between us, and neither of us is a threat to the other. this simple profound principles should form the badrock of the future India-China partnership” (Asian Defence And Diplomacy, August 2003:9)

India-China's relationship restoration was reinforced through military cooperation and training between both countries. Being both maritime superpower nations that controls Indian Ocean and South China Sea the ties can be built through training and military cooperation. Hence, in November 2004 witness the first time ever India and China conducted a joint military training (Asian Defense and Diplomacy, December 2003-Januari 2004). It is the extended collaboration of both countries at ministry level, after the head of state effort in 2003. This tie has brought new radiance in the relation between both countries and could lessen Southeast Asia’s concern of a clash between the two superpowers.

Although Southeast Asia had long worried about the current development of India’s political and military, it does not mean that Southeast Asia has doubted India. This is because Southeast Asian Nation (SAN) had already adopted a constructive engagement approach with India, especially to strengthen diplomatic ties and economic cooperation of India-SAN (Mustafa Climb,2001:43 44). ASEAN had invited India to become a dialogue partner to ASEAN and performed close economic cooperation for India is a strong country in terms of economic development (K.S Balakrishnan,2001:5-6). The Indian government had given positive reaction on ASEAN efforts whereby India had helped the security cooperation through ASEAN and ARF. In fact India collaborated in the Confident Building Measure of ASEAN by engaging in a friendly visit and carrying out joint military training. These efforts had increase understanding between countries and enhanced each others trust. India had attempted to convince the trust of SAN by proving that India is not a power that will threaten SAN’s security where India invited those nations to visit and survey its military harbor in Andaman and Nicobar islands. In fact to strengthen the present relationship, India participated in SAN’s informal security and military activities, such as taking part in the Langkawi International Maritime and Air Exibition (LIMA) in Langkawi.

4. The Opportunity Analysis that can be Achieved by ASEAN

The emergence of India as a new power regardless whether it is viewed from military, politics and economical aspects must be seen from a positive angle. Hence, what are ASEAN’s opportunities with India’s emergence as a new power?
And how could ASEAN take the opportunity of this emergence as a new big power? The method that can be used by ASEAN through this emergence of power is to have a bilateral cooperation among the two regions. However this method could only be perceived as “a very slow move”. In stimulating a political, economy, social and security cooperation plan, ASEAN must apply a formula which was previously used (the success in penetrating East Asia’s economy) by performing face to face meetings with Indian leaders and this opportunity should be used as well as possible by both of the country’s leaders to increase economic cooperation plan which should be able to achieve a win-win situation. ASEAN should also execute a bilateral economic dialogue between ASEAN and India, similar to the successful economy dialogue, artificial rubber forum 1974, which persuaded Japan to make an economic cooperation.

When ASEAN put together an economic cooperation with the East Asian region, Japan was the pioneering country of that successful cooperation. Moreover, this economic cooperation expanded to other countries in that region i.e China, South Korea and Taiwan. The continuity of this cooperation created the existence of ASEAN 3 and also EAC which has a role in giving opportunities and profitable trading for both parties. Hence, ASEAN should implements the formula that has been applied before to succeed in performing the cooperation with South Asian countries. This formula should make India a pioneering country to penetrate the market and economic cycle of South Asia. ASEAN should be aware that the importance of India’s power importance is similar to the power of Japanese and China, if it is viewed from the regional economic context. South Asia consist of various countries, namely Pakistan, Bangladeshi, Sri Lanka, Nepal and India. The population in South Asia is said to exceed 1 billion people, which directly will cater a profitable prospect to ASEAN’s economy. Certainly there is a market for ASEAN products and at the same time India can benefit from the ASEAN market that has a population more than 450 million people.

In making this effort successful, discussion and cooperation of the highest level should be carried out effectively. The same move used during ASEAN’s co-operation with Japan can be exercised, which is to conduct meetings and discussions with Japanese highest leaders that eventually formed the Fukuda Doctrine and Look East policy. Hence, a close relationship between leaders and countries needs to be performed as the base of the cooperation that will be conducted. This will provide the chance to mutually discuss on strategic interests between both sides. Whereas in the second stage is through ministerial level that can have the role to implement the decision and agreement which was made by the head of the government. In fact this effort should not face any large difficulty because of the existing relationship between Southeast Asian countries and India, which have been around since the previous government era until the present government.

Dato’ Sri Najib’s visit in 7 June 2006 to India had demonstrated that Malaysia had began to utilize the formula to foster cooperation with India, which is Malaysia’s 10th export destination. Malaysia’s awareness has been influenced by India economic growth rate which attained 7-8% a year and the market strength that undeniably has brought a healthy economy cycle for Malaysia-India. In fact, from the figures of Malaysia-India’s bilateral trade relationship, in 2005 recorded USD 3.9 billion Malaysian exports went to India while the total import from India recorded USD 1.1 billion. South Asian interest is not only subjected to the economical, but also in term of strategy and security. It is a well know fact that Southeast Asia has constantly been a field of motive to expand influence and power by countries whether from Asia or the non Asian countries.

In this context, India is seen as a power that can balance China’s power to ensure the stability in South East Asia. History has proven that both superpowers have been involved in war in 1962. The emergence of China and its military modernization in early 1990’s had a effect called security dilemma on ASEAN and India. This concern was felt by both parties with China’s influence and strength which is increasingly growing in Asia Pacific. Therefore, ASEAN will need other big forces involvement especially India to offset the rising of China. At the same time, India can make ASEAN a partner and shield of any possible threat from China.

In a wide context, India’s power can be a countervailing power to create balance of power from the domination of China, Japan and the United State on Southeast Asia regional interest. China and India expansion of power over Southeast Asia has indirectly raise security threats to ASEAN. Consequently, ASEAN's desire to employ diplomatic and economic ties with both countries will certainly be fruitful because both countries have strategic interests in South-East Asia. At the same time, settlement between both parties has permitted ASEAN to enable a balance of power through direct relationship and economic cooperation. In fact, without realizing it this situation has created deterrence system toward any superpower that tries to threatened Southeast Asia’s security. To fulfill this objective, ASEAN should examine the existing weakness and flaws. ASEAN must reevaluate the planning and strategy that has already been implemented. For sure it requires a more effective formula in activating ASEAN and India's cooperation. ASEAN should make the formula that has been implemented in moving the cooperation with India and South Asia. In other words, ASEAN should not take for granted this opportunity. Surely, ASEAN will be at lost if this chance was taken by another country.

5. Conclusion

The development of military in India is a long term process. It had considered political, sovereignty and security interest in protecting security and sovereignty of the country. Generally India’s military development process experienced
modernization based on several phases and current development. The interest of the country to strengthen Indian defense system has started since India achieved independence in 1974. However, the development process experienced a weak phase especially between 1974-1962. This is because at that time India was still very young, which was after the independence in 1947 and has emphasized more on the economic development and the process of nation building. However, India’s defeat in the China-India war in 1962 because of the border crisis has become a starting point to the military development and a more effective security system. Since that date is has been proven that India have started developing and modernizing its military continuously, besides implementing effective interrelationship strategy in protecting the security and sovereignty of India.

This process had successfully placed India as a new military power in South Asia and Asian region. This is clearly undeniable, although the cold war has ended, India has cleverly arranged strategies to be independent from Soviet Union, especially in securing equipment and defense technology. India has begun to create good relations with superpowers such as United States and Britain to ensure security and technology sharing. Moreover, the collapse of Soviet Union had enlightened India to be independent in building its security system. Indisputably, India's effort has been fruitful when India has successfully become a country of nuclear power after producing nuclear weapons which possesses medium length (IRBM) and intercontinental length (ICBM) in 1998. India has realized, its emergence as superpower has affected other countries especially Southeast Asia.

The emergence of India as a new power with an increasingly significant international geopolitical and economy has raised concern among the region, especially in Southeast Asia. Hence, Southeast Asia faced similar dilemma when China emerged as one of the world's superpower and its control of the South China Sea. China actions such as utilizing the gunboat diplomacy in its quest to claim territories that are overlapping with Southeast Asian countries has become a caution to Southeast Asia in dealing with this particular superpower. Therefore, India’s emergence in modernizing its defense force, including the navy which has brought the success of India to master the Indian Ocean, have started to alarm Southeast Asia. Southeast Asia’s geographical location which is close to the Indian Ocean has become a measurement to evaluate India’s action on Southeast Asia. Southeast Asia’s experience in dealing and facing China’s political behavior have begun to stimulate debate on India’s actions.

In fact India has realized that its emergence as a superpower has affected other countries, especially Southeast Asia. India’s emergence however is not seen as a security threat on Southeast Asian countries. The military development and modernization developed in India is aimed to face threats on Southeast Asian countries. The military development and modernization developed in India is aimed to face threats and meet the requirement of a defense system as a sovereign country. Similarly, its development of strategic weapons is aimed to spawn a system of deterrence to avoid enemy threats on India. India has firmly declared that it will not employ the first use doctrine of nuclear weapon. This is because India is not a country that practices aggressive principles on other countries; on the other hand India emphasizes more on stability, harmony and prosperity aspects. The navy development and modernization is a relevant move taken by India, as India from a geopolitical point of view dominates the South Asian region, similar to China who somewhat dominates South China Sea. India’s presence as a new power in the international geopolitical arena has indirectly created a system of deterrence to Southeast Asia to balance China’s influence and avoid security threats. Hence, India has taken certain measures to ensure its rise does not threaten other nation’s security. India has taken an approach to restore the relationship with Southeast Asian countries by holding cooperation and creating close diplomatic ties. India has also restored its relationship with world superpowers including United Stated and China in the efforts to guarantee its objective in becoming a superpower.

From an opportunity angle, India’s emergence as a new power has provided Southeast Asian countries to capitalize in developing political and economy stability and prosperity. India at the moment is an economically strong nation; in fact India has the ability to offer economic opportunity to Southeast Asian countries, such as how China has offered to the Southeast Asian countries at the moment. In Southeast Asia’s effort to take advantage in exploring sources and economy prosperity in South Asia, India is the key to the entrance of the region. The South Asian region does not only offer economic opportunity through India, there are various countries that have fertile economic assets which are yet to be explored. Certainly, South Asia and India promise a handsome prospect to Southeast Asia. Close geographical location, including land route facility is the basic that can be used by the Southeast Asian countries to pioneer economic opportunity in India and South Asian. Similarly from India’s perspective, the Southeast Asian region also promises prosperity to India from economical and political aspects. Similar interests between India and Southeast Asia have raised the awareness of both sides to build a good relationship between both countries, either formal or informal.

References


Difference, Boycotting, Infiltration----the Analysis of Attribute of the National Costumes in Nansong and Beisong Dynasty

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Abstract
The costume in Nansong and Beisong Dynasty create a style all it’s own, which stands in contrast to others during the periods of Chinese feudal separatist rule. All the leader of the political powers in the Song, Liao, Xia, and Jing Dynasty launched relatively policies in order to maintain the distinguishing feature. The emperor of Song Dynasty promulgates decrees frequently to boycott the National costume in the Western Regions. But still, the exchange and mixing of distinct costumes styles could be found. The attribute and the relationship in the general progress of costume in Nansong and Beisong Dynasty would be discussed and analyzed in this article.

Keywords: Nansong and Beisong Dynasty, Costume, Race, Attribute

In the year 960 AD Zhao Kuangyin established Beisong state, which provoked an end to the period of many local separatist regimes, namely the period of Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms. However, China was only partial united during Beisong period, beside Beisong, there were regimes of Liao, His-hsia, Tubo and Dali coexisted on the territory of the whole country, and after Beisong, there were Nansong struggled against Jin, and later, at the beginning of 13th century, the newly-risen Mongolian regime destroyed His-hsia, Jin, Nansong one after another and finally brought the history of China into a period of unity. Compared with other periods of local separatist regimes in history, the Song period was special, except Song, other regimes were respectively set up by a single minority. Song and those minority regimes were coexisted for a long time and frequently contact with each other, therefore inevitably, during this period, the culture of costumes of different races exchanged and as it developed, its unique attributes revealed. This essay offered a discussion on the confliction and exchange of culture of costumes among Song, Liao, His-hsia and Jin.

1. Difference

1.1 Traditional Costumes of Each Races

Song, Liao, His-hsia and Jin were respectively set up by the races of Han, Khitan, Tangut and Jurchen, each was featured by their distinctively traditional costumes.

Except in sacrificial or other ceremonious occasions, the Emperor and officials of Song Dynasty usually wear ‘fu tou (made of cloth with a function similar to hat)’, robes with a round-collar, loose sleeves and a belt engirdled the waist, and black leather boots. Literary men favored a high square-cube-shaped hat, which was called ‘gao zhuang jin zi’ and went with loose clothes in Song Dynasty. The clothes of common men were very simple, with cross collars and few made of silk in beautiful colors. Women of this period usually wore highly tied puns decorated with long combs and sometimes covered with flower-pinned hats, a popular dress called ‘bei zi’ and characterized by a front opening, two
slits at two sides up to the arms and coordinated with skirts (usually pleated Figure 1) or trousers. The early ‘bei zi’ was short, later, it became longer and longer and finally a standard model was formed: a dress with sleeves looser than that of shirt and as long as skirt.

According to Liao shi (history of the Liao Dynasty), at an early time the Khitans were dressed in animal skin and fur (Tuotuo, 1974, p.905). During the reign of Yelüdeguang (902-942), the regulations of costumes established, stipulating the costumes of the Khitans and the Hans could coexist. The description of Khitan’s traditional costumes in historical documents is indistinct; fortunately we can get some information from the figures in mural paintings of the Liao Dynasty and examples found during excavation. Men appeared in mural paintings mostly have their heads shaved or warped by scarves (Tuotuo, 1974, p.907), one common type of head shaving is to shave off all the hair but with some short hair remained on the forehead and one lock naturally fallen from each temple, or with the hair on the forehead symmetrically shaved into different shapes while the rest hair is shaved off. They are usually in round-collared tight robes with a left opening in the front and a slit at the back, small-bottomed trousers and coordinated with boots. Some boots were below the knees, some were to the thigh. (Figure 2) Women of the Liao Dynasty also had their heads shaved before they got married; while married, they usually wore their hair up in a bun and covered by a high round hat with ribbons drooped from the back. One common dress for women was a sweeping robe, with a cross collar, a left opening, narrow sleeves and a belt engirdled the waist, depicting in the mural paintings in the tombs found in Kulunqi and Balinizuoqi. (Figure 3) Open-seat pants, pantskirts and skirts were found from the tomb dated to the Liao Dynasty in Daiqintala, Xing’anmeng, Inner Mongolia, indicating it was a custom for Khitans to add gallus to pants or skirts.

The ancestor of Tanguts is Xiqiang, who used to be dressed in fur, woolen, felt and etc (Liu Xu, 1975, pp.5290-5292). The hair of Xiqiang people naturally fell or braided, while the traditional hairstyle of tanguts was to make the hair at the two sides of the forehead shaped like bird’s wing and the hair at back tied into two circles. (Figure 4) Tanguts began to shave head since the year 1033 AD in which a command forcing people to shave head issued by Li Yuanhao. The costumes of military officials of His-hsia had a flavor of Tanguts: a slightly spiked hat, with ribbons hung from the back; a tight-sleeved robe, with a cross collar and a belt engirdled the waist; and coordinated with a pair of boots. Women had hair tied up to peach-shaped bun and wore long tight-sleeved robes with cross collars and slits.

Compared with Khitans, fewer materials about the costumes of Jurchens were found. From historical documents we knew they preferred white. It is also recorded that men of Jurchen also had their heads shaved, but different from that of Khitan, their hair on the back of the head remained and braided into a great number of little tresses and then tied with silk threads in various colors, rich men even decorated their hair with jewelry or gold (Figure 5); While women usually had their hair braided first then tied into a roll (Yuwenmaozhao, 1986, p.552). Commonly, men had their heads wrapped with scarves, in tight-sleeved robes, with a belt engirdled the waist and black leather boots on feet; while women preferred a left-opened straight-collared shirt, with a reddish yellow ribbon engirdled the waist and coordinated with a skirt. These records were supported by the examples excavated from the tomb dated to the Jin Dynasty of the king of the Qi state found in Heilongjiang.

1.2 Costumes of Each Race Coexisted

Liao, His-shia and Jin were respectively established by the Khitans, Tanguts and Jurchens, however, there were other races under each regime, for example, under the regime of Liao there were the Hans, Jurchens and etc. besides the Khitans, therefore usually costumes of each races under each regime coexisted.

When minorities got strong, their regimes became stable and acquired equal standing with the Song state; they began to approach the task of establishing administrative authorities and ceremony regulations. In order to keep the features of their own costumes, various policies were made. Liao allowed costumes of different races coexisting under its regime from the beginning, stipulating the queen mother and officials of Khitan wore Khitans’ traditional costumes while the emperor and official of Han wear Hans’ traditional costumes (Tuotuo, 1974, p.908). Later, the costumes of the Hans were adopted by more people and in more occasions, for example, since the period of qian heng (979AD-983AD) officials of Khitan ranked higher than three grades should wear Hans’ costumes, and since the year 1031 AD all of the officials should wear Hans’ costumes in grand ceremonial occasions (Tuotuo, 1974, p.908).The costumes of Tanguts had been greatly influenced by that of the Song Dynasty before His-shia was established. Li Deming, an emperor of His-shia, used to say that thanks to the Song state, they can be dressed in silk for thirty years. Regulations of costumes with Tanguts’ distinctive ethnic characteristics was set up during the reign of Li Yuanhao, according to which, civil officials of His-shia should wear a kind of costumes quite similar to that worn by the officials in the Tang and Song Dynasties. In 1033AD, Li Yuanhao promulgated a decree forcing people to shave their heads (Wu Guangcheng and Gong Shijun, 1995, p.132), however, ‘people’ here only refers to tanguts, did not include people of other races. And after the third generation, Jurchens moved their capital to the south and began to wear the ceremonial costumes of the Hans (Tuotuo, 1975, p.975).
2. Boycotting

Hans’ culture had grown up to a certain height till the Song Dynasty, with a properly constituted system of ceremonies. The minorities more or less had been influenced by Hans’ culture before they established their regimes. Liao and His-shia used to attach to the government of the Hans; Jurchen had been in contact with Song before Jin was established and this relationship didn’t end until the beginning of the 11th century (Herbert Franke and Denis Twitchett, 1998, p.228); therefore it was inevitable for minorities to borrow ceremonial system and administrative model from the Hans. However, countries they ruled were multi-ethnic countries in which many Hans lived and occupied vast regions which used to be controlled by the Hans for a long time, therefore on the one hand they learned Hans’ culture and on the other hand they had to take measures to maintain the characteristics of their own culture and sometimes they even had to take steps to against the influence of Hans’ culture.

No ban made by emperors of the Liao Dynasty against costumes of the Hans or on forcing the Hans under Liao’s regime to adopt Khitans’ costumes had been found until now, while Jin made bans against the customs of the Hans even during its early years, for example, in November 1126AD, the commanders surrendered to the Jin government were warned by the privy council that the one who didn’t be dressed as Jurchens did was considered not to be royal to the Jin government and should be severely punished, and in 1129 AD, in Marshal’s hotel a ban against Hans’ costumes was put in force and the one who didn’t have his head shaved as Jurchens did would subject to the penalty of death (Li Xinchuan, 1992, p.432). However, as the regime became stable, bans against the Hans’ costumes were gradually lifted, for example, in 1150 AD, Emperor Wanyan Liang made a law according to which people in the region of Henan under his reign could be dressed as they like. But as the influence from the Hans on Jurchen’s costumes increasingly grew, governors of the Jin Dynasty retroct the measures of backing Jurchens’ costumes, for example, in the year 1187AD, the emperor Shizong forbade Jurchens from wearing Hans’ costumes (Tuotuo, 1975, p.199). While in His-shia, wearing costumes of the Tanguts or the Hans indicated the battle between the queen mother and the emperor, when the queen mother gained the power, people wore Tanguts’ costumes; when the power fell into the hands of the emperor, the costumes of the Hans revived. The system of costumes of His-shia was gradually improved during this struggle (Xie Jing, 2007, p.26).

The Song government took a firm stand on resisting the impact of the costumes of the minorities, for many times, Song promulgated bans against other races’ costumes. In the year 1025, the Song government issued an order forbidding the impact of the costumes of the minorities, besides costumes of the minorities, costumes similar to that of the minorities were also forbidden. In August 1163AD, the Song government promulgated another ban to forbid luxurious, bizarre costumes and costumes of the minorities (Li Zhiliang, 2005, pp.1627-1664).

It was worth notice that costumes similar to that of the minorities were also forbidden in the Song Dynasty. A funny story recorded in Zhong wu ji wen (records related to a place named zhong wu in China made by Gong Mingzhi in the Song Dynasty):a decree was promulgated by the Song government around the year 1119AD, according to which the gentry classes had to wear head bands, but the head bands were not allowed to be tied at the back of the head and fall over the shoulder because the outfit resembled that of the minorities, so the gentry classes had their head bands tied on the forehead, however, the one dressed in this way was quite similar to the lowest ranked military official ‘bao yi’ in the Song Dynasty. Form this story we learned that the Song government took a quite firm stand on resisting costumes of the minorities, besides costumes of the minorities, costumes similar to that of the minorities were also forbidden.

The hostile attitude of the Song government toward the costumes of the minorities had much to do with the political situation at that time. Although politically the Song government had an equal status with other regimes, militarily it was in a weak position. If the status of the emperor of Song was reluctantly accepted by the Liao government, the treaty signed by the governments of Song and Jin in 1142AD was really a shame for Song, in which Song had to admit that he is a vassal owing allegiance to the Jin government and promise to render tribute to Jin every year, and this relationship didn’t terminate till the year 1164AD.

3. Infiltration

Although there was boycotting, as time went by, little by little the costumes of different races reacted on each other and finally a phenomena of large-scale merging occurred. The cultural exchanges among ethnic groups have always been a research subject caused concern to historians. Scholars have an early start in the researching on the influence of Hans’ culture on the culture of Liao, His-shia and Jin, and have made discussion of all sides on this topic, while little attention was paid to the influence of the culture of the minorities on Hans’ culture. Since the 1980s, several influential works on
costume history have mentioned the influence of Khitans’ costumes on the costumes of the Song Dynasty, but quite in a vague way. At an earlier time, Shen Congwen began to do research on the influence of Khitans’ costumes on the Hans’, he pointed out that Khitans’ costumes even influenced the costumes of the upper classes of Beisong Dynasty (Shen Congwen, 2005, p.8). The research has deepened since the end of the 1990s. In addition, discussion was made on the topic how the Hans was reacted by the minorities in some master’s and doctoral thesis on the history of the Song and Liao Dynasties, for example, Ji Nannan believed that the characters and customs of the Hans under the rule of Liao had already greatly assimilated to that of the Khitans (Ji Nannan, 2006). It should be pointed out that as to the interaction of costumes among different races during the Song period, the attention are mainly paid to the interaction of costumes between the Hans and the minorities, but in fact, the relationship of costumes among the minorities is also close, now we take ‘zhan li’ and ‘diao dun’ for example.

‘Zhan li’ and ‘diao dun’ were mentioned in the ban promulgated by the Song government in the year 1117AD. They were two representative Khitans’ costumes in the opinion of the Song government. ‘Li’ is a triangle-shaped hat made of thin bamboo strips or palm fibers for keeping from the sunlight or rain, therefore, ‘zhan li’ could be a hat in the shape of a ‘li’ but made of felt (‘zhan’) or lined with felt. However, no example of ‘zhan li’ has been found, so it is hard for us to know how it looks like and how it is made. The hat worn by the man on horse depicted in the mural painting in the tomb of Xiao Yi found in Fakuyemaotai could be ‘zhan li’ (Figure.6) (Wen Lihe, 1989, p.327). In fact, ‘zhan li’ was not particular to the Khitans, it was also adopted by the Tanguts and Jurchens. The hat worn by one of the four dancers on the lower right corner of the colored scroll painting ‘Avalokitesvara’ excavated from Heishuicheng, E’ji’naqi, Inner Mongolia now collected in the Hermitage Museum (St Petersburg, Russia) is in the shape of a ‘li’ (Figure.7). It was recorded in the work Xu zhi zhi tong jian (an continuation of the historical work History as a Mirror) that in the year 1131AD, five thousand riders of the Jin state in white ‘zhan li’ headed to the Huaihe River (Bi Yuan, 1957, p.2709). The hat worn by the soldier of the Jin State on the left of the scroll painting ‘Pin Jin Tu’ attributed to Yang Bangji is a white ‘zhan li’ (Yu Hui, 1990, p.38). ‘Diao dun’ may refer to different Chinese characters (Meng Yuanlao and Deng Zhicheng, 1982, p.196), according to Song shi (history of the Song Dynasty), ‘diao dun’ was also called ‘wa ku’ and only used by women (Tuotuo, 1977, p.3577). ‘Wa ku’ means pantyhose; therefore ‘diao dun’ could be a costume resembling pantyhose. Similar examples had been found in the tombs dated to the Liao Dynasty in Daiqintala and Xiaojingzi and also in the tomb of the King of the Qi State dated back to the Jin Dynasty.

Here are the possible reasons why the costumes of the Khitans, Tanguts and Jurchens shared similarities: firstly, they might have learned from each other, for example, ‘zhan li’ and ‘diao dun’ perhaps used to be the costumes of the Khitans, but later the Tanguts and Jurchens borrowed because it was of practical value; secondly, the life style, the living environment of these races were similar, therefore it was possible for them to adopt same costumes. However, these need a further research.

4. Conclusion

According to the above arguments, the attributes of the national costumes can be briefly summed up in three words: difference, boycotting and infiltration. In the development of national costumes, these three attributes were coexisted and interacted; their relationship can be represented by the following graph:
Several regimes coexisted during the Song period, except the Song state, other regimes were respectively installed primarily by a single minority, which resulted in each state having its own ethnic costumes. As the minorities got strong and their regimes became stable and gained an equal status with the Song state, they began to learn highly developed culture and well-established ceremonial system from the Hans to establish their own system of costumes. Liao, His-shia and Jin were primarily set up by the Khitans, Tanguts and Jurchens, besides the Hans, there were other minorities under their reign, and therefore, it was reasonable for costumes of different races coexist under each regime.

On the other hand, in order to maintain its own characteristics of costumes each minority had taken various measures, even taken measures to resist the costumes of other races, especially the Hans. Song was established by the Hans, the Song government tried hard to maintain a appearance of orthodoxy in the condition of being weak militarily and buying peace with a large quantity of money, therefore it is understandable that Song took a firm stand on resisting the impact of the costumes of the minorities, let alone the costumes of the minorities, costumes similar to the costumes of the minorities was also forbidden. From the policies of resisting the costumes of other races, we learned political factors were of great influence, for maintaining stable or for fighting for power, etc.

Wars occasionally out broke between separatist regimes, however, compared with other periods of great division of China in history this period was considerably peaceful. Therefore, although there was boycotting, as time went by, little by little the costumes of different races reacted on each other, exchanges of costumes not only occurred between the minorities and the Hans but also among the minorities.

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Figure 1. Part of a scroll ‘painting Yao Tai Bu Yue’ attributed to a Song painter.
Figure 2. Drawing of a tomb mural from Dishuihu, Balinzuogi, Inner Mongolia

Figure 3. Mural Painting from Kulun Banner, Inner Mongolia

Figure 4. Part of a painting on the board, Wuwei, Gansu
Figure 5. Tile carving from Dong Hai Tomb, Houma, Shanxi

Figure 6. Part of the Study Sketch of mural painting from Xiao Yi Tomb, Yemaotai, Liaoning

Figure 7. Part of a scroll painting ‘Avalokitesvara’ excavated from Heishuicheng, E’ji’naqi, Inner Mongolia
On Communicative Language Teaching
— Theoretical Foundations and Principles

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Abstract
Theory of language, communicative competence, functional account of language use, discourse analysis and social-linguistic considerations have mainly made up the theoretical foundations of communicative approach to language teaching. The principles contain taking communication as the center, reflecting Real Communicating Process, avoiding Constant Error-correcting, and putting grammar at a right place.

Keywords: Foreign language teaching, Communicative approach, Foundations and principles

Communicative approach to language teaching has popularized in the area of foreign language teaching all over the world for years. For the purpose of conducting this approach in teaching foreign language efficiently and fully, there is a necessity for educators to get acknowledged about the theoretical foundations and principles lying behind the specific methods to avoid misusing or misleading.

1. The theoretical foundations of CLT

1.1 Theory of language
Assumptions in CLT are that language is social behavior, which concerns conveyance of meaning, i.e. the grammar of a language is a means of organizing meaning; language is about making texts, connected discourse (not sentences in isolation); knowing a language means knowing the grammatical rules and knowing the rules and conventions of the speech community; language is not seen as comprised of four skills (reading/writing/speaking/listening), but of various abilities.

At the level of language theory, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theory base:
1) Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2) The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3) The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4) The primary unit of language is not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse. (Richards, J.C. and Rodgers, T.S, 1986)

Language proficiency is a multifaceted modality, consisting of various levels of abilities domains. H.H. Stern (1983) has listed four aspects of language proficiency:
1) The intuitive mastery of the forms of language
2) The intuitive mastery of the linguistic, cognitive, affective and sociocultural meanings expressed by the language forms
3) The capacity to use the language with maximum attention to communication and minimum attention to form
4) The creativity of language use

Hymes (1971) assumes that L2 learners need to know not only the linguistic knowledge but also the culturally acceptable ways of interacting with others in different situations and relationships. His theory of communicative competence (1971) consists of the interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and probabilistic
language components. Built on Hymes’ theory, Canale and Swain (1980) propose the communicative competence, which reflects the use of the linguistic system and the functional aspects of communication respectively.

1.2 On communicative competence

Communicative competence is the core of Communicative Approach. Taken very broadly, communicative competence is the ability to interact well with others, or it is, “the ability to communicate in a personally effective and socially appropriate manner” (Trenholm and Jensen, 1988)

An analysis of communicative competence is found in Canale and Swain (1980), that the communicative competence is made up of four major strands:

“grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence” (Canale and Swain, 1980)

“Grammatical competence is an umbrella concept that includes increasing expertise in grammar (morphology, syntax), vocabulary, and mechanics. With regards to speaking, the term mechanics refers to basic sounds of letters and syllables, pronunciation of words, intonation, and stress” (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992). In order to convey meaning, EFL learners must have the knowledge of words and sentences; that is, they must understand how words are segmented into various sounds, and how sentences are stressed in particular ways. Thus, grammatical competence enables speakers to use and understand English language structures accurately and unhesitatingly, which contributes to their fluency.

Sociolinguistic competence is that which involves knowing what is expected socially and culturally by users of the target language. Knowledge of language alone does not adequately prepare learners for effective and appropriate use of the target language. Learners must acquire the rules and norms governing the appropriate timing and realization of speech acts. Understanding the sociolinguistic side of language helps learners know what comments are appropriate, how to respond nonverbally according to the purpose of the talk. Therefore, “adult second language learners must acquire stylistic adaptability in order to able to encode and decode the discourse around them correctly” (Brown, 1988)

Discourse competence is concerned with intersentential relationships. In discourse, whether formal or informal, the rules of cohesion and coherence apply, which aids in holding the communication together in a meaningful way. In communication both the production and comprehension of a language require one’s ability to perceive and process stretches of discourse, and to formulate representations of meaning from referents in both previous sentences and following sentences. Therefore, effective speakers should acquire a large repertoire of structures and discourse markers to express ideas, show relationships of time, and indicate cause, contrast, and emphasis. With these, learners can manage turn-taking in conversation.

Strategic competence, which is “the way learners manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals”-competence elements. Put simply, it is the ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse rules. With reference to speaking, strategic competence refers to the ability to know how to keep a conversation going, how to terminate the conversation, and how to clear up communication breakdown as well as comprehension problems. The development of the learner’s ability to use communicative strategies may be:

1) by assuming to be transferable from the learner’s L1 usage;
2) by creating situation and setting tasks (e.g. role play and simulations ) which require the operation of planning, execution, evaluation and repair strategies;
3) by using awareness-raising techniques (e.g. recording and analysis of role plays and simulations);
4) by encouraging or requiring learners to focus on and follow explicit strategic procedures as the need arises.

To clarify, “grammatical competence refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence and what Hymes intends by what is ‘formally possible’. It is the domain of grammatical and lexical capacity, Sociolinguistic competence refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place, including role relationships, the shared information of the participants, and the communicative purpose for their interaction. Discourse competence refers to the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text. Strategic competence refers to the coping strategies that communications employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair and redirect communication.” (Richards, J.C. and Rodgers, T.S. 1986)

The Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes referred to as “communicative competence”. Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language with Chomsky’s theory of competence.

For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. Linguistic competence simply means “knowledge of the language system” grammatical knowledge in other words. But from the overall underlying knowledge and ability for language use that the speaker-listener possesses. The competence involves far more than knowledge of (and ability for)
grammaticality. There are, in Hymes’ words, “rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.” Indeed, if a speaker were to produce grammatical sentences without regard to the situations in which they were being used, he would certainly be regarded deranged. Competence seen as overall underlying linguistic knowledge and ability thus includes concepts of appropriateness and acceptability—-notion which in Chomsky are associated with performance——and the study of competence will inevitably entail consideration of such variables as attitude, motivation, and a number of socio-cultural factors. There are the “several sectors of communicative competence, of which the grammatical is one.” Hymes lists four sectors:

1) whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2) whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3) whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
4) whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. (Hymes, 1973)

The first, “whether or not something is formally possible” is roughly equivalent to Chomsky’s restricted notion of competence as grammaticality. It is concerned with whether a language permits a structure as grammatical (possible) or rejects it as ungrammatical (impossible).

The second sector deals with feasibility. A sentence like “the mouse the cat the dog the man the woman married beat chased ate had a white tail” is grammatically possible but is hardly feasible. Because of our restricted powers of processing, such a sentence can not in any real sense be said to form part of our competence.

The third sector covers “appropriateness to context”. The speaker-listener’s underlying competence includes “rules of appropriateness”, and a sentence can be grammatically possible, feasible, but inappropriate.

Hymes’ final sector relates to the area that we commonly refer to as “accepted usage”. A sentence may be possible, feasible, appropriate, but not occur.

Once the linguistic competence in these terms is considered, Hymes claims that it is similar to competence that underlies communicative system other than language. This general applicability of the term gives Hymes particular justification for referring to “communicative competence”, in contrast to Chomsky’s narrow notion “grammatical competence”. Hymes’ theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. Hymes held that communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use. This theory offers a much more comprehensive view of competence.

Hymes suggests, then, that linguistic competence is but sub-division of a greater whole-communicative competence. Language is but one mode of communication among others, and full communication involves mastery of all the codes—-gesture, position, non-verbal vocalization, use of visual aids and so on. And language itself varies from situation to situation, from communicative dyad to communicative dyad; bilingual multilingual people. These constraints on language use are as important as the rules of grammar. Hymes writes:

“The acquisition of such competency is of course fed by social experience, needs, and motives, and issues in action that is itself a renewed source of motives, needs, experience…. A model of language must design it with a face toward communicative conduct and social life.”

1.3 Functional account of language use

Another linguistic theory of communication favored in CLT is Halliday’s functional account of language use. “Linguistics … is concerned… with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus” (Halliday, 1973). In a number of influential books and papers, Halliday has elaborated a powerful theory of the functions of language, which complements Hymes’ view of communicative competence. He described (1964) seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language:

1) the instrumental function: using language to get thing;
2) the regulatory function: using language to control the behavior of others;
3) the interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;
4) the personal function: using language to express personal feeling and meanings;
5) the heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover
6) the imaginative function: using language to create a world of imagination;
7) the representation function: using language to communicate information.

Learning a second language was similarly viewed by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as an acquiring
the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions.

Hymes’ theory of communicative competence and Halliday’s functional account of language use are the current linguistic theories of communication favored by Communicative Language Teaching.

1.4 Discourse analysis

The works in discourse analysis are directly relevant to language teaching. The more influential linguist is Halliday. The title of his paper “Towards a Sociological Semantics” suggests Halliday is here concerned with the way in which linguistics may help the sociologist in his “search for explanations of social phenomena”. Since language is not always used in social contexts, this circumscribes the scope of the study. But as he says, if we consider language in relation to the contexts within which it is used we shall certainly learn something about the way language operates as a system. “The more”, Halliday says, “we are able to relate the options in grammatical systems to meaning potential in the social contexts and behaviors settings, the more insight we shall gain into the nature of the language system, since it is in the service of such contexts and settings that language has evolved”.

Halliday is concerned with three levels of analysis and the relationship among them. Each level is characterized as containing a set of options——a set of choices that the individual can make. At the level of behavior, in any given context, the individual has various choices of action and Halliday calls this a “behavior potential”. They are choices as to what the individual “can do”, and one large set of options within this behavior potential is linguistics. The individual can choose to say or write something. If he selects to do this, he is faced with a further set of choice on the level of semantics. This set of choices is the “meaning potential”——what the individual “can mean”. Then, once he has selected what to mean, there are more choices he has to make at the grammatical level. These choices represent the various ways the language system provides for expressing his meaning. We might say that at this level the individual has a choice as to what he “can form”.

Halliday illustrates the problem of relating these three levels of analysis——the behavioral, the semantic and grammatical——by means of an example:

A boy brings home an object that he has found on a building site. His mother wishes to express her disapproval. There are several “behavior options” open to her, including non-linguistic ones like smacking the child. If she decides on a linguistic option, scolding the child in some way, there are various things she can say.

Halliday points out, there are two ways of analyzing such utterances. On the behavioral level we can analyze them in terms of categories like “threat of punishment” or “emotional appeal”and so on. The alternative is a grammatical analysis in which we would treat the sentence as an exemplification of particular grammatical structure.

But done in this way, the behavioral analysis would provide us with no information on how the various behavioral categories may be realized by the grammar of the language. It does not tell us for example how we “threaten punishment” or “appeal through emotion” in English. Similarly, the grammatical analysis makes no attempt to relate the grammatical features to the behavioral categories they realize. Neither analysis would, in Halliday’s terminology, relate behavior options to grammatical options.

1.5 Socio-linguistic considerations

The emphasis of teaching in Communicative Approach has shifted from the preoccupation with structure to the communicative purpose of the speech act. However, neither grammar nor situation is excluded or neglected, but these are no long considered the primary focus of curriculum. The primary focus is the learner and the function or function of language—the communicative purpose he wishes to express and to understand.

Since a speech act——communication——takes place in definite but varied socio-linguistic situations, both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors have been taken into consideration. The approach takes cognizance of the fact that the social roles and the psychological attitudes of the participants toward each other in a conversation (employer——employee, teacher——pupil, doctor——patient, parent——child, for example), the place and time of the communication act, and the activity or topic being discussed will determine to a large extent the form, tone, and appropriateness of any oral or written message.

While communicative behavior is always conditional and therefore subject to infinite variation, we should like to single out three factors that underlie any speech act:

1) The functions that language serves in real-world, everyday use;

2) The varieties of language which are possible within each of the functions;

3) The shared socio-cultural allusions—which some others called presuppositions—which not only are necessary to a complete understanding of the oral or written messages, but also determine their acceptability or appropriateness.
2. The principles of CLT

2.1 Communication-centered

The primary principle of CLT is that all activities managed and carried in classrooms are supposed to be communication-centered and serve for the goal of communication. What teachers and students do during the classroom can be divided into two types: one is directly communicative activities. On listening it can be listening to weather broadcasting; on reading it may be understanding a series of instructions; on writing it can be writing a letter for booking a room in the hotel, so on and so forth. These activities are graded by students' language level. The other is indirectly communicative activities. The activity itself is not a communicative one but of use and related to communicative tasks.

2.2 Reflecting real communicating process

An important sign to distinct CLT and other approaches/methods is the former tries to reflect the process of language using for communication during classrooms. In real life, the communicating forms between people and languages used are various. Then how can language teaching show this process? As we know, there exist common characters of people’s communication; during communicating processes there exist also something universal. It is these common, universal characteristics that CLT emphasizes and that ought to be paid attention to in the classroom teaching. The communicating characteristics can be generally classified as: information gap, free choice and information feedback. (Xu Tsiang, 2000)

1) Information Gap

When people talk to each other in real life it is normally in order to bridge and information gap of some kind that exists between them. Because of this there is always some doubt in a listener’s mind as to what a speaker is going to say next. If there is no doubt, no information gap, then communication does not take place, because the listener has no need to pay attention to what is being said since he already knows what it will be. In real life, of course, this is a very rare situation indeed. CLT advocates to put students in positions where they must practise bridging information gaps. Equally they must practise processing what is said to them so that they must practise processing what is said to them so that they can respond appropriately in real time.

2) Free Choice

“Free choice” refers to what and how people say is completely chosen by themselves. In real-life communication, the speaker himself decides not only what he intends to express but use what language form to express appropriately without being controlled by others.

In face-to-face communication his choice is made under the pressure of time. The ability to select language forms under time pressure is an important aspect of communicative competence and also a difficult point for foreign language learners. Meanwhile, as the speaker should make choices spontaneously, the listener doesn’t possibly predict what the other party tends to say. That is, the language of the two sides is, to a large degree, arbitrary and unpredictable. For language teaching, if the language used by students is controlled by the teacher, it will be difficult to develop their communicative competence. Hence CLT designs classroom practice as allowing the students to decide by themselves what and how to express to achieve the goal of developing communicative competence.

3) Information Feedback

This refers to the two sides make proper adjustment according to the information of the other party. There is always a goal for the communication. The goal of one party may be offering invitation, giving opinion, expressing dissatisfaction and asking for help, etc.; while that of the other may be resistance or declining, etc. People in communication always keep in mind of the goal and try to achieve it. Therefore whatever he says is around the goal; while he also evaluates by this goal what other people transmit to him. This strategy of making corresponding adjustment according to information feedback of the opposite is an important point in language communicative competence. Classroom practice of CLT tends to help students, during the process of completing their communicative tasks, improve their ability of judging the opposite’s language, tone and attitude, and the ability of making corresponding language reaction for achieving their own communicative goals.

2.3 Avoiding constant error-correcting

Another remarkable characteristic that makes CLT different with other approaches/methods is the tolerant attitude toward students’ errors, especially grammatical errors. As mentioned above, CLT put stress on transmitting meaning, free choice of language form and achievement of communicative goal. During the process of completing communicative tasks and carrying on communicative activities, students would probably encounter new language phenomena or pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar not yet mastered. In order to express their own meaning, the students will usually use some wrong language forms or expressions. Traditional teaching methods put stress on correctness of language use and intend to correct students’ every error. On the contrary, CLT thinks this will make
students be afraid of making mistakes and discourage them to express themselves bravely. The result is preventing them from communicating freely.

According to CLT, in the process of language learning, making mistakes is normal and shows that the student is trying using the language, which is obviously not bad. Besides that, the goal of the students’ learning foreign languages is to get things done successfully and to communicate with other people. There is no need (actually it is extremely difficult) for foreign students to approach the level of the native speakers on every aspect.

In fact, it is not that CLT does not correct students’ errors at all, but it treats different errors respectively. It has been pointed out that the errors definitely ought to be corrected which may violate the listener or reader and which occur frequently. However, no matter it is serious or slight, correcting every error can have an opposite function. Now foreign language educators generally agree that the tolerance of spoken or written errors will benefit students on confidently using the language to communicate.

2.4 Grammar in CLT

Discussions of CLT not infrequently lead to questions of grammatical or formal accuracy. The perceived displacement of attention toward morphosyntactical features in learners’ expression in favor of a focus on meaning has led in some cases to the impression that grammar is not important, or that proponents of CLT favor learners’ ability to express themselves, without regard to form.

While involvement in communicative events is seen as central to language development, this involvement necessarily requires attention to form. Communication cannot take place in the absence of structure, or grammar, a set of shared assumptions about how language works, along with a willingness of participants to cooperate in the negotiation of meaning. In their carefully researched and widely cited paper proposing components of communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) did not suggest that grammar was unimportant. They sought rather to situate grammatical competence within a more broadly defined communicative competence. Similarly, the findings of the Savignon (1971) study did not suggest that teachers forsake grammar instruction. Rather, the replacement of structure drills in a language laboratory with self-expression focused on meaning was found to a more effective way to develop communicative ability with no loss of morphosyntactical accuracy. Learners’ performance on tests of discrete morphosyntactical features was not a good predictor of their performance on a series of integrative communicative tasks.

The nature of the contribution to language development of both form-focused and meaning-focused classroom activity remains a question in ongoing research. The optimal combination of these activities in any given instructional setting depends no doubt on learners’ age, the nature and length of instructional sequence, the opportunities for language contact outside the classroom, teacher preparation, and other factors. For the development of communicative competence, however, research findings overwhelming support the integration of form-focused exercises and meaning-focused experience. Grammar is important; and learners seem to focus best on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences (Ellis, 1994). Nor should explicit attention to form be perceived as limited to sentence-level morphosyntactical features. Broader features of discourse, sociolinguistic rules of appropriateness, and communication strategies themselves may be included. (Savignon, 2002)

References


Bullying Among Lower Secondary School Students in Pattani Province, Southern Thailand

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Abstract
This study aimed to investigate the prevalence of physical bullying and to identify a suitable statistical model accounting for risk factors affecting physical bullying among lower secondary school students in Pattani province, southern Thailand. A cross-sectional survey was conducted among 244 students aged 12 to 19 years by questionnaire. All participants were interviewed in December 2006 in a neutral location outside the schools. Questions on physical bullying referred to behaviour during both the preceding six months and during the previous month. Pearson’s chi-squared test was used to assess the associations between the outcome and various determinants. Logistic regression was used to identify risk factors for physical bullying. The overall prevalence of physical bullying was found to be 18.5% (95% CI: 13.6-23.4). Gender was not significantly associated with bullying others. The outcome was associated to a statistically significant degree with age group, ethnicity, school type and parental violence. Specifically, the results from this study indicated that students who had experience of parental violence were more likely to be bullies at school.

Keywords: Bullying, Physical abuse, Parental violence

1. Introduction
Bullying in schools is a problem in many countries around the world. It occurs in all schools at all grade levels, although most frequently at the elementary level (Sampson, 2002). Bullying affects a significant number of children and adolescents in all schools. In many countries, it is an issue of growing concern to parents, teachers, and social workers. Research on the prevalence of school bullying has occurred in diverse settings in many countries. Based on interviews in the United States, DeVoe and Kaffenberger (2005) indicated that the prevalence of physical bullying was found to be 8% among students aged 12-18 years during the preceding six months. Portugal by Pereira et al, (2004) reported that approximately 20% of students had been bullied and around 16% of them admitted having bullied others at least three times during the term. A study in Hong Kong reported that 17.2% of secondary school students admitted bullying other at some time during the previous six months (Wong, 2004). In addition, a study in Italy of 238 students between 11 and 14 years found that 26.3% had physically bullied others at least once during the previous three months (Baldry and Farrington, 1999). Furthermore, a study in Turkey indicated that more than one-third (35.5%) of 692 students between 14 -17 years of age had physically bullied at least once during the academic year (Kepenekci and Cinkir, 2006).
However, in Thailand 3,047 students from grades four to nine (P4-M3) in five regions between 1 February to 31 March 2006, a study in southern Thailand found that only 15.1% had physically bullied others at some time during the preceding two months based on interviews (Tapanya, 2006).

Many studies have reported that students start to bully at a young age, and students who are bullies tend to be bullies as adults. In addition, Totten and Quigley (2005) reported that in the vast majority of cases, the seeds of bullying behaviour and victimization are planted at home. The family is the most important socializing institution. However, they found that individual characteristics can interact with family factors to increase the likelihood that a child will be a bully or be a victim of bullying. Studies have found that family violence, ineffective parenting, parent-child conflict and sibling conflict are correlated with the development of aggression in boys and girls. Bullying behaviour is different according to family structure, social and cultural environments. Therefore, this study was initiated in order to study how domestic violence has an effect on bullying behaviour. As a matter of scientific interest we would like to know the prevalence of physical bullying and the risk factors associated with physical bullying. The result from this study may be useful for preventing bullying at school. In addition, information from bullying can be an indicator of family violence, not only personal problems but also social problems and needs to be solved urgently.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Participants

Sample size calculations were based on the main outcome variable, which was physical bullying. The prevalence of physical bullying among students from grade four to nine in southern, Thailand was estimated to be 15.1%, from Tapanya (2006). Sample size was calculated by the following formula (McNeil, 1996):

$$ n = \frac{Z_{\alpha/2}^2 \pi (1-\pi)}{d^2} $$

where $Z_{\alpha/2}$ is the critical value for the standardized normal distribution corresponding to a two-tail probability $\alpha$, $\pi$ is the prevalence of the outcome, and $d$ is half of the width of the 100(1- $\alpha$) % confidence interval. Choosing a prevalence of 15% based on previous studies and the ability to detect a difference in this prevalence of 5%, with 95% confidence interval. The sample size of the study is then 244 lower secondary school students (M1-M3) in Pattani province. Both samples had approximately equal numbers of boys and girls.

2.2 Variables

The determinants in the study provided information on (a) characteristics of secondary school students (gender, age group, ethnicity, punishment (defined as history of punishment by parents) and school type), (b) family environments (father’s occupation, mother’s occupation, marital status of parents and parental violence (defined as emotional or physical violence between parents)). Physical bullying was taken as the outcome variable of interest. This outcome was measured by asking lower secondary school students whether or not they had experienced physical bullying (never bullied others or bullied others).

2.3 Data Collection

Primary data were collected from the selected lower secondary school students (M1-M3) in Pattani province, southern Thailand. The data for this study was collected using questionnaire method and the respondents were given a short briefing before they fill in the questionnaire. Verbal consent to participate in the study was obtained from students after assurance that confidentiality of short briefing was given. Before the collected data, the purpose of this study was explained, giving assurance of anonymity and stressing the importance of answering truthfully. All participants were answer questionnaire in December 2006 by researchers at a neutral location outside the schools. The survey took approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. Relevant data were collected, verified and recorded in a separate data record form and used to investigate factors associated with physical bullying.

2.4 Instruments for collecting data

To collect data, a questionnaire was used in order to get information about physical bullying. The questionnaire was designed to determine the students’ reported behaviour of bullying in schools. Since the topic was relatively new for Pattani province, there was no available research on which to base the construction of the research instruments. Consequently, the questions in the questionnaire were partly derived from and based on the studies by DeVoe and Kaffenberger (2005). This questionnaire used multiple choice questions and provided information on (a) characteristics of students, (b) family environments, (c) victims of bully and (d) bullying others.

Questions on bullying referred to events that occurred during 2006 in either the previous six months (1 May to 31 October, 2006) or the previous month (in November 2006) preceding the interview. Students answered by checking one or more responses. The bullying inventory measures levels of bullying and being bullied by using two key variables: In the last semester (1 May to 31 October, 2006), have you ever physically bullied other students at your school (slapped, hit, kicked,
punched, or weapons)?, and In the last semester (1 May to 31 October, 2006), have you ever been physically bullied by other students at your school (slapped, hit, kicked, punched, or weapons)? Possible responses were “no” or “yes”. If “yes”, then use of a slap, hit, kick, punch, weapons or other was recorded, as well as the frequency.

2.5 Statistical Methods

Statistics for descriptive analysis include percentages for measuring prevalence of bullying. The associations between the outcome and the determinant variables were examined in the preliminary analysis. All of the variables in the study were categorical and therefore chi-squared statistics and 95% confidence intervals were used to describe these associations. Logistic regression was used to model the association between the bullying and the determinants.

3. Results

3.1 Prevalence of physical bullying

Nearly one in five (18.5%) students reported that they had physically bullied another student during either the previous six months or during the previous month.

3.2 Logistic Regression Models

The results after fitting a logistic regression model to the data with all determinants included, and then reducing the model by eliminating determinants with overall p-values greater than 0.05, using backward elimination. It was found that four variables, age group, ethnicity, school type and parental violence were all associated with physical bullying in Pattani province, after adjusting for the other determinants.

4. Conclusions and Discussion

4.1 Conclusions

This research studied the prevalence and predictors of physical bullying among lower secondary school students (M1-M3) in Pattani province, southern Thailand. The prevalence of physical bullying during both the preceding six months and during the previous month was found to be 18.5% (95% CI: 13.6-23.4).

This study found that the four factors, age group, ethnicity, school type and parental violence are positively associated with physical bullying.

Students aged 14 years or over were more likely to physically bully others compared to those aged less than 14 years. These results are similar to those found by Woods and White (2005) in England and Pereira et al. (2004) in Portugal. They found that older and often stronger students tended to bully others.

Thai students were more likely to physically bully others compared to students of Malay or Chinese ethnicity. This result is not consistent with previous studies. Many studies have reported a difference of bullying among ethnic groups, such as white students (3.5%) were more likely to being directly bullied than black students (2.6%) (DeVoe and Kaffenberger, 2005). In contrast to a study in South Africa, ethnicity was not significantly associated with bullying others (Greeff, 2004). The explanation for this may be due to the difference of samples, cultural differences, and definitions of bullying.

Our study found that students who had witnessed physical violence between their parents were more likely to bully others compared to those who had never witnessed physical violence. Exposure to parental violence is related to negative behaviour of students. Other studies (Totten and Quigley, 2005; Ahmed and Braithwaite, 1996; Craig et al., 1998; Stevens et al., 2002) reported that students who bullied tend to come from violence families, negative emotional attitudes (e.g., lack of warmth, more conflict, punishment and a less close relationship with their parents). In addition, students who came from urban schools were approximately 4 times more likely to physically bully others than were those from rural schools.

This study provides some directions for attempting to reduce the problems of bullying. It might be useful if teachers and other authorities assist parents to reduce their own level of family violence as a way of helping their children. Furthermore, action in urban areas and especially among those of Thai ethnicity seems to be more urgent than in rural areas and among other ethnic groups.

4.2 Discussion

This study showed that bullying is a problem among lower secondary school students (M1-M3) in Pattani province, southern Thailand. The author found that the prevalence of physical bullying was 18.5% (95% CI: 13.6-23.4). Gender was not significantly associated with bullying others (boys = 18.7%, girls = 18.2%). Similar to results from other countries, we concluded that there are differences in rates of bullying among individuals from different family environment. Moreover, our study suggests that besides family environment, factors such as age group, ethnicity, and school type are important risk factors for bullying others, which remain significant after multivariable adjustment. In addition, the author found that most of the bullying students admitted having witnessed physical violence from their
parents. Therefore, in this study confirm the research hypothesis that students who had experience of parental violence are more likely to be bullies at school.

In southernmost of Thailand specifically, it is important that Pattani province should consider school bullying as a serious problem, and be aware that it has negative consequences on students’ psychological health as well as on their school achievement (Totten and Quigley, 2005).

5. Limitations and recommendation

There are some limitations to the current study. The sample selection was based on the convenience technique therefore, the subjects may not represent all lower secondary school students in Pattani province. If further research is done in this area, stratified random sampling method should be used to get a sample were representative of the target population.

6. Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express our sincere gratitude and deep appreciation to Professor Don McNeil and Dr. Greig Rundle for their helpful suggestions.

References


Table 1. Associations between physical bullying and categorical determinants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>All Students (n:244)</th>
<th>Bullying (n:45)</th>
<th>Not bullying (n:199)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>0.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>51.8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The characteristics of students are shown in Table 1. Participants in this present study consisted more than half (51.6%) of the students were girls. All students were categorized into one of the age groups: 12-13 years (36.9%) and 14 years or above (63.1%). With respect to their ethnicity, most students (77.5%) were of Malay or Chinese ethnicity. The majority (76.6%) of the students reported never having been punished by their parents, although 23.4% of students reported that they had been punished by parents so severely that they would never forget it. Nearly two-thirds (65.2%) of students came from schools in the Pattani urban area.

More than one-third (39.3%) of fathers were business or government employees and so were a similar percent of mothers. 36.5% of fathers were employees in private businesses and the rest were categorized as “other”, which included unemployed. For the determinant “mother’s occupation”, more than one-third (36.9%) were employees in private businesses and the rest were categorized as “other”, which includes unemployment and housewives. Most parents (82.4%) were married. Overall, 61.9% of all students had never witnessed violence from their parents, whereas 26.2% of the students admitted having witnessed emotional violence between parents and a further 11.9 % admitted having witnessed physical violence between their parents.

Since all of the variables are categorical, Pearson’s chi-squared test was used to determine the association in each case. Table 1 shows that the variables most statistically significantly were age group, ethnicity, school type and parental violence, respectively. Students aged 14 years or over reported their bullying of others at higher rates than did younger students (p=0.000). Ethnicity was positively associated with bullying, with students of Thai ethnicity being more likely to bully than students of either Malay or Chinese ethnicity at least from the data in this study (p=0.020). This research, students were more likely to bully if they had witnessed family violence between their parents (p=0.003). The data

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<th>Age group</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12-13 years</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td>42.2</td>
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<td>14 + years</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>86.7</td>
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<th>Ethnicity</th>
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<td>189</td>
<td>64.4</td>
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<td>Thai</td>
<td>55</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>57</td>
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<td>24.6</td>
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<td>187</td>
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<td>75.4</td>
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<tr>
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<th>Father’s occupation</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Business/Government</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>38.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>36.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20.0</td>
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<table>
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<th>Mother’s occupation</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Business/Government</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>23.6</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Marital status of parents</th>
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<td>Married</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>83.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental violence</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional violence</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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showed that students who came from urban schools were more likely to bully than students from rural schools (p=0.007).

Table 2. Model of association between determinants and bullying others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants</th>
<th>OR</th>
<th>(95% CI)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-13 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 + years</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>(2.6, 17.7)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malay or Chinese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>(1.2, 6.0)</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>(1.8, 10.1)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental violence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional violence</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>(0.4, 2.0)</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>(1.3, 9.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that the students aged 14 years or over were more likely to physically bully others than those aged less than 14 years, by a factor of 6.8 (95% CI: 2.6-17.7). Thai ethnicity students were 2.7 times (95% CI: 1.2-6.0) more likely to physically bully others than were those of Malay or Chinese ethnicity. In addition, students who came from urban schools were 4.2 times (95% CI: 1.8-10.1) more likely to physically bully others than those from rural schools. Furthermore, students who reported having witnessed physical violence from their parents were 3.4 times (95% CI: 1.3-9.0) more likely to physically bully others than those who never witnessed physical violence, while students who admitted having witnessed emotional violence from their parents were 0.8 times (95% CI: 0.4-2.0) more likely to physically bully others than those who never witnessed emotional violence.

![Comparison of the prevalence for physical bullying](image)

Figure 1. Comparison of the prevalence for physical bullying
Figure 1 shows a comparison of the prevalence for bullying others in the current study with previous studies. Results from this study were not much different from most other studies. However, a study in Turkey indicated that the prevalence of bullying others was much higher with 35.5% (CI: 29.5-42.0) (Kepenekci and Cinkir, 2006).

The estimated prevalence of physical bullying in school seems to depend on the study design, definitions of bullying, and cultural differences. However, there are many causes of bullying that are not only related to the individual, but also to the socio-family environment.
Drug Flooding of Northeast China
during the Governing of Japanese and the
Government of Puppet Regime of Manchuria

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E-mail: syhgs12@163.com

Abstract
After the September 18 Incident, in order to cater to the invading war, Japanese invaders carried out the Opium Policy of Poisoning Chinese in the occupation zone, which aimed at providing economic aid for Japan’s invading war and disintegrating Chinese resistant will. The three periods of implementing the policy were: period of monopolization, period of cutting off the supply and period of supporting the war through trafficking. Drug flooding had a disastrous influence on the northeasterners of China.

Keywords: Opium policy of poisoning people, Northeast China, Disastrous influence

From the September 18 Incident in 1931 to the end of the war of resistance against Japan in 1945, in order to cater to the invading war, Japanese government and army enforced a very sinister and diabolic policy during the 14 years ---- the opium policy of poisoning people. The enforcement of the policy brought dreadful disasters to Chinese. Northeast China was the first region falling to Japan’s occupation. It was also the center and base where Japanese army manufactured and trafficked drugs. Northeasterners witnessed the whole process of the enforcement of the opium policy and suffered badly from it. Even now, when we review the piece of the history, it is still startling.

1. The whole process of Japanese invaders’ enactment and enforcement of the opium policy of poisoning people

It’s been so long since Japanese invaders had trafficking in China. As early as the end of 19th century, when westerners began to smuggle drugs in China, they played an active role in the sinful trafficking. With the aid of Dalian customs they controlled, some Japanese drug dealers imported large quantities of opium from Europe and America. After Russo-Japanese war, Japan set up Kwantung Supervisory Government in Dalian. In 1906 Kwantung Supervisory Government set up Kwantung Opium General Bureau and established its branches in other areas, creating two trafficking webs of official and illicit sale. They began to deal in drugs openly and reaped a lot of benefits from it. From then on, many dens of making and selling drugs appeared, and different types of dens increased rapidly. Drugs began to overflow in Northeastern.

After the September 18 Incident, Japanese occupied the whole Northeast China quickly. In the second year, Japanese government propped up the puppet government of Manchurian in Northeast of China. They plotted and enforced a new opium policy actively to support the invading war. During the war of aggression against China, the development of the opium policy went through three major periods: period of monopolization, period of cutting off the supply and period of supporting the war through trafficking.

1.1 The formation of opium monopolization system after the September 18 Incident

Opium was a special weapon, and Japanese invaders knew clearly the opium would play an important role in the invading war. In Feb.1932, Kwantung Army set out to plot a new policy of opium. Koiso Kuniaki, the chief of staff of Kwantung Army, Okamura Yasuji, vice chief of staff of Kwantung Army, Hoshino Naoyjo, dean of general affairs of Financial Department and other officers schemed together, establishing the fundamental guideline of the new opium
policy in Manchukuo. First, they would have a monopoly on opium in Manchukuo, aiming at increasing the financial income to strengthen the ruling in the colony and expand the invading war. Keiichi Naniwa, the commissioner of Kobe Inland Revenue was recruited to China, in charge of opium monopolization. Second, they planned to plant a large amount of poppies, manufacture opium and narcotics and carry trafficking everywhere in Manchukuo. Moreover, with Manchukuo as the foothold, Japanese would have a lot of dealings with other countries in the world. Taking the advantage of its nominal independence, they could impute the accusation to the puppet government.

In the late February, Keiichi Naniwa, arrived in Northeast China and took office. In order to work out the shortage of opium, he went to Tianjin secretly, purchasing opium 500,000 liang in North China, 200,000 liang from Japan and importing opium 2,000,000 liang from Persia, which summed up to 2,700,000 liang. The opium flowed into Northeast China quickly by the trafficking web under Japanese control. From then on, the action of opium policy launched at an alarming rate in Liaoning and the whole Northeast China.

In autumn 1932, Tokumi Koumai, the chief of office of general services claimed on the newspaper: “People of Manchukuo enjoy opium. To cater to people, the government will have a monopoly on opium. People in Manchukuo are allowed to get the permit of planting opium and smoking opium openly.” As soon as the statement was issued, the puppet government announced some regulations related to opium monopolization.

On September 16, 1932, Japanese invaders published *Temporary Opium Purchasing Law* through the puppet government, set up a preparatory committee in charge of opium monopolization. In November 3 the Opium Monopolistic Bureau was set up, directly under the jurisdiction of the financial department. At the same time, many branches, led by the Opium Monopolistic Bureau directly, were also established in Mukden, Jilin, Chengde, Yingkou, Andong, Jinzhou and etc, in charge of the monopolistic dealings of opium. There were also 20 monopolistic branch offices and 80 retail outlets in counties and banners. The web of opium monopoly began to take shape.

On November 30, the Opium Law and the Implementation Regulations were promulgated by the puppet government. It was prescribed by the Opium Law that taking drugs was forbidden; drug addicts must be registered and the government would provide the permits to the drug addicts, who could smoke the opium paste the government sold in restricted quantity; government would allot the region and the area of planting the poppy; the manufacture, purchase, processing, storage and the marketing of the opium, as well as the manufacture and purchase of the instruments of smoking opium, were all under the control of the government. It seemed that the planting and the smoking were forbidden by the Opium Law elegantly. However, only the manufacture and the marketing of opium beyond the control of the government were forbidden. The Opium Law was in fact the ruling law and the official law of trafficking. According to the law, Japanese reaped all the benefits. The Opium Law established the legitimacy of the monopolistic system of opium. The puppet government of Manchurian transformed into a legitimate institution of opium monopoly and open trafficking.

From 1933, great quantities of poppy were planted in Northeast China under the supervision of the puppet government of Manchurian. Peasants were compelled to plant poppies and sold the poppies to the government at a very low price. The puppet government of Manchurian made the plan of poppy planting in October every year and distributed the plan to the related governors; the governors set the assignment for the related counties and banners. At the end of the year till February next year county-class governors would examine and agree the planting plan the planters had made. Planters were required to peg out the land to provide the information of planting, such as the name, the address of the planter and the area of planting etc. Unauthorized planters were forbidden to plant poppies and the poppies would be cut out if their planting behaviors were found. According to statistics, from 1933 to 1936, “the areas of opium planting had covered 14 of the 16 provinces the puppet government set out. The planting area was 177,750 acres, and the annual output of opium was 1,271 kilos. (Wang, Depu, 1946. p.57)

The puppet government of Manchurian regulated that the planters could only sell opium to the authorized purchasing companies. At that time, there were two purchasing companies established by Japanese in Mukden, Daitoukou and Daimankou. Daimankou purchased opium from the western region and Daitoukou was responsible for the eastern purchasing affairs. In addition, the Opium Monopolistic Bureau also imported opium multimillion liang from Iran, India and Korea every year. Moreover, the Puppet government set up a big factory in Mukden to manufacture and process the opium of purchasing and importing, which aimed at producing the opium paste 6 million liang, narcotics 2000 kilos every year, and increasing production continuously every year.

Opium Monopolistic Bureau was responsible for the wholesale and retail of opium. The Financial Department appointed the wholesalers of every province and the governors of the provinces appointed the retailers. After retailers got opium, they began to do opium business, arranging the instruments of opium smoking, simmering opium into well-made opium paste to supply for the customers in the opium dens set up by the retailers everywhere. According to the official statistics, there were 2196 opium dens in Northeast China in 1937.

Under the Opium Policy of poisoning people in Manchukou, Japanese earned big profit within a couple of years. The high price of purchasing opium rose from 1.05 yuan per liang in 1933 to 1.30 yuan per liang in 1937. While, the price of
serving the opium rose from 40 yuan per liang to 55 yuan per liang. The selling price of opium was 40 times higher than
the purchasing price. The net gain of Japanese and the puppet government was 370,000 yuan in 1932. In 1937, the
income of trafficking rose up to 1,264,000 yuan. Of the whole income of Manchukou, the income of trafficking “took
up 6.2% in 1932 and 8.5% in 1937.” (Li, Zuoquan, 1985, p.130)

In July 1937, Japanese ordered that the manufacturing, importing and selling of morphine and heroin were all under the
control of the Monopolistic Bureau according to the Narcotic Law by the puppet government. Because the output of
heroin increased continuously in the factories in Mukden, the supplies were not only for the local drug addicts, but also
transported to Tianjin, Shanghai, and even smuggled to the west coast of the U.S., Canada and Europe under the
safeguard of Kwantung Army.

During the five years of opium monopoly, the poppies were blooming everywhere in Manchukou. Edgar Snow, a
famous correspondent of America, after visiting Manchukou, wrote in his report that “thousands of peasants began to
plant poppies instead of soybeans because of the encouragement of Japanese. While traveling by train in Manchukou, I
did not see crops in the field, what I often saw was only the poppies of thousands of hectare.” (Li, Shujuan, 2005,
p.198.)

1.2 Falsity and duplicity of the Opium Policy of cutting off the supply during the years from 1938 to 1941

After the opium policy was put into effect in Northeast China, people suffered a lot and hated it deeply, and the policy
was also condemned by the world opinion. In 1937, the 22nd meeting of Opium and Drug Committee of League of
Nations was held in Geneva. Representatives of many countries revealed, condemned and criticized the infamy of
Japanese trafficking in China. They requested strongly that Japanese government take effective measures at once to stop
the illicit action of manufacturing and selling drugs in China.

Under the pressure of public opinion, in order to weasel out of the international denouncement, Japanese had to make a
new plan. Meanwhile, due to the great benefit from trafficking, Japanese invaders didn’t want to give up the trafficking
and intended to ensure the huge financial income. Therefore, in 1938, Hoshino Naoyo, dean of general affairs, and
Tadayuki Hrumi, chief comptroller, developed the policy of “cutting off the supply of opium during ten years” to
deceive people.

The puppet government claimed that the policy of cutting off the supply of opium came into effect from 1938, that the
government would gradually reduce the opium planting area every year, and that the poppy planting would be abolished
in the 8th year and all the drug addicts would give up taking drugs in the 10th year. In order to fulfill the plan, Japanese
and the puppet government banned opium nominally. Actually, they tried to carry out the opium policy in the
name of ban on opium. On the initial stage of ban, they intended to control all the drug addicts, obliging them to register
for the permits, and people under 25 could not get it. People without the permits could not smoke. It seemed that all the
drug addicts were restricted. In fact, everyone could get the permit as long as he had applied for it without any
examination. Moreover, the drugs handed out by the management institutions were the well-done opium paste, very
cheap, convenient and in high quality. As a result, people rushed to register. In this way, more and more people fell into
the opium web.

The second period of the opium policy of killing people came when many people became addicted to the drugs.
Although opium was poisonous, people who smoked the raw opium wouldn’t die at once but had poor health, shortened
life span and the diminished fertility. In the stage of cutting off the supply, Japanese schemed a new guilty plan again.
The raw opium was sent to Nanling Science College in Xinjing, which was actually a factory where Japanese made
morphine, narcotics, heroin and drugs. Japanese took out the essence of opium as the army’s narcotics, and then mixed
the dregs of opium with the stimulating sulfur, making the opium bubbles for Chinese. Smoking this kind of drugs,
people were liable to become addicted. The more people smoked, the more poison people took. And it was very hard to
give up. People would get an incurable disease after taking this kind of drugs within one year and died soon. It was the
best way to kill Chinese and extinguish the Chinese nation from Japanese point of view.

Japanese was so evil-minded that they pretended to be a philanthropist. In order to deceive people, Japanese and the
puppet government set up the Kangsheng clinics (a kind of clinic for the deep addicts) for the numerous drug addicts,
and made the regulation that the drug addicts could be treated in the Kangsheng clinics. The police bureau decided if the
drug addicts could be treated in the clinics according to their poisoning degree. But it was only deception to set up the
kangsheng clinics. Firstly, there were only a few Kangsheng clinics while too many drug addicts needed to be treated. For instance, in Longhua county, the clinic was a temporary institution with the capacity of only 70 people. Of the population of 22,000,000 of the county, there were nearly 1,000,000 drug addicts. It was impossible to treat all the drug addicts.” (He, Junzhou, 1989, p.175.) In 1941, there were 12,370 drug addicts in 189 Kangsheng clinics in Northeast China. The treatment the addicts could get was little more than a drop in the ocean. Secondly, the condition of Kangsheng clinics was very poor and there were not formal doctors in those clinics. To make a profit, officials in those clinics sold drugs at a high price to the drug addicts. Nobody could give up smoking opium there. Actually, the Kangsheng clinic was another form of trafficking site and opium den to blackmail the drug addicts.

Although Japanese and the puppet government claimed to forbid opium, the production of opium never stopped and the output had been growing continuously. In spring every year, Japanese and the puppet government organized the exploration teams which would go to the countryside and measure the area of planting opium. The amount of the opium every family planted must be in accordance with the planting assignment and the output of dried opium should correspond to the degree of land. When these teams reached the villages, they colluded with the local despotic landlords and rogues, bullying the poor peasants. The rich and influential families usually planted more than they reported to the government, leaving some surplus opium for themselves, while small families planted less than they reported. So in autumn the poor peasants of the small families could not finish the assignment. They had to go into the mountains, cultivating the waste land to plant the poppies. Due to the serious corruption, the land that the poor peasants were obliged to cultivate enlarged continuously, and the output of opium increased too. Meanwhile, more and more people became the victims of the opium.

In the harvest time, the working teams of the Japanese and the puppet government went to the countryside and gathered all the opium. They did not leave any surplus in the countryside, claiming they would protect the villagers in case that someone smoked the surplus opium. In this way, they collected all the opium, including the opium that poor peasants planted in the newly-cultivated land and rich families concealed. The peasants would be tortured or even killed if they did not fulfill the assignment and provide enough opium for the working teams. By this means, the working teams could not only complete the government’s assignment but also keep the drug addicts from getting the surplus opium in the countryside, which forced them to buy the drugs and opium bubbles the government sold. As a result, many officials made piles of money by oppressing the poor, while exploited by Japanese and the officials of the puppet government, the poor planters became much poorer and even lost all their properties in the end.

1.3 After the Pacific war, Japanese supported the war with the lunatic drug trafficking

The opium policy that Japanese carried out in Manchukuo had two major functions: one was to earn the financial income to support the war, and another was to weaken the competitive spirit of Chinese and break their will of resistance, causing them to lose their national consciousness. So it was impossible for Japanese to give up the policy regardless of the international condemnation. In 1941 the Pacific War broke out. Being the base of the war, Manchukuo had to increase its production continuously. And opium, as special military supplies and the origin of financial income, became more important in the emergency period. The General Bureau under the name of ban on opium did business of the opium monopolization again. Places of quitting smoking turned into the open drug-smoking sites, nobody thinking about the register system. All the camouflage of ban on the opium thoroughly vanished, and the nature of the imperialism became apparent.” (Central Archives, p. 815)

In 1942 and 1943, the Opium Meeting of Greater East Asia was held in Tokyo, Japan twice. An agreement was reached at the meeting that Manchukuo and Mengjiang became the bases of opium planting and were responsible for supplying the opium for the whole east Asia. Japanese government and the army responded to the plan actively, deciding to throw away the policy of cutting off the opium at once and increase the production of opium as soon as possible. The same year, they not only resumed the former area of opium planting in Manchukuo, but also expanded the planting area to the flat land. A large quantity of poppies were planted in the fertile land along the railway from Changtu county to Haicheng county. Land of 1000 hectare in three provinces of Mukden, Jilin and Siping were defined to plant the opium collectively. After 1944, in order to strengthen the management of the opium planting and selling and prevent the planting land from reducing, Japanese and the puppet government set up the group system, gathering the planters. Every head of the group was Japanese, in charge of the guidance and supervision and the opium was paid in the group. The peasants were compelled to plant opium and wide stretches of fertile land were utilized to plant the poppies. In order to increase the production of opium, Japanese and the puppet government ordered to utilize the best land to plant opium. The peasants put a great deal of money, labor and manure into the land, hoping to plant more opium instead of crops. Fertile land became desolate without being cultivated. The decrease of crops resulted in the shortage of grains, famines of years and the mismanagement in the farm sector and agricultural economy. The price of oil, coal and cloth rose fast in the rural area. People complained incessantly. The economic structure of agriculture in Northeast deformed.

With the expanding of opium production, the income Japanese and the Manchukuo government received from opium also increased continuously. The output was 12,000,000 liang in 1943 and 15,000,000 liang in 1944. Smuggling opium,
Japanese and the puppet Manchukuo government reaped fabulous profits and got military supplies to support the invading war. At the end of October 1941, in order to pay off the loan of about 7 million German Mark, Japanese sold 7 ton of opium to Germany.

In January 1943, Japanese decided to set up the special financing department in Manchukuo Central Bank to support the decisive battle in the economic way and established Manchukuo Trading Co., Ltd. in which the puppet government invested 500 million for purchasing and exporting opium. The same year in Hong Kong, Japanese Kwantung Army exported 20,000 liang of opium in return for the raw material of the special steel, tungsten. In 1944, Showa Steel Factory was attacked in the air. Japanese had urgent dealings with Shanghai, buying locomotives and tools with a lot of opium and fur. In February 1945, having dealings with Japanese Navy in North China, the puppet government got war material with opium, steel and corn, etc. The puppet government yielded fat profits from trafficking. Every year after 1942, they could get 10,000,000 yuan and even 30,000,000 yuan in 1944. The high opium income put heavy financial burden on Chinese, and made Japanese army more and more arrogant.

2. Opium and drugs ruined people in Northeast China ruthlessly both in body and mind

2.1 Opium spread in the populace at large.

Thousands of Chinese in old China suffered from the opium policy of killing people. In Northeast, many people from military commanders to businessmen and peasants sank into the drug web and became addicted. In 1933, when the policy was put into effect, the Opium Monopolistic Bureau printed a lot of opium permits and handed out to every police station. People, young and old, addicted or not, could get the permit with the valid period of half a year and take drugs at home or at the opium den. There were two kinds of opium den: one was for the rich in cities, called luxurious opium house; another was for the poor in the rural area, called simple opium den. Because opium dens existed everywhere, it was very convenient to take drugs, and the number of drug addicts increased very quickly. “Since the opium policy of killing people was carried out, at least 2,544,000 people had become addicted.” (Central Archives, p. 823)

2.2 Drugs seriously damaged the physical and mental health of people in Northeast

Under the opium policy of killing people, most of 3,000,000 northeasterners became drug addicts. Many young people were bags of bones, vulnerable and in low spirits, totally losing the national consciousness. Many drug addicts who were once good laborers lost their working ability and ruined their own lives and families in the end. There was a clever saying in old society: people who smoke opium had “three quickness”, poor quickly, dead quickly, removed quickly (The dead were very thin.). According to the statistics of Harbin Public Health Bureau, “1993 nameless corpses were found in the alleys and streets of the city from January to July in 1937. According to the data provided by Mukden police station, 67 people died of opium in November 1937.” (Wang, Depu, 1946. p. 57) In the whole Manchukuo, “179,000 addicts died of opium during the 12 years, from the beginning of the opium policy to the end of Manchukuo.” (Central Archives, p. 823). The drugs would shorten the life span of people and drastically reduce fertility, even their next generation could get the toxin because of heritage and become deformed. Both the quality and quantity of the population in Northeast declined rapidly with bad influence.

2.3 Fashion of taking drugs corrupted social morality.

Before Japanese occupation, Northeast was ruled by some warlords, and the policy of ban on opium-smoking and the opium trade was strictly implemented. So only the few rich could get access to the drugs. During the period of Manchukuo, everyone was allowed to take drugs and taking drugs became a kind of fashion. In some social occasions, drugs became a kind of necessity to serve the guests. The landowners, gentries and officials of upper class intended to show off their wealth by taking opium, Opium dens turned into the recreation areas for taking drugs, drinking, gambling and chasing after women. More and more people assimilated easily and quickly in the bad environment. In the vast rural area, deceived and seduced by the propaganda of Manchurian government, the peasants once believed that taking drugs could cure the illness and planting opium could make them richer. However, after becoming addicted, they lost their family properties in a short period of time, suffering from both poverty and sickness. To satisfy their craving for opium, some peasants had to sell their children, or even compelled their wives to engage in prostitution. Some desperate ones took risks committing snatchings, murder and arson, and became robbers, or even bandits.

In a word, the opium policy enforced by Japan and the Puppet Government in the Northeast China was a Japanese national policy which served the invading war. It brought about a great disaster to people in Northeast China. Although Japanese invaders fulfilled their evil purpose, Japan, with the image of a drug dealer, has been impaled at the historical stake of disgrace and leaves such a bad name which will long be remembered in the world, the reputation losses are unmeasurable and will never be compensated.
References


The Reflection of Contemporary Chinese Social Mentality via Internet: A Content Analysis of Comments from the Pray-for-blessings Website

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Abstract
This research made a content analysis of comments from a pray-for-blessings website after the 2008 Sichuan Earthquake happened. Contemporary Chinese social mentality is supposed to be reflected by the results. It explores that most netizens wrote the comments in the National Mourning Day. The contents of these comments are divided into 13 species: pray for the disaster areas, pray for China, pray for the rescuers, pray for others, group cohesion, suggestions, love, sympathy, questioning the China Seismological Bureau, appreciation, information of earthquake, schadenfreude, uselessness of praying. Although there was some negative emotion as schadenfreude and some complaints appeared, the whole was positive. The source of negative ones may be from high expectation of China Seismological Bureau and dissatisfaction of the society. Theism and antitheism both existed, there was more theism in the pray-for-blessings, however, antitheism was the primary. In all, the whole country is in the social mentality of the all-concerned, comity, love, cooperation, and advocation of science.

Keywords: Social mentality, Pray-for-blessings, Content analysis, Internet
1. Introduction

Social mentality is a pervasive and all-encompassing macro-phenomena embedded in the whole society. It is the summation of the emotional tune, social consensus and social values. Social mentality influences social participants’ potential contingencies and emotions according to the mechanism of social identification, motivation and emotion, de-individualization. This mechanism relies on the investigation of social popularity, consensus, motivation and confidence towards future to interact the relationship with mainstream ideology (Yang, 2006). China is in the Social Transform Period and keeping a positive social mentality is of great significance. When the society is confronted with an emergency, administration and instruction of social mentality is vital for the government to guide the public. The construction of harmonious society brings a lot of urgent issues in social psychology and personality studies, which calls for Chinanized research (Huang, 2007).

14:28, 5/12/2008 is the moment when the Sichuan Earthquake took place. It shocked every Chinese and would be memorized in the history of China. When all kinds of media reported the situation of the disaster and succor, officers and the rescue forces went to the disaster areas immediately, however, not every warm-blooded Chinese could go to the frontline by himself. With the desire not being satisfied, they begun to feel anxious and stressful, Katz put forward “using and satisfied” theory-audience can control which to choose when they are confronted with the comments. It says that the audience are not passive, which means they can choose media to use according to their own needs and motivation (Fang, 2007). As a result, netizens vented their anxiety and stress through the Internet with various kinds of attitudes to death. When the Pray-for-blessings Website came into being, more and more netizens communicated with each other which plays a very important role in reforming a social support system.

There are usually some people and things that are mysterious and surreal from the folk custom by which people modulate mentality, overcome mental problems, and relieve their worries. This is presented in various kinds of folk cultures (Jing, 2002). From the affair of Chinese Emperor Xuanzong of Tang and his high-ranked imperial concubine Yang Guifei praying to the moon for blessing to the Joss paper, antithetical couplet and candles, the contents of pray-for-blessings are various among Chinese people. Qufu, which is the hometown of Confucius (the greatest educationalist in China) hold several important blessing ceremonies every year, and some of them are held officially, which pray for the prosperity of the nation and some are carried by the folk, which pray for the bright futures of the whole family (especially for offspring). All of these pieces of evidence are proving the fact that praying-for-blessings is essential in Chinese lives. According to the Chinese logic, one should cherish his/her own blessing, and never grudge blessing to others. Many people have posted their comments online for people who were suffering in no more than an hour. Up to the point when the author has finished the article, 2548846 comments were posted and 326 pieces of them were being discussed popularly.

2. Method

2.1 Sampling

The comments (time, location, and topic) were taken from Tencent Pray-for-blessings website randomly from 15:36 on May 12, 2008 to 00:00 on May 22, 2008. There were 590 pieces of comments after kicking out invalid ones from 630.

2.2 Design and steps

The time period of comments were divided into there parts. The first period is from 14:28 of May 12, 2008 to 14:28 of May 15, 2008 which is the Golden Rescue Time. The second period is from “Tou Qi” (“Tou Qi” in Chinese folk custom means festa regarding to the seventh day after a person’s death and relatives will hold a memorial ceremony for the person on Tou Qi) to 00:00 of May 19 (Sun, 2000). The third period of time is the national Mourning Day. The concrete time of posted comments were divided into four parts: Early morning (00:00:00 – 06:00:00), morning (06:00:01 – 12:00:00), afternoon (12:00:01 – 18:00:00), and evening (18:00:01 – 23:59:59).

A single comment can be split into several units representing a complete topic on its own. After the divisions, 1092 items were split from the original comments as the final sample for analysis.

1092 words representing its psychological meanings were extracted from the 1092 items. These were divided into Pray-for-blessings and Non pray-for-blessings elements. Here’s an example: “Let’s pray for safety and harmony together” as praying element, and to put “I’ll adopt a little girl who has lost her parents in order to show my sympathy for those who are in the disaster area” into the Non pray-for-blessings elements. Gather elements with similar contents into the same category.

Classify elements into positive or negative dimensions. Vague items are identified as the uncertain. (Fredrickson, 2001)

Classify elements into theistic or atheistic dimensions. Theism: a combination of soul of humanity and spirit of gods, they both can communicate with each other but they actually have different bodies (Wilber, 1989). For example, “Jesus Christ, would you take back your anger and bless Sichuan”, “Hope God will bless Chinese descendents”. Vague items are identified as the uncertain.

Statistics is completed by using Microsoft Excel 2003 and SPSS for Windows 13.0.
3. Results

3.1 Time of comments

After $\chi^2$ test as shown in Table 1, there is significant difference between number of comments in three periods ($\chi^2(2, \ N=590) = 72.495 > \chi^2_{0.05(2)} = 5.99, \ p<0.05$). There are more netizens posting comments in National Mourning Days while there are more netizens posting comments during nights ($\chi^2(3, \ N=590) = 26.215 > \chi^2_{0.05(3)} = 7.81, \ p<0.05$). (Insert Table 1 here)

3.2 Categories of Pray-for-blessings elements

Four categories were extracted from Pray-for-blessings elements as shown in Figure 1: “pray for disaster areas” (75%), “pray for China” (21%), “pray for rescuers” (2%) and “pray for others” (2%). “Pray for disaster areas” took the highest weight, while “pray for rescuers” and “pray for others” took the lowest. (Insert Figure 1 here)

3.3 Categories of Non pray-for-blessings elements

Nine categories were extracted from Non-pray-for-blessings elements as shown in Figure 2. They are listed by weights as follows: “group cohesion” (24%), “suggestions” (19%), “love” (17%), “sympathy” (12%), “questioning to the China Seismological Bureau” (8%), “appreciation” (8%), “information of earthquake” (5%), “schadenfreude” (4%), and “useless of praying” (3%). (Insert Figure 2 here)

3.4 Difference test of elements on emotional dimensions

As shown in Table 3, all of the Pray-for-blessings and Non-pray-for-blessings elements are divided by emotional dimensions of positive emotion, negative emotion and uncertainty. After crosstab test, there is significant difference between pray-for-blessings elements and Non pray-for-blessings elements on dimensions of positive emotion and negative emotion ($\chi^2(2, \ N=1092) = 359.134 > \chi^2_{0.05(3)} = 7.81, \ p<0.05$). There are more positive items in pray-for-blessings elements than those in Non pray-for-blessings elements, and less negative ones. In sum, there are more positive elements than negative ones ($\chi^2(2, \ N=1092) = 1250.423 > \chi^2_{0.05(2)} = 5.99, \ p<0.05$). (Insert Table 2 here)

3.5 Difference test of elements on theistic and atheistic dimensions

As shown in Table 4, all of the Pray-for-blessings and Non-pray-for-blessings elements are divided by theistic, atheistic and uncertain dimensions. After crosstab test, there is significant difference between pray-for-blessings elements and Non pray-for-blessings elements on theistic and atheistic dimensions ($\chi^2(2, \ N=1092) = 1290.797 > \chi^2_{0.05(2)} = 5.99, \ p<0.05$). There are more atheistic items in pray-for-blessings elements than those in Non pray-for-blessings elements. Basically, there are more atheistic elements that theistic elements ($\chi^2(2, \ N=1092) = 1290.797 > \chi^2_{0.05(2)} = 5.99, \ p<0.05$). (Insert Table 3 here)

4. Discussion and Conclusion

4.1 Time of pray-for-blessings

It explores that most netizens wrote the comments in the National Mourning Day. People are so concentrated on the damage and relief work live on TV in the first 72 hours. On “Tou Qi”, the number of comments is less than what we expected, which is very different from the custom in our actual life. Also, “Tou Qi” didn’t turn up in the comments. Pray-for-blessings via Internet is a new media which makes netizens neglect some fixed custom or norms. In the period of National Mourning Day, people begin to pray-for-blessings for the victims by various ways in response to the calls from various groups. Surprisingly, a lot of people post comments in the early morning, from which we can obviously see that earthquake shock people greatly.

4.2 Pray-for-blessings are the main contents with earthquake relief the primary task

In our actual life, the aim of praying is for good fortune, emolument, longevity, wealth and happy events, but in the peculiar period of earthquake, that netizens wrote comments on line to express their attention to people who live in the earthquake area, and also address their viewpoints. By doing this, they can experience their existence and do some contributions to the disaster area, so they gain the delight of being self-actualized (Zhang & Zou, 2006). Pray-for-blessings elements account for 67% of all elements, among which pray for disaster areas account for 75%. Since information was transparent and sufficient during that period of time, all the nation formed a social mentality of full attention and overcoming the disaster together by social behaviors like communication and social involvement. This social mentality provides a psychological basis of public participation against the disaster.

In the category of “to pray for disaster areas”, "to wish the alive people brave", "to rebuild homestead as soon as possible", "to wish everything be better", "the disaster will be soon gone", "insist" and "to re-collect" were the words which the netizens used frequently. It proves that when the disaster broke out, safety became the first need to individuals. When we do not have the right way to cope with, pray-for-blessings becomes a mental compensation. "Lighting the candle", "sacrificing the wine", "to burn joss sticks" and "presenting bouquets" were some traditional praying ways that have been moved to the Internet by netizens. It can be seen that folk custom is a refraction of
primitive psychology (Xia, 2002).

In the category of “pray for China”, “the Chinese are the strongest”, “come on, China”, “long live China”, “prosperous, rich and powerful”, “China is invincible”, and “disaster can’t knock down the Chinese” reveal the Chinese strong patriotism and the confidence in overcoming the disaster. By praying for China, people become more confident and feel safe together with the government and compatriots.

To our surprise, the category of "pray for the rescuers" only accounts for 2% of the "pray-for-blessings" elements. Seemingly, the netizens lose sight of them, however, it shows that the Chinese would like to believe in rescuers and be confident with them. Comparing with the victims in the earthquake, they appear as altruists which attract more hope than blessing from the compatriots.

4.3 The Positive attitude of Chinese people, such as unity, great love, active cooperation

Contemporary Chinese social mentality is also reflected by the Non pray-for-blessings elements. In the category of “cohesion”, words like “unity” and “unity is strength” express the Chinese feeling of power. “Solidarity as one” and “all the people of one mind” show the sense of identity. “Family” and “powerful backing” reflect the netizens’ sense of belonging. The national cohesion generates from the genetic connection, which makes our family attachment and belonging point to our nation. National cohesion comes from national identity, which generates from political relations (Huang, Huang, 2000).

Suggestions netizens gave reflect their awareness of the role as a master: “donating is better than holding a ceremony” and “wealthy people, especially the stars in entertainment field and sports field should contribute more” reflect that in front of saving lives, all the values are pointed to economic and social values, all the needs and beliefs are action-oriented. Meanwhile, “to punish the corrupt officials”, “to start disaster prevention education”, “to stop entertainments” and “to strengthen the structure of public buildings” are suggestions made by the netizens, which means that the Chinese people actively seek cooperation and participation in public management.

4.4 Most of comments are positive and the social environment influence is profound

The behaviors of netizens are towards emotion-orientation via the comments in the pray-for-blessings website. However, whether they are positive and stable is very important to the balance of organisms and the quality of life (Guo & Wang, 2007). The individual's self-consciousness and social responsibility are being improved when they confront with the disaster. Therefore, they participate in the earthquake relief work positively or give counsel. Positive emotion can activate general action tendencies and has priming effect and extending effect on cognition. It can construct individual's resources and withdraw the activation produced by negative emotion. At the same time it can promote your physical and mental health which paves the way for a harmonious society (Liu & Hu etc, 2008).

In the transform period of society, the rhythm of people's life is faster and faster, the competition is fiercer and fiercer, the requirement of the material life is higher and higher and the psychological pressure is greater and greater, so it has had some subtle negative emotion. In Non pray-for-blessings elements, there are pieces of negative items. “the China Seismological Bureau does not have any achievement” and “the China Seismological Bureau is useless” are posted. We expect earthquake forecast more, a great many doubts about the capability of the bureau exist after the earthquake. Furthermore, “the number of death is little”, “it is fate” and “it is retribution” are also posted. Probably, individual's self-consciousness is decreasing and selfish desire is inflating in front of disaster, then they vent their dissatisfaction of the society through the Internet. Otherwise, people who suffer setbacks at ordinary times attack now (Nibler & Harris, 2003).

4.5 Both antitheism and theism exist

Pray-for-blessings contain cultural origins and the figures are all deities in ancient times, so theism influences contemporary style. There is evidence from the religious beliefs, such as “Sympathizing with the victims, God, please help them”. Also, the sense of family cultivated by the ancestors plays an important role, such as “the ancestors will bless you, because they are our brothers and sisters”. At last, the way of thinking—“Better to Believe the worst, and be pleasantly surprised, than to be optimistic and learn the worst”, such as “I didn’t believe in the God, but this time, I will pray for the victims” (Pei, 2002). However, in Chinese society, antitheism constitute a large part, especially via Internet which is sense limited. Indeed, all Chinese do is making scientific knowledge on earthquake available, establishing a scientific belief and eradicating superstitions.

References


Acknowledgements

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Table 1. Frequency of time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>72 hours after the earthquake</th>
<th>the fourth day to &quot;Tou Qi&quot;</th>
<th>National Mourning Day</th>
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<td>early morning</td>
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Table 2. Frequency of positive and negative items

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<th>Non pray-for-blessings</th>
<th>total</th>
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<td>727</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>1092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Frequency of theism and antitheism items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pray-for blessings</th>
<th>Non pray-for-blessings</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>theism</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antitheism</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncertain</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>1092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes

Figure 1. Categories of Pray-for-blessings elements

- pray for others
- pray for rescuers
- pray for China
- pray for disaster areas

Figure 2. Categories of Non pray-for-blessings elements

- useless of praying
- schadenfreude
- information of earthquake
- questioning to the China Seismological Bureau
- appreciation
- sympathy
- love
- suggestions
- group cohesion
Natural Disaster Death and Socio-Economic Factors in Selected Asian Countries: A Panel Analysis

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Abstract
The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between disaster fatalities with the level of economic development, years of schooling, land area and population for a panel of fifteen Asian countries over the sample period over 1970 to 2005. Our results indicate that the relationship between disaster losses and the level of economic development is nonlinear in nature suggesting that at lower income level, a country is more disaster resilient but at higher income level, an economy becomes less disaster resistant. Other disaster determinants of interest are the level of education which suggests that educational attainment reduces human fatalities as a result of disaster; larger population will increase death toll and larger land area will reduce disaster fatalities.

Keywords: Natural Disaster, Asian, Panel Data Analysis

1. Introduction
The Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) defines a disaster as a “situation or event which overwhelms local capacity, necessitating a request to national or international level for external assistance; an unforeseen and often sudden event that causes great damage. Destruction and human suffering.” has divided natural disaster into groups and types. CRED (see Guha-Sapir, 2008b) further divided natural disaster into several specific groups, namely; biological (including epidemic and insect infestation), climatological (including drought, extreme temperature and wildfire), geophysical (including earthquake, mass movement dry, volcano and tsunami), hydrological (including flood and mass movement wet), and meteorological (including wind, and storm).

According to the “Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007” natural disasters have a profound impact on the quality of life through their destruction of food crops and livestock, and forced dislocation of households and communities. Their toll on lives and the instant poverty cause are among their most devastating impacts (UNESCAP, 2007, p. 175). The economic impact of a disaster usually, among others, consists of damage to infrastructure, crops, housing, loss of revenue, unemployment, market destabilization on the local economy. The Canadian Red Cross has reported that in the year 2007 alone, the total number of natural disasters is 546 and of which more than half were weather-related (see also Schlein, 2008). Schlein (2008) reports that the climate-related disasters, floods and windstorms are the two disasters which have killed more people in 2007 than they have overall in the last five-year average.
By region, 33 percent of disasters occurred in Asia and the Pacific region while 30 percent in Africa, 25 percent in the Americas, 8 percent in Europe and 4 percent in the Middle East and North Africa. By type of disaster, in the Asia and the Pacific region, about 25 percent of disasters were floods (22%) and flash floods (3%), followed by 17 percent were earthquake, 12 percent were tropical cyclones, and 7 percent were severe local storms. Table 1 reports the Top-10 countries experienced the number of deaths as a result of natural disaster. It is clear that majority of the countries are in Asia. Bangladesh, India and Pakistan are the most vulnerable countries hit hard by natural disaster. In Table 2, the Asian countries still recorded the highest number of reported natural disasters for the year 2007, with China recorded 20 number of natural disasters occurred, followed by India (18), the Philippines (160), Indonesia (16), Pakistan (9) and Japan (8). Further, during the same year, natural disaster has affected 211 million people and killed almost 17 thousand people. On economic perspectives, natural disasters also are an economic disaster. According to Table 3, the ten most affected countries have wracked up about US$60 billion in disaster-related economic losses (see Guha-Sapir, 2008a).

The paper is organized as follows. In the next section we discuss some of the previous literature related to the present study. In section 3, we provide our model, and discussion on the empirical analysis is provided in section 4. The last section contains our conclusion.

2. Literature Reviews

Since the seminal work by Dacy and Kunreuther (1969), a plethora of researches on investigating the socio-economic determinants of natural disaster has been conducted in recent years.

Raschky (2008) has point out that socio-economic factors have been found to be the key determinants of a society’s response to disasters, apart from other factors such as climatic and topographic factors. In his study that consists of 2,792 events for the period 1984-2004, Raschky (2008) found that economic development (measured by GDP per capita) is an important factor in determining a society’s vulnerability against natural hazards in which higher-income countries experience a lower death toll from natural disasters. On the other hand, the institutional factors such as government stability and investment climate reduce the adverse effects on both, the death toll and the overall economic losses from natural disasters.

Horwich (2000) argues that a critical underlying factor in any economy’s response to a natural disaster is its level of wealth. A wealthy or richer country relate to safer country. Wildavsky (1988) interprets safety as a natural product of a growing market economy. Since the demand for safety rises with income, a nation’s per capita income is a good first approximation of the degree of safety it enjoys. Furthermore, a rise in income will provide not only general safety but, at high enough income levels, protection specific to disasters (Horwich, 2000). Rasmussen (2004) also found out the negative relationship between income and the number or persons affected by natural disasters. His cross-country regression results for the ECCU countries suggest that the capacity of countries to avoid the human cost of disasters improves as income levels increases. In other study, Albala-Bertrand (1993) argues that the higher the level of development, the smaller both the number of deaths, injured and deprived and the relative material losses. The level of development includes income per capital and income distribution, economic diversification and social inclusion, institutionalization and participation, education and health, choice and protection.

Kahn (2005) shows that countries with higher per capita income experience a similar amount of catastrophic events but suffer less death from these events. He points out that though richer nations do not experience fewer natural disasters than poorer nations, richer nations do suffer less death from disaster. Thus economic development provides implicit insurance against nature’s shocks. Richer nations will have the resources to make investment to preempt such events. Further in his study, Kahn (2005) shows that better institutional quality insulates against death from earthquakes. Countries with better institutions, lower income inequality and higher levels of democracy experience fewer earthquake fatalities.

A study by Toya and Skidmore (2007) using annual data for 151 countries over the 1960-2003 period tested several measures of social/economic infrastructure variables that includes income, education, openness, financial development, and the size of the government as determinants of disaster. They found out that economic development and economic
losses from disasters are inversely related. Nation with higher levels of educational attainment and greater openness for trade are less vulnerable to disasters. A stronger financial sector and a smaller size of government are associated with a lower disaster death toll. In a more recent study, Noy (2008) found out that countries with a higher literacy rate, better institutions, higher per capita income, and higher degree of openness to trade and higher levels of government spending are better able to withstand the initial disaster shock and prevent further spillovers into the macro-economy. He also points out that countries with more foreign exchange reserves and higher levels of domestic credit but with less-open capital accounts appear more robust and better able to endure natural disasters, with less adverse spillover into domestic production.

3. Data and Method of Estimation

To determine the relationship between the socio-economic variables and disaster impact, we follow Raschky (2008) and estimate the following pooled time-series regression:

\[
\log\text{Death}_{it} = \alpha_{it} + \beta_1 \log\text{GDPpc}_{it} + \beta_2 \log(\text{GDPpc})^2_{it} + \beta_3 \log\text{Land area}_{it} + \\
+ \beta_4 \log\text{Population}_{it} + \beta_5 \log\text{School}_{it} + \epsilon_{it}
\]  

(1)

where \(i and t\) denotes the number of country \(i = 1, ..., N\) and \(t = 1, ..., T\) respectively. The variable \(\text{Death}\) is measured using the number of people killed in the event of disaster. \(\text{GDPpc}\) is real gross domestic product per capita, \(\text{Land area}\) is measured as land area square km, \(\text{Population}\) is total population and \(\text{School}\) is secondary school enrolment.

The benefit of using a pooling technique is that it provides an examination of variations among cross-sectional units simultaneously with variations within individual units over time. The ultimate advantage is that it allows for more complex analysis over either cross-section or time series analysis individually. However, there are other advantages to using pooled regression, such as: pooled data sets usually provide an increased number of data points, and that generates additional degrees of freedom and; incorporating information relating to both cross section and time series variables can substantially diminish the problems that arise when there is an omitted variables problems.

According to Raschky (2008), higher income does not necessarily lead to better protection against natural disaster. Thus, Raschky suspects that the process of economic development is nonlinear, the regression will be more appropriate by incorporating both \(\log\text{GDPpc}\) and \(\log(\text{GDPpc})^2\) in the equation. Raschk y contends that economic development partly reduces disaster fatalities and losses, but increasing wealth inverts this relationship and thus causes relatively higher losses in high-income countries. In this study we test the assumption that the relationship between disaster losses and the level of development is nonlinear. Higher income people can self-protect through a number of strategies to reduce their natural disaster risk exposure. The reason behind it was, with higher income, it enable the individuals respond to the risk around them by employing additional costly precautionary measures. Besides, after a disaster has struck, richer economies are able to provide high-quality emergency care to protect the population against death from disaster. Nevertheless, a nonlinear relationship would imply that economic development provides protection but with a diminishing rate.

The effect of \(\text{Population}\) and \(\text{Land size}\) is ambiguous. Even though one might expect that bigger countries (in term number of populations) and land area have economies of scale in providing mitigative measures and more people increase the damage potential. Nevertheless, the inclusion of population and land area act as control variables (see also Skidmore and Toya, 2002; Raschky, 2008). On the other hand, as for the \(\text{School}\) variable, higher educational attainment may enable the citizens to make a series of choices from engaging safe construction practices to assessing potential risk that result in fewer deaths when the disasters strike.

3.1 Sources of Data

Due to the difficulties of getting a continuous time-series data on economic disaster losses, we analyze the disaster-economic development relationship for only fifteen Asian countries. These countries are Bangladesh, China People’s Republic, India, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Japan, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand and Turkey. The period of study ranges from 1970 to 2005 using annual data from EM-DAT database. As a result of missing observations for some data for some countries, we are left with 15 (balance) observational data for the analysis throughout the study.
We used data on deaths from natural disasters to measure economic disaster losses. The data are collected from the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) (see International Federation of Red Cross, 2002). Since 1988, CRED has maintained the Emergency Events Database (EM-DAT), accessible at http://www.cred.be/emdat/. In the raw data, the unit of analysis is the number of disasters. The CRED uses specific criteria for determining whether an event is classified as a natural disaster. These include: ten or more people were killed; 100 or more people were affected, injured, or homeless; significant damage was incurred; a declaration of a state of emergency and/or an appeal for international assistance was made (http://www.cred.be/emdat/).

Another measure of economic disaster losses is the monetary damage caused by disaster. However, these there are several limitations that warrant discussion. First, this measure of economic damages only includes direct costs and not indirect costs (lost future income for example) of the disaster. Second, developing countries have an incentive to exaggerate the scale of damages in order to secure international assistance. Third, obtaining damage estimates in developing countries is challenging because the poor are often without insurance, bookkeeping and formal markets (Tol and Leek, 1999). Nevertheless, the OFDA/CRED data are best data on economic damages available, and the analysis should provide an initial indication of the relationship between the level of development and economic damages from disasters.

In this study, we focus on ten types of natural disasters. Drought is an extended period of time characterized by a deficiency in a region’s water supply that is the result of constantly below average precipitation. A drought can lead to losses to agriculture, affect inland navigation and hydropower plant, and cause a lack of drinking water and famine. An earthquake is the result of a sudden release of stored energy in the Earth’s crust that creates seismic waves. At the earth’s surface they are felt as a shaking or displacement of the ground. Epidemic is the cases of an infectious disease, which already exist or previously absent in the region or population concerned. Extreme temperature events are heat waves and cold waves. Floods are significant rise of water level in the stream, lake, reservoir or coastal region. Mass movement is divided into two categories wet and dry. Wet mass movement is such as avalanche, landslide and subsidence. Meanwhile, rock-fall is categorized as dry mass movement. Storm is referring to local windstorm and typical cyclone; strong winds caused by regional atmospheric phenomena which are typical for a certain area. Volcanic activity describes activity like rock-fall, ash fall, lava streams, and emissions of gases which can result in pyretic eruptions. Wildfire is described as uncontrolled burning fire, usually in wild lands, which can cause damage to forestry, agriculture, infrastructure and buildings.


4. The Empirical Results

The estimated regression result for the relationship between disaster fatalities and the socio-economic determinants are presented in Table 4. As observed in Table 4, all five independent variables are statistically significant at least at the 5 percent level. The null hypothesis that \( \beta' s \) is zero can easily be rejected.

Our results clearly support Raschky (2008) contention that the relationship between disaster fatalities and the level of economic development is nonlinear in nature. Both variables \( \log GDP pc \) and \( \log GDP pc^2 \) are statistically significant and show expected sign with negative sign for \( \log GDP pc \) and positive sign for \( \log GDP pc^2 \). This result suggest that the level of wealth of a nation though provides protection but with a diminishing rate. This implies that there is a threshold whereby the level of economic development would provide safety to the population, but after a certain point higher income growth will limit the general level of safety and its disaster resilience. A good example is the lessons from Kobe earthquake that struck Japan in January 1995. Horwich (2000) points out that although Japan is one of the wealthiest nations in the world, and therefore are said to be relatively disaster resistant, but Japan remains well below its potential resilience to disaster occurrence. This is because Japan faced with vast array of government regulations and private practices that insulate its enterprises, large and small, from both domestic and foreign competition and thereby limit the economy’s income and growth, its general level of safety and its disaster resilience.

Further form Table 4, our results indicates that higher educational attainment enable people to make better choices with regard to safe construction practices, location decisions, and other safety infrastructures that will result in lesser deaths from disasters. As for the control variables – Population and Land our results suggest that an increase in the number of people in a country will result in more casualty or death as result of disasters. However, the negative relationship between land and disaster death toll indicates that bigger land area presumably with scattered population will leads to fewer death if disaster occur.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between disaster fatalities with the level of economic development, years of schooling, land area and population for a panel of fifteen Asian countries over the sample period.
over 1970 to 2005. The fifteen countries considered in the present study include Bangladesh, China People’s Republic, India, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Japan, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand and Turkey.

Our results indicates that the relationship between disaster losses and the level of economic development is nonlinear in nature suggesting that at lower income level, a country is more disaster resilience but at higher income level, an economy become less disaster resistant. Other disaster determinants of interest is the level of education which suggests that educational attainment reduces human fatalities as a result of disaster; larger population will increase death toll and larger land area will reduce disaster fatalities.

References

EMDAT, The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database 2000 Universite Catholicque de Louvain, Brussels, Belgium.
Table 1. Top-10 Country-Natural disasters by number of deaths in 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of disaster</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyclone Sidr, November</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>4,234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood, July-August</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>1,110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood, July-September</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>1,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood, August</td>
<td>Korea, Dem P Rep</td>
<td>610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood, June-July</td>
<td>China, P Rep</td>
<td>535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earthquake, August</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat wave, July</td>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyclone Yemyin, June</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood and landslides, June</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flood, July</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Table 2. Number of reported natural disasters by country in 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of natural disasters occurred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China, P Rep</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico, Haiti, Algeria, Afghan, Afghanistan</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria, Romania, Colombia</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique, Brazil, Bangladesh, Dominican Rep., Viet Nam, Thailand</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Table 3. Economic impact in 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>In absolute amounts (US$ billion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China P Rep</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.
Table 4. Results of estimated Equation (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-20.53258</td>
<td>1.335125</td>
<td>-15.37877***</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDPPC</td>
<td>-0.482501</td>
<td>0.169962</td>
<td>-2.844767**</td>
<td>0.0046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDPPC^2</td>
<td>2.816369</td>
<td>0.595146</td>
<td>4.732235***</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAND AREA</td>
<td>-0.687707</td>
<td>0.140349</td>
<td>-4.899958***</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POPULATION</td>
<td>2.393459</td>
<td>0.271765</td>
<td>8.803420***</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL</td>
<td>-0.516354</td>
<td>0.231706</td>
<td>-2.228492**</td>
<td>0.0263</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared 0.428610  Mean dependent var 4.320941
Adjusted R-square 0.423260  S.D. dependent var 2.997028
S.E. of regression 2.276046  Akaike info criterion 4.493805
Sum squared resid 2766.326  Schwarz criterion 4.541490
Log likelihood -1207.327  Hannan-Quinn criter. 4.512455
F-statistic 80.11250  Durbin-Watson stat 1.503824
Prob(F-statistic) 0.000000

Note: Asterisk (***) (**) denote statistically significant at the 1% and 5% level, respectively. The t-values are based on the White (1980) heteroscedasticity-consistent covariance matrix.
A Study of Cultural Facilities Utilization
Based on Questionnaire - A Case Study of
Gymnasiums, Museums and Galleries in Beijing

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Abstract
According to the result of a questionnaire survey of gymnasiums, museums and galleries’ utilization in Beijing, a few suggestions are given to the future cultural facilities construction based on the analysis of the overall characteristics of cultural consumption and behavioral preference of different groups. The results show obvious socio-differentiation between groups of people, therefore more attention is called for to diversity as well as special groups of women and senior people in cultural facility utilization.

Keywords: Cultural facilities, Questionnaire, Behavioral preference, Beijing case study

1. Introduction
Culture is the soul of a city. The city of Beijing has a history of more than 3000 years and thus deep culture foundation. As early as 1983, it is explicitly written in Beijing Urban Master Planning that Beijing is positioned as the cultural center of the whole country. Plus, cultural facilities serve as carriers of culture which partly represent the overall level of a city and have a wide range including libraries, museums, galleries, gymnasiums, theatres and so on. Among them, gymnasiums are places for body exercises while museums and galleries for mind opening, both of which are typically representative of civilization. Besides, with development of the city and improvement of the citizens’ living condition, the demand for cultural activities and facilities are increasing rapidly. Based on these points, this article chose museums, galleries and gymnasiums in the city of Beijing as subjects and sampling questionnaire survey as the approach for studying behavioral characteristics of cultural facilities utilization from a demand prospective in order to provide worthwhile suggestions for future cultural facilities construction.

2. Data and Method
The subjects for sampling questionnaire survey are citizens from eight administrative districts of Beijing city including Dongcheng, Xicheng, Chongwen, Xuanwu, Haidian, Chaoyang, Shijingshan and Fengtai districts. According to the
empirical data of sample size and population in urbanized area in Beijing, the survey delivered 1,800 questionnaires and receives 1,800 of which 1573 are effective in 2007. With Excel software as analysis tool, both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed in the analysis of the most commonly utilized facilities, the characteristics of travel behavior for cultural activities, the behavioral characteristics of cultural facilities utilization and behavioral preference based on different property which as a whole demonstrate the characteristics of cultural consumption in Beijing and its socio-differentiation phenomenon.

3. The social property of respondents

As is shown in Table 1, the rate of gender is 1.04:1 (male to female) showing a slight difference and a small gap in cultural consuming power and demand between male and female consumers, partly due to the development of society and women's rising status; ages of respondents mostly lie within the range from 19 to 50 who are the major groups of cultural consumption; because of One Child Policy in China, 55 % respondents come from 3-membered family consisting of parents and one child; as for income level, most cultural consumers are those with below ¥3,000CNY per month, accounting for 78%, including 31% respondents with below ¥1,500CNY per month. There is little doubt that cultural consumption is highly related to educational background. Accordingly, respondents without a formal schooling of at least senior high is merely 18 % and more than half respondents have diploma of higher education or above.

4. The overall characteristics of cultural facilities utilization in Beijing

4.1 Analysis of the most commonly utilized cultural facility

As stated by the analysis of 1573 effective questionnaires, 44 % respondents choose gymnasium as the most commonly utilized cultural facility, while 30 % choose museums and 26% choose galleries, as is shown in Table 2.

Respondents choosing indoor gyms are almost twice as those picking outdoor gyms; inclusive gyms offering various sports equipment are more popular than specialized ones. As for museums, the most commonly used ones are technology museums followed by art museums and religion & ethnic museums. Same with gymnasiums, comprehensive museums and galleries are more prevalent than thematic ones, because the former meet the needs of more consumers with different tastes and demands while the latter is narrower and suitable only for a certain group of people.

4.2 Characteristics of travel behavior for cultural activities

Analysis of travel behavior, including the ways of transport and travel time, could be useful in planning cultural facilities as well as locating stations of public transportation and parking lots near cultural facilities.

As is shown in Table 3 and Table 4, most respondents choose public transportation including buses and subway, accounting for 48 %. The reason is that public transportation system in Beijing is relatively well developed and most of the cultural facilities lie at the edge of circle road where locates a large number of stations for buses and subways, so that for common citizens, especially those unable to afford private cars, public transportation is the optimum way both in cheap and convenient. On the other hand, with the increasing income level of citizens goes the number of private cars, consequently respondents travelling with cars account for as much as 17 % and is predictably increasing. Based on points above, both stations of public transportation and sufficient parking lots should be planned near cultural facilities in order to satisfy consumers with diverse needs.

Travel time is associated with transport network as well as cultural facilities layout pattern and to some extent reflects accessibility of cultural facilities. According to the questionnaire, 47% of the respondents need 0.5-1 hour of travel time followed by 37 % below 0.5 hour. On the other hand, still 16 % of respondents spend more than one hour on the road, indicating that much should be done in order to improve the accessibility.

4.3 The behavioral characteristics of cultural facilities utilization

Characteristics of cultural facilities utilization include main purpose, frequency and time span of cultural facility utilization as well as average cost each person (including traffic cost).

As is shown in Table 5, cultural consumption is mainly for the purpose of health improvement as well as mind opening, accounting for 34 % and 29 % respectively, and followed by entertainment 19 % . Cultural consumers who intend to use cultural facilities to keep fit are mainly those choosing gymnasiums as the most commonly used facility, while respondents who usually go to galleries and museums would like to broaden their horizon in the process of cultural consumption.

Consumers who pick the frequency of one to five times per year form the largest portion and the next is once per week. Frequency is highly related to the most commonly utilized facility: for those who often go to gyms, their activity frequency is counted by weeks, which means that, averagely, they make use of gyms at least once a week; while for those who commonly go to galleries or museums, the frequency is counted by years, i.e. once per year or above. Those who go to galleries or museums 3 times per year or above rarely exist. This is partly due to the property of each facility
type: consumers use gyms in order to keep fit, so they go there on a regular or even daily basis while galleries and museums are facilities for exhibition where a variety of displays last for a period of time, and different displays meet different needs, so that there is no need for consumers to use them on a weekly basis.

The third index is time span of utilization. Most respondents stay one to four hours, accounting for 90%, including 57% spending one to two hours. Respondents who stay less than an hour and a whole day (eight hours) are merely 10% totally. Apparently, for most cases, one hour is too short for consumers to enjoy thoroughly and one whole day (eight hours) is too long and unnecessary for either doing sports in gyms or watching displays in galleries or museums. In that case, reasonable plans should be made according to time span index in order to control opening period and passenger flow for the reason that longer time span could possibly thwart flow turnover and therefore cause congestion which would weaken the sense of satisfaction of consumers.

As for average cost each person, respondents who consume less than ¥50 CNY accounted for nearly one half, followed by ¥50-100 CNY 37%. Based on further analysis, average cost is highly associated with income level. Most of the consumers who spend ¥100 CNY or above are mid-high or high-income groups with more than ¥3,000 CNY income per month.

5. Behavioral preference analysis based on respondents group

Groups of people with different property behave differently during the process of cultural consumption. By the method of cross-analysis of consumer property and behavioral characteristics of cultural consumption, a picture of socio-differentiation in cultural consumption could be explicitly demonstrated. The article chooses gender, age, income, educational background as group property and the most commonly used facility, main purpose, average amount of utilization time per year as well as average cost each person (including traffic cost) as behavioral characteristics indices. Average amount of utilization time per year (AUT) is counted by utilization frequency (UF, per year) and time span each time (TS, hours):

\[ \text{AUT} = \text{UF} \times \text{TS} \]  

(1)

5.1 Behavioral characteristics of different gender property groups

Figures 1 to 3 show the behavioral differences between male and female consumers. Men are more interested in gyms than women. Consequently, there are a greater percentage of men than women respondents with utilization purpose of keeping fit. Although because of physiological and psychological disparities between male and female people, fewer women engage in physical activities, demands of women consumers of gyms should not be ignored. With the development of society in recent years, new groups of career women and white-collar women have a quite different way of life compared with traditional ones: they lead a fast-paced life under great pressure both from work and family; also, they favor new and progressive attitudes of consuming supported by solid financial foundation owing to high level income, as a result, their demand for gyms consumption is expected to increase. Besides, as is shown in Table 1, women average cost is ¥4 CNY more than that of men which is another evidence of importance of further exploring women market of cultural consumption.

Another obvious difference between men and women is average amount of time of cultural facility utilization per year: men with 104 hours per year while women 91 hours per year.

5.2 Behavioral characteristics by age property groups

As is shown in Figure 4, there is a greater percentage of respondents in groups under 35 years old who choose gyms for the reason that they are more energetic and active and most gyms service are designed to meet the needs of young people only. However, from Figure 5 is a noticeable demand for physical exercises of senior people group above 60 most of whom have enough spare time having retired from work as well as want of physical exercises due to weakening body condition. In such case, more attention to senior people group is called for during cultural facilities construction. For the middle-aged people between 35 and 60, more demand for utilization of museums and galleries can be shown in Figure 4 and 5.

The distribution of average cost based on age property is similar to American football with a big stomach and small ends. Both groups under 18 most of whom are still not yet financially independent and senior people who more or less live a traditionally thrifty life spend much less than other age groups. Young and middle-aged people between 26 to 50 years old are main groups of high cost cultural consumption.

Contrary to ‘American football’ of cost distribution is average amount of utilization time per year: younger people and senior ones take more time in cultural consumption than middle ones, especially people from 36-50. The reason for this is that middle-aged consumers are mainly career people with less leisure time, compared with younger ones most of whom have relatively flexible time schedules as well as senior ones having retired from work.
5.3 Behavioral characteristics by income property groups

As is shown in Table 1, the most obvious tendency is that average cost is highly related to income property: generally, the more one earns, the more one spends, and the reason is self-evident. There is no clear regular pattern between income level and most commonly used facility, main purpose as well as amount of time.

5.4 Behavioral characteristics by educational background property groups

According to Figures 7 and 8, people with relatively higher educational background, especially those with master degree or above, have more demand for knowledge growth and thus a relatively greater percentage of them would like to go to museums and galleries. On the contrary, people with bachelor degree or below are more likely to go to gyms for physical exercises.

Besides, similar to income level, the higher one’s educational background is, the more money one spends, partly due to the relationship between educational background and income level: generally speaking, the higher one’s background is, the more money one earns and thus the more one spends. However, the pattern for average amount of utilization time is reverse: people with higher educational background spend less time in cultural consumption per year for the reason that they often use museums and galleries which has a low-frequency visit feature (seen 4.3 above).

6. Conclusion and suggestions

Based on the analysis of overall characteristics of cultural consumption in gymnasiums, galleries and museums and behavioral characteristics of different groups, clear disparity is shown in cultural consumption between different gender, age, income and educational background groups. In order for Beijing to consolidate the status of ‘cultural center’ of the whole country, it is imperative to improve services of cultural facility. A few suggestions are given below according to the analysis:

6.1 Diversity should be taken into account in designing and planning cultural services

With the development of society and culture, there is an increasing demand for cultural consumption and the consumers are becoming more diverse, including groups of people of different ages, gender, income level, educational background and so on. These people have diverse behavioral characteristics of cultural consumption. In such case, cultural service should be designed both inclusively and thematically in order to meet the needs of various consumers.

6.2 Focus on the improvement of infrastructures and surrounding environment

Both transport systems including bus and subway stations and lines as well as parking lots and spatial distribution pattern of cultural facilities should be properly designed in order to decrease traffic time and increase the accessibility. Besides, reasonable plans should be made according to time span index in order to control opening period and passenger flow in case of congestion which would weaken the sense of satisfaction of consumers.

6.3 More attention is called for to special groups, especially for women and senior groups.

In recent years, more and more women have career of their own and are becoming financially independent. With well educational background and special taste, their demand for cultural consumption is increasing rapidly. However, most facilities especially gyms are male-oriented. Accordingly women market has great potential and should not be ignored. Meanwhile, senior people are also a special group which calls for special attention and care. They have enough retirement pensions and spare time, and are vulnerable to loneliness and idleness at the same time, therefore more than ever need rich cultural activities. Furthermore, as early as 1990, Beijing had stepped into aging cities already-more than ten years ahead of the whole country. Nevertheless, some study shows that few cultural services in Beijing are aimed at senior people. Consequently, senior people group consumers are worth noticing in future cultural facility service design.

References


Table 1. Social property percentage of respondents and cross-analysis of social property with average cost and average amount of utilization time per year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>item</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Average cost (CNY)</th>
<th>Average amount of utilization time per year (Hours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19-25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-50</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>≥ 61</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational background</td>
<td>Below senior high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior high</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master or above</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income (CNY)</td>
<td>≤ 1500</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1501-2000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-3000</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3001-5000</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>≥ 5001</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family structure</td>
<td>single</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two members</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Three members</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Four members</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes to table 1: family structure is not taken into account in cross-analysis and hence no statistics are shown of average cost and average amount of utilization time per year in the corresponding blank.

Table 2. The most commonly utilized cultural facility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gymnasiums (44)</th>
<th>Galleries (26)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outdoor</td>
<td>Indoor comprehensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Museums (30)</td>
<td>Technological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Percentage of travel method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Walk</th>
<th>Public transport</th>
<th>Bike</th>
<th>Private car</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Percentage of travel time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item (hours)</th>
<th>Within 0.5</th>
<th>0.5-1</th>
<th>1-1.5</th>
<th>1.5 or above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. The behavioral characteristics of cultural facilities utilization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Utilization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational activity</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mind opening</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accompanying family members</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health improvement</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of utilization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once per week</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice per week</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three or more times per week</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One to five times per year</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five times per year or above</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average amount of utilization time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than an hour</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One to two hours</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two to four hours (within half a day)</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four to eight hours (with one day)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average cost each person (CNY)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 50</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-100</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-200</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 200</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Preference of the most commonly utilized facility by gender
Figure 2. Preference of utilization purpose by gender

Figure 3. Preference of average cost each person by gender

Figure 4. Preference of the most commonly utilized facility by age
Figure 5. Preference of utilization purpose by age

Figure 6. Preference of average cost each person by age

Figure 7. Preference of the most commonly utilized facility by educational background
Figure 8. Preference of utilization purpose by educational background
A Review on Social Responsibilities of Media from the Report of “Sanlu Problematic Milk Powder Incident”

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Abstract
In an open and developed society, functions of media continue to spread, and their social responsibilities are also on the increase. As the social watcher and environmental monitor, how they should accomplish the historical mission endowed by the society in the presence of significant public and social issues? In this paper, taking the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder” as an example, the authors will discuss the social responsibilities of media in this incident.

Keywords: Sanlu problematic milk powder, Some brand, Mainstream media

Social functions of media determine that they should assume some social responsibilities. Whether from the perspective of historical development or realistic demands, social responsibility has already become one of “important factors” in news media’s standardization of their occupation. As the “social watcher”, in practical activities of news report, media have always been the “important content” in the emphasis on news authenticity, the requirement for leading of public opinion, and the focus on public opinion supervision, etc. However, there also exist some problems, which are displayed in deficiency of social responsibilities in report of particular public incidents. The significant safety incident of “Sanlu baby formula” which happened in September 2008 was exactly a typical case for discussion of media’s social responsibilities. During this incident, media referred to Sanlu milk powder with an opaque “some brand”. This caused social psychological confusion and public psychological anxiety, which deserves deep reflection of media practitioners. As a matter of fact, under the circumstance of psychological anxiety due to unclear truth and information, the individual sense tends to be beclouded by “hearsay”, which might influence correct direction of public opinions.

1. Production process of public opinion in the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder”
On September 9th, “Lanzhou Morning Post” published a report entitled “14 infants having suffered from nephrolith, which is caused by the similar brand of milk powder?”. This report which involves foodstuff safety has astounded the whole country. All domestic media began to transload this news in succession, and community forums of all websites also concentrated on this paroxysmal public sanitation incident. Four days later, Office of the State Council held a news conference, in which was discussed the disposal issue on the significant safety incident of Sanlu milk powder. At the same time, the Central Committee of CPC and the State Council started up Class I responding mechanism of the national significant foodstuff safety incident, and a leading group of emergency was organized. The whole society switches the focus to the originator of “some brand” of milk powder --- Sanlu Group. Afterwards, the number issued by the government indicated that, from 12th September to 17th, there were altogether 6244 diagnosed baby sufferers among which 158 suffered from acute renal failure. Besides, retrospective surveys have discovered 3 death babies.

It should be admitted that, in the production of public opinions in the significant safety issues of “Sanlu problematic milk powder” media have played an important role. However, a majority of media used such words as “some brand of milk powder”, “the same milk powder” etc, in consideration of legal responsibility. This kind of “conservative”
reporting has aroused anxiety and fear in the public that caused public opinion uproariosity, which, together with this paroxysmal public sanitation incident, rapidly fermented and formed a huge public opinion whirlpool of anxiety about “some brand”. A search in relative reports from September 10th to 12th could tell us that, there are altogether 27100 articles with the keyword of “milk powder of some brand” on Baidu, among which are placed initially such pop articles as “What some brand refers to”, “Please issue the ‘some brand’ in name of life of children”, “Gansu nephrolith milk powder! Whether should ‘some brand’ be issued or not”. In the chain responses of public opinions resulted from “some brand”, mainstream media and Internet have displayed different situations:

1.1 Mainstream media – from conservative apprehensions to peripherization

In the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder”, what the mainstream media primarily adopted was a reporting strategy of conservation and meticulousness. Except for the first attack on public opinions initiated, most of them made “impersonal reactions” following the official steps.

The first phase: some local media adopted viewpoints of Ministry of Health, and partially called into question “milk powder of some brand”.

On August 28th and 29th, “Changjiang Times” published in succession articles entitled “3 infants with the same disease, is the baby milk powder the prime criminal?”, “the same milk powder and the same disease, other provinces also have such a case”, in which three babies from different provinces were reported, who suffered from the same disease -- acute postrenal ischuria. The symptom of anuria came to them successively, which endangered their lives! Since the three children had been taking milk powder of the same brand, their parents doubted that, “it was most likely milk powder of this brand that caused the disease of these children.” Afterwards, the similar situation also happened in Weifang of Shandong, Lanzhou of Gansu, Anhui and Hunan, etc,. Health experts expressed when interviewed, “if this was caused by milk powder, then it might be that the content of calcium was too high”. This conclusion caused the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder” not able to produce public opinions at the first moment. Although doubts about “milk powder of some brand” on the Internet had begun to heat up, still feedback information didn’t arouse further attention from the media.

The second phase: the media generated concentrative doubts about milk powder of “some brand”, and public opinions of “Sanlu problematic milk powder” took the initial shape.

On September 9th, “Lanzhou Morning Post” published an article entitled “14 infants having suffered from nephrolith, which is caused by the similar brand of milk powder?” Immediately after publication, this article aroused attention in China, and some domestic media all transloaded this article, including Xinhua News Agency. While among all reports transloaded, a majority of media, without exception, used such words as “milk powder of some brand”, and “milk powder of some brand”.

The third phase: taking authoritative information and positive report as the center.

Since September 13th, Ministry of Health and the government in Hebei Province has held news conference on “disposal work of significant safety incident of Sanlu milk powder”, and a great deal of official news about “Sanlu problematic milk powder began to emerge in a variety of mainstream media. For instance, “it was initially believed that law breakers had added melamine into original milk” (September 13th), “the State Council started up Class I responding mechanism of the national significant foodstuff safety incident” (September 14th), “phasic examination result issue of special examination on melamine in baby formula” (September 17th), and “result issue of special examination on melamine in liquid milk nationwide” (September 19th). All these reports have adopted information provided by the government. Although these reports had brought relative information to the public in anxiety, the force generated was not enough since they were incapable of playing the role of a strong medium to have impact on public opinions.

1.2 Internet – from active participation to production of leading of public opinions

In the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder”, the Internet has always been concentrating on the progress of it with an active attitude. Most audiences participated in its discussion by means of the Internet, and finally, a force of public opinions that couldn’t be neglected came into being.

The first phase: the Internet doubted about the parleine of “milk powder of some brand”, and an intense dissatisfaction with dilemma of the mainstream media was caused, which resulted from anxiety in the public.

Since May 2008, individual posts about “Kidney Stones babies” have appeared on the Internet, which didn’t arouse attention from the public. On August 28th, after the publication of the article “Is baby milk powder the prime criminal?” by “Changjiang Times”, “Red Kid forum” posted an article entitled “infants suffered from ischuria, which was doubted to be related to milk powder of some brand. Victimization!” on the same day. Within three hours after the post was posted, it had been read 1230 times, and altogether 47 responding items. What most of the responding items concentrated on was what on earth “milk powder of some brand” exactly referred to.
With intervention of mainstream media, and dilemma of the media due to legal consideration, the public immediately felt that their rights of information were disregarded. Therefore, their anxiety about “milk powder” was logically transferred to anxiety about the media, and a crack between the media and the public came into existence. The message by the net friend QiQi from Wuhan reflected dissatisfaction of the public, “I feel that the media nowadays makes us speechless. If they are not sure about a piece of news, they should publish it. If they publish it, then they can’t make that clear, which, on the contrary, will cause worry among the public. We really can’t understand where their logic lies in...” Owing to the Internet, dissatisfaction and anxiety of the public concentratively broke out. And under the promotion of each Internet forum, a whirlpool of public opinions in the doubt about “some brand” rapidly came into being.

The second phase: public relations in crisis in Sanlu incident were doubted, and the “Matthew Effect” was formed in the process of Internet transmission.

After the central committee of CPC and the State Council started up Class I responding mechanism of the national significant foodstuff safety incident, the Internet followed up directly the mainstream media. At the time when focusing on progress of the incident, several posts emerged on the Internet, such as “Five doubts about Sanlu declaration”, “Mystical public relations letter in Sanlu”, “The more one tries to cover up, the better-known it will become. Four boxes of milk powder sealed the mouth of consumers”, and “To search who is the advertising spokesperson of Sanlu”. A new Internet attack of public opinions on the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder” came into being.

The American scholar Robert K. Merton summarized the “Matthew Effect” as: for any individual, group, or district, once they accomplish greater success and progress, then an accumulative advantage will be generated, which might leave more opportunities for more success and progress. The “Matthew Effect” which is formed by voluntary participation of net citizen tends to produce pressure of public opinions on all parties related to the incident in the real world, and compels them to pay more attention to this incident. In the incident of “Sanlu problematic milk powder”, public opinions formed on the Internet impelled progress of the incident.

2. Analysis on attitude of media reporting

To explore reasons for meticulous report of “some brand” by the media, there are three possibilities: firstly, the Ministry of Health which provided the news clue didn’t offer specific brand information of milk powder; secondly, the media did this on purpose; thirdly, the parties involved communicated with the media through the public relations in crisis. In the first news of “Lanzhou Morning Post”, there was such a report, “It is reported that, milk powder with a retail price of ¥ 18/400g sells good, and has almost become the first choice of the parents for their new arrivals in rural areas.” This proved that, after an interview with health experts, the reporters investigated the sale condition of the milk powder, which indicated that, staffers were clear about the brand information of the milk powder. In the article of “Sanlu Group sent its personnel to make clear the situation, and Huiyou Milk Powder stopped production in July” published in September 9th by “Lanzhou Morning Post”, they completely cited words of Sanlu personnel as the keynote of their report, and personnel from Sanlu Group ensured that there was no problem with the quality of the milk powder. From this, it can be concluded that, it was after the report in September 9th that the public relations in crisis in Sanlu Group started and played their role. There was no close relation between the report on the milk powder of “some brand” and the activities of the public relations in crisis. Therefore, it can be understood that, the media behaved intentionally in this incident.

2.1 The enterprise involved in the incident is a well-known brand, so the media hesitated in the judgment on the news value and social influence without definite evidence and legal guarantee.

In the earlier news report, the majority of media tried to escape from the risk: even in the case when they knew very well that Sanlu was suspectable, they still didn’t point out bluntly, and called hazily “milk powder of some brand”. This, without doubt, is the most fatal smoke shell. In face of a well-known brand, the apprehension of the media is understandable. Without relative legal guarantee at present, the earlier reports on “milk powder of some brand” were mostly limited to provincial and city media, and other media couldn’t verify it within a short period of time, it was impossible for the media concerned in the supervision on public opinions to obtain equipotent say with the supervised targets. Furthermore, local media which firstly reported the news might assume the legal risk of mistakenly reporting: if their report hadn’t raised any tide of public opinions, it would be obvious that the local media couldn’t bear censure from the well-known brand and their legal inquisition.

Among some existing significant public incident cases in China, their transmission was quite similar, namely: initiation by media in different districts, formation of media news resource, transloading or reporting by media at a national class, then a final public opinion. For instance, the ‘Nantong 7·17 Water Inrush Incident’ in 2001” (Guangxin TV Station firstly reported), “Tongguan Incident” in 2006 (Henan Business Daily firstly reported), and “Shanxi Shady Brick Kiln” incident in 2007 (Henan TV Station City Channel firstly reported), etc, which all adopted this kind of report mode. It indicates that, currently, influential force of local media in China is not as is said, and they can’t arouse a tide of public
opinions immediately. Reports on significant incidents still depend on translocating of other media and following up of
the media at a national class. In case that reporting of media in other districts didn’t arouse a social influence and
attention as expected, and other media didn’t follow up and report, then they could have no choice but to independently
assume all responsibilities looked into by the other party for their reporting “inconsistent with the facts”, which, with no
doubt, is too much for local media. Therefore, the first choice for public opinion supervision of local media is to select a
stable supervision method and to report significant public safety incidents with a fuzzy tone so as to wait for other
media to follow up and report.

2.2 This incident might be upgraded into a public health safety incident, so the media left foreshadowing for successive
reports.

The content this incident involved is significant, so attention and influences from the society were obvious, which could
arouse concentration from the society. Appropriate suspense might appeal to audiences, which will have a “white”
effect on successive reports. As a matter of fact, whether “Changjiang Times” or “Lanzhou Morning Post”, they both
published successive reports, but only that, in consideration of avoiding risks, the former let pass this incident with a
conclusion by experts that “maybe the content of calcium was too high”, while the latter overthrew the topic preset in
the previous report with help of negation by Sanlu Group. Among the current city-kind planar media, reporting on the
same incident has been a customary reporting means. Their target is to presuppose suspense, and to enhance attention
degree of the media. In view of reporting means by the media in the “Sanlu problematic milk powder incident”, the first
article by “Lanzhou Morning Post” presupposed suspense of “milk powder of some brand”. In the following, they
reported, “The Provincial Health Office has unfolded an investigation”, and “Sanlu Group sent their personnel to go to
Lanzhou to make clear the situation, and Huiyou Milk Powder has stopped production since July”. Their reporting
gradually pushed the party involved, namely Sanlu Group, in the presence of the audiences. From the perspective of
news profession, this sort of reporting is, without doubt, successful, while it obvious hasn’t put “interests of the public”
in the first place from the perspective of responsibility on the society and on lives of the public.

3. The mainstream media should assume alert responsibility for social paroxysmal public incidents.

For the time being, in an era of globalized media with coexistence of new and out-of-date media, the fact that news is
transmitted from multiple resources has been facing all the media unavoidably. Compared with other ideology criteria,
public opinions about news have the characteristics of being non-forcible, subtle, and particularly flexible, which can
play their part step by step in the socialization process. Therefore, public opinion leading of news media is extremely
important. From the professional perspective of media, the media, the media have the feature of possessing public
instrument, act as the “watcher” of the society, and hold the position of surveillant and promulgator of the social
environmental information. In the presence of significant paroxysmal public health incidents, media, especially
mainstream media should assume a compelling alert obligation. In reporting of significant incident that is concerned
about public health and safety, preference of injustice to overindulge is supposed to be a fundamental standard for
establishment of alert system by the media, which doesn’t refer to impudent and inculpable framing, but refers to
necessary countermeasures that the media should adopt based on significant social health incident with the principle of
life being supreme.

Under the principle of realistic legal risk consideration and avoidance, and under the circumstance without definite
evidence, the mainstream media have presented a meticulous attitude in the incident. In Hebei Province which was most
seriously influenced, local media even escaped from the incident at the earlier period. Even the following reports, they
also kept a relatively official standpoint as a whole. From the perspective of social alert responsibility, it’s not that
“Sanlu Milk Powder” can’t be mentioned absolutely, but the key is how to mention. As long as the media impersonally
report the facts calmly, accurately and skillfully, there is no means that “Sanlu Milk Powder” can cause reporting taboo.
The fact that the relative media automatically gave up the right to report without outside interference indeed
disappointed the public. So the public have reason to express rage against this, and the credit of media in the public is
thereby impacted.

Considering the reporting strategy of media in the incident of milk powder of “some brand”, it is suggested that, media
should have sufficient psychological preparation and responding plan in the reporting of significant paroxysmal
incidents. At present, domestic media, all without exception, handle each incident as a single case, and they haven’t
established an effective news reporting framework. In the situation when there is no presupposed news framework,
reporters have no choice but to judge the value of each piece of news and its social influence according to their
experiences. As for disputable news, its social influence is affirmatively higher than its value. Under this circumstance,
judge on social value of relative information seems especially important. Therefore, how to make response to significant
social issues and how to effectively resolve them, should not only be highly concentrated by relative Party and
governmental sections, but should be vigorously explored by media in their unfolding supervision on public opinions.
Only that the media assume the social responsibilities that they should, can they walk up to maturity in the competition
of globalized media, build up perfect credit and influence in the public, and stand out in an environment of news
transmission competition of multiple resources.

References


Research on Voluntary Services in China

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Abstract
In recent years, youth voluntary organizations, community voluntary organizations and different kinds of self-organized grass-root voluntary organizations have been developing rapidly in China, voluntary services are being integrated into our life, and volunteerism has become a value accepted by more and more people. In this paper, the present status and problems of China's voluntary services are analyzed, suggestions are presented aiming at development of voluntary services in China and it hopes to trigger more research and thoughts relating to voluntary services.

Keywords: Voluntary service, Volunteer, Current status, Management mechanism

Foreword
The voluntary service is an important way for citizens to participate in social life and also the soul of civil society and civil society organizations. The most important and immediate function of traditional voluntary organizations is to organize charitable activities and social welfare works, and voluntary organizations are playing the role of social service providers in more and more social activities along with development of modern society. Along with progressive development in economy and society in China, more and more citizens participate in social affairs and volunteers are playing a more and more important role during social construction.

1. Understanding volunteers
Voluntary services refer to social programs in which doers legally participate in social life, boost social progress and promote human development at their free will and without consideration of money. Former U.N. secretary general Kofi Annan pointed out on IYV 2001 launching ceremony that the core of volunteerism was services, common ideal and the belief to make the world better jointly.

Volunteers, as practitioners of volunteerism, are people who are in possession of volunteerism and could help others and undertake social responsibilities without consideration of salary. Volunteers are free from private interests and legal restrictions and they go into public welfare undertakings owing to morality, belief, conscience, sympathy and responsibility. In different areas such as Chinese Mainland, Hong Kong and Taiwan, volunteers are named differently.

2. Current status of volunteers in China
China boasts the tradition of philanthropy for public interests since ancient times. Since the founding of the People's Republic of China, CPC and Chinese government have been boosting the charity activities through advocating "learning from Lei Feng to do good". At the end of 1980's, the first volunteers organization, the community volunteers association of Xinxing Sub-district Office of Heping District, Tianjin, was founded in China. Since 1990's, the Ministry of Civil Affairs, the CYL Central Committee, the Red Cross Society of China, the All China Women’s Federation and All-China Federation of Trade Unions have established volunteers organizations in succession. According to preliminary estimate, there are more than 34 millions of volunteers registered in China, and voluntary services are becoming a concern of all social circles owing to its outstanding social benefits.

2.1 Community volunteers
Community volunteer organizations are subject to civil administration system and are managed by Volunteers Working Committee of China Association of Social Workers. So far, 95% of community neighborhood committees in China have established volunteer organizations, more than 75,000 community volunteers organizations have been formally registered with more than 16 millions of community volunteers.
The community volunteer organizations have been developing from bottom to top and vice versa. Since the first volunteer association was founded, it generated a huge social effect and was generalized to the whole country by the Ministry of Civil Affairs soon on a national community services experience exchange conference. In April, 1994, the Ministry of Civil Affairs and China Association of Social Workers issued the Notice on Further Developing Community Service Volunteer Activities. In October, 2005, 8 units, including Ministry of Civil Affairs and All-China Federation of Trade Unions issued the Opinions on Promoting Community Volunteer Services. In February, 2006, 12 ministries and commissions, including Ministry of Civil Affairs, Organization Department of the CPC Central Committee and Publicity Department of CPC Central Committee, jointly issued the Opinions on Extensively Developing Volunteer Services at Rural Areas. In April, 2006, the State Council released the Opinions on Reinforcing and Improving Community Services (Guo Fa 2006 No. 14), summarizing the good practice of community voluntary services in recent years and presenting the primary missions hereafter.

The community voluntary services relate to social assistance, special care, helping disabled people and the old, reemployment, community security maintenance, science dissemination and cultural and ideological progress, especially helping the masses in real trouble. For instance, more timely medical services have been provided to more than 70,000 senior citizens, meal delivery service or partnership service to more than 4,000 senior citizens, call bells installed for more than 2,000 old people who live alone and nursing homes established for more than 2,000 lonely seniors through community services in Shanghai. Many community volunteer organizations have established rules and regulations and presented specific requirements for volunteers. For instance, the bylaw of the community service volunteer association of Heping District, Tianjin requires that members should provide services to communities twice at least per month free of charge and would withdraw from the association if one fails to perform voluntary services for three months continuously without special reasons.

### 2.2 Youth volunteers

At the end of 1993, the CYL Central Committee launched the Youth Volunteers Movement (YVM) and founded Chinese Youth Volunteers Association. Up to now, 150 millions (men times) of youths have been motivated to provide more than 5.5 billion hours of voluntary services on poverty alleviation and development, community construction, environmental protection, large-scale competitions, rescue and relief works, overseas services, etc. More than 17 millions of volunteers have been registered, the number of community youth volunteer service stations (bases) is more than 89,000 and more than 2.5 million pairs of mutual-aid teams have been formed. A youth voluntary service system comprising of Chinese Volunteers Association, 35 provincial youth volunteers associations, and associations in more than two thirds of cities and some counties has been formed.

As to organization of large-scale projects, Chinese Youth Volunteers Association could encourage local youth leagues to launch activities, and the activities organized by youth volunteers give priority to projects that are supported by the country, undertaken by communist youth leagues, managed by project teams and operated by the society. The works of youth volunteers cover a wide range and relate to poverty alleviation and development, community construction, environmental protection, large-scale activities, rescue and disaster relief, overseas services, etc. For instance, in June, 2003, the CYL Central Committee, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Personnel jointly implemented the plan for college graduates to offer volunteer services in the western region, and by 2006, more than 40,000 college graduates had been sent to villages and towns of more than 300 poor counties in the west to offer voluntary services for 1-2 years, covering such fields as education, sanitation, agriculture, youth center construction and management, rural remote education, rural culture development, grass-root people's courts, grass-root procuratorates, grass-root legal aid and rural finance development. In the youth volunteers poverty alleviation relay that was experimented in 1996 and implemented in 1998, 16,000 college-bred urban youths have been sent to more than 200 poor counties in the Midwest to offer voluntary services for half a year to two years, covering such fields as elementary education, medical care, agricultural skill generalization, etc, and two working modes, namely developed areas help underdeveloped areas within the same province and the eastern areas help western areas, have been formed. From 2002, the youth volunteer overseas service plan was launched, and excellent youth volunteers are designated to provide voluntary services in some developing countries that have friendly relations with China (Laos for instance) for half to one year and this generates sound international influence.

### 2.3 China’s Red Cross volunteers

Voluntary service is one of the seven basic principles of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. The Red Cross Society of China founded a Volunteers Working Committee in 2005, each provincial Red Cross society has also set up a volunteers working committee and each Red Cross society below county level has set up a volunteers guiding center, activity station or service center. At the present time, the Red Cross Society of China is in possession of 568,000 volunteers, which is a key force for providing humanitarian services.

The Red Cross Society of China thinks much of reinforcing the management of volunteers by registering volunteers and issuing volunteer service certificates. The Red Cross volunteers are required to wear the service certificates when
providing voluntary services and their service condition would be registered by each working committee, guiding center or service station. Training of volunteers on voluntary service principles, knowledge and associated skills is also emphasized.

The Red Cross volunteers in China mainly provide assistance to the wounded and sick and other sufferers in natural calamities and disruptive events. During works, the Red Cross volunteers give full play to their specific advantages in each field and play an important role in many links of disaster relief, such as disaster condition report, relief material arrangement and distribution, medical rescue, post-disaster epidemic prevention, raising money for victims of disasters, training of masses on primary rescue, publicity on disaster prevention and reduction as well as publicity on blood donation without payment.

2.4 Chinese women volunteers

In 2001, All China Women's Federation issued the Opinions on Developing Women Volunteers Groups, requiring women's federations at all levels to give full play to their advantages to call on women of all nationalities and all walks of life to join the group of volunteers. Community services are emphasized in urban areas and priority is given to helping women increase revenues in rural districts, and it requires paying special attention to laid-off workers, extremely poor families and elderly women. Various service activities are organized regularly or not through to-door service, on-the-spot consultation, training, group aid and bringing science and technology to the countryside.

Despite the efforts of All China Women's Federation on developing women volunteers, it has not organized nationwide movement and has not counted the quantity of women volunteers in China accurately.

Besides the above volunteers, some governmental agencies and social groups also recruit volunteers aiming at some specific activities. For instance, the Ministry of Commerce dispatch volunteers abroad to offer aid to foreign countries and Beijing Olympic Organizing Committee developed Olympic volunteers and relevant departments developed environmental protection volunteers. Some civil volunteer organizations, such as Friends of Nature and Global Village, have achieved rapid development. In addition, some foreign volunteer organizations have also gained ground in China through cooperation with relevant governmental agencies. For instance, more than 30 foreign NGOs have entered China through China International Centre for Economic and Technical Exchanges and China Association for NGO Cooperation, the quantity of assistance projects is more than 200 in more than 70 countries of more than 20 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions in China. The projects cover agricultural production, drinking water, income-generating activities, integrated community development, medical treatment and sanitation, poverty alleviation, disaster relief and post-disaster reconstruction, education capability development, training on practical techniques, women-centered projects and south-south exchanges.

The expanding group of volunteers is having a growing influence on economic and social development: first, they promote socialist ideological and ethical progress as well as social harmony; second, they meet diversified demand of people and make up for governmental functions; third, they boost the prosperity of education, science and technology and culture by giving play to the potentials of talents and meeting the public demand for participating in public administration; fourth, some jobs are provided and employment pressure is relieved effectively; fifth, diplomatic relations are improved through further exchanges with overseas NGOs.

3. Difficulties and problems relating to voluntary services in China

On the whole, China's voluntary services are flourishing, but there are also many difficulties and problems:

3.1 Long-term mechanism boosting development of volunteer organizations has not been formed.

Some organizations develop voluntary services through mass movements, which are formalistic and dampens the passion of some people for participating in voluntary services.

3.2 There is no unified and standard management.

Due to lack of unified management, the quantity of volunteer organizations, distribution of volunteers, age structure, their expertise have not been counted accurately and the voluntary service development has not been evaluated in an integrated way. The voluntary services have wandered at low level for a long time and some volunteer organizations have repeated works and even depreciate each other. In addition, the nonstandard internal management of voluntary organizations is still obvious.

3.3 Development of civilian organizations is restricted.

China practices the system of dual control over NGOs, namely the establishment of NGOs require examination and approval of both relevant competent departments and registration management organs (civil administration departments). Relevant competent departments are in charge of service guidance and daily supervision, while civil administration departments are mainly in charge of registration management, annual inspection, punishment supervision and establishment of rules and regulations. With such management system, the civilian organizations need to be
attached or affiliated to certain competent departments before registration, while relevant competent departments worry that they may bear joint responsibilities if such civilian organizations violate rules and regulations, thus they lack the enthusiasm to support such civil organizations.

3.4 **Capital shortage has become a principal deterrent restricting development of voluntary services.**

Supported by legislation, voluntary services abroad have got stable and effective financing channels, but China's voluntary services in the initial stage face financial strain. Many good conceptual designs of voluntary services result in formalism owing to capital shortage and it is difficult to continue standard voluntary services in the long term, which has become the focal point of contradictions.

3.5 **Voluntary services lack judicial guarantee.**

So far, besides some local regulations, there is no comprehensive law and enforcement regulations standardizing voluntary services and the rights and obligations of volunteers are undefined. In particular, as to the rights, many volunteers have few chances of receiving related education, training and work guarantee, and some even can't ensure life safety under special conditions.

3.6 **Low level of social recognition also restricts development of voluntary services.**

Voluntary services are still new in China and the public knows little about volunteers and can't participate in voluntary services effectively.

**4. Thoughts and Suggestions on boosting China's voluntary services**

4.1 **The government should support volunteers through releasing favorable social policies and creating legal environment**

So far, Chinese government has not established a complete set of laws and regulations on developing and improving volunteer works and has not presented a systematic and integrated policy system for volunteer activities and volunteer management, thus volunteers are not accepted, voluntary services can't be supported by the society, and the management of volunteers is not stable and standard, therefore, it is in urgent demand to create a favorable policy and legal environment for volunteers. Presently, the support of Chinese government towards volunteers is reflected in four aspects, namely laws and regulations, departmental policies, organization by laws and support from state leaders and divisional leaders. For instance, volunteers are accepted by more people through volunteer registration system and volunteer practice deposit system. Before bidding for the Olympic Games, Beijing Committee of Communist Youth League and Beijing Municipal Volunteers Association submitted a proposal to Beijing Municipal People's Congress on volunteer legislation. Now, this proposal has been scheduled in the legislation program and the parties concerned are now making investigation and drafting. Shanghai Municipal Civil Affairs Bureau prepared to issue some volunteer stimulation policies as early as 2004, such as being volunteers would be considered when assessing the moral standard of civil servants; undergraduates may be chosen to be excellent students if they serve as volunteers; and healthy and relatively younger senior citizens could deposit help from others in the future if they serve as volunteers now. In October, 2004, the Commission of Legislative Affairs of Shenzhen Municipal People's Congress discussed Shenzhen SEZ Voluntary Service Regulations (Draft) and was ready to release the first voluntary service law in China for guaranteeing the rights and interests of volunteers fully. On June 4, 2005, the Secretary of CPC Hainan Provincial Committee Wang Xiaofeng and 1200 volunteers took an oath to become the first batch of registered volunteers in Hainan Province and Wang became the first registered volunteer among the secretaries of CPC provincial committees. On May 19 and June 6 of the same year, Nanjing and Chengdu respectively established and promulgated Nanjing Municipal Voluntary Service Regulations and Chengdu Voluntary Service Regulations. All these measures would effectively encourage the sustainable development of voluntary services.

4.2 **Cultivate civic culture, promote the participation consciousness of citizens and enhance citizens' acceptance of volunteers**

In the planned economy, the government undertook all public affairs and people had weak democratic consciousness and participation consciousness. The government often called on people to take an active part in voluntary service (learn from Leifeng and do good) through political or administrative measures and evaluated the moral character of each with his performance. In this case, voluntary service activities can't motivate the spiritual needs of people and often become formalistic and go through the motions. In the 1990's, the government presented the reform objective of "small government and great society" by exiting from social field, which provides adequate space for the establishment of civil society and favorable environment for development of civil culture and enhances people's awareness of voluntary service and participation, especially in such fields as publicity on environmental protection, community construction and democratic election. But transformation of governmental acts needs a long time, civil society has just broken surface, and civic culture, such as civic awareness, civic responsibility, civic self-help and mutual aid, civic dedicated spirit and altruism, civil participation, civic desire, civic interests and civic potentials, needs to be further promoted and
enhanced. In recent years, along with education of civics and influence of mass media, the public has begun to understand and accept the value and significance of voluntary services, but there are few ways for the people to participate in voluntary services due to lack of integral and comprehensive generalization and cooperation. People tend to regard voluntary service as social activities or social practice of teenagers and are reluctant to take part in. To encourage more people to participate in voluntary services, social education of people should be strengthened, adequate service opportunities should be arranged in order to cultivate people's sense of social responsibility and social morality and awareness of participation and to change the voluntary service to self-conscious behaviors. Undoubtedly, the voluntary activities in China are tainted with the color of organization and movement, where slogans and TV images are emphasized, which is necessary but may result in formalism, so silent volunteers who are ready to devote to others unselfishly need to be cultivated.

4.3 Establish and improve the management model and operation mechanism of voluntary services

HR planning and job analysis should be done in order to let each volunteer do his best. Planning should be made before recruitment of volunteers by specifying what types of volunteers are needed, what special skills they have to acquire and the number of each type of volunteers. Formal job descriptions should be compiled for each voluntary post, specifying the task, responsibility, timeline, working mode and required knowledge and skills in order to make each volunteer clear about his/her job. In the meanwhile, scientific and reasonable volunteer application form can be designed, so that applicants could fill in their interests, special skills, the expected work schedule and mode upon recruitment in order to match their interest and skills with the posts and to allocate volunteers to proper posts.

Volunteers should be recruited and screened according to plan, so that they could give fully play to their advantages. When volunteers are recruited, their potential pursuit should be understood, as their motivation could restrict what they can do and what they will do. It is difficult to recruit new volunteers and keep former volunteers if their motivation is not considered when they are assigned to certain posts. When volunteers are screened, it is to choose the optimal people instead of someone in perfect agreement with the qualification, namely those who are qualified for volunteers would be further sequenced, so that the people that best conform to post demand would be accepted.

Training of volunteers should be reinforced to encourage personal growth of volunteers. After training and development, volunteers are expected to be familiar with and answer to organizational missions and objectives, historical achievements and organizational expectation and requirements for them, and through on-the-job training, the specialized knowledge, skills and related laws and polices of volunteers would be improved, or volunteers can be given professional tutors to help them solve problems arising in work. Training, as a main way for experience generalization, can motivate the potentials of volunteers, provide them with requisite skills and knowledge for performing tasks and promote their service ability, enhance their service awareness and improve the service effect. After sound training, volunteers could play their roles more freely and actively.

With an eye to the future of volunteers, diversified works should be provided to volunteers. Volunteers could satisfy their high-level demand through providing voluntary services and organizations should provide them with works that could enrich their individual experience and development chances, for instance, increasing the work complexity and combining associated works to create new works in order to diversify the works of volunteers; enabling volunteers take charge of certain task or project alone in order to enhance the host awareness of volunteers; enabling volunteers to contact customers at different levels in order to enhance their response, independence and sensitivity; expanding the power scope of volunteers to enhance their ability of controlling works by themselves; guaranteeing that volunteers could get feedback from objects of voluntary service or colleges on their works. Through these measures, works of volunteers would be more independent and creative and volunteers could get direct feedback and have their sense of achievement maximized.

A work team refers to a group formed aiming at a special problem, project or task, which requires collaboration and cooperation among all members (collectivism), and the active collaboration and joint efforts of the members could achieve much more than the performance of individuals. As a special team formed by people with high sense of social responsibility, sense of mission, dedication and common objective, each group of volunteers should reinforce team development in order to give play to full potentials of volunteers. Therefore, the nonprofit organizations should cultivate volunteers the unified belief and values and strong sense of belonging and sense of responsibility as masters; encourage volunteers to improve their skills in order to enable them work hard by making use of the unique and complementary skills; cultivate harmonious relations among volunteers and a dense atmosphere of mutual trust; meanwhile, pay attention to the mutual cooperation between volunteers and full-time staff and part-time staff. Through such modes, volunteers may feel the force of cooperation and thus improve work efficiency, give play to their advantages and enjoy works and friendship.

Works of volunteers should be evaluated effectively in order to encourage volunteers to improve themselves continuously. Organizations should recognize, praise and reward the achievements of volunteers in time. Besides annual commendation meeting, dinner party, tea party, sincere thanks, solicitation of suggestions from volunteers, trust of
volunteers, sending greeting cards upon birthday, consideration of timeline of volunteers, supplying better working equipment and providing honorary titles are all ways of reward, and excellent volunteers may serve as trainers or the good deeds of volunteers could be publicized in various ways. In this way, it shows that organizations think much of volunteers and volunteers would be further encouraged and satisfied. Meanwhile, works of volunteers should also be evaluated in order to guide them to improve works, promote skills and develop further. If certain volunteers fail to meet requirements of organizations, they may be assigned to new posts or accept retraining before being allocated again.

Conclusion

China is developing towards modernization and market economy, the national power is growing, the society is developing, people's life is being improved, but the rapid development and progress also has an impact on different aspects of the society. People are confronted with more and more worries and doubts in the face of life style transition, different cultural values from mainland and foreign countries, flow of rural population to cities, pressure caused by competition and widening wealth gap, etc. The love and sense of duty represented by volunteerism could bring along care, confidence and support to the changing society and thus create a harmonious social atmosphere. It is the key to push ahead with voluntary services in China to develop and expand volunteerism, improve voluntary service and encourage and care for volunteers. Therefore, we should make in-depth study of volunteerism, voluntary services and volunteers in the abstract, be bold in practice and draw lessons from other countries through reinforcing international exchanges and cooperation.

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China English: Adaptation of English to Chinese Culture

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Abstract
Today in the world of English language teaching and learning, EIL(English as an international language) has been gradually preferred, instead of the traditional ESL(English as a second language) or EFL(English as a foreign language). It is believed that non-native English varieties developed worldwide should be as important as the native English varieties and it is rational for decision-makers of a country to choose the right English variety to teach and to learn. China English is one of such non-native English varieties, and it is the product of adaptation of the English language to Chinese culture. Even it is still controversial, China English has began to gain more and more recognition in academic world. This paper is to discuss development of China English in Chinese culture and explore some of its linguistic features in terms of phonology, vocabulary, syntax, semantics, and discourse, etc.

Keywords: English variety, China English, Chinglish

1. Introduction
In the world of English language teaching and learning, EIL(English as an international language), was first proposed by Smith(Smith, 1983), instead of the traditional ESL(English as a second language) and EFL(English as a foreign language). This term has been preferred by other American scholars for the past two decades. They believe that today English language not only belongs to British, American, and Australia, where it is spoken as a native language, but to countries like India, Philippine, and Singapore, etc., where English has been adopted as necessary communication tool among people, and even to everyone who speaks it. So English should no longer be considered with sense of colonialism and imperialism, but only a neutral communication tool. Both English teachers and learners are encouraged to combine English language with their own native culture, to express unique idea and phenomena of their own culture with English.

The advocates of EIL believe both native English varieties, such as American English, British English, and non-native English varieties, such Singapore English, India English, and Philippine English, etc., should share same equality. They proposed such concepts such as “denationalization”, “de-Anglicizing”, “de-Americanization”, referring to the native cultures, and “nativiazation”, “indigenization”, and “localization”, referring to the non-native cultures.

In terms of recognition of non-native English varieties, the most conspicuous is the “Quirk-Kachru” debate. B. B. Kachru has consistently advocated the recognition and acceptance of separate regional/national standards. More important, Kachru, in line with Quirk, is essentially interested in stressing the global strength of English. He proposed three concentric circle to view the current sociolinguistic profile of English: Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1992). These circles represent the types of spread, the patens of accusuion, and the functional allocation of English in diverse culture contexts. Randolph Quirk, in his widely circulated “Use of English” affirms the importance of English worldwide. However he rejects the identity of the varieties of English in Kachru’s Outer Circle and considers the recognition of such identities “…the false extrapolation of English ‘varieties’ by some linguists. He rejects the use of identificational terms such as “Singapore English”, “South Asia English”, and “Philippine English”, and characterized them as “ misleading, if not entirely false….“ (Quirk, 1968). He does not believe that the varieties of English are adequately described at various linguistic level and, can not be used as pedagogically acceptable”. He also feels concerned about the prospects of deterioration in global standards and would like to prevent this by reliving “the desperately acute shortage of qualified teachers”.

Quirk has recently been criticized for his conservatism. His idea of global standardization of English, and rigorous
observance of native norms, apparently does not agree with the general situation worldwide. Today it is the trend to accept the different forms and varieties and the differentiation within English. Thus a new plural word, Englishes, came into use, as employed in the title of journal, World Englishes, co-edited by B.B. Kachru and L.E. Smith.

2. Development of English variety in China

Today in China, the English language is the most-studied foreign language. In many areas English instruction begins in elementary school and some urban children even start to learn English when they are in kindergarten. Most middle schools and universities take English to satisfy foreign languages requirement. Adults are also interested in learning English for various purposes. In spite of the large population involving English learning and speaking, the language has never been the communication tool among native Chinese themselves, but for communication with foreigners. In the history of China, the English language, as an introduced language to Chinese culture, has never been institutionalized. It mainly serves the “utilitarian” or “instrumental” purpose, for either economy or politics, or for both.

The introduction of English occurred at eighteenth century, when western powers came to China for colonialism. At that time Chinese people knew little about the outside world, and were unwilling to learn from outside world, as well as a foreign tongue. However, they had to communicate with foreigners in China, so pidgin English developed gradually. In education, particularly at the university level, English learning focus on memorizing the literature works of famous writers of the past, rather than contemporary and colloquial English.

From the 1850s to 1950s, aiming at national liberation, in China emerged Westernization movement. Chinese people, tended to learn new ideas from outside world. Because the English language was an important communication tool for westernization and modernization, so people started to learn it in its full norm.

From 1960s to 1970s, it is a special period in the history of China, that is, the cultural revolution. China tend to be isolated from the western world, and English developed in this period containing many political terms and expressions, such as “a capitalist roader”(zou zi pai), and “right devotionalist wind to reverse correct verdicts(you qing fan an feng), etc. These terms and expressions are almost intelligible to a foreigner who is unfamiliar with Chinese history. Since the end of this period, they gradually lost their dominating position in English spoken by people in China (Chin, 1992).

English has been flourishing in China for the latest two decades due to policy of reformation and opening. China starts to introduce itself to the world in full scale, and the works began to know China unprecedentedly in the Chines history. Many new creative expressions appeared to express the uniqueness of Chinese culture and way of life, which has enriched the English language. Large number of Chinese borrowing words have been included in standard English dictionary or reference books. For example the word “taichi”(tai ji quan) has an access to most of latest dictionary in America and British. Many expressions denoting unique China-specific phenomena frequently appear in Beijing Review and China Daily, and become acceptable to native English speakers.

3. China English and Chinglish

English variety spoken by people of China has never been institutionalized, and it functions as “performance” variety that lacks official statues and are typically restricted in their uses. To be more specific, it belongs to the “Expanding Circle” (Kachru,1992).

In terms of English variety in China, two terms have raised much debate and argumentation: one is “China English”, the other is:Chinglish”, or “Chinese English”.

The concept of China English was first proposed by Ge Chuangui (1986). In a paragraph no more than 600 Chinese characters, he suggests that much attention should be drawn to distinguish China English and Chinglish. He believes the China English should express social and cultural peculiarities of China, by the means of transliteration, borrowing, or semantic shift. And Chinglish is an malformed English which does not follow standard native English langue, culture, and custom. Li thinks that Chinglish occurs due to interference of Chinese language. He believes China English does exist, not just a hypothesis. Jiang Yajun(1995) generalizes China English as “English with Chinese characteristic”. He makes some generalization concerning China English: a near-native yet Chinese accent; words which are basic only to Chinese because of its history, environment and politics; dead or old-fashioned forms or pronunciations resulting from Chinese approaches to language leaning; a linguistic mixture of British and American English in both spoken and written forms. Opinion on China English is not unanimous among scholars and linguists. Xie Zhijun(1994) disagrees with Li’s definition of both China English and Chinglish. Xie considers China English as interfering English variety in
international communication. It is too subjective and unrealistic to take China English as a standard variety of English, as American and British English. This can cause confusion both in theory and practice, and bring negative influence on intercultural communication. In spite of this voice of disagreement, China English tends to be acknowledged. According to a survey conducted by Chen Linhan(1996) among native English speakers for their opinion on English of China daily and Beijing Review, they all recognized the existence of China English, even they think there is certain Chinese English in both the periodical and the newspaper.

So far there has been no agreed definition about China English and unanimous agreement on how to distinguish China English from Chinglish, although accessibility has been proposed to serve the purpose. For scientific definition, orientation, and description of China English, there is much research work to do.

4. Characteristics of China English

4.1 Phonology

Within phonology, two branches of study are usually recognized: segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental phonology analyses speech into discrete segments, such as phonemes. Apart from sound segments, every language has other linguistically important phonological features which relate to units larger than the phoneme, such as the syllable, word, phrase, clause or sentence, hence the term suprasegmental(zhang, 1998). Leather(1983) suggests that transfer of segmental phonology is self-limiting, whereas transfer of suprasegmental phonology is cumulative. For people whose native language is Chinese to speak English, most of the problems concerning pronunciation occur at the suprasegmental level. So Du&Jiang(2001) believe that characteristic of China English phonology should be well indicated at this level, including stress, juncture, reduction, and assimilation, etc. Because of the quite different suprasegmental phonology systems of the Chinese language and the English language, Chinese characteristic of China English at this level is hard to eliminate. So for native English speakers, china English sounds like “foreign talk”, even it has no any problem to express ideas. Currently most of research on phonological differentiation between English and Chinese has been confined to segmental level(Du, 1988; Yue & Ling, 1994). However, scientific description of China English phonology depends largely on research achievement on phonological contrast between English and Chinese at suprasegmental level.

4.2 Vocabulary, phrase and idiom

In respect of vocabulary and phrase, there is inevitable departure of China English from native and other non-native English varieties, due to the life style, cultural and social peculiarity of China. This is also one of the most persuasive evidences of existence of China English.

To express cultural and social phenomena typical Chinese, we have to produce creative words and expressions, such as “four modernization”(si ge xian dai hua), “may four movement”(wu si yun dong), and Mr. Science(sai xian sheng), etc. These expressions, for the first time, may be intelligible to native English speaker who have no any idea of Chinese culture and history. However, with some explanation and together with introduction of Chinese culture and history, they could understand. In terms of intercultural communication, intelligibility can only be achieved on the basis of knowledge of multi-culture. So these expressions of China English can only be accepted with familiarity of Chinese culture and typical Chinese way of life.

The standard native English has enriched itself by absorbing many Chinese borrowing words. In Webster’s New International Dictionary of the English Language, there are more than 100 Chinese borrowing words, besides of proper nouns. According to a survey conducted by Cannon(1988), until middle of 1970s, 979 Chinese borrowing words have been included at various standard English dictionaries and reference books. Since the policy of reformation and opening, more and more Chinese borrowing words have access to the English language. These Chinese borrowing words, such as “taichi”, and “fengshui”, of course are rich resource of China English vocabulary with Chinese characteristic.

Idioms are another resource of typical China English expression. Idioms are culture-oriented, so to have an idea of idioms of a language, is a good way to understand a culture which nurtures the language. For some Chinese idioms, there are English equivalents, such as, “as timid as a rabbit” for “dan xiao ru shu”, “an ass in a lion’s skin” for “hu jia hu wei”, and “as poor as a church mouse” for “yi pin ru xi”. However, most of Chinese idioms do not have such equivalents. So the proper expressions of these idioms will be important element of typical China English. Similar to the culture-specific vocabulary, these expressions can only be understood on the basis of idea of Chinese culture and society.

For lack of guide and regulation both in theory and practice, currently there is much confusion for usage of china English vocabulary. For example, there is no English equivalents for many Chinese words carrying uniqueness of Chinese culture in most of published Chinese-English dictionaries in which these equivalents should have been given. The word “fengshui” has been included in The Macquarie Dictionary of New Words(1990) and The Oxford Dictionary of New Words(1997), however, domestically it is still translated as “the location of a house or tomb, supposed to have an influence on the fortune of a family; geomantic omen(Wu, 1999). So further research on formation and acceptance of
China English vocabulary should be carried out to change the situation.

4.3 Grammar and discourse

In terms of grammar, many linguists and scholars devoting to research and study of non-native English varieties, have proposed that the idealized norm continues to be a native prescriptive model (Bailey & Gorlach, 1982). B. B. Kachru and F. H. Wong (in Smith, 1981) in their study of non-native Englishes have made description of deviant uses of definite and indefinite articles, tense, model auxiliaries and prepositions, however, none of them consider these deviant uses as characteristics of a standard variety of English. In China, even some studies on characteristics of English spoken and written by Chinese students have been conducted, however, there has been no systematical description of grammatical deviation of China English from standard native English. Breakthrough of this description will certainly makes its great contribution to development of China English.

At the discourse level, development of China English aims at successful mutual understanding between Chinese people and other native or non-native English speakers, while reserving unique Chinese cultural peculiarities. Chinese culture, as any other cultures, has its distinct norms and behavior, such as way of greeting, apologizing, showing gratitude, and the most conspicuous response to compliment. These norms are neither better or worse that those of English-speaking countries. However, to speak English, we used to sacrifice these cultural peculiarities, and follow norms and behavior of western countries. China English, as an English variety developed in Chinese culture, should carry Chinese cultural peculiarities. That is one of the most important reasons why China English is encouraged.

Then we come to the question of acceptability of China English carrying these China-specific norms and behaviors. This is a question in nature similar to the acceptance of idioms discussed above. It depends on intercultural knowledge of the listeners or readers. With an idea of Chinese culture and modesty convention, they should not be surprised or confused while hearing our response of “You have over praised me” to compliment of “Your dress looks very nice”. So China English can only be acknowledged and even popularized, together with Chinese culture and tradition gradually known to English-speaking world.

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The Detectives in Agatha Christie's Novels

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Abstract
This paper puts a stress on Agatha Christie’s detectives. Although they are different from sex to deductive method, there are also some patterns need resolving. Through the comparison, the variation of the author’s creation could also be traced.

Keywords: Agatha Christie, Hercule Poirot, Miss Marple

1. Introduction
Agatha Christie’s detective novels are undoubtedly popular even nowadays. However, the more popular parts in her stories seems those detectives. The detective himself (herself frequently now), as the central character of this genre, is the most important and original element. It is difficult to describe his exact literary status, for he has no counterpart in any other fictional genre. He is the most outstanding character of the story, the constructor of the plot, the supplier of the clues, and the eventual solver of the mystery. The life of the book lies in him. The protagonist of a good detective novel is usually a character of attractiveness and of fascinating achievements. A great detective should be an unusual, colorful and gifted man.

2. Hercule Poirot
Christie’s most popular detective is Hercule Poirot. He came out in her first novel The Mysterious Affair at Styles, which was published in 1920. Later he reappeared in thirty-three novels and sixty-five detective stories. In her autobiography, with regard to the period of time when she was thinking what her detective should be like. Christie writes:

Why not make my detective a Belgian? I thought. There were all types of refugees. How about a refugee police officer. Not too young a one. What a mistake I have made there. The result is that my fictional detective must really be over a hundred by now. Anyway, I settled on a Belgian detective. I allowed him slowly to grow into his part. He should have been an inspector, so that he would have certain knowledge of crime. He would be meticulous, very tidy, I thought myself as I cleared away a good many untidy odds and ends in my bedroom. A tidy little man, always arranging things, liking things square instead of round. And he should be very brainy - he should have little gray cells of the mind - that was a good phrase: I must remember that - yes, he would have little grey cells. He would have rather a grand name - one of those names that Sherlock Holmes and his family had. Who was it his brother had been? Mycroft Holmes. How about calling my little man Hercules? He would be a small man - Hercules: a good name. His last name was more difficult. I don't know why I settled on the name Poirot, whether it just came into my head or whether I saw it in some newspaper or written on something - anyway it came. It went well not with Hercules but Hercule - Hercule Poirot. That was all right - settled, thank goodness.

That is how Poirot has come into Christie’s novels. Anyone could not help liking such a tidy and interesting little man in real life. However, as a detective, he is a solitary. In spite of his long service with the Belgian police force one never
gets a sense of him as man with a past. He exists only in the present, his ability of solving crimes is much more
good works. Nevertheless, he also has companion of a
different kind from his Watson, with his alongside presence.

Poirot in the early years has Hastings, as Holmes has Watson. But real warmth of friendship does not exist in both
good cases and blocks the free communication between the author and her reader. On the other side she had
to repeatedly describe Poirot’s amused superiority, his commanding treatment of Hastings, which can easily become

dull and unpleasing.

Furthermore, Hastings does not perform his functions well as storyteller, and as the public chronicler of Poirot’s famous
victories. Maybe in character, there is something in common between Conan Doyle and Dr. Watson. Yet there is no such
similarity between Agatha Christie and Hastings. And the Watson figure as narrator has a real advantage, which may be a
reason in Conan Doyle’s awardness with the longer form. Watson can only narrate a case from the moment it becomes a
case, that is, from the time it is brought to the Great Detective’s notice. Now the typical form of a Christie novel has a
considerable leading part to the murder, and its form corresponds well to the average reader’s demands of a detective
story. Generally the reader wants to know more about setting, the surrounding circumstances, and the characters who
will be suspects. And above all, the reader wants to become interested in the corpse before it comes a corpse. With a
Watsonian narrator this can only be done by resorting to one another temporary narrator, which often destroy the unity
of the novel.

There is also another evident reason for Hastings’ being abandoned by his creator. He has no real use in the main
business of a detective story investigation. Watson is around for the strong arm stuff which Conan Doyle enjoys but
Christie dislikes. Thus Hastings has to go. In his palace, Christie uses Poirot’s valet, George, or his secretary, Miss
Lemon, to represent unilligent common people. But after 1937, with the only exception of Curtain, Poirot is allowed
to be what in essence he always has been: a solitary.

Though easy to become irritated at times, Poirot has justified earned his palace as the best-known detective in
twentieth-century crime fiction. His fame may firstly rests on his little gray cells, his unique method and style, his
egotism which thrives from his confidence and sense of male superiority, though he frequently boasts of being able to
solve crimes by sitting back and thinking, he is in fact extremely resourceful. On the one hand he can frequently be fond
engaged in activities of a Holmesian kind—examining the grease sport on the carpet of a fragment of torn fabric,
marking on the arrangement or ornaments on the mantelpiece or a chair pulled slightly out. On the other, some of
the interesting cases are indeed super examples of “thinking through”—notably Cards on the Table and Death on the Nile.

These various imaginative methods capture the reader’s interest successfully. And he continually relies on his little grey
cells to help him focus on the weakness that will lead a person to murder. Above all, his orderly habit of thought and his
passion for order around him seem to have simulated Christie novels, Poirot is more convincing reasoner than any of
the fictional detective of his period.

3. Miss Marple

However, a great many of Christie fans prefer Miss Marple as a detective to Hercule Poirot. That is because Miss
Marple really has her own charm. Miss Marple was born in a small village St. Mary Meed really at the age of sixty-five
to seventy. Together with her was also her nephew Raymon West, a modern novelist. Miss Marple first showed herself
in The Murder at the Vicarage in 1930. After that she investigates in twelve novels and twenty short stories all together.
In appearance, Miss Marple is a tall thin woman with a pink, wrinkled face, pale blue eyes and snowy white hair which
she piles upon her head in an old-fashioned manner. Her plain appearances, gossiping conversation and ever-lasting
knitting needles often mislead people to underestimating her as simply a curious old maid.
In her Autobiography, Christie writes about Miss Marple:

*Murder at the Vicarage* was published in 1930, but I cannot remember where, when or how I wrote it, why I came to write it, or even what suggested to me that I should select a new character—Miss Marple—to act as the sleuth in the story. Certainly at the time I had no intention of continuing her for the rest of my life. I did not know that she was to become a rival of Hercule Poirot. I think it is possible that Miss Marple a rose from the pleasure I had taken in portraying Dr. Sheppard’s sister in *The Murder of Roger Ackroyd*, she had been my favorite character in the book—an acidulated spinster, full of curiosity, knowing everything, hearing everything; the complete detective service in the home. I started with Miss Marple, the sort of old ladies who would have been rather like some of my grandmother’s cronies—old ladies whom I have met in so many villages where I have gone to stay as a girl, Miss Marple was not in any way a picture of my grandmother; she was far more fussy and spinsterish than my grandmother ever was. But one thing she did have in common with her—though a cheerful person, she always expected the worst of everyone and everything, and was, with almost faintest accuracy, usually proved right.

That is how Miss Marple becomes a detective, here Christie also explains her character briefly which she possesses at the beginning of the fictional life. Over the years Miss Marple’s nature changes radically. When she makes her first appearance in *The Murder at the Vicarage*, she is sharp-eyed, sharp-tongued, a gossiper with an incomparable information service. And she is always ready to believe the worst. Her gardening is no more than a smokescreen for her insatiable curiosity about all things happened in her neighborhood. Her bird-watching is the ultimate length that curiosity can carry her to. Although she is acceptably described as having a gentle, applying manner, she is also called by one of the characters a nasty old cat. This judgment is a reasonable conclusion of her conducts and opinions in this novel.

But over the years the superficiality fades away gradually. The gardening becomes a genuine habit rather than a convenient excuse. Her gentle appealing manner becomes a real part of the qualities rather than a smokescreen. She becomes a wise and charming old lady with a not so mild view of human nature. Now her detective ability springs less from her spooniness than from her lengthy experience of the petty crimes and mysterious of village life. She becomes really sweet.

As an amateur detective, she has to look for murder, because it will seldom be brought to her, and the police will not summon her to solve it as they do to Poirot. She is not a detective at all in the strict sense of the term. Her cases are much more loosely organized affairs than Poirot’s, and they are solved less by clues and reasoning than by intuition and comparison. At the end of a Miss Marple book the villain is usually forced into confession by a trick, or killed by another character, or commits suicide. She is an extremely homely and easygoing old lady. That is probably why Miss Marple is used much more frequently in Christie’s later phases.

4. Comparison of Two Patterns

Poirot and Miss Marple are two absolutely different characters; the Poirot novels and Marple novels are as differentiated in patterns as their detectives.

The Poirot novels range from 1920 to 1975, but they inevitably share a number of common features designed to adapt to their little Belgian detective. Poirot is almost always introduced at an early stage, at least within the first one hundred pages. His subsequent investigation takes up most of the novel. Poirot investigates many suspects. Discusses the more important clues, and gradually uncovers and then analyzes the relevant information. He never provides a complete analysis until the end, but he does sort and sift through almost all relevant clues. Poirot, as a supreme rationalist, pursues his solution unyieldingly, and this is true of most novels in which he appears. Poirot’s problem is always complicated, and we are invited to follow Poirot through each step of his investigating process. These novels all require us to play the same game as Poirot, even if we will almost never win. Indeed, to win would be to lose. To unravel the crime before Poirot will expose that the plot is not ingenious enough. Nonetheless, the reader must take such an effort to follow the narrative thread. Most of Poirot novels demonstrate his step-by-step analysis during the investigation. Such pattern requires that Christie play as fair as possible with the clues and make all relevant information available to reader. Any later additions to the evidence are against the spirit of the game played whenever Poirot is the detective.

In the Jane Marple novels, the detective is usually not the narrative center. A good illustration of this feature is *The Moving Finger* (1924). In this book Miss Marple does not appear until page 142 of a 198-page novel and only acts from eleven pages before the ten-page conclusion. In books like *A murder Is Announced* and *A Pocket Full of Rye* (1953), Miss Marple first appears after about 80 pages which are devoted to the murder and the principle suspects. *A Pocket Full of Rye* is a rather typical case. Here Miss Marple arrives on the scene exactly halfway of the book, also halfway through the official investigation, which is conducted here by Inspector Neele. In the novel’s later sections, we noticed that Miss Marple’s conversations with suspects hardly seem like interrogations. On the contrary, the official investigation is more thorough and does produce information useful to us and to Miss Marple. However, we are always sure that the inspector’s inferences are detective, yet we do not know what kind of approach Miss Marple is following.
in her apparently random investigation. Her style is therefore very un-Poirotish. The relevant clues are not all available to us. It is rather difficult to figure out the direction in which Miss Marple is headed. There are fewer suspects and clues in Miss Marple novels, but arriving at Miss Marple’s solutions is no easier than arriving at Poirot’s.

Then why the Miss Marple novels are nearly impossible for the reader to solve? One important reason is that her game has its focus on mystification rather than detection. Carolin Sheppard, Miss Marple’s prototype, is said to solve her problems by “inspired guesswork”, and the same might be true to Miss Marple. In fact, the Miss Marple novels never employ the pattern of the Poirot novels, and there is little open explanation to balance the rather dense mystification until the end. At the end, of course, the mysterious Miss Marple clarifies everything in the manner of a spinsterish Holmes, and by means almost as unfair to the faithful reader as Doyle’s.

The Miss Marple novels are fascinating in that their heroine’s endearing character appeals to our experience if not to the solution of the crime. We can find more human traits in her than in Poirot. Readers interested in such facts perhaps do not care so much that the narrative games played in the Miss Marple novels are not as intricate as those in the Poirot novels. In any case, the differences between the Poirot and the Miss Marple novels indicate different variations of Christie’s creating ability.

5. Conclusion

Poirot represents the cold and withdrawing side of his creator’s nature, and he flourishes during that period when that side is uppermost. During the two decades following her disappearances, this is the main feature of Christie’s character. Poirot, as a symbol of order and reason, just expresses the ideal of his creator and the reading public in the first half of the twentieth century. When people feel that the world has become an unfamiliar and chaotic place, they would like to turn to such a rational saviour. In Agatha’s later years Poirot’s rationality is replaced by Miss Marple’s warmer humanity. Miss Marple is always a rather tender and ordinary character than Poirot. She possesses much more warmth and sympathy when she regards the weakness and flaws of others, and so comes to embody the impulsive and generous side of her author’s nature. And she is warmly welcomed by Christie’s fans because they also favor a change when the rigid thinking-and-reasoning type becomes rather familiar to them.

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On Pamela’s Consciousness of Equality

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Abstract

Pamela is a well-known epistolary novel in the 10th century of England. It is written in the form of a series of letters, and has had a great influence to English novels and even the entire development of European literature. As the heroine, Pamela has strong equal consciousness and the spirit of revolting, and she takes her language as the tool to revolt. This thesis mainly analyzes Pamela’s equal consciousness, including her idea of master and servant, her self-consciousness and her language and letters which conquer her master Mr. B, Richardson’s view on Pamela’s consciousness of equality. All this manifests Pamela’s pursuit of equality. The whole thesis shows people a female image who is brave to pursue equality.

Keywords: Consciousness of equality, Pamela

1. Introduction

Pamela is well known as the first English modern novel with true significance and also a best seller of that time, written by Samuel Richardson who is the great master of the English epistolary novels. He enlarges the knowledge of human nature. His main achievement as a novelist lies in his technique to show characters as himself absent from the stage, refusing to intervene in the action. His influence could be traced in the works of such later novelists as Henry Jame, James Joyce and Virginia Woolf. This novel tells a story about a beautiful female servant who treasures her fame and chastity, and does not yield to her master's intimidation. She does not consider herself as a servant, and she has strong equal consciousness. She longs for equality with her master Mr. B in social position and the relationship of sex. At last, she influences the dissolute son and marries him to become a rich wife. It is like a "Cinderella" story, but it emphasizes the woman's equal consciousness, which is a kind of positive and progressive consciousness in those days. In Pamela's time, her social status may be compared with a black maid of American south in the early 20th century. She is often considered as "another kind of people". In English society of that time, women in the middle and upper classes are men's prey, either for amusement or wealth, their chastity is very important before wedding to get a good marriage. But the male aristocrats or rich men have no moral restraint. They comply with “not only the dual moral criterion but also the double moral criterion”. That is to say, it is unequall not only in sex but also in class. The women in lower class are the best objects to amuse. They can be trampled at will, and their chastity can destroy their reputation, but that would not bring shame to men. This is the world of that time. So as a rebel, Pamela’s equal consciousness is the most charming aspect.

Pamela is a new thing in three ways: First, it discards the improbable and marvelous accomplishments of the former heroic romances, and pictures the life and love of ordinary people. Secondly, its intention is to afford not only entertainment but also moral instruction. Thirdly, it describes not only the sayings and doings of the characters but also their secret thoughts and feelings. It is, in fact, the first English psycho-analytical novel. This thesis will testify it through her idea of master and servant and her self-consciousness, her consciousness of equality manifested in her language and letters, and Richardson’s view on Pamela’s consciousness of equality.

2. Pamela’s idea of master and servant and her self-consciousness

2.1 Pamela's idea of master and servant

One of Pamela’s charming lies in her idea of master and servant. In this novel, Pamela's revolting and the stewardess' obedience forms an obvious contrast. The stewardess says, “I am proud of my loyalty to my master.”(Samuel Richardson 144) She believes that the servant should obey the master without any condition, and she need not think what morality is. “He is my master, if he orders me to do something; I think I should do as long as I can. Let the person..."
ordering me think if it is legal.” (Samuel Richardson 93) But in Pamela's opinion, everyone should take his responsibility for God firstly, that is also for conscience. This responsibility is more important than that for the master. If the master's order violates the moral conscience, she should not obey it. She never always does what her master tells her, because she knows clearly the contractual relationship with her master. She thinks she is not Mr. B servant any longer after she is taken off from the country. So she inquires the stewardess, “How can I become his wealth? What right does he have for me but for a thief's right for his stolen things?”  (Samuel Richardson 108) This idea startles the stewardess. “Why? Who heard such words? This is rebellion, I tell you.” (Samuel Richardson 56) But Pamela still says to Mr. B, “If you were not rich and had no status, and I were not poor and modest, you would not insult me like this.” (Samuel Richardson 103) A hundred years after Pamela was published, Jane Eyre says to Rochester more clearly, “Do you think I have no sound or mind, only because I am poor and have no status and beautiful face? You are wrong! I have the same sound and mind with you.” (Charlotte Bronte 255) As a tutor, Jane Eyre's status is higher than Pamela, and she is more independent. But their thoughts show that they have the same self-esteem and pride. They both require defending their rights and dignity as a woman. However, Pamela requests more. She wants the upper-class people to respect her personality.

2.2 Pamela’s self-consciousness

Although she is a servant, Pamela has a very strong self-consciousness. The two stewardesses tell her there is nobody like her any more, and the country gentlemen all consider her condition to be too ordinary, but to Pamela, the women's chastity is not only a simply physiological fact, but also a woman's right, which is the most basic right and symbolizes her dignity as a human being. She always longs for others’ respect, and she once gets angry with young ladies who play a joke on her. In Mr.B’s home, other servants treat her as if she is born to be a virtuous girl. Pamela is proud of this. Pamela always reports others’ commendation to her in detail. For example, the old steward says he is willing to become a young man again for her, and she compares her doing housework to the bishop's execution. No wonder Mr. B discovers “vanity, conceit and pride”(Samuel Richardson 17-18) on Pamela. Mr. B has found on Pamela “such individuality you can't expect”. (Samuel Richardson 60) She is clear about her own willing. When she speaks, she always uses such words as “will” and “want to”. The writer sometimes emphasizes them with italic letters to highlight her tone. For example,

1). “I don't want to stay, Mr. B” “You don't want? Do you know who you are talking to?”(Samuel Richardson 12)
2). “I will tell you, even you are a king, and I will not obey your insulting words.” (Samuel Richardson 56)
3). “I am not willing to take a walk with you, Mr. B, never again.” “Do you know who you are talking to and where you are?” (Samuel Richardson 184)

Pamela is never obedient like others. On the contrary, she has he own views. Mr. B has told her not to tell others the happenings in the garden. But she tells it all to the stewardess and her parents in letters. In the opposite, if she does not want to do something, she can also find many excuses. For instance, she can't go back home. Because she is very hesitate--whether she should take off so many things given by Mr. B and how she should take away. Moreover, the dress is so exquisite that she may come across some troubles on the way home. And perhaps someone would say her master drives her out for her steal. In addition, she hasn't embroidered Mr. B’s coat. In a word, she can't go. If we remind of Sophia, a heroine in Tom Johns, a real rich young lady, she leaves her father so firmly.

Pamela’s most obvious characteristic is the difference between other servants: She is not like a female servant but surpasses a female servant. Many people think Pamela's behavior is like Zi Juan, who mistakes herself for Sister Lin, who are both the characters in the famous novel The Red Chamber. The stewardess also outlines Pamela's image in a few words. “You are a thorough beauty, eating nothing, taking no rest, but groaning with no reason.”(Samuel Richardson 8) Pamela does not do the heavy work, even washing dishes. She is much fairer than common female servants. When she hears Mr. B's tease, she is always very shy, murmuring, “You will overthrow me with a single feather.”(Samuel Richardson 6) The look of male servants also makes her feel ill at ease, she says, “I can not stand such expression in their eyes”. (Samuel Richardson 34) Usually she does not communicate with the common servants. From this, we can see that Pamela is like a noble girl but born in a poor family, and she is not like a servant. Although in some way, Pamela displays to be a little delicate, her delicacy mirrors her revolting difficulty, her suffering's cruelty and her will's toughness.

3. Pamela’s consciousness of equality manifested in her language and letters

Pamela’s language and her letters constitute the main body of this novel. Pamela knows she cannot match with Mr. B in the motion, but she always can gain the victory in the language. Usually she makes Mr. B dumb in their dispute. This is her proud result. She thinks she can make fool of such a person like Mr. B who has not expected and know how to deal with such things. That is her proud scold to him; she is very proud of her will and courage. Mr. B becomes a character in her writing and is controlled by Pamela in her description. It subverts sex role and social role in traditional meaning. Pamela grasps the narrative initiative. For instance, when she describes their conversation between them, Pamela uses “I
say” and “he says” such words as the marks of her initiative. Sometimes she adds some psychological descriptions, as if she adds “the editor’s notes” to Mr. B’s words. For instance, I say, “You can call this a joke or a game, or anything you like. But sir, such a joke does not suit master-and-servant status.” “Did you hear it, Mrs. Gaverse?” Mr. B says.

He also says, “As far as I know, she writes to her parents and others, and she describes herself as a bright angel in letters but her master as a devil’s incarnation. (I think, sometimes people give themselves just right names.)” (Samuel Richardson 67-68)

Since the struggle between Pamela and Mr. B is a language struggle, Mr. B attempts to frustrate Pamela by controlling her language. At the beginning of the novel, when Pamela writes the first letter to her parents, she is interrupted by Mr. B. He warns her to be careful when she tells his family’s situation to others. But as soon as she writes, she gains power and courage. She is not a servant ordered by others, but a creator and a referee, who judge the people’s words and deeds around her all by her own moral standard. In her writing, her master has lost his privilege to give orders, and becomes a common person or a common person with a certain status. His modesty does not depend on his wealth and status, but on if his words and deeds makes him like a monarch. Mr. B’s words are always empty and hypocritical. He ever tells Pamela twice to believe his fame and his sincere attempt to her, as if his status is his fame’s guarantee. But in fact he does not take his oral words as a matter. When the stewardess reminds him to pay attention to his fame, Mr. B interrupts her to say, “Don’t say these chinches again.” (Samuel Richardson 98) Pamela makes an obvious contrast with him. Just like the final conclusion, the author writes in the end, “Pamela always tells truth in any hard situation, even if her answer will do harm to her.” (Samuel Richardson 462) She knows clearly that she is well matched with Mr. B in language and intelligence, and she has to stand his force, just because of their status. Mr. B’s oppression to her is same as the master to the servant, the rich to the poor and men to women.

In reality, Pamela is in the inferiority, but in letters, her powerful sound subverts the opposite’s superiority. Although Mr. B is angry with Pamela, by the can not change her. Pamela has grasped the initiative to express, and Mr. B displays fear in fact, because he has lost the ability to control the situation. He often lets the cart drive intercept Pamela’s letters, which is the only thing he can do. Because he cannot stop Pamela from writing and control her letters. Each time he checks or confiscates Pamela’s letters, he is always like a conqueror who conquers a place and clear its history and memory away. But his ability is always passive and limited. For example, he writes to Pamela’s parents to tell them their daughter is intimate with someone secretly, so it is good for her to deliver her elsewhere. However, in fact, he abducts Pamela. But before this, Pamela has written twenty-nine letters to her parents to describe Mr. B. So Pamela’s parents do not believe Mr. B. His language makes no effect.

In Richardson’s novel, it is a violent behavior to limit people’s freedom of opportunity to write. In fact, its aim is to attempt to suppress her sound and mind. It is Pamela’s first misery not to write letters freely. She is forbidden to write letters, so she can only write diaries secretly. Mr. B makes her language lost power. There are many commons with Robinson in writing diaries on the deserted island. This forms Pamela’s another misery—nobody can see or understand her letters. That is to say, there is no person to communicate. This also symbolizes Pamela’s spiritual level. Her moral view has reached a lonely level, which others can reach. So there are only her letters and diaries left. Moreover, the only person who would read her letters is Mr. B. Because except for his cynicism for women, he is almost a good landlord, a good master, a generous friend and a magnanimous brother. And he has felt her language’s power after reading her diaries, as he has pointed out for many times, “What captures his heart is her letters and diaries.” (Samuel Richardson 109) At first, he only falls in love her beauty, but when he has read her notes of books, he discovers her smooth thoughts and language, and he begins to admire her. He thinks “she is not only a beautiful puppet, but also a person to be his love”. (Samuel Richardson 110) The world of language is different from the world of common customs. In this world, wealth and status are insignificant, and the only power is language. “As long as Pamela can think and write, Mr. B is not her master. And he is just absorbed by her language power that he has not found in reality.” (Margaret A Doody 15)

In this novel, Pamela puts an unprecedented new end to the old-versioned story by her language power. Mr. B deepens his understanding to her by Pamela’s language. Only this rich sir begins to praise Pamela honestly, he presented himself as a handsome, magnanimous, fair and modest gentleman. His behavior of marryng Pamela indicates his agreement with Pamela’s intelligence and sentiment, and this is also the victory of Pamela’s language. At last, Pamela gets all things that everyone wants: love, wealth, status, society’s admittance and repentance. This is only a bright tail added to the gloomy reality artificially, but the optimism and idealism filled in this novel still give people hope. It tells us that novels record not only the heroes’ graceful behavior. One person who does something difficult in his hard situation is also great. Pamela’s behavior is filled with heroism. Her status is low but she is reluctant to live insipidly. In order to preserve her personality’s independency and dignity, Pamela is reluctant to get material profit easily. In that society which is full of money and interest, it is a worshipful moral choice.
4. Pamela’s consciousness of equality from Richardson’s point of view

Richardson pays attention to the problem of women's status. In 18th century, women are humble. If they have no rich and generous marriage, they hardly have a good marriage, and they are also excluded from men’s career and entertainment. So, as a girl from a poor family, Pamela cannot have equality with Mr. B at all. In this novel, Richardson searches for equal and honest marriage. Pamela has no right in born, but Richardson gives her the ability to write, by which Pamela expresses her pursuit to equality. This novel is a story about a female servant, and it is also an ideal world in which Richardson expresses his own thoughts. Because he is sensitive to the inferiority of his own class and the snobbish attitude of the aristocrats. This makes Richardson engender confirmation and agreement to delicate and helpless Pamela, and shout out his own inner thoughts through her mouth: “All the people who work honestly are not humble.” (Richardson P82) “Although my status is as low as a slave, my soul is as important as the princess.” (Richardson P188) “How the wealth look down upon the poor! But we are equal completely in the early time.” (Richardson P304) So Pamela is Richardson’s self-mold and expression, and she is also his shouting from his heart, shouting equality and the social confirmation and agreement to personal capability.

Meanwhile, it is also subversion to the traditional literature. It means that not only prince or princess can be the main role in literal works, and the servant only play the comic foil. As one literal style, novels always portray some common persons in deed, but they are always the objects to be satisfied and teased. Only Pamela is really a common person with significance. The uniqueness of Pamela lies in that it respects "I" as a common person, expresses the bourgeois’s equal and free view, and praises the weak and poor people's revolting to the strong power. It believes that kindness can defeat devil. This positive and progressive mind is just the foundation of its thoughts.

5. Conclusion

In a word, Pamela is a brave woman to pursue equality with men in her time when women have no social position. Although she is a servant, she is never obedient, and she has a high and strong moral standard, especially in chastity. She makes herself to be a model for women to study. In her time, this equal consciousness has been positive and progressive, so is today. To a large extent, this kind of pursuit to equality connects material reward with morality tightly, and manifests religious thought of common customs. But this arouses readers’ respect, yearning and pursuit to virtue. Maybe it is a reason why the novel is welcome popularly, especially among women. It is equal consciousness in this novel expresses most women’s inner thoughts, arouses them to pursue quality, including in sex and class. It produces a profound influence; even today it is worth studying for modern women.

References


Criminology Analysis from the Perspective of
Chinese Ancient Materialism

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Abstract
Crime problems arise from social system, which demand systematic solutions. The Ancient Chinese Yin and Yang theory and “Five Elements” attach importance to the overall mode of thinking, attaches importance to grasp object from overall aspect. Taking precautions against and controlling crimes by applying this thought, can able to help us to analyze crime problems in depth. Use system method to resolve the system problem.

Keywords: “Five Elements”, “Yin and Yang”, System thought, Crime problems

Crime problems, which arise from large-scale social systems of civilization, are influenced and controlled by the law of social systems, and work with a systematic form. Factors that influence the system of crime problems are various and bear a subtle connection. How to deal with crime problem determines how to prevent and to control them. The ancient Chinese philosophy “Yin and Yang” (“Yin and Yang”, is regarded as the most basic and the most widespread philosophy category in the Chinese philosophy history, which illustrates the contradictory movement of the related thing as well as the law of development.) and “Five Elements” (“Five Elements”, is the important concept in Chinese philosophy history, which is five kind of symbolic marks, refers to the gold, the water, the wood, the fire, the earth.) theory, concentrate on the relationship among various factors in the Yin and Yang system and Five Elements system, focusing on the integration of systems thinking and the overall grasp of things. This emphasizes the structure and functions of things, and forms Chinese people's unique system of thinking. This is obviously a very systematic description of the crime problems, which can provide a deep understanding of crime issues. Taking our ancients' thoughts into consideration, appropriate analysis of the large-scale system of society and construction of “Yin and Yang” and “Five Elements” structure in crime case system have become the key points of prevention and control in crime case system. This thesis introduces ancient theories of “Yin and Yang” and “Five Elements” into prevention and control of crime problems, makes the past serve the present and endows it with new connotation.

1. "Five Elements" formation mechanism of the crime problems system

So as to the existence of the crime problems in the system form, has common origin with theory of the five elements. It exists as a result of common logical similarity with “Five Elements”, has the unified structure form. The theory of “Five Elements” in ancient China neither studies what entity in the nature is actually made from, nor inspects the specific modes of action between different things. It stresses the research of the commonest structural relation of inherent laws of things and that between them and sets up theory system about the nature by means of the concept of “Five Elements” structure. Wood, fire, earth, gold and water actually serve as signs representing five functional attributes. Crime problems are derived from this large-scale system of society and controlled by its basic rules. Therefore, in order to explore “Five Elements” models of crime problem system, we should firstly establish “Five Elements” structure of the large-scale system of society. Elements are the basic to form the system; the various elements of the system are not isolated, unrelated to each other. However, they are in mutual connection and coactions. Human society is a political, economic, cultural and natural organic entity; human civilization is composed of material civilization, spiritual civilization, political civilization, social civilization and ecological civilization, which constitute the new “Five Elements”. The five elements mutual promotion and restraint between the five elements, which can be reflected in each fields of society, but the five elements assault and browbeat mutually can cause a lot of social problems, including
Crime come from the civilized society system and is subjected by the operation regularity of civilized system. It is also
2. The analysis of “Five Elements” in crime system
Crime come from the civilized society system and is subjected by the operation regularity of civilized system. It is also
running by itself in the form of a system. “To take advantage of a weak point in an opponent’s defense, to use their
strength to bully the weak.” in civilized system causes the regional imbalances in the civilized system, brings about a lot
of anomalies, and forms a system of social problems, including crime system. “To take advantage of a weak point in an
opponent’s defense, to use their strength to bully the weak” in civilized system is too "material", and the other elements
are lacked, which is reflected in the public security field and formed the crime system. The too much “material” does
not mean the construction of material civilization is now very perfect, but the construction of material civilization in the
civilized system is relatively too much. Subjugation and counter-restriction in civilized system is mainly reflected at the
unhealthy development of five civilizations.

2.1 The construction of material civilization is imperfect.
Crime problem exists for the reason that the development of material progress goes wrong. In other words, crime
problem exists systemically for economic reasons. The system of crime problem is influenced by economic
considerations. Crime problem is typically embodied in the passive aspect and negativity of market economy. From the
negative effects of the market economy, the market economy is a double-edged sword. Its competitiveness, autonomy, open, market and economy have their negative impacts and cause the crime. At present, the causes of negativity and crime of market economy are mainly in four aspects: First, focus only on economic benefits, not pay attention to the health of the economy. The socialist market essentially requires not only economic benefits, but also social benefits in the economic activities. But there are varying degrees of focusing only on economic benefits and neglecting the ecological balance, the country's stability, and social harmony in real life. Second, only focus on the economy, but not on the fair. The criminals do not enhance economic benefits according to the principle of fair competition. They even enhance their economic benefits with a breach of social and others' economic benefits. Third, focus only on the purpose, do not pay attention to the means. They do not enhance economic benefits according to the principle of unity of means and purpose. Their purpose is legitimate, but their means is illegitimate. They use non-economic means, counter-economic means, ultra-economic means and even criminal means to pursue the economic benefits unscrupulously, pursue the criminal benefits directly.

2.2 The construction of spiritual civilization is not in place.

The crime system reflects the construction of spiritual civilization is not in place. It mainly refers to the cultural reasons caused by the crime problems. The society lacks a sound mechanism of moral binding and the correct value orientation, which is reflected in the crime is: People are lacked of a correct understanding of power, money and favor. In real life, people have a one-sided understanding about them, such as "Money makes the mare go" and "litigation is to sue a relationship because we have to find a relationship and favor with the judge. If we have a good relationship with the judge, we will win the case. Otherwise we will lose it." The misunderstanding makes people desire money and status blindly. It easily leads to the crime. The interactions of "Power, money, favor", such as the union of power and power, power and money, power and favor, form a solid triangle at the core of “power”. It has become a crime "Golden Triangle" which is difficult to be captured.

2.3 The construction of political civilization is not complete.

Politics is the concentrated expression of economics. The political reason of crime system is mainly that the people-oriented thinking is not implemented well. The negativity of feudal politics and power is mainly reflected in power lacking of controlling, power hampering economy and power advancing private interests. China has a feudal history of over two thousand years which led to the remaining of hierarchical mentality, privilege mentality, dictatorial mentality and separatism. These thoughts continue to influence people’s ideas of the times. In addition, the exercise of power is short of effectively supervisory mechanism, so the situation of “excessive persons in authority, excessive persons in residual power, excessive persons in exchanging power and excessive persons in using power” appears. Power lacking of controlling creates problems of economic cases; power hampering economy causes that various entitlements get excessively involved in economic activities and generates “power economy, approved-document economy and message economy”; at the same time, economic sectors get excessively involved in administrative practice; power advancing private interests leads to such abnormal ideas as “Good Fortune for Power”, which have been agreed by the person in authority. Those persons are guilty of corruption and accepting bribes as well as eating, drinking, and being merry. The construction of political civilization in society emphasizes people-oriented, everyone is equal. However, there are disparities among government officials, ordinary people, the government officials and ordinary people in the society. The disparity among government officials is a relationship between those in power. There is a disparity between persons of different positions. The effective supervision mechanism of power is lacked. The supervision and management of setting up, authorizing and using the power are neglected. The disparity between government officials and ordinary people is an unequal relationship between citizens and those in power. Those in power have not strictly adhered to the “people-based” thinking. In addition, there is no perfect petition system. The public supervision to officials is lacked. The disparity among ordinary people is the relationship between the citizens. People lack generous attitude, love and compassion in dealing with interpersonal relations. There is no good morality between them.

2.4 The start of construction of ecological civilization is late.

The birth, aging, sickness and death of human beings are natural phenomenon. The crime is also a same natural situation. Man is part of nature. In the final analysis, man's actions and conduct depend on natural conditions. Therefore, man’s crime activities are conditioned by the influence of nature. The production and life of mankind are both not separated from nature. Ecological environment has a direct impact on various stage of the production and life of mankind. Moreover, the productive and life activities of mankind may affect and remake nature. To harmonize the relationship between human and nature refers to developed production, affluent life and a sound ecological environment. The people’s illegal and criminal activities are affected and constrained by the nature. The start of construction of ecological civilization is late in China and has not been paid enough attention, resulting in a number of ecological problems. The damage of ecological environment seriously affects people's production and life. But the lack of ecological resources further motives the criminals to violate the national laws and regulations for the predatory exploitation of ecological resources. The discord between human beings and nature easily leads to the crime.
2.5 *The construction of social civilization is not harmonious.*

The reason why the society has a lot of social problems is the social disharmony. Various parts and elements which form the society and are in the interrelation are in the state of discord, the relationship between the interests of all parties has not been effectively coordinated, the social management system is not perfect. Social disharmony resulted in a number of unstable situation. There are many disharmony factors between human beings and society, between human beings and nature, and between people. The illegal and criminal activities on economy are generated and developed in such discord factors.

To sum up, the “Five Elements” system of crime problems is a kind of abnormal phenomenon generated by the subjugation and counter-restriction of five elements of the large-scale system of civil society. It means that “the construction of material civilization” is over and the shortage of other elements. If “the construction of material civilization” is over, then “the construction of material civilization” will restrain and ride roughshod over other elements which surpass the normal limitation. The disharmony of the overall structure of the social system, which is caused by the advanced development of material civilization of the large-scale system of civil society and the relative lag of the other civilization, brings serious gap between rich and poor and it pricks up the contradiction of the system and then engenders local instability of the large-scale system of civil society. The criminals who are facing the disharmony of the society such as the lack of harmonization of the relationships between human and human, human and society, and human and nature, as well as the temptation of money, power and sex will easily pursue the material and spiritual balance with adventure. That promotes the crime problems and engenders the “Five Elements” system of crime problems.

3. *The distinction of “Yin and Yang” in “Five Elements” system in the criminal cases*

The scientists on Yin and Yang think, there is a general connection whether the tangible objects or intangible objects in the world, whether the objects in the universe or the objects in the earth. The two sides in the conflict always display two types of opposite trends on state: One is bright, vibrant, forward, up, warm and full. Another is dark, quiet, backward, downward, cold and void. (Liu Changlin, 1999, P.283). The ancients in China called the former state Yang and the latter state Yin. Base on the “Five Elements” system in crime, under the strategic perspective, if the “Five Elements” system in crime exists, the “Five Elements” system in crime prevention and control should exist. The two systems together constitute the “Five Elements” system in criminal cases. The framework of Yin and Yang is made in the “Five Elements” system in criminal cases. Yang in practice means the “Five Elements” system in crime prevention and control. Yin in practice refers to the “Five Elements” system in crime which disrupts public order. There is a variety of game systems between the two systems, including the five dialectical relationships: the opposition of Yin and Yang, the interdependence of Yin and Yang, the waning and waxing of Yin and Yang, the transformation of Yin and Yang and the reflection of Yin and Yang.

The so-called opposition of Yin and Yang is an inter-confrontation of the strength between the two systems. The society prevents and combats crime through economic, political, cultural, ecological means, uses the strategic thinking of system to system. And the criminals will evade the police and form criminal ways of group, intelligence, science and technology to become “There are antidotes to the policies” and give tit for tat with the prevention and control system.

Crime is the contradiction of the case reaches the extreme, and will help promote the solution of social problems in time so as to push forward the development of society. Precisely because of the existence of crime system, the strength including the whole prevention and control system has the significance of existence. At the same time, the relatively weak strength of prevention and control leads to the generation and development of crime in a certain extent. This relationship which is interdependent, either party can not be divorced from the other party and stand alone, is the interdependence of Yin and Yang.

In the face of “advance with the time” criminals, only by evolving the developing concept of crime prevention and control team, combining the three defenses “People defense, material defense and technology defense” into one, summing up new methods and experiences and exploring new ideas and measures in the face of new problems and situations in the criminal field, can prevent and combat the crime effectively. Who is the winner in the relationship of Yin and Yang, depends not only on who is on behalf of justice, but also on who can truly advance with the time. As a result, Yin and Yang, the two forces, battle for wits and play tricks constantly. The Yin and Yang wan and wax each other.

There are rationality and necessity in the existence of the transformation of Yin and Yang, which depends on its own uniqueness of crime. For example, some of the bigger crimes can even prosper economy, the local governments can easily throw away the principle and only focus on the immediate interests, can not the nature of crime on the side of the country, the conversion process between police and criminals has been implemented unconsciously, such as the large smuggling of Yuanhua in Xiamen province that shocked the world.

“There is Yang within Yin, there is Yin within Yang.”(Liu Changlin, 1999, P.290). Whether the prevention and control system of crime is sound can be seen from the degree of severity of crime in the society. Likewise, the economic cases
system can be reflected from the prevention and control system of crime. The feature of reflection of Yin and Yang is from the interaction of the two systems. Yin and Yang send their messages to each other and at the same time become the recipients and storers due to the interaction.

Besides, according to the division concept of the ancients, the framework of “Yin and Yang” in “Five Elements” system of crime problems can be endlessly divided and find out “Yin and Yang” contradictions included in these two systems themselves, namely, “Yin and Yang” reappearing in “Yin and Yang”. For example, especially to “Five Elements” system of crime problems, those posing serious influence on the society and requiring urgent solutions are called “Yin in Yin”, while those posing lesser influence on the society are named “Yang in Yin” according to various characteristics of criminal cases and different degrees of harm to the society. As for “Five Elements” system of the prevention and control of crime problems, the system of social prevention and control which is represented by the police can take effective measures to strongly restrict crime problems by tight search. This is called “Yang in Yang”. Conversely, aiming at some atypical crime problems, the system of prevention and control is not able to find apt and specific ways to solve problems and to effectively prevent or control because of its atypical characteristic. This is called “Yin in Yang”.

Meanwhile the university of “Yin and Yang” also represents in time. Human beings are angle in one side and also devil in the other. Thoughts severely struggle in offenders’ minds before, within and after carrying out their crimes, which can be named as “ebb and flow of Yin and Yang”. Comparison between these two forces determines the whole process of crimes. If the side of angle surpasses devil, crimes maybe will not occur or fine transformation happens when offenders commit crimes. In a word, the ancients’ systematic concept of “Yin and Yang” is uniquely superior when analyzing crime system and the master of “Yin and Yang” in “Five Elements” system of crime problems is the key point of prevention and control of crime problems.

4. Conclusion

Yin and Yang and “Five Elements” all focus on studying and grasping the object from the function, relationship and whole, emphasize the significance that the dynamic balance affects the normal development of things, and think the whole system possesses a certain capacity of self-regulation to maintain the dynamic balance. Logically, the structural relation of “Five Elements” in crime system can be seen as the spread of Yin and Yang relationship in the criminal case system. Any actions sent by every element in the “Five Elements” in civilization large-scale systems will of the “Five Elements” of each line to any other line, will receive a corresponding counter-action due to the mutual promotion and restraint between the “Five Elements”, which makes the “Five Elements” can always maintain the system balance in the process of movement under the normal circumstances. Therefore, the mutual promotion and restraint, “to take advantage of a weak point in an opponent’s defense, to use their strength to bully the weak” in “Five Elements” of the system are the particular expression of extension and of Yin and Yang relationship. The structure of Yin and Yang of crime system can be seen as a model of system. But this model is too abstract, it can not specifically explain the rich contents of system structure and multifaceted relations in many cases. The “Five Elements” structure in crime system can relatively and specifically divide that the system is a general mechanism of a complex structure relationship of things. And the Yin and Yang distinction in criminal case system is a higher sum of structure relationship in crime system.

References


Figure 1. The system of “Five Elements”

The relations of promotes and constrains mutually in the social system

M: Material civilization
E: Ecology civilization
P: Political civilization
S: Spiritual civilization
s: Social civilization
Delicate Natural Emotion – Japanese Design Culture
Reflected through Ryohei Kojima

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Abstract
This paper aims to explore the influence of culture over design. Plain design is a means for visual communication, however, it does not just convey information, but also needs to introduce more people and events. To put it in other words, plain design aims to arouse the resonance of its targeted groups so as to move people’s heart. The creation of a designer is, to great extent, influenced by his or her national or regional culture.

Keywords: Japan culture, Ryohei Kojima, Delicate, Natural

1. The realistic meanings of the study on Japanese design culture
This paper aims to explore Japan culture in a gentle, straight and exquisite means and to study a nation’s culture through studying the internal nature of master’s works. At a time where the public opinions are at large sharpened and post-modernism is popular, “to focus on behind-the-surface” conduces to the communication of national culture. Modern design tends to more and more recognize localized and national character. As a matter of fact, with the globalization and the integration of systems, localization becomes more and more important in providing power for preserving the meanings of objects’ existence. Localization is to recognize local culture rather than to recognize symbols or graphs. To explore the connotation of local culture, to find out the conflicting points between traditional culture and individual personality, and to form individual design style is the soul of design’s localization. The success of Japanese design is the success for Japanese to imbed eastern concepts into their design works. Although we could find in Yamato culture traits left by China’s culture, the “returning” feature of eastern culture shown in design works by Japanese designers is better than that by Chinese designers.

2. Introduction of Ryohei Kojima and study on his works
Plain design is a means for visual communication, however, it does not just convey information, but also needs to introduce more people and events. To put it in other words, plain design aims to arouse the resonance of its targeted groups so as to move people’s heart. Therefore, designers should focus on creating works through special a unique methods so as to make works viewers happy. The creation of designers is, to great extent, influenced by their national or regional culture.

2.1 Introduction of Ryohei Kojima
Ryohei Kojima is a famous contemporary Japanese designer. His works are mainly plain posters and at mean time, he also designed many successful commercial works.

Life introduction:
1939, born in Kamaishi, Japan
1959, graduated from Asagaya Art School
1961, graduated from Mashashino Art University, majoring in Commercial Design
1963, worked in Sunshine Advertisement Company
1975, established Ryohei Kojima Design Firm
1965, won JAAC Special Award and Tokyo ADC Silver Award
1978, won Japan Advertisement Design Silver Award
1981, won Japan Advertisement Design Golden Award
1980, won Japan Everyday Advertisement Design Best Award
1988, Japan News Association News Advertisement Award
1991, New York ADC Excellence Award

His “environment” poster is collected by Victoria Museum and Albert Museum. He is the member of Tokyo ADC, Japan JAGDA, and New York ADC.

2.2 Study on Ryohei Kojima’s works

In the plain design works by Ryohei Kojima, most are natural things and the subjects are mostly flowers, grass, trees, birds, insect, fish and other natural things. His works resemble Chinese traditional culture. He is good at symbolizing and simplifying his subjects. In his works, there are always healthy and plebeian aesthetic awareness, which is not encumbered by dashing decorations and has the sense of plain mark. The most successful point of Ryohei Kojima in shaping is that he uses the fewest shape elements to construct his shaping world. Actually, it is a world of black and white where colors are not the most important factors and colors are just an auxiliary means in the exploration process. Ryohei represents his thoughts through the comparison of geometrical shapes. However, he eventually leaves us with amiable colors and makes us happy. In graph treatment skills, to change the point to view the object is the most frequently method applied by him. He uses the methods of seeing objects from the back and seeing object’s side across; he makes use of the relationship of the light facing and light back; he applies superposition, joining, separating, disorderly viewing, folding, knotting, and tying. He conducts shape treatment on objects in circle, square and triangles. What is more, he hides them behind the organic shapes. Another character is to transform by combining several geometrical graphs. The complex shape combination by Ryohei Kojima is like computer editing system. No matter what kind of objects, he could easily handle them.

3. Ryohei Kojima and Japanese design culture

3.1 The realistic spirit in Japanese design

The design of Japan, no matter it is plain design or industrial design, is of the leading position in the world. Japanese art may be simple or complex, serious or err, abstractive or realistic. It is the combination of eastern and western culture. In Japanese design works, we could see the spirit of quietness, emptiness, and void and could feel the eastern abstract.

Japanese is Yamato and Yamato is a people of deep suffering awareness. North European people consider design as a part of their life. Americans view design as the means for making money, while Japanese take design as the means for their nation’s existence. Because Japan is an island country and is lack of natural resources, to export electrical equipments becomes an important economy resource for Japanese. Therefore, the design directly relates to the economy lifeline of their country. Hence, Japanese design even draws their government’s attention. Japanese design starts from 1950s. Their nation’s personality makes their design very strong. Japanese is the best student in the world. They could widely learn foreign valued knowledge and to use them in practice. At the same time, Japanese is good at teamwork, which enables the inner power of enterprises show in a focused way. Two elements in Japanese traditional help Japanese avoid mistakes. One is the simple style and the other is the modulus system with Tatami as the standard, which enables them to rapidly accept the modulus concept introduced from Germany. The narrow space makes Japanese like small, standard and multi-functional products, which complies with international market needs. Hence Japanese electrical equipments lead world fashion and are popular all over the world. Internationalist style products can be produced in quantity and they are of low price and are suitable for the general public needs. It is only in the design process that sacrifices national character, local character and individual character to pursue common nature. Now, it is a transitional stage from industrialization to information technology. From the long-term interests, the product must have a personality if wants to have a place in the intense market competition. In design, it is a trend to, from the actual situation of countries and regions, combine national aesthetic mood with modern design factors that combine to form a unique design system. In this regard, the Japanese have done some useful exploration.
At the same time, Japan's industrial design has gone through so complete development is because, first and foremost, the industrial design community in Japan attaches great importance to practice. The entire design community is closely connected with corporate sector. The vast majority of large-scale enterprises (large-scale enterprises in Japan accounted for about five percent) have huge product development department. In the industrial design, they invest a lot of money. Again, the Japanese design community is linked with social development. Japan Industrial Design Association's design direction, from the very beginning, starts from national situation. Social life changes can immediately get the attention from designers and the designers will explore the issue and form theory. The designers start from their nation’s features, focus on the world needs, rather than just parrot. By this way, they could design good products that truly meet the needs of their national people, which have their own characteristics and can also meet the world needs.

3.2 The delicate nature in Japanese design

Japan's national sentiment should be very delicate. From literatures such as The Tale of Genji and Makuranososhi, we can see the foundation of Japanese culture, which is the sentimental aesthetic emotion and delicate spirit nature. When the fall comes, there will be food and refreshments called "Autumn Collection". "Autumn wind blows, tree leaves fall, mushrooms grow, trees bear fruits, wind blows the leaves to piles and piles". Japanese view such landscapes as beautiful, unlike the incomplete beauty in the eyes of Westerners. It is the care on the passing things. People focus on the emotional association rather than the objects themselves. Objects that are garbage in the eyes of Westerners, such as the leaves and nuts, the Japanese put them into chestnuts, gingko, mushrooms, and beautifully decorate them together. Such sense of beauty is Japan's unique aesthetic beauty. It is not continental culture. We need to re-examine this new awareness of beauty. Because Japanese culture is too emotional and is lack of theoretical system, it is hard to develop into a doctrine or faction. Now the doctrines in Japan, such as impressionist art, abstract, the new realism, are all imported from foreign countries. Japan lacks for the capacity to develop their ideas generated in the country into a system.

For Japanese, to say pure art is no better to say to make design closer to people’s life. At the beginning of Jianghu period, with the efforts of Guangyue, Zongda and Guanglin, there formed classic Japanese decoration style. To look carefully, the fan painting and folding screen painting all have organic characters. The cragginess created by Guangyue and Zongda fixed the original form of Japanese book press. To some extent, the paintings of Zongda are posters. These works not only has practice nature but also has decoration and beauty values.

Japanese have the aesthetic awareness to think and explain its elements. For example, when expressing objects, they are not rational but emotional and spiritual. What is more, they usually express them in indirect way. They do not clearly express their attitude but express them in circumbendibus way, which is closely related to eastern traditional culture connotation. For example, Chinese ancient poems usually adopt metaphor and borrowing. This is a connotation aesthetics which believes that the feeling of beauty could be felt in the expressing of opinions. The enterprise image of advertisement owners could only win consumers’ support when the express method is gentle and indirect. As visual expression method, it is also used in ancient Japanese paintings and water and ink paintings. It needs people to feel beauty in unclear and blurry state.

3.3 The cultural origin of Ryohei Kojima's works

Ryohei Kojima made many posters to introduce Japanese design style and Japanese culture. However, he would also think of how many unique national cultures are expressed in his works. Sometimes, we would think whether the Japanese styles in these works are formed from his unique design methods or from the eastern natural subjects used in these works or from the Japanese style coloring and patterns. To view culture as legacy is the consumption on the past culture.

From international point of view, we do not search for eastern emotion anymore. Therefore, Ryohei wishes not to use traditional and classic views to explore the inherent sense and culture owned by Japanese. In addition, another element is very interesting, that is, the tender thanks emotion provided by nature. When describing Japanese emotion, we usually use the words “Tuo and “Ji”. “Tuo”means dreariness and “Ji” means loneliness. However, it is hard to understand if as an international concept. This is problem faced by eastern culture. To put it simple, in the traditional Japanese life, they like stones with lichenous better than bright marbles, and like naïve soil wall better than exquisite wall paper. If we just explain is as the thinking over nature, it is not enough. We may explain it as that compared with things that exist for ever, we could feel deeper beauty and love in the state where a object disappear gradually. This is the base for understanding and mastering the aesthetic awareness of Japanese.
4. The mater’s design legacy – from nature

Traditional Chinese painters consider the blank part in a picture as the base for people’s imagination. Chinese philosophy advocates the movement of objects. In the process of searching for this point, we feel amiable when seeing Japan’s design works. We know that we find sensitive and rational works. Ancient Japan advocates nature. About one thousand ago, Japan borrows culture, including Buddhism, Chinese writing system and the art and architecture of Tang Dynasty of China.

In Ryohei Kojima’s works, he expresses the “black and white” theory in China’s traditional artistic method with shapes and colors. Shapes play the main part and colors the auxiliary. No shape, no color. The connotation of Ryohei complies with the most basic aesthetic needs of people, that is, simplicity and purity is beauty. When bringing natural shapes into his works, he preserves the most original life power completely. Sometimes, he does not make any decoration. In his eyes, nature is perfect and what human beings could do is just to abstract.

The thought of Ryohei is an enlightening to the simple beauty in modern design.

Not only Ryohei Kojima advocated simple beauty, many other Japanese design masters also do so. One design master points out that, “there should not be any superabundance in design”, from which we could know that his design concept is similar to the concept of “most appropriate” advocated by China’s traditional aesthetics.

Japanese design applies natural and traditional concepts, modern elements and construction methods and is leading design in the world, which is worthy for Chinese designers to learn and refer to.

References


