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External Reporting of Human Capital in Malaysia

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Abstract

Human capital information which is vital for effective management of resources is usually only accessible internally within an organization. However, information regarding human capital or human resource investments and the return on these investments are currently not presented in the annual reports systematically and consistently. This paper examines the extent of the disclosure of human capital in the annual reports of Malaysian top companies based on the concept of Human Resource Costing and Accounting (HRCA) and other relevant human capital elements or measures. A content analysis using word count was conducted to determine the extent of human capital disclosures. The findings reveal that the concept of HRCA is still distant to human resource managers in Malaysia. The human capital items which are most commonly disclosed are information on training, human resource development, employee skill, knowledge and competence. Return on human resource investment is not reported in the annual reports.

Keywords: Malaysia, Human capital, Human resource Investment, External reporting

1. Introduction

People are not just being recognized as a vital resource to corporations, but they are also a key source of competitive edge in the current business environment. Many companies view their employees or human capital or human resource (HR) as their most valuable assets and invest heavily on them. For instance, United Engineering (M) Berhad reported in its annual report that “the group takes every effort to identify, develop and retain our human capital and create a more conducive environment for the intellectual assets to grow by putting in the right infrastructure and to ensure the right framework is in place. The group believed that an organization’s success in business is based on the effectiveness of its people and that strategic investments in human capital will add value to any organization in the long run” (United Engineering (M) Berhad, Annual Report, 2004: 36).

However, human capital information is usually only accessible internally within an organization. Such information is currently not presented in the annual reports systematically and consistently. According to Low et al. (1999), the time has come for a radically new way to gauge corporate performance. A reliable way to measure intangibles is vital and there is a need to establish a common framework for describing and representing intangibles, such as defining what constitutes ‘human capital’. According to a report by CMA Management (2000), for the first time, a recent study evidenced that there is a cause and effect relationship between human capital management and financial performance. Watson Wyatt’s (2001) study on Human Capital Index shows that superior human resource practices are not only correlated with improved financial returns, they are, in fact, a leading indicator of increased shareholder value. Substantial benefits might be gained from better information about HR (Sackman et al., 1989). According to Guthrie (2001), this information might allow resources to be allocated more effectively within organizations and may further

enable gaps in skills and abilities to be more easily identified. It might also facilitate the provision of more comprehensive information to investors or potential investors (Flamholtz and Main, 1999).

Presently, there is no accounting standard on disclosure of human capital-related information. Some companies do not provide any information on human capital in their annual reports since they are not required to do so. Moreover, the current accounting system which was originated by Luca Pacioli was not designed to present human capital as an asset in the balance sheet. However, according to Tan (2000), the future financial reporting in Malaysia is likely to be strongly influenced by the Securities Commission's guidelines which contain a policy statement which states that public companies have an obligation to fully disclose to the public the information necessary to make an informed investment decisions. Hence, we expect to find disclosure or reporting of human capital in the annual reports of Malaysian companies. In the 1960s and 1970s researchers attempt to measure the value of people and to account for investment in HR in the annual accounts. Hermansson (1964) published his pioneering work concerning the valuation of human assets. The term "human resource accounting" (HRA) was used for the first time in 1968 (Brummet et al., 1968). HRA is the process of identifying and measuring data about human resources and communicating this information to interested parties (AAA, 1973). HRA did not achieve widespread acceptance. At the end of 1970s the interest in HRA declined. There are many conceptual problems and practical difficulties to be overcome in HRA. According to Roslender and Dyson (1992), HRA has failed to develop further in the way of practical applications. On the other hand, one reason why HRA has not gained acceptance could be due to the lack of consensus on how human assets should be measured or valued. According to Flamholtz (1985), an erroneous belief suggesting that HRA was concerned only with treating people as financial objects, although preparing financial statements that included human resources was undoubtedly a part of HRA, it was dramatic and innovative, putting people on the balance sheet became the dominant image of HRA for many people. Though there are arguments in favour of treating people as assets, the debate on the appropriateness of valuing HR on the balance sheet remains unresolved. HRA later incorporated the utility analysis aspect and renamed as Human Resource Costing and Accounting (HRCA). In 1990s, some Swedish organizations prepared their own human resource income statements. Lundberg and Wiklund (1994) had found that 70 per cent of the responding personnel managers in Swedish companies with more than 200 employees claimed that they were applying HRCA to some extent. Grojer and Johanson (1998) concluded that HRCA, based on a management control perspective seems to be used to a substantial degree by many Swedish organizations. However, there is not much progress on HRCA in the other parts of the world.

Investment in HR is traditionally and currently being treated as an expense in the income statement. According to Drake (1999), human capital information such as expenditures in the training department appears in the profit and loss account only in the partial and seriously misleading form. In contrary, in the US, as far back as 1967, Barry Corporation has attempted to disclose investment in HR as an asset in the balance sheet. However, it was discontinued due to high implementation costs of human resource accounting system. Critics also considered treating human capital as human assets as a 'sham' to avoid taxes such as the case of a football team, the Atlanta Falcons, which was allocated to non-depreciable intangibles (Weiss, 1975).

Today, human capital is incorporated as a part of intellectual capital. Edvinsson (1997) defines intellectual capital as 'the possession of knowledge, applied experience, organizational technology, customer relationships and professional skills'. One component of intellectual capital is human capital. According to Bontis et al. (2001), quite simply, human capital represents the individual knowledge stock of an organization as represented by its employees. Roos et al. (1998) argue that employees generate intellectual capital through their competence, their attitude and their intellectual agility. Along the same line of thought, Hudson (1993) defines human capital as a combination of: genetic inheritance, education, experience and attitudes about life and business. As a result of managing intellectual capital, some companies particularly in Scandinavia, have published intellectual capital statements as a mechanism to show the value of their intellectual capital. Companies have started disclosing intellectual capital, the intangible assets of skill and knowledge in their financial reports (Stewart, 1994). The external reporting of intellectual capital has already begun in Sweden where, in 1996, 43 companies provided intellectual information in their financial statements or in supplementary allied reports. In the context of human capital, Skandia AFS, reported its employees and its network of insurance brokers in a separate report supplementing its annual reports. In 1993, Dow Chemical Company identified intellectual capital as ideas and innovations stuffed into the file drawers and folders of its scientists and engineers. In addition, Sveiby (1997) has developed 'the invisible balance sheet' to account for knowledge-based assets. According to Harrison and Sullivan (2000), by 1994, there were a dozen companies around the world engaged in the active extraction of profits from their intellectual capital. However, no IC statements have been published by companies in Asia except for India (Pablos, 2003). In the past, Malaysian companies did disclose some form of HR information such as key personnel in the annual reports (Tan et al., 1990). As HR management is an important strategy to companies hence it is expected that companies should disclose HR-related items in their annual reports even though these are not required by the Companies Act or the accounting standards. Moreover, in the study regarding the

prospects of HRA, Huang (1993) disclosure on HR could be made in the form of notes though it is not accounted in the traditional financial statements.

As mentioned above, human capital is a component of intellectual capital. Three common components of intellectual capital are human capital, organizational capital and customer capital. According to Brooking (1996: 15), human capital is human-centered asset and it is the 'collective expertise, creative capability, leadership, entrepreneurial and managerial skills embodied by the employees of an organisation'. A list of 20 human capital items (see Table 2) was compiled from indicators adopted by Brooking (1996), Edvinsson and Malone (1997), Roos et al. (1998), Christopher and Siu-Chung (1998) and Miller et al. (1999). This paper explores and examines the current scenario of Malaysian top companies on human capital reporting. It seeks to find out how these companies present their HR investment and their measures on these returns, if any. It specifically looks at the extent of disclosure of human capital information or items in the annual reports of these companies.

2. Methodology

This exploratory study first attempted to look at the annual reports of top 100 companies listed on the main board by *Bursa Malaysia* (formerly known as Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange (KLSE)) based on market valuation.

The annual reports of top 100 companies listed on the main board were examined at the *Bursa Malaysia* web-site. However, one annual report was not available at the web. A letter was then posted to the company secretary requesting for its annual report. However, no reply was heard from the company concerned. Hence, it is excluded from the analysis. Another company too was excluded from the analysis since that particular company was dormant. Hence, only 98 companies' annual reports were reviewed.

2.1 Annual reports

Corporate annual report is generally accepted as the most comprehensive communication channel and has the potential to make information easily and routinely available in a single document (Hooks et al., 2002). It is one of the most comprehensive documents available in public. Annual report also represents the concerns and interests of corporations in a comprehensive and compact manner (Abeysekera and Guthrie, 2005).

Annual reports generally contain both quantitative and qualitative data. Both quantitative and qualitative human capital information is disclosed in the annual reports. Qualitative human capital information contains discourses on human capital and quantitative human capital information relates to employee turnover, staff costs, etc. Such human capital disclosure is non-standardized.

2.2 Content analysis

Researchers have sought to explain the extent of information disclosed in company annual reports by quantifying the level of disclosures by means of a disclosure instrument comprised of a list of items that could appear in the company's annual reports (Guthrie et al., 2003). A content analysis is a quantitatively oriented technique by which standardised measurements are applied to metrically defined units. This method is used to count the number of sentences containing, for example, the words 'human resources' and the number of pages devoted to 'human resources'.

Human capital disclosures using content analysis method were conducted by some researchers. These researchers adopted various criteria with the use of secondary sources such as the company's annual reports to justify the extent of disclosures. Among others, these were the approaches adopted:

- (1) number of disclosures (Ness and Mirza, 1991);
- (2) word counts (Zeghal and Ahmed, 1990);
- (3) lines (Trotmen and Bradley, 1981);
- (4) sentences (Hackston and Milne, 1996); and
- (5) proportion of pages (Guthrie and Parker, 1989).

In this study, the disclosure on human capital or HR-related information is measured on a scale of one to five. The disclosure scores are as follows:

- (1) for non-disclosure;
- (2) for a disclosure of one to 20 words;
- (3) for a disclosure of 21 to 50 words;
- (4) for a disclosure of 50 to 100 words; and
- (5) for a disclosure of more than 100 words.

3. Results and discussion

The results of this study are subject to several limitations. A limitation of the present study is that it relates to a single period. It was restricted to human capital information contained in the annual report of the top companies listed in *Bursa Malaysia* based on market valuation at a certain date. Therefore, it excluded other possible sources of disclosures such as, press news, flyers and stand-alone reports issued by these companies.

3.1 Samples

The 98 top Malaysian companies by market valuation were from the construction, consumer product, infrastructure project companies, trading/services, finance, industrial product, plantation, property and technology sectors. Twenty seven percent of these companies reviewed were from trading/services sector, follows by 21% from the finance sector, 17% from the consumer product sector and so on (Table 1).

3.2 Human capital items

The annual reports of these top companies were reviewed based on the list of 20 human capital items identified earlier. The results indicate that the disclosure practices of Malaysian top companies are low in relative to the total list of items. A total of 36 companies disclosed information on training and 31 companies reported on the development of their staff (see Table 2).

Descriptive information on training and human resource development was found to be the most disclosed in this study. Most companies reported the training programmes or activities in the annual reports. However, there was no report on training benefits are disclosed. This supports the findings from a study conducted by Huang et al. (1999) which found that human resource development such as staff training benefit is amongst the least disclosed information in the annual reports.

Information regarding employee skill, knowledge and competence was moderately mentioned in the annual reports. But, there is a lack of disclosure on information such as entrepreneurial spirit, teamwork, employee expertise, leadership, strategic relationship, etc.

Similar research was conducted in Bangladesh (Imam, 2000), one-third provided information related to health, safety and training in qualitative form. Only two companies provided information on the selection of employees. However, in Malaysia, such information is more general and no specific reference on selection of employees was disclosed in the annual reports.

Only one company has stated the term "balanced score card" which implied that this company could have employed this method to measure its human capital. Even though balanced score card is a method currently used in the west, it may not be employed by Malaysian companies.

Very few companies have disclosed human capital statistics (ratios or indicators) such as profitability per employee, sales per employee in the annual reports. Only five companies presented some HR statistics, mainly in the form of graphs.

On the whole, the disclosure of human capital or HR information is mainly qualitative in nature except for staff costs which are expensed in the income statements. Mainly discursive disclosures acknowledging the importance of staff are reported without mentioning of the returns on the investments on human capital.

3.3 Human capital disclosures by sectors

The disclosure of the above human capital items was further analyzed according to sectors (see Table 3). Out of the 20 human capital items, one from consumer product sector and the other from trading/services sector disclosed seven human capital items. One company from finance sector has disclosed six human capital items.

Out of the 98 companies, 42 companies did not disclose any human capital information or items listed. But, these companies did record their words of appreciation for their staff's dedication and efforts. Fifty three companies disclosed between one to five human capital or HR items. Though these companies did report human capital, no elaborations were found with regards to their measurements. The low disclosure implies that companies are not transparent in human capital disclosures externally.

3.4 Word count

A word count was also conducted on the above disclosures. In each annual report, sentences containing words such as "employees", "staff", "people" (related to the company) were counted to capture the volume of HR-content. As mentioned above, the disclosure on HR-related information is measured on a scale of one to five.

Table 4 summarizes the mean disclosure of HR-related information by sectors. An overall mean of 3.78 was obtained. The mean disclosure for the construction, consumer product and infrastructure project companies are at 4 and above where as the technology and property sectors' disclosure have the lowest means.

3.5 Location of disclosure of HR information

When conducting the content analysis of HR-related information, the location of such information was identified. More than 60% of the companies disclosed HR-related information in the Chairman's Statement with the main theme of thanking the employees for their contribution (see Table 5). The 'Chairman's Statement' seems to be the most important part of the annual report. Here the 'Chairman' expressed his view of the company's progress, main competitive advantages and results.

Sixteen companies disclosed human capital information in the operations review. Only 11% of the companies have a standing report on HR. They disclosed information ranging from HR processes, issues and strategies.

Table 5 reveals that the current disclosure of human capital information is found in different parts of the annual reports. It is difficult for external users to locate human capital information in the annual reports with the current reporting practice.

3.6 Staff costs

Staff costs are written off in the income statement in Malaysia. Table 6 summarizes the staff costs incurred by the top Malaysian companies by sectors. The highest staff cost incurred by the Malaysian top companies was from the trading/service sector amounted to M1.686 billion. Thirty six companies incur between RM1 to RM50 million each year on staff costs. A total of 11 companies spent more than RM400 million a year on staff costs. Three companies from trading/services and one from finance sectors, incurred between RM1, 001 to RM1, 500 million on staff costs a year.

Though Malaysian top companies on the whole spent quite a substantial amount of money on staff costs, they did not disclose information on the return on this expenditure. This could be because such expenditure is regarded as a cost rather than an investment. As most Malaysian top companies reported their training activities in their firms, the returns on such activities need further analysis. Guthrie (2001) argued that the traditional managing and reporting practices which regard of human resource development as a cost rather than an investment causes problem such as enterprises may be inclined to under-invest in training. This may contribute to recruitment and retention difficulties within the enterprise. This can also lead to an over-reliance on the public sector to support the required levels of training. Better ways of measuring and reporting human resources might therefore encourage greater private investment in education and training (Olsson, 1999; Boudreau and Ramstad, 1997; Lewis, 1997).

4. Conclusion

In general, the concept of HRCA is still distant to human resource managers in Malaysia. Much effort need to be put in to educate human resource managers on how to calculate human resource costs, values, ROI and its outcomes. If 'employee disclosure [are considered to] reflect the viewpoint that a company's continued success depend in part on its human resources' (Mueller et al p. 87, 1997), then we consider the management of these top Malaysian companies have not conveyed this message in full. The examination of the voluntary human capital reporting practices of top companies in Malaysia was found to be low. These top companies merely mentioned human capital items without elaborating on the measurement of such information as promoted by HRA or HRCA. Considerable improvement in the extent of disclosure for these top companies appears necessary to enhance transparency.

The implications of the findings, subject to the limitations of this study, are twofold. First, it appears that reliance on voluntary disclosure alone is unlikely to achieve high quality of disclosure either in the short or long term, at least not without some form of regulation or guidelines. Second, the results suggest that management may be either neglecting their most important resource or are unwilling to disclose this information. If the former is the case, this may eventually have undesirable consequences for the company such as preventing under-investments in training. The limitations of this study suggest some new directions for research. First, research into all the companies listed in KLSE would enhance the generalisability of the findings. Second, in order to demonstrate clear reporting patterns, a longitudinal study may provide further insights. Third, further study can be conducted to find out the current measurement methods employed to manage human resource in practice.

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Table 1. Samples by sectors

Sectors	Frequency	Percentage
Construction	5	5
Consumer Product	16	17
Infrastructure Project companies	6	6
Trading/Services	26	27
Finance	21	21
Industrial Product	11	11
Plantation	8	8
Property	3	3
Technology	2	2
Total	98	100

Table 2. Disclosure of human capital information

Item	Human Capital Information	Number of Companies
1	Training	36
2	Human resource development	31
3	Employee skill	24
4	Knowledge	17
5	Competence	17
6	Entrepreneurial spirit	6
7	Team work	5
8	HR statistics	5
9	Expertise	5
10	Leadership	4
11	Strategic relationship	3
12	Education	2
13	Human capital	2
14	Knowledge management	2
15	Intellectual capital	2
16	Vocation	1
17	Know how	1
18	Employee value	0
19	Expert team	0
20	Human asset	0

Table 3. Disclosure of human capital items by sectors (number of companies)

Sectors/No. of items	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Technology	1			1				
Consumer product	7	1	3	1	3			1
Industrial product	6	1	1	1	1	1		
Construction	1			2	1	1		
Trading/services	9	3	4	5	3	1		1
Finance	13	2	1	2	2		1	
Property	1			2				
Plantation	2	2	1		2	1		
Infrastructure project companies	2			2		2		
Total	42	9	10	16	12	6	1	2

Table 4. Level of disclosure (mean) by sectors

Sectors	Mean
Construction	4.20
Consumer Product	4.00
Infrastructure Project companies	4.00
Trading/Services	3.92
Finance	3.71
Industrial Product	3.64
Plantation	3.63
Property	2.67
Technology	2.50
Overall	3.78

Table 5. Location of Disclosure of HR Information

Location in the annual report	Number of companies	Percentage
Chairman's Statement	59	60.2
Operations Review	16	16.3
Standing Report on HR	11	11.2
Managing Directors' Review	5	5.1
CEO's Report	2	2.0
Non Disclosure	5	5.1
Total	98	100

Table 6. Staff costs incurred by sectors (number of companies)

Sectors/Staff costs (million)	0	1-50	51-100	101-150	151-200	201-250	251-300	301-350	351-400	>400
Technology		1					1			
Consumer product		2	4	1	4	2	1		1	1
Industrial product		4	3	2					1	1
Construction		3	2							
Trading/services		13	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	4
Finance	1	5	3	3	1	2	1	1		4
Property		3								
Plantation		2	2	1	1		1		1	
Infrastructure project companies		3	1	1						1
Total	1*	36	18	9	7	5	5	2	4	11

* One company did not disclose staff costs.



Small Fashion Boutiques and Retail Change in China

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Abstract

Although scholars and business leaders generally expect the small fashion boutique retail format to phase out in China after the China joined the WTO, it has so far remained very resilient under current retail changes. This essay investigates the characteristics of the small fashion boutique format and explicates why small fashion boutiques remain to have certain advantages over larger retail formats. Based on case studies, ethnographic observation, and in-depth interviews of successful operators, I find that small fashion boutiques excel in relational marketing and store branding. I document how small boutiques operators invest their effort in relational marketing by developing friendship with a group of core customers and supplying accurate fashion information to all customers. I also demonstrate how small fashion boutiques effectively gain store brand equity through flexible visual merchandizing and cultivating a charismatic image for the operator.

Keywords: Retail change, Fashion retailing, Store branding, Relational marketing, Fashion boutiques, Chinese fashion

1. Introduction: Are small fashion retailers in China flourishing or perishing

The Chinese apparel retailing market will become very competitive when no restrictions on the market access in equity, geographic areas, number of and form of establishment will be imposed on foreign investors after three years of China's accession into WTO. It is believed that many small domestic apparel retailing firms will be phased out from the market (Kwan, Yeung, and Au, 2003: 99).

The previous passage reflects a commonly held view on the prospects of small, individually-owned fashion retailers in China in the near future. While the view appears to make much sense on at a first glance, it is actually not tenable in the face of empirical evidence. Larger retail formats that are new to the Chinese context, including department stores, hypermarkets, or discount stores, are already diffusing from major metropolitan centers such as Shanghai and Beijing to numerous other Chinese cities. But at the same time, the small boutique format has not yet shown signs of decline. It is still a major retail format in small towns and rural areas, since larger retail formats are only beginning to find their way into economically marginal areas. As of 2008, the small fashion boutique remains to be one of the major retail formats in metropolitan Chinese cities, provincial capitals, and major hinterland cities. For instance, one of foci of urban regeneration in China is huge and centrally located underground shopping compounds that contain hundreds of small fashion stores. Some of these aggregates were built more than a decade ago, but many of them are recently developed and the number of them is still growing. Examples include those that developed around the People's Park underground station in Shanghai, those in Zhuangyuan Fang of Guangzhou, or those that span underneath the Nanping shopping district in Chongqing. In addition, the small boutique retail format is encroaching on larger retail formats through concessions and other hybrid retail formats.

Detailed and updated statistics on small fashion boutiques are not available, but we can still catch a glimpse of their significant scale through indirect sources. For example, according to an extensive census of commercial activities in Beijing in 1998, individually owned retailers represent 29% of the city's retail market turnover and employ 31% of the workers in the retail industry (Wang and Jones, 2002). Additionally, urban markets (largely made up of small retailer stalls) shared 10% of the city's retail market turnover and employ 34% of the workers in the retail industry. Another indirect evidence is that in Hong Kong, a Chinese city in which large and sophisticated fashion retailer formats have already been operating for decades, the percentage of retail establishments (among all retail establishments) that employ less than 50 employees has remained around 99.5% for the past two decades (Sun and Chew, 2005).

Why is the small fashion boutique retail format so resilient in China? Will small fashion retailers retain a significant role and market share in the future fashion retail structure of China? Are the advancement of more complex fashion retail formats and the survival of small fashion retailers mutually exclusive? No one has yet paid attention to these questions,

because the research the field focus on the newer and larger retail formats that currently dominate the retailing structures in the West (Dickson and Li, 2004; Li, Wang and Cassill, 2004; Lo, Lau, Lin, 2001). This essay will focus on the small boutique retail format and provide an empirical basis that will help answer the previous questions.

The current resilience of the small fashion boutique format in urban China hints that it is perhaps not as primitive and weak as it appears. Although they may be uncompetitive in certain ways, I will show that they possess certain advantage over larger retail formats in the context of Chinese retailing. I identify two of these strengths in this essay: relational marketing and store branding. I will analyze how small fashion retailers in China make use of the special characteristics of the small fashion boutiques format to capitalize on these two aspects of marketing operation.

2. Methods and data

Quantitative statistics on small fashion retailers in China are seriously lacking. A significant minority of them are not registered businesses. Even the most basic aggregate figures about them — the total number of them in the nation or in individual cities — remains unavailable. Furthermore, because of the predominance of cash transactions, it is difficult to obtain the sales turnover and profit figures for these retailers with accuracy. I collected data on small fashion retailers through case studies, ethnographic observation, and multiple in-depth interviews of operators of small boutiques. My interviews are open-ended, including all major issue in fashion retail management, buying and merchandizing, inventory management, shop floor and staff management, accounting and finance, visual merchandizing, marketing and customer relations, and branding. All the small fashion boutiques from which my data derive focus on trendy apparel products for young women.

Data of the research were mostly collected in the years 2002 and 2006. The locations of data collection include Shanghai, Wuhan, Beijing, Chongqing, Changsha, and Guangzhou. I conducted detailed case analysis of two small boutiques — one in Shanghai and another in Wuhan — through many hours of participant observation at their store and long conversations with their owners and customers. I was also given comprehensive information on eight small boutiques (three in Shanghai, two in Wuhan, and one in Guangzhou, Chongqing, and Changsha respectively) in the course of advising the owners on the boutiques' set-up, operations, and management. Additionally, I have interviewed around thirty other small fashion store owners in the course of my fieldwork.

3. The strengths of small fashion boutiques

Although small fashion retailers cannot afford to have specialized marketing staff or a budget for mass media advertisements, their small size put them in a position to develop relational marketing with their customers much more thoroughly and deeply than large fashion retailers (Marzo-Navarro, Pedraja-Iglesias, and Rivera-Torres, 2004). Moreover, although most small fashion retailers neither have the budget nor conscious plans for store branding, the more successful among them cultivate store brands that become well known among fashion consumers in their home city.

3.1 Relational marketing

None of my retailer informants have heard of the term 'relational marketing', but many of them are utilizing relational marketing tactics to build and retain their customer base. Since small fashion boutiques are mostly run by one or two persons (including the owner), the relationship between the business and customers is very direct. There is a high degree of flexibility afforded by this unmediated relationship. For example, when a new walk-in customer is identified as having good consumption potentials, the owner often immediately tries to befriend the customer. She may invite the customer to coffee at a nearby café or a night-out to bars. Customer loyalty is easier to cultivate when the owner directly and personally deal with customers. The small scale of the store and the directness of the salesperson-customer relationship obviate the numerous costly tactics devised by marketing experts to cultivate customer relations. Without the mediation of multiple levels of management and salespersons, the relationship between retail business owner and customers also tends to be less power-ridden (Szmigin, 2003: 9-29).

Not all small fashion retailers pay an equal amount of attention to cultivating customer relations. Some owners of small fashion boutiques prefer to focus on providing good products and low prices in order to attract customers. But many of the profitable and successful small fashion retailers consciously make use of the relational marketing advantages of the small store format to allure customers. As two of my informants put it, they are "selling [them]selves, not merely the apparel items." These small retailers typically maintain a close relationship with between 50 and 300 core customers. There are various ways through which such a core customer base is built and maintained. I have described how the store owners would personally approach walk-in customers. They may also reach out to their own friends and customers' friends. They would keep a contact book that records core customers' phone numbers. They would call up the customers when a new shipment of inventory arrives, while customers would often call to make sure the owner is personally at the store (instead of having nobody but a hired salesperson in the store) before they visit. They set up an email groups to periodically contact with and advertise to the core customer base. Despite the small size of these boutiques, it is quite common to find a large sofa inside the stores. They provide the atmosphere in which

fashionable people can hang out and chat with the owner in the store.

After a chat and a smoke [in the store], a customer who was not originally planning to buy would often buy something before she leaves. She might have stopped by the store simply because she was going to have dinner in a nearby restaurant.

The more aggressive cultivators of customer relationship would arrange regular dinners and night outs with customers. I participated in many of these gatherings. Some owners treat the core customers as close friends, or at least as close party friends. Many small fashion store owners are fashion aficionados themselves, and they truly love to make friends with the boutiques' fashionable customers and hang out with them at fashionable public places.

Trust and loyalty cannot be completely established through cultivating friendships, however. Satisfaction of customers' demand is equally important. In this respect, the small fashion store also has an advantage over the larger retail formats in the context of contemporary China. The Chinese began to pursue global fashion trends as early as the 1980s. But because of state control of mass media and language differences, global fashion information (together with all global information) is still not abundantly accessible to the average urban Chinese. Advertising for global fashion is still not commonly seen except in several of the most globalized Chinese cities. Global fashion information is also often accessed through indirect sources such as magazines, television shows, or websites from Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea. Small fashion boutique owners can provide vital informational services to their customers in this context of fashion informational deficit. Compared to specialty fashion stores, department stores, large fashion chains, and other retail formats, small fashion retailers can inform customers personally and effectively on global fashion trends. Moreover, the information they supply is more likely to be truthful and less likely than large stores to be biased by the need to promote particular brands. Because the buyer of a small fashion retailer is most likely the owner herself, the inventory that the store carries reflects the owners fashion tastes and beliefs. The information communicated to their customers is not usually affected by preordained marketing plans or sales strategy.

3.2 Store branding

Retail branding (and particularly retail branding in the fashion retail sector) is one of the most important recent developments in the retail industries of the US and Europe (Birtwistle and Freathy, 1998; Wileman and Jary, 1997). Having limited resources, few small fashion retailers in China are able to engage in the investment-heavy components of store branding such as the development of own-brand products. Despite that, small fashion retailers in China are not very dissimilar from other retailers around the world in pursuing the strategy of developing the store as brand (Smith, 2000). I discuss two of the commonly employed ways through which small fashion retailers in China develop their boutiques as brands: building store brand equity through the character of the store owner and communicating store identity through store interior design and visual merchandizing.

Small fashion retailers in China do not directly promote the name of their store; the lack of own-brand products seriously handicaps this strategy. There are a few extraordinarily successful small fashion retailers that are able to have their stores' name branded and diffused throughout their home cities' fashionable crowds. *Mogui Tianshi* Boutique in Shanghai and *Qingxi Jinsheng* Boutique in Wuhan were good representatives of this class a few years ago. Most other small fashion retailers do not adopt this route. Instead, they heavily rely on the personal actions of the boutique owner to build a distinctive image and identity.

The relational marketing efforts of small retailers are highly conducive to this route to store branding. As I have previously mentioned, owners of successful small fashion boutiques consciously understand that they are 'selling themselves' to customers in addition to selling fashion products. These boutique owners strive to market themselves to customers as a charismatic and trendily dressed figure, a helpful and informative fashion guide, and a resourceful socialite around with which beautiful people of the city mingle. These attractive qualities of the owner can to a significant extent be transposed to the store brand. For example, I observe that some core customers of small fashion retailers affectionately address some store owners by their store's name instead of their personal name, even though the usual Chinese practice is to address an acquaintance by their personal names. Another piece of evidence is that customers often emphasize that hanging out in the fashionable small boutiques is a unique fashion experience.

It is exciting to be in here, because it's a rendezvous of fashionable people of the city. [...] Through the owner, I learn many things [about fashion], I get to meet trendy new friends, and I participate in this glamorous community. The atmosphere here is so much different from department stores, though I sometime shop at department stores at times for the bigger brandnames they carry. [...] I admit I get intimidated occasionally — by the boutique's very stylish atmosphere, the scrutiny of what I am wearing, the competition.

Such experiences are not very dissimilar to those experienced by customers of department stores in early-20th century Paris. The self-marketing efforts of small fashion store owners create store brand equity. If successful, they compose a considerable part of the price tag of garments sold. A successful operator explains that:

Sometimes, there are identical items being sold in nearby stores and department stores' counters. But I price them

significantly above these neighbors anyways. I can count on customers to pay more for the additional value that I [as a charismatic, informative, and socially resourceful store owner] am capable of delivering.

Small fashion boutiques in China show strengths in visual merchandizing and store interior design, two of the main variables that generate store identity (Kent, 2003). Small fashion boutiques show great differences in their market self-positioning through choices of inventory, degree of fashionability, and store locations. The most upscale and trendy among them would invest in visual merchandizing and store interior design. Store exterior design is constrained by the fact that small fashion boutiques in China are usually located in densely packed malls, with no individual architectural structure and with window display as the only alterable and workable element of the boutique's exterior.

Nonetheless, small fashion retailers enjoy a considerable degree of flexibility in visual merchandizing. Most often, visual merchandizing for small retailers involve not much more than dressing up mannequins with the stores' current inventory in creative ways. Unlike specialty store chains, department stores, and other large retailers, there is no specialized staff to do visual merchandizing work. The small fashion boutique owner is usually responsible for this type of work, though some owners would ask for inputs from core customers and friends. At the same time, visual merchandizing in small boutiques faces fewer constraints than that in larger retail formats. For example, in contrast to specialty brand stores, small boutiques are free to mix and match a wide variety of brands to achieve the best aesthetic result. In contrast to department stores and chains, small boutiques do not have to compromise to mainstream tastes and standardization considerations (across geographic areas) in the design of window display. As a result, it is very common to hear trendy fashion customers claim that an item that is displayed in a department store is often less stylishly rendered than the identical item being displayed in small fashion boutiques. The capacity for boldness and fashionability in visual merchandizing is general higher for small boutiques, even though not every small boutique owner is able to take advantage of it. Another advantage of the small fashion boutique is that because their visual merchandizing work is done by someone who routinely deals with customers on the shop floor, the work can be very responsive to rapidly changing fashion tastes.

The interior design of the majority of small fashion stores in China is nothing more than the functional basics. The average sizes are between 10 to 20 square meters, with variation among different cities. But even with such a small amount of space (and a small budget) to work with, a notable minority of small fashion boutiques shows an outstanding capacity in building store identity through interior design. Similar to the case of visual merchandizing, small fashion boutiques enjoy a high degree of flexibility in designing their interiors. The design can be as bold as their owners wish. For example, one of the small stores that I advised uses pink color on almost every interior feature. Their interior designs are seldom luxurious due to budgetary constraints, but they could be stylish nonetheless. For example, using white and black floor tiles do not significantly increase a store's overhead, but it generates a more stylish effect than the average brandname concession counters in department stores. Other examples of affordable yet stylish design features include draperies on the walls or minimalist concrete floors and walls. In every mall filled with small fashion boutiques, it is possible to find a few that have very bold, stylish, and unique interior designs.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The previously discussed resilient features of small fashion retailers in China could well make it possible for them to survive the competition brought by WTO and the corporatization of local fashion retailing. Their comparative advantages in marketing will not easily dissipate. Large-scale retail format may of course install new relational marketing programs or improve their existing ones, but that can only shorten the gap between themselves and the successful small retailers. Low overhead cost will keep attracting small investors to founding new boutiques, even if these stores are not highly profitable. Store branding and visual merchandizing will always remain more flexible in small fashion stores than department stores and specialty chains.

On the theoretical level, we may interpret small fashion boutiques in China in terms of symbiotic theories of retail structural change rather than assuming that they will be driven out of business out by more 'advanced' retail formats. While Darwinist theories are suitable for explaining the competition of firms of the same format, symbiotic theories are particularly useful in explaining competition between different types of retail formats (Miller, Reardon, and McCorkle, 1999). It is entirely possible that small fashion boutiques in China will exist in a mutually beneficial relationship with larger fashion retailers. For example, the majority of aggregates of small fashion retailers are in fact located next to major department stores. This setup structurally resembles the American suburban mall format in which a department store works as an anchor and smaller retail stores fill up the rest of the mall space. Furthermore, the fashion products sold at small boutiques in China are often complementary to what are carried or what can legally be carried in specialty chains and department stores. For instance, small retailers would carry the very trendy non-brandname items and 'inspired' items produced by the enormous number of small garment factories in Guangdong province, whereas the larger retailers carry national and global brands.

Another theoretical approach to interpreting the resilience of small fashion boutiques in China is the dialectic theory of retail change (Maronick and Walker, 1974). Through a dialectic process, competing retail formats may take on

characteristics of each other and yield hybrid new formats. Small fashion retailers in China are aggregated in fashion malls that specifically cater to them. Larger retailers such as specialty chains are not commonly found in these malls. In these cases, small fashion boutiques are to some extent internalizing elements of the modern mall format. At the same time, in a small number of department stores, modern malls, and hypermarkets in China, shop floor space is occupied by small fashion boutiques through concession arrangements. These cases demonstrate how small fashion retailers may encroach on the more complex retail formats and alter them.

A limitation of this study is that my analysis is based largely on cases of small fashion retailer that sell fashionable apparel products instead of non-trendy, primarily functional apparel products (such as thermal wear). The prospects of small retailers that specialize in non-fashion apparel products are generally not as good as the small fashion boutique. They will likely be phased out more easily and more completely by larger retail formats. They will also face a larger number of competitors than small fashion boutiques. For example, because hypermarkets carry non-trendy apparel products much more than fashion apparel, they represent a major threat to small retailers of non-trendy apparel products. Moreover, certain potential advantages of the smaller fashion boutiques, such as the flexibility to be bold in visual merchandizing, are not fully utilizable by small retailers that do not target trendy fashion consumers. Nonetheless, this limitation does not undermine my arguments of where the strengths of small retailers of fashion-wear are. Trendy small fashion boutiques will have a good chance of thriving in the foreseeable future in China's fashion retail structure. Global fashion retailers who wish to enter the China market may want to recognize small local boutiques as a meaningful competitor as well as develop a pragmatic symbiotic relationship with them.

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On the Financial Support for the Development of National Defense Science & Technology Industry

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Abstract

The reform and development of national defense science & technology industry have to depend on the powerful financial support. Emphasize on national defense science & technology industry's financial support. Build up a stable national capital-increasing mechanism. Develop venture investments and collect venture capitals. Open more fields for investments. Follow a multiple financial way.

Keywords: Science & technology industry, Financial support

The lagged-behind theoretical researches and practices on the national defense science & technology industry's financial support have already restrained the reform and development of national defense science & technology industry. To strengthen theoretical researches on national defense science & technology industry's financial support is an inevitable issue to reform and develop China's national defense science & technology industry under the background of market economy and globalization.

1. Financial support is an important drive for the development of national defense science & technology industry

Modern economic development proves that national defense science & technology industry is a high-tech industry on one hand. On the other hand, it is a typical capital-intensive industry. The market barrier is relatively higher. Its foundation and development must have certain capital base. In China, at present in the military industry field a high-tech industrial cluster comes into being, which is an important part of China's high-tech industry. Behind the high-tech industry it is the finance that provides with support. In recent years, the financial support has already input powerful energy into the development of high-tech industry, forming a unity of science & technology, finance, and industry. The financial support has already become the key element for the development of high-tech industry. According to Marx's theories of "the first impetus" and "the sustainable impetus", the finance, similar to science & technology, is the first impetus for economic development. It can release great power to drive the economic development by combining with science & technology together. Finance and science & technology can exert unimaginable driving effect on the development of national defense science & technology industry.

Along with the establishment of social market economic system reform and the implementation of reform and open policy, the national economic environment and the operation mechanism have already experienced fundamental changes. However, so far the capitals for the development of China's national defense science & technology industry are chiefly from national financial investment. This government-dominated financial system has kind of history limits, which undoubtedly becomes a serious "bottle-neck" for the development of national defense science & technology industry. Problems focus on three aspects. The first is the only capital resource. The national defense science & technology industry's scientific research and production capitals are chiefly from the government investment. However, the government's investment in national defense scientific research and production field is limited, which restrains the amount of capitals possessed by national defense science & technology industry. Secondly, the investment fluctuates heavily. Government's recognition toward world situation determines the amount of investment to a great degree. An optimistic recognition will bring about a sharp decrease of investment in national defense science & technology industry, and a pessimistic recognition a fast increase. The big fluctuation conflicts with the stable development of national defense science & technology industry. The third is the uncertainty of capital resource, what will affect enterprises' expectation for the future and restrains its long-term development.

Entering the 21st century, most influencing countries in the world expedite their investment in national defense scientific research. The proportion of national defense scientific research expense to the total national defense expense tends to increasing annually. Every country puts the development of high-tech weapons and equipments at a primary position. According to data in China national defense white paper, the proportion of China's investment in national

defense scientific research is merely about one second or one third of developed countries'. Even with the limited investment in national defense, most are used for the maintenance of common equipments, and less for new scientific research. Apparently, as a kind of special public goods, national defense science & technology industry needs government's investment. Especially for the high-tech national defense field that is impossible to be commercialized, the government must guarantee its investment. However, the government investment is far from sufficient in order to achieve the modernization of national defense science & technology industry and its leading trend. Modern financial system should provide with material support for the national defense science & technology industry. Therefore, it is necessary to construct a modern financial system in which the government financial investment provides with directives, the private investment is the main body, the foreign investment is the assistance, and the policy financial investment is the complement. This financial system can support the development of national defense science & technology industry by exploring new capital resources for the national defense science & technology industry.

2. The directions and emphases of financial support for the development of national defense science & technology industry

In the strategic aspect, the emphases of financial support for the development of modern national defense science & technology industry should include:

The first is the core industry, or the military equipment. This industry focuses on the research, production, and marketing of weapon equipment, including nuke, military planets, spaceflight carriers, military planes, naval vessels, army weapons, and military electrics, what is the foundation of national defense science & technology industry.

The second is the dominant industry that has prominent military features and is controlled by the Commission of Science Technology and Industry for National Defense. It includes five branches, namely civil use of nuclear energy, civil spaceflight, civil planes, civil ships, and civil explosive materials. These five branches have priorities in the development of national defense science & technology industry, what can drive the development of national economy. According to the history of industrial development in industrialized countries, military branches can significantly drive the industrial upgrade of national economy. In some developed countries, civil use of nuclear energy, civil spaceflight, civil plane industry, civil ship industry, and electric and information industry have already become the backbone and dominant industries. For these industries, although it is relatively easier to make best use of the market finance and the private investment under the condition of market economy, the government does exert its positive effect on the financial support for the national defense's high-tech dominant industry. Especially under the background of imperfect financial market and limited private capitals in China, the government should enhance its support for the national defense's high-tech dominant industry instead of decreasing its investment.

The third is the superior civil product industry. Because of the transformation from military production to civil production, products in this industry usually occupy significant market shares in other industries of the national economy, including automobiles, motors and parts, photoelectric information products, environmental protection products, machines and equipments, new materials, medicines and medical equipments. For this industry, the proper way is to combine military production with civil production and adopt the modern property right system, taking the market need as the directive, the industrialization as the goal, the commercialized operation as the way, turning the mature technologies used in military field and civil field into commercialization, industrialization, and marketization, speeding up the development of civil products. Along with the transfer of advanced civil technologies to civil uses, financial institutions should not only provide with stable and sustainable capitals for scientific research, but also allocate capitals property, making up different strategies for different industries in capital uses, exerting the general function of bank capitals completely. Only by this way, can financial institutions exert their effects as the modern economic core, realizing the lever function of driving the development of national defense's superior civil product industry.

3. Suggestions for countermeasures to enhance financial support

For a long time, the national defense science & technology industry is controlled by the state. The national finance investment and banks' special credit loans constitute the main capital resources of national defense science & technology industry. The only investment subject can not provide with powerful financial support for the development of national defense science & technology industry. Therefore, we should meet the requirements of reform and open policy and the trend of economic globalization. Open the investment fields of national defense science & technology industry. Attract sorts of social capitals widely, including foreign capitals. It is a must to constitute a multiple investment structure for the development of national defense science & technology industry.

Firstly, build up a stable national capital-increasing mechanism. The first is to set up a "proper proportion" of government investment for the construction of national defense science & technology industry. The "proper proportion" can guarantee the increase of expenses in national defense science & technology industry along with the increase of national economy. The government should increase its financial investment in the national defense science & technology industry properly, which can guarantee its sustainable development to a great degree. According to the law

of world development and the successful experiences of other countries, and taking sorts of factors into consideration, the “proper proportion” should be lightly larger than practical needs with the precondition of ensuring national safety. The second is to build up long-term relationship with credit banks. Obtain middle or long-term low-interest loans. Develop capital market. Set up scientific research fund. Increase the proportion of science & technology loans. Create venture investment firms. Take best use of foreign capitals and increase capital investment. The third is the state’s indirect adjustment and control. Use economic lever and economic policy directives to guide financial institutions’ investment amounts and structure, driving the structural adjustment of national defense industry. Under present condition of tight financial capitals, the government should encourage banks to provide with loans for the national defense science & technology industry as much as possible. The fourth is to emphasize on the guidance and openness of national defense science & technology industry’s development program in order to guide the social investment activities.

Secondly, develop venture investment and collect venture capitals. Encourage all investment subjects at home and abroad to set up venture investment institutions, venture investment companies, and venture investment management firms. At present, there are 800-1200 venture investment firms in western countries. The total capitals are about 12-16 billion dollars or so. Venture investment is also named as “partners of high-tech exploration”, “motives of the fourth industrial revolution”, and “investment for the future”. It has already become a guiding support for high-tech enterprises and an important complement for high-tech capital extension. Facts prove that combining new innovations, new inventions, and venture capitals is a practical way to develop high technology. Although 80 percent of venture investment may fail at last, it is a powerful way to achieve high-tech product research & development. Among few successful cases, people not only take back all investments, but also obtain enormous and great social economic benefits. Any other investments can not realize this effect. According to practices at home and abroad, this investment organization and operation can integrate venture capitals, investment institutions, and high-tech enterprises properly, realizing a rational allocation of investment risks and profits in all investment subjects. By this way, it can provide with powerful support for the development of high-tech industry. The national defense science & technology industry should explore the mode of constructing a normal venture investment organization. The first is to make institutions become the controlling shareholders of venture investment organization. Institutions, as investors, have large amounts of capitals, rich human resources, and advanced management methods. Besides, the property right system and governance structure are in accord with the rules of market economy. Institutions holding most shares and participating into the decision and management can help venture investment organizations to exert their supposed effects completely. The second is to regulate venture investment organizations’ behaviors. Venture investment organizations should be independent economic bodies. Their operations are based on the law of market economy and international principles. They participate into the capital finance and market competition with fairness and justness. They should not disobey laws and regulations, or hurt the interests of investors and the right of competitors in purpose. The third is to make up relevant policies, laws, taxes, and conditions for loans. By this way, the government can drive the construction of venture investment companies. To perfect the legal system for the financial support of the national defense science & technology industry should begin with the transformation of venture investment subjects. Define the legal forms of venture investment subjects clearly and protect the property right of founders undoubtedly.

Thirdly, open the investment fields of national defense science & technology industry and follow a multiple financial way. The first is to make full use of capital market and develop direct financial completely. Encourage high-tech enterprises to list in main board market and growth enterprises market and achieve finance in capital security market. Enlarge the stock size of listed companies and improve their profitability. Guide listed companies to finance from key projects. Encourage superior industry enterprises to purchase and merge listed companies, strengthen capital operations, and achieve a fast extension in virtue of capital market. The second is to attract private capitals. Create a favorable environment for private capitals entering the national defense science & technology industry. Encourage and guide private capitals, especially carve-out (venture) investment funds at home and abroad, to participate into the exploration of national defense science & technology industry and the reform of traditional industry. The third is to improve the size, quality, and effect of foreign capitals in this field. China is still at the socialism initial stage. The social resources available for national defense science & technology industry are far less than practical needs in quality and quantity. To introduce and use foreign resources can effectively make up this shortage. Therefore, it is necessary to make use of foreign capitals. With precondition of obeying the principle of protecting secrecies, the national defense science & technology industry can open some fields, such as these enterprises that produce common military equipment products or do not produce military products any more, to certain degree. Foreign capitals can enter the military and civil high-tech industries that open to the society by means of joint venture, cooperation, stock system, and participation into venture investment.

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Peasants Should Enjoy Equal Social Security Right with Urban Dwellers

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Abstract

According to the Constitution of the People's Republic of China and the effective conventions therein, every citizen should enjoy equal right of social security. But in reality, a peasant has much less such right than an urban dweller, only because of their different *hukou*. Peasants, as part of the investors of state-owned property, should have the rights of owners and enjoy the benefits from their assets; the existing binary social frame which limits the rights of peasants baffles China's progress into a market economy and founding of a harmonious social society. Therefore, establishing a uniform system of security right that authorizes all citizens to enjoy it equally is one of China's urgent tasks.

Keywords: Social security right, Equal, Peasant, Urban dweller

Foreword

The social security system as a national system or social policy, refers to the institution that in accordance with legislation, state and society give a certain amount of material assistance and social services to members of the whole society in their old age, disability, illness, unemployment or suffering of natural disasters, accidents, and other difficulties, thereby guarantee their basic living and thus maintain social stability.

On the basis of the existing binary social structure in China, disparate social security mechanisms have been uniquely formed for peasants who are holding agricultural *hukou*, and urban dwellers with non-agricultural *hukou*. Up to now, the urban population has been able to enjoy comparatively perfect social security right including old-age insurance, medical insurance, unemployment insurance, housing provident fund, while what social security peasants can enjoy is much less. In reality, the gap between urban dwellers and peasants in social benefits can be mainly listed as follows: firstly, retirement treatment is universally enjoyed by the urban dwellers, but peasants are generally excluded from retirement even if they had jobs unrelated to farming. Secondly, a very small proportion of peasants can enjoy basic old-age pensions: as Ministry of Labor and Social Security (MLSS) & National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) claimed (2007), at the end of 2006, the number of people with non-agricultural *hukou* participated in the basic old-age insurance in China was 187.66 million; in contrast, the number of participated peasants was only 53.74 million, less than 1/3 of the urban number. In addition, the standard of urban basic old-age insurance and that of rural old-age insurance differentiate greatly: in the fiscal year 2006, a total of RMB 489.7 billion basic old-age insurance fund was spent on urban dwellers, while the money spent on peasants was only RMB 3 billion, less than 1/163 of that spent on urban dwellers. Considering the fact that there are more peasants than urban dwellers in the country, the disparity is staggering: at the end of 2006, the country's population was 1.31448 billion, of which 577.06 million was urban dwellers, 737.42 million was peasants, which made 56.1% of the total (NBS, 2007). Thirdly, benefits of social securities such as unemployment insurance, medical insurance, work-related injury insurance, maternity insurance and minimum life security, are still generally the exclusive rights of the urban dwellers.

1. From the perspective of law, peasants should have social security right equal to urban dwellers

Despite the astonishing disparity between the social security rights of peasants and urban dwellers in China, there is no legal foundation for this phenomenon in the statute resources therein in the hierarchy above the level of law enacted by the National People's Congress (NPC) and its standing committee.

The Constitution of the People's Republic of China stipulates the protection of social security right mainly in the following six articles:

Paragraph 4 of Article 14: 'The state shall establish and improve the social security system according to the level of its economic development.' (Note 1)

Paragraph 2, 3 of Article 33: 'All citizens of the People's Republic of China are equal before the law. The State respects and preserves human rights.'

Paragraph 2 of Article 42: 'Through various channels, the State creates conditions for employment, enhances occupational safety and health, improves working conditions and, on the basis of expanded production, increases remuneration for work and welfare benefits.'

Article 43: 'Working people in the People's Republic of China have the right to rest.

The State expands facilities for the rest and recuperation of the working people and prescribes working hours and vacations for workers and staff.'

Article 44: 'The State applies the system of retirement for workers and staff members of enterprises and institutions and for functionaries of organs of State according to law. The livelihood of retired persons is ensured by the State and society.'

Paragraph 1 of Article 45: Citizens of the People's Republic of China have the right to material assistance from the State and society when they are old, ill or disabled. The State develops social insurance, social relief and medical and health services that are required for citizens to enjoy this right.'

The anterior four provisions and the final one are applicable to all citizens, which embodies that the Constitution protects the social security right of all citizens equally. Article 44 on the retirement provisions is applicable to members of enterprises, institutions and State organs, without mention of agricultural or non-agricultural *hukou*. The former agricultural economic cooperation can also be interpreted as a form of business organization; in the current society, with the diversification of enterprises and organizations, a large number of peasants work in state-owned, collective and private enterprises or organizations, and even in the State organs, therefore, they should also enjoy retirement rights according to the Constitution. The practice that not granting the same right to retirement and post-retirement security rights to the peasants in the same organizations as to the urban dwellers is a violation to the provisions of the Constitution, especially that of Article 44. (Note 2)

According to China's Legislation Law, the social security system including social insurance should be stipulated by relevant law passed by the NPC and its standing committee. Social security system about the basic living guarantee of all citizens in their own country is an indispensable part of the basic economic system of a society. According to the provisions of Article 8 of China's Legislation Law, basic economic system and deprivation of citizen's political rights shall only be governed by law and cannot be regulated by administrative regulations. However, China currently has no law specializing in social security; (Note 3) and because of this, China's Labor Law and Labor Contract Law relating closely to the social security, can not be implemented in a wide range, which will be discussed later.

Regulations on Household Registration of P. R. China issued in 1958 is among the main legal resources of the binary *hukou* system enacted to control migration across different areas and between rural and urban regions of the country for the former planned economy. Overstepping into the scope of matters that must be governed by law, it is an administrative regulation below the law level in the hierarchy, contrary to the Constitution, and has suspicious validity as an outdated residual of planned economy, liability to be denounced in this modern world of market economy; so do other existing administrative regulations and local decrees dictating the disparities in social security rights between the two group of people with different *hukou* but of the same races, ethnic groups, and with similar religions.

Per international law, China should also give equal social security right to all citizens. Article 13 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted and proclaimed by the General Assembly on December 10, 1948 stipulates that, 'Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.' (Note 4) In 1966, the General Assembly adopted International Covenant on Civil and the Political Rights and International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights, which, together with the Universal Declaration, are known as the 'International Bill of Human Rights'. The former Covenant was signed by the Government of P. R. China in 1998, but has not been approved by the Standing Committee of National People's Congress so far. The latter one, signed in 1997 and ratified in 2001, is already binding on China according to the international practice 'Covenants and treaties must be complied with.'

The articles of International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights concerning the social security right can be mainly listed as below:

Article 4: 'The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize that, in the enjoyment of those rights provided by the State in conformity with the present Covenant, the State may subject such rights only to such limitations as are determined by law only in so far as this may be compatible with the nature of these rights and solely for the purpose of promoting the general welfare in a democratic society.'

Article 6: 'the States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right to work, which includes the right of everyone to the opportunity to gain his living by work which he freely chooses or accepts, and will take appropriate steps to safeguard this right. The steps to be taken by a State Party to the present Covenant to achieve the full realization of this right shall include technical and vocational guidance and training programs, policies and techniques to achieve steady economic, social and cultural development and full and productive employment under conditions safeguarding fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual.'

Article 7: 'The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of just and favorable conditions of work which ensure, in particular: (a) Remuneration which provides all workers, as a minimum, with: (i) Fair wages and equal remuneration for work of equal value without distinction of any kind, in particular women being guaranteed conditions of work not inferior to those enjoyed by men, with equal pay for equal work; (ii) A decent living for themselves and their families in accordance with the provisions of the present Covenant; (b) Safe and healthy working conditions; (c) Equal opportunity for everyone to be promoted in his employment to an appropriate higher level, subject to no considerations other than those of seniority and competence; (d) Rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay, as well as remuneration for public holidays.'

Article 9: 'The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to social security, including social insurance.'

Article 12: The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health. The steps to be taken by the States Parties to the present Covenant to achieve the full realization of this right shall include those necessary for: ... The creation of conditions which would assure to all medical service and medical attention in the event of sickness.'

The different mechanisms of social security right for peasants and urban dwellers in China are in essence restrictions to peasants' social security right, which is contrary to the nature of the right as a basic human right for living. Such restrictions based on *hukou* have resulted in disparities between peasants and urban dwellers in living conditions, social status, and many other aspects. For example, employment opportunities are differentiated hugely by the binary *hukou* system: recruitment in every city or town has *hukou* restrictions, which usually request native non-agricultural *hukou*, and sometimes in Beijing even non-agricultural *hukou* in the eight urban districts of the city; in many enterprises, although there is no expressly distinct regulation on occupation and remuneration for peasants and urban dwellers, peasants are actually much more likely to do more arduous work with lower wage even in the same positions as the urban dwellers; it is common for peasant workers to get less income, work longer, be dismissed easier, lacking of protection for employee's right. These disparities, which are not reflected in the level of the protection standard of basic living, but in the different treatments to peasants and urban dwellers, demonstrate that the institutions and practice in China do not satisfy the requirements of International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights.

Although International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights states in paragraph 1 of Article 2 that 'Each State Party to the present Covenant undertakes to take steps, individually and through international assistance and co-operation, especially economic and technical, to the maximum of its available resources, with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of the rights recognized in the present Covenant by all appropriate means, including particularly the adoption of legislative measures.' it should be considering the difficulties States Parties may face due to resource constraints. 'achieving progressively' can only be understood as gradually achieving higher level of the rights stipulated, not as progressively expanding the scope of benefited people from different walks of life, or with different *hukou*, because paragraph 2 of the same article reads, 'The States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to guarantee that the rights enunciated in the present Covenant will be exercised without discrimination of any kind as to race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.' Therefore, China's different social security systems for peasants and urban dwellers do show the gap between China's performance of the Covenant and its obligations under the Covenant.

2. From the perspective of jurisprudence, peasants should have social security right equal to urban dwellers

It is common knowledge of Chinese history that the Communist Party first succeeded in rural areas, following a route called 'encircle the cities from the rural areas and finally seize the cities'. From the Autumn Harvest Uprising to the establishment of a Soviet power, from the Fifth Anti-Encirclement with about only 30,000 people to the re-emergence and development in Yan'an after the Long March, from the Sino-Japanese War to Chinese Civil War, the Communist Party benefited significantly from the support of peasants in every event. Mao, Zedong and Deng, Xiaoping and many other Communist leaders said on various occasions that without the support of peasants in the fighting front and the rear of the Civil War, it was absolutely impossible for the Communist Party to defeat the Kuomintang army of 8 million in only three years; and the contributions of peasants to the establishment of the People's Republic of China were prominent.

Moreover, peasants made significant contributions in the construction of P. R. China. To accelerate industrialization in the early years of the new government, huge amount of capital was transferred from the agricultural sector to the industrial sector, from rural area to urban area, by obtaining funds from peasants for industrial capital accumulation through a deep government intervention that set large 'price scissors' between agricultural products and industrial products with the support of the People's Commune system. Professor Zhong, Wei, a researcher at the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences pointed out in 2003 that the annual loss of funds of rural area in China was as much as 240 billion per year: first, with the agricultural tax about 210 billion per year, governmental financial support for agriculture about 80 billion per year, the annual net capital transfer from peasants to the Government was 130 billion; second, more stringent lending policies were implemented to peasants, individual industrial or commercial households and rural township enterprises in rural areas than

to state-owned enterprises, which resulted in an average annual savings funds of about 80 billion flowed from rural area to urban area; third, the prices of agricultural products continued to decline in comparison with the inflation, which made peasants lose approximately 30 billion per year.

Chinese peasants are the largest investor of state-owned assets, but they cannot fully enjoy the rights of investor. From 1953 to 1995, 60% of the state-owned assets in China were obtained from peasants. In the period of State monopoly for purchase and marketing of agricultural products from 1953 to 1985, the 'price scissors' took 600 to 800 billion from peasants for the industrialization (Chen, 2003). Therefore, peasants are the owner of the state-owned assets together with urban dwellers. However, peasants have not enjoyed a proper share of the profits of state-owned assets after they bear the obligations as investors.

On October 14, 2003, the third plenary meeting of the 16th Central Committee of Communist Party of China (CPC) passed the Decision of the CPC Central Committee on Improving the Socialist Market Economic System, claiming to expand the coverage of basic medical insurance system, to perfect the social medical aid and multi-level medical security system, to adopt a variety of ways, including transferring some state-owned assets to enrich the fund for social security, and to explore the establishment of minimum livelihood protection system in some suitable rural areas. But at the same time, the Decision affirmed that the rural old-age security should be family-based, with the combination of relief from the community and the state. Here, it decided to enrich the social security fund with the profits of state-owned assets on the one hand, and excluded peasants from the beneficiaries of state-owned assets by and large on the other hand, regardless of the fact that the peasants are the owners of the state-owned assets. It should be admitted that the provisions of the establishment of the minimum livelihood guarantee system in rural areas and the combination of rural old-age security with the national relief can be considered remedies for such unfair treatment to some extent, which indicate that the policy-makers of China have a good understanding of the ideal state of social security system, however, they are a bit too conservative in practices and have not made appropriate and sufficient arrangements, since as a relief, its intensity and effect will clearly be terribly limited. Today, it still merits to be a piece of good news in newspapers and websites to start a plan in which peasants can enjoy governmental medical subsidies of an average of RMB 190 per year per person since July 1, 2008 in Xiamen, where the economy and society is relatively well developed in China.

From the perspective of jurisprudence, the total volumes of the rights and the obligations of a society are equivalent (Zhang, 2004, 100). The distribution of rights and obligations should also be symmetrical and balanced: No rights without obligations; no obligations without rights. Investors are owners of the properties; and property owners are entitled the rights to possess, to use, to profit from and to dispose of the property. Peasants are the owners of the state-owned assets, same as, and even more reasonable than the urban dwellers, so, since the income from State-owned assets is a major source of funds for Social Security, peasants, for their great share of contribution to State-owned assets, are fully qualified to enjoy the same social security right as urban dwellers do. (Note 5)

3. From the perspective of actual needs, market economy and social development demand that all citizens enjoy equal social security right

First, the binary social security system which is different for peasants and urban dwellers is an obstruction to the development of market economy.

The free flow of labor is a prerequisite for market economy, which demands to allocate all sorts of resources including human resources according to the needs of the market. Then the transfer of a planned economy into a market economy is also the transfer of a binary economy into a uniform economy, because a unified market of urban and rural areas is an essential requirement for market economy, as the currently prevailing binary urban-rural mechanism is a product of planned economy.

The current urban-rural binary system of social security hindered the free flow of labor. After the Reform and Opening-Up policy was adopted by the country in 1978, a large number of peasants left their lands and engaged in non-agricultural works. As well as do jobs in township enterprises in rural areas and work as individual industrial and commercial households, they come into the city and make up the majority of each city's construction workers, cleaning workers, waste material recycling workers, and cooks and waiters in the catering industry. According to statistics from related government departments, peasant workers in cities have become more than 100 million (He, 2006). However, China's urbanization process is still lagging behind the process of industrialization. The exclusive urban welfare system derived from the binary system of *hukou* registration effectively blocked the laborer flow among different sectors of industry, different geographical areas and enterprises of different types of ownership (Cai, 2007).

The diversity of social security rights attached to variant *hukou* makes the population only move from rural to urban areas in one direction, which in turn exacerbated the urban-rural division. Designed on the basis of planned economy, China's social security system covers urban dwellers only, so, if someone wants to give up his non-agricultural *hukou* in order to get an agricultural one, he will be deemed as a plainly fool. Thus, urban dweller is actually deprived of the right to transfer his non-agricultural *hukou* for an agricultural one, to move from city to rural areas: the urban dwellers will not become a peasant even if they like farming or the living environment of the countryside. Disparate social security rights, together

with disparate educational opportunities and college entrance examination score requirements, have made the urban population of Beijing and Shanghai the least free population in their own country in the world. The observation of domestic population flow shows that people only bring their *hukou* into the two cities, hardly ever out of them. In such a system, very few people choose to leave these two cities, even fewer choose to bring their *hukou* out, although they have better job opportunities in other areas of the nation. Restrictions on the supply of *hukou* in major cities limit the population growth rate in Beijing and Shanghai on the surface; but in essence, it is the *hukou* system itself that ensue the huge demand of the *hukou* of the municipalities.

Indeed, the binary social security system tied up to *hukou* limits the free flow of labor and reduce the efficiency of resource allocation by market, results in that the reform of production factor market, including the restructuring and the development of labor market, is regarded as a relatively backward reforming area, which has dragged on the hind legs of the reform and impede the establishment and development of the market economy system.

Also, it should be noted that the hindrance of the binary social security system to the market economy is definitely not limited to its adverse effects to the flow of the labor. From an economics point of view, the fundamental factor of production promotion is consumption demand rather than investment, for the growth of the ability to consume is the ultimate driving force for economic development. The situation that more than half of the population does not enjoy basic social security right in China severely hinders the growth of domestic demand, which leads to the deficiency in the driving force in the economic progress of the country. The weak consumer market under the strong stimulation shows that the overwhelming majority of the consumers have instable expectancy about future life guarantee (Li, 2006, 218-219). China's economic policy to accelerate growth by investment treats only the symptoms, does not fix the root cause, and will definitely lead to the waste of investment and to the irrationality of economy structure, leaving insidious dangers for a sustainable development of the nation. In addition, with more than half of the population excluded from basic living security, China has too much specificity in its situation so that the foreign experience of effective economic control can hardly work out for China, which brings undue difficulties to the assimilation of the advanced experiences of foreign countries. To effectively solve the social security problem of peasants with due support from the state, is a fundamental way to expand domestic demand, to improve the effectiveness of economic adjustment, and to promote the healthy development of economy.

Second, the binary social security system adds instable factors to the society.

Undoubtedly, *hukou* system was established partially to facilitate the management of country's population. As large number of peasants come into cities but cannot obtain an urban *hukou*, and urban population come to rural areas or people from Beijing or Shanghai to the other parts of the country without changing their *hukou*, the phenomenon of the separation of a person and his or her *hukou* exists in a tremendous quantity in China. Therefore, the existing *hukou* system not only brings inconvenience to people's life, leave many of the children of migrant workers in their hometown, but also increases the cost and difficulty in effective population management, which deteriorates the security situation everywhere, and aggravates social instability to a certain extent. At the same time, when the peasants came into the city in the wave of market economy learn the disparity of social security right between peasants and urban dwellers, learn the discrimination they are suffering for their agricultural *hukou* without even a racial or religious basis, they will mostly likely to question the social justice and to criticize the government, thereby add disharmonious factors into the society.

Further, the drawback effects of binary *hukou* system to social stability exist not only in the interaction between urban and rural areas, but also in the countryside per se. For example, because the living and medical care of elderly peasants are still depending on the support from their children, instead of borne by the community or ensured by the government in a unified way, disputes of maintenance for old folks exist in large quantity in rural areas. This is not an issue peasant's quality or moral character, but an issue of system design, because there are no substantive differences in the need of food, clothing, housing, transportation and the instinct to seek advantages, to avoid disadvantages between peasants and urban dwellers, neither between ancient and current people or Chinese and foreign people. That heritage disputes happen often in cities is enough to confirm the above viewpoint.

Third, the binary social security system is not conducive to the rule of law.

Different treatments to peasants and urban dwellers in their social security right also lead to a serious consequence that some effective laws cannot be fully implemented. Taking Labor Law implemented since January 1, 1995 as an example, it's stipulations on the labor contracts, working hours, rests, leaves, wages, social security and welfare are dead letters in the majority of rural areas. It is unrealistic to assume that most peasants will pick up the weapon of law to protect their rights as workers of P. R. China when the employment opportunities for peasants are extraordinarily narrow. Hardly having any social security is a factual basis for peasants to be forced to accept discriminating or illegal treatments. It is the unreasonable binary social security system that causes some laws enacted by the National People's Congress generally inapplicable to more than half of the population of the country.

But to build a harmonious society without the rule of law is absolutely impossible, because the rule of law is an important indicator of the degree of civilization in the current context; but rule of law also has its own rules. The internal harmony and

unity of the law system is a requisite for the rule of law, for the internal factors of any system are all interactive or cross-depending. The unity of the legal system is an important symbol of a unified regime; and the disunity of legal system will endanger the regime's unification.

Now, it can be said affirmatively that the urban-rural binary system of *hukou* will gradually withdraw from the stage of history, and the freedom of movement of our citizens is a not-so-distant right. In order to encourage population movement, a number of measures have been taken by some provinces of the country. According to statistics of the Ministry of Public Security, Hebei, Liaoning, Jiangsu and other 9 provinces (or autonomous regions or municipalities) have established unified 'residents *hukou*' registration systems for urban and rural areas. But the disparate natures of agriculture and non-agriculture *hukou* have not been changed yet: if the 'added value' linked to the original *hukou* system is not removed, if the different treatments to peasants in urban dwellers on social security continue to exist, all measures are impossible to have real effect.

Conclusion

The existing Constitution, laws and international conventions valid in China require all the citizens to equally enjoy social security right. Peasants made tremendous contributions to the establishment and the construction of the People's Republic of China. As same as the urban dwellers, peasants are among the owners of the state-owned assets and should have proprietors' right. Moreover, the binary social security system is a huge obstacle to the development of the national economy, to the promotion of the welfare level of the entire society, to the increase of social harmony, and to the foundation of the rule of law.

Therefore, we must reform the existing social security system, carry forward the spirit of equality in the Constitution and International Bill of Human Rights, construct a unified social security system for peasants and urban dwellers, formulate laws that clearly prescribe the social security right which shall be enjoyed by all citizens and its enforcement procedure, make peasants enjoy social security right thoroughly equal to urban dwellers as soon as possible. Any hesitation and waiting in this regard will embarrass the development of China's market economy, the progress of the whole society and the happiness of all the people.

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Notes

Note 1. This paragraph is missed in the English version of the Constitution of PRC posted on the website of the National People's Congress of PRC. For detail, please compare web pages of http://www.npc.gov.cn/npc/xinwen/node_505.htm and http://www.npc.gov.cn/englishnpc/Constitution/2007-11/15/content_1372963.htm.

Note 2. Until now, China has not established an effective review system for the Constitution.

Note 3. Since 1994, Social Insurance Law has been included in the legislative plan of the NPC Standing Committee and the State Council for several times, including once in the session of the Ninth National People's Congress when it was a really hot topic. Although the law has not been promulgated yet, the start-up activities related to the social security legislation can be seen as the dawn of the rule of law concerning China's social security system.

Note 4. 'Within the borders of each state' has been often translated as 'across the borders between any states' in most Chinese version of Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which is certainly misleading. See <http://www.un.org/chinese/hr/issue/udhr.htm>.

Note 5. Besides, farmers have rural collective assets, including collective-owned rural lands, therefore, they are the owners of more assets, and should have more rights. Unfortunately, their rights are awfully vulnerable because of the operational problems in the process of the realization. For example, in the transfer of rural land from cultivated field to construction land, the compensation peasants get from the government for land requisition is usually much less than the land transferring fee paid by developers to the government.



Accidents in the Food-Manufacturing Small and Medium Sized Malaysian Industries

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Abstract

This research tried to find out the types and causes of accidents that happen in food-manufacturing factories in small and medium-sized industries (SMIs) in Kedah and the actions taken by the employers following the occurrence of the accidents. Results showed that majority of the respondents had encountered slight injuries. The majority of the accidents were caused by human factors, and employers seldom took serious actions against those involved in workplace accidents. Small cut was identified as the commonest type of accident that occurred in the SMIs for the past two years. Findings also indicated that many of the employers were less interested in giving out incentives when their employees complied with all the safety rules and regulations while punishments were less serious for those who do not complied with safety rules and regulations.

Keywords: Accidents, Food-manufacturing industry, SMIs

1. Introduction

In Malaysia, SMIs are one of the major recruiters and contributors to the national economy. However, in the aspects of OSH implementation and performance, these SMIs have yet to achieve the necessary standard. As a comparison, multi-national companies and big companies in Malaysia probably adhere well to the philosophy of self-regulation for people at work to enhance the OSH standard. Thus, the respective Malaysian government agencies such as the Ministry of Human Resource and DOSH keep reminding the SMIs employers and self-employed persons that they need further improvement in OSH practices and performance. Reasons that led to their poor levels of OSH performance could be due to factors such as lack of expertise, resources or manpower. According to the Department of Occupational Safety and Health (DOSH) of Malaysia, the level of SMIs employers' compliance with the Occupational Safety and Health Act and Regulations (OSHA) 1994 and its regulations is still not up to the standard and needs further improvement. Statistics also indicated that 80-90 percent of the accidents reported to SOCSO involved small and medium size industries (SMIs).

In relation to that, evidence has proven that the size of the organization or the number of people employed in an organization has a close relation with injury rate. Nichols, Dennis and Guy (1995) have conducted a research on the relationship between the size of employment unit and the injury rate in British manufacturing using a secondary analysis of the Workplace Industrial Relations Survey (WIRS) 1990 data. Their study found that there is a negative relationship between small establishments and the injury rate (small establishments, higher injury rate). They stated that one of the possible reasons is that small establishments tend to have little resources. Holmes's (1999) study on a sample of Australian small business construction firms show that in the aspect of managing OSH risk, small business firms are not as effective as larger firms. Lingard and Rowlinson's (1994) research also suggested that organizations which possess more resources and experience tend to deal with health and safety issues more effectively. On top of that, research also suggested that worker attitudes could lead to workplace accident. Research by Zakaria et al., (2002) found that worker negligence contributed to 90.9 and 78.6 percent of the cases reported by the manufacturing and construction companies respectively; while other potential causes of accidents are conditions of the workplace, the nature of work and machinery.

However, till to date, many researches were focused on other areas such as construction industries but little research has been carried out on the food manufacturing industries, particularly in the state of Kedah. Therefore, this study tried to find out the types and causes of accidents that happen in food-manufacturing factories and the actions taken by the employers following the occurrence of an accident. A better understanding of this meaningful information could help the employers to take the necessary actions to overcome the problem and restructure the safety and health work culture in their workplaces.

2. Methodology

This study used the data set collected from a survey on "The Standard Implementation of OSHA in SMIs, Kedah". The collection of data was carried out in the month of mid July – mid September, 2004. Originally, there were 256 respondents from 51 food-manufacturing factories located in Kedah. The list of Kedah food manufacturing industry was taken from Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority (FAMA), Kedah branch. Out of these 256 respondents, 214 of them came from the lower level management group. As compared to the others, they faced higher risks of accidents, as their daily responsibilities mainly deal with production. For the purpose of this paper, only 214 employees from the lower level management group were taken as the sample of the study. Employers' consents were acquired before the distribution of questionnaires. Distribution of questionnaires and collection of data were undertaken during their working hours. On the average, it took about 25 minutes for the respondents to complete the questionnaires.

There were seven questions to study the workplace accidents occurrences and the actions taken by the company following the accident occurrences. The questionnaire was adopted and adapted from Zakaria, et al., (2002). The questionnaire was in dual-languages, that was, Bahasa Malaysia and English.

3. Results and discussion

The result findings were summarized in below (Tables 1-7).

3.1 Research question 1: Have you experienced any accidents in the workplace?

Table 1 showed that when asked whether they have experienced any accidents in the workplace, out of 214 respondents, 68.4% (n=147) of them answered "No" and 31.2% (n=67) answered "Yes".

The finding indicated that although majority of the respondents did not experience any accident in the workplace, employers need to practice OSH seriously in the workplace to minimize accident rates as it was reported that 31.2% of them did experience accidents in the workplace.

3.2 Research question 2: What is the level of injury that you have suffered?

Respondents are required to answer this question if they answered "Yes" in the previous question. The result suggested that a majority of them or 97% (n=65) suffered slight injuries when they met with an accident in the workplace. Only 3.0% (n=2) have been very lucky, as they were not injured (Table 2).

3.3 Research question 3: What is the cause of accident?

The respondents are requested to indicate the cause of accident. The result showed that out of 67 respondents that have experienced accidents in the workplace, 46.2% (n=31) of them indicated that the accidents were caused by their friend's negligence, as compared to other factors such as machine/equipment used 16.4% (n=11), nature of the work 13.4% (n=9) and their own negligence 9% (n=6). Unsafe environment (n=5) and other factors (n=5) made up less percentage as the cause of accidents in the respondents' workplace (Table 3). This finding indicated that human factor was the major cause of workplace accidents; as such accidents were mainly caused by co-workers. In this aspect, employees could also play an important role in enhancing the awareness of their counterparts in OSH practices at the workplace in order to avoid workplace accidents.

3.4 Research question 4: Were there any actions taken against you because of this accident?

The result showed that out of 67 respondents, a big proportion of them, i.e., 71.6% (n=48) indicated that due to the accident, they received a warning from the organization. A minority of them received compensation from various sources, such as SOCSO 11.9% (n=8), company insurance 6% (n=4), and compensation from the employer 4.5% (n=3). However, a small portion of them were reprimanded with actions taken against them, for instance, 1.5% (n=1) were transferred to another department/section, and others count for 4.5% (n=3). None of them have been demoted or had their salary deducted (Table 4). This finding indicated that employers seldom seriously punished those who met with an accident at the workplace, as serious action such as salary deduction is given less priority and none of them have been demoted.

3.5 Research question 5: Types of accidents that occurred in your company for the past two years

Table 5 showed the types of accidents that occurred in the respondents' company for the past two years. The finding indicated that accidents in the form of a small cut happen most frequently, as it ranked the highest (n=150) among the types of accidents in the workplace for the past two years. Finger stuck-in (n=42) ranked second followed by others (n=40), hit by fallen objects (n=36), broken arms (n=20), loss of finger nails (n=10) and scalded with boiling water (n=9), loss of finger/s (n=4), permanent disablement (n=3) and physical injury caused by hazardous chemicals (n=3) were some of those accidents that frequently occurred in the respondents' company for the past two years. No cases of deaths due to injury occurred (n=0). This finding suggested that a majority of the accidents that occurred in the respondents' workplace were not harmful or do not cause death. Serious cases that bring to permanent disablement or physical injury seldom occurred, and there are no death cases in the respondents' workplace.

3.6 Research question 6: Types of Incentives Received When Complying with All Safety Rules and Regulations

As to the question concerning types of incentives received when complying with all safety rules and regulations, respondents were required to tick the relevant answers. Results showed that among the choices, no incentives top led the list (n=113), followed by salary increment (n=50), others (n=43), an extra day of leave (n=20). None of the respondents indicated that they have received recognition certificate or were given the incentive to go overseas/locally for training courses when complying with all safety rules and regulations (Table 6). This finding suggested that many of the respondents' employers were less interested in giving out incentives to their employees even when the employees have complied with all safety rules and regulations. This could cause the employees to be demotivated when complying with the safety rules and regulations.

3.7 Research question 7: Kinds of Punishments an Employee Would Receive if He/She Does Not Comply with Safety Rules and Regulations

Table 7 showed the results on the kinds of punishments that an employee would receive if he/she does not comply with safety rules. The findings suggested that the most frequent punishment that employees would receive would be a warning (n=141). However, 64 of them indicated no penalty, followed by fired (n=35), demotion and transfer to another department/section (n=2), salary deduction (n=1), and others (n=1). This finding indicated that employers were not serious in punishing the employees for not complying with safety rules, as it was indicated that a warning was the most common method of punishment for not complying with the safety rules and regulations, and some of them even indicated that no penalty was given.

4. Conclusion

Generally, based on the research findings, only some of the respondents experienced accidents at their workplace, but a majority of them had encountered slight injuries. Findings indicated that a majority of the accidents were caused by human factors, and employers seldom took serious actions against those involved in workplace accidents, as a warning was the most frequently mentioned action taken by employers. Besides that, a small cut was identified as the commonest type of accident that occurred in the SMIs for the past two years. However, the culture of occupational safety and health practices need to be cultivated and enhanced seriously in these organizations, as findings have indicated that many of the employers were less interested in giving out incentives when their employees complied with all the safety rules and regulations. In terms of the kinds of punishment that an employee would receive if he/she does not comply with the safety rules and regulations, the most frequently mentioned punishment was a warning.

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Table 1. Have you experienced any accidents in the workplace?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	67	31.2	31.3	31.3
	No	147	68.4	68.7	100.0
	Total	214	99.5	100.0	

Table 2. What is the level of injury that you have suffered?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Injured	2	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Slightly Injured	65	97.0	97.0	100.0
	Total	67	100.0	100.0	

Table 3. What is the cause of accident?

No.	Cause of Accident	Frequency	Percent
1.	My friend negligence	31	46.2
2.	Machine/equipment used	11	16.4
3.	Nature of the work	9	13.4
4.	My own negligence	6	9.0
5.	Unsafe environment	5	7.5
6.	Others	5	7.5
	Total	67	100.0

Table 4. Were there any actions taken against you because of this accident?

No.	Action Taken	Frequency	Percent
1.	Warning	48	71.6
2.	Compensation from SOCSO	8	11.9
3.	Compensation from company insurance	4	6.0
4.	Compensation from the employer	3	4.5
5.	Others	3	4.5
6.	Transferred to another department/section	1	1.5
7.	Salary deduction	0	0.0
8.	Demotion	0	0.0
	Total	67	100.0

Table 5. Types of accidents that occurred in your company for the past two years

No.	Types of Accidents	Ranking of Cases
1.	Small cut	150
2.	Finger stuck-in	42
3.	Others	40
4.	Hit by falling objects	36
5.	Broken arms	20
6.	Loss of finger nails	10
7.	Scald from boiling water	9
8.	Loss of finger/s	4
9.	Permanent disablement	3
10.	Physical injury caused by hazardous chemicals	3
11.	Deaths due to injury	0

Table 6. Types of Incentives Received When Complying with All Safety Rules and Regulations

No.	Incentives	Frequency
1.	No incentives	113
2.	Salary increment	50
3.	Others	43
4.	An extra day of leave	20
5.	Recognition certificate	0
6.	Sent overseas/locally for training courses	0

Table 7. Kinds of Punishments an Employee Would Receive if He/She Does Not Comply with Safety Rules and Regulations

No.	Punishment	Frequency
1.	Warning	141
2.	No penalty	64
3.	Fired	35
4.	Demotion	2
5.	Department/section transfer	2
6.	Salary deduction	1
7.	Others	1



The Great Gatsby: A Contrastive Study of Its Two Chinese Versions

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Abstract

This paper, based on theories of Contrastive Linguistics deals with the contrastive study concerning two Chinese versions of the *Great Gatsby* rendered respectively by Wu Ran, and Wu Ningkun et al from the following two perspectives: differences on lexicon and syntax. Through a systematic comparison and contrast, the writer suggests that we should apply contrastive studies of English and Chinese in our TEFL practice to enhance teaching efficiency.

Keywords: Contrastive linguistics, Lexicon, Syntactical contrast, TEFL

1. Introduction

Published in 1925, *The Great Gatsby*, the finest novel written by F. Scott Fitzgerald, is surely one of the classics of modern American literature. The story is told in the first person by Nick Carraway. Nick's house is next to an extravagant and vulgar mansion owned by the mysterious but fabulously wealthy Jay Gatsby, about whom all rumors pass from mouth to mouth.

"Gatsby's real name is James Gats and he was a poor boy from the west. When he was an army officer he had fallen love with Daisy, who was charming and polished in her social manners but whose "voice is full of money". Daisy later married Tom Buchanan, a wealthy young Midwesterner who has recently come east and a hard arrogant man. And Gatsby became rich through bootlegging and other criminal activities with the help of a corrupt elderly Jewish millionaire, Dan Cody. Gatsby, however never stopped loving Daisy and has taken the house in West Egg to be near her. Through Dick, Daisy's cousin, he finds a way to meet her again and arranges fabulous entertainment to gain her favor until he is overjoyed to feel that he has Daisy back again. Her husband has a shady affair with Myrtle Wilson, the loose and sensual wife of a garage man. When Wilson has finally become suspicious of her fidelity and has begun to bully her, in panic she runs out into the highway, and under the wheels of the car in which Daisy is driving. Gatsby manages to protect Daisy, and Tom, with whom she effects a reconciliation, inflicts the bloodiest revenge upon her lover by telling Wilson that it was Gatsby who killed his wife and where to find him. Wilson shoots off Gatsby and then himself. The only person to go to the funeral besides Nick is Gatsby's father, Henry Gatz, who arrives from Minnesota, for all of Gatsby's acquaintances desert him the party guests vanish".(Hu, Yintong et al, 1999:369-370)

The novel analyzed in this paper was published by Charles Scribner's Sons New York in 1953 while the two Chinese versions "le bu qi de gai ci bi" analyzed in the paper are rendered respectively by Wu Ran (Wu₁ for short), and Wu Ningkun et al (Wu₂ for short). Both of these two versions were printed in 1998.

2. Contrastive analysis of lexicon

A considerable number of differences exist between Chinese and English as they are two totally different language families. i.e. the former belongs to Indo-European family while the latter is Sino- Tibetan family. Each of the language has developed its own features during the course of its development in lexicons. Among all these miscellaneous features, lexical differences are one of the most striking phenomena that deserves our attention.

"Meaning" is the association of language symbols with the real world. In 1981 G. Leech categorized seven kinds of meanings of among which collocative meaning refers to the communication through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word (Hu et al, 1989: 144). For the sake of analysis, this section will confine its discussion to differences in collocative meaning that includes tautology and zeugma.

2.1 Tautology

Tautology, as a language phenomenon is universally prevalent in Chinese for the aim of semantic emphasis. Such as the wording of "bu bi yao de lang fei, jie bu kai de si jie, wei kai fa de chu nu di" et al is commonly used in Chinese written text. In contrast, such language phenomena are considered redundant like "the actual fact, merge together, the unexpected surprise". Given the point, translation from English to Chinese should be aware of this difference to ensure

the full transmission of the original work. Examples are shown as follows:

Ex1. And so with the sunshine and the great bursts of leaves growing on the trees, just as things grow in fast movies, I had that familiar conviction that life was beginning over again with the summer (P4).

Wu₁: ban sui zhe yang guang, shu shang hen kuai zhang man le ye zi, ru tong kuai fang de dian ying zhong de dong xi yi ban jiu mao chu lai le, na zhong shu xi de que xin wu yi de dong xi zai wo de nao hai zhong chan sheng: sheng huo ru tong xia tian yi yang you yao kai shi le (P4).

Wu₂: yan kan yang guang ming mei, shu mu hu ran jian zhang man le ye zi, jiu xiang dian ying li de dong xi zhang de na me kuai, wo you chan sheng le na ge shu xi de xin nian, jue de sheng ming sui zhao xia tian de lai lin you chong xin kai shi le (P5).

From the above listing Chinese versions, it is not of great difficulty to see that the exploration of tautology “shu xi de xin nian” in Wu₂ translation sounds more natural and emphatic than that of Wu₁ while the absence of the wording strategy, comparatively speaking, does not leave readers’ any concept of semantic emphasis.

Ex 2. I couldn’t sleep all night; a fog-horn was groaning incessantly on the sound, and I tossed half-sick between grotesque reality and savage, frightening dreams. (P147)

Wu₁: wo yi ye wu fa ru shui; wu di sheng zai hai xia bu ting di wu wu jiao zhe, wo zai guai yan de xian shi he xiong can ke pa de meng huan zhi jian nian zhuan fan ce (P133).

Wu₂: wo zheng ye bu neng ru shui, yi ge wu di zai hai wan shang bu ting di wu wu xiang, wo hao xiang sheng bing yi yang zai zheng ning de xian shi yu ke pa de e meng zhi jian nian zhuan fan ce (P126)

In the version of Wu₁, the translator fails to take the phenomenon of tautology into account in Chinese written texts and achieves no artificial transmissions of the authentic work because “xiong can ke pa de meng huan” in terms of collocative meaning produces no better literary effects than “ke pa de e meng” amidst Chinese readers.

Ex 3. I followed him over a low whitewashed railroad fence, and we walked back a hundred yards along the road under Doctor Eckleburg’s persistent stare. (P24)

Wu₁: wo gen zhe ta fan guo shua you bai se tu liao de tie lu zha lan, zai ai ke er bo ge dai fu ning gu bu bian de zhu shi xia, wo yan zhe gong lu chao hui zou le yi bai ma (P22)

Wu₂: wo gen zhe ta kua guo yi pai shua de xue bai de di di de tie lu zha lan, ran hou yan zhe gong lu, zai ai ke er bao dai fu mu bu zhuan jing de zhu shi zhi xia, wang hui zou le yi bai ma. (P22)

Both of the two translators are professional enough to render the original work into the expression of tautology in the target language. Of course “mu bu zhuan jing de zhu shi”, generally speaking, seems more readable in harmony of Chinese readers’ appetite than “ning gu bu bian de zhu shi xia”

2.2 Zeugma

Zeugma, as a language phenomenon under collocative meaning is somewhat covert. When doing translation, we must conscientiously dig out the potential layers of meaning dominated by the core words in the texts, and appropriately convey different expressions of the corresponding words. Please see the following examples:

Ex1. He was now decently clothed in a short shirt, open at the neck, sneakers, and duck trousers of a nebulous hue. (P95)

Wu₁: ta zhe hui de chuan dai hai suan ti mian le, yun dong shan tang zhe ling kou, zu ta lu you xie, chuan yi tiao yan se mo hu de fan bu ku. (P85)

Wu₂: ta xian zai yi fu zheng qi yi xie le, chuan zhe yi jian tang ling de yun dong shan, yi shuang yun dong xie he yi tiao yan se bu qing bu chu de fan bu ku. (P82)

In this sentence the preposition “in” dominates the collocation of “shirt, sneakers and trousers”. In the first translation, the translator ponders upon the covert collective meanings of “in” plus “shirt sneakers and trousers”, and correspondingly renders it into three static verbs of “zu ta, chuan zhe”. However, the second translator misses the “zeugma” structure and generalizes the translation of ‘in’ by one character “chuan” in Chinese version.

Ex2. He had reached an age where death no longer has the quality of ghastly surprise, and when he looked around him for the first time and saw the height and splendor of the hall and the great rooms opening out from it into other rooms... (P168)

Wu₁: ta yi jing dao le si wang bu zai jue de da jing xiao guai de nian ling, ta zhe hui shi tou yi ci shang xia da liang zhe ta, kan zhe da ting de gao du yu hao hua, suo you da fang jian bi ci xiang tong bing dou lian zhe da ting..... (P152)

Wu₂: ta yi jing dao le bing bu ba si wang kan zhao yi jian hai ren ting wen de shi qing de nian ji, yu shi ci ke ta di yi ci xiang si zhou yi wang, kan jian men ting ru ci fu li tang huang, yi jian jian da wu zi cong zhe li you tong xiang bie de

wu zi.(P144)

Similarly, the verb “see” has two layers of collocative meanings: the height of the hall and the splendor of the hall. Based on this analysis, Wu₁’s translation “kan jian da ting de gao du yu hao hua” properly meets the collocative meanings of the source language while Wu₂’s “kan jian men ting ru ci fu li tang huang” is ignorant of the collocation between “see” and “the height”.

Ex3. About two years later I remember the rest of that day, and that night and the next day, only as an endless drill of police and photographers and news paper men in and out of Gatsby’s front door.(P164)

Wu₁: liang nian zhi hou, wo hai ji de na tian qi ta shi jian, na yi wan shang he ci ri de qing jing, shu bu qing de he xun lian you su de jing cha, she ying shi he ji zhe zai gai ci bi jia da men kou chu chu jin jin.(P147)

Wu₂: shi ge liang nian, wo hui xiang qi na tian qi yu de shi jian, na yi wan yi ji di er tian, zhi ji de yi pi you yi pi de jing cha, she ying shi he xin wen ji zhe zai gai ci bi jia men kou lai lai wang wang .(P140)

With regard to the two translations of the above sentence, both of the two translators pay special attention to the use of zeugma structure and wholly put the original text into Chinese in light with the relationship between the dominating verb “remember” and “the rest of that day, that night and the next day”.

3. Syntactical Contrast

3.1 Hypotactic vs. Paratactic

One of the striking differences between Chinese and English sentences is the ways through which they are combined. By hypotactic, we mean “the dependent or subordinate construction or relationship of clauses with connectives” (The World Book Dictionary. Cited from Lian, 1993: 48) while paratactic refers to ‘the arranging of clauses one after the other without connectives showing the relation between them’ (ibid.). Compared with Chinese, English can be classified as a kind of formalized language whose clauses are shown by connectives while the relations between clauses in Chinese sentences are implied by logical sense or sequences of words. It is no wonder that some linguists claim that English is over cohesion-oriented and Chinese is covert cohesion-oriented. Examples are shown in the following:

Ex1. He didn’t say any more, but we’ve always been unusually communicative in a reserved way, and I understood that he meant a great deal more than that.(P1)

Wu₁: ta mei zai shuo bie de, bu guo wo men chang chang jiu shi yu zhong bu tong, yong mo qi de fang shi jiao tan, wo ming bai ta yi wei shen chang de hua yu .(P1)

Wu₂: ta mei zai shuo bie de, dan shi wo men fu zi zhi jian sui hua bu duo, que yi xiang shi fei chang tong qi de, yin ci wo ming bai ta de hua da you xian wai zhi yin.(P1)

As to the two translations, the first translator realizes the features of “paratactic” in Chinese sentences and make use of the inherent logical senses to express the translation. In contrast, the second translator neglects the very differences and add “sui, que, yin ci” in the translation.

Ex2. With an effort I managed to restrain my incredulous laughter. The very phrases were worn so threadbare that they evoked no image except that of a turbaned ‘Character’ leaking sawdust at every pore as he pursued a tiger through the Bois de Boulogne.(P66)

Wu₁: zhen shi hua ji tou le, wo jing liang ren zhu bu xiao, ta de hua ju ju dou shi na me fa wei, yi zhi yu chu le ke yi xiang xiang yi ge dai tou jing de “gauri ren” zai bu long gong yuan zhui bu lao hu shi hun shen lou zhe mu xie wai, zai ying bu qi ren he xiang xiang .(P58)

Wu₂: wo hao bu rong yi cai ren zhu bu xiao, yin wei ta de hua ling ren nan yi zhi xin. Ta de cuo ci ben shen na me chen fu, yi zhi yu zai wo nao zi li zhi neng shi zhe yang de xing xiang: yi ge guo zhe tou jin kuai lei xi li de “jue se”, zai bu long gong yuan zhui da lao hu, yi mian pao, yi mian cong shen zi li mei ge kong dong li wang wai lou mu xie.(P56)

The first translator does not limit his expression to hypotactic relations in the original work while in the second translation, the translator are deeply influence by the connective “so...that”, and literally renders it into “yin wei ...yi zhi yu ...” in spite of the paratactic features in Chinese language.

Ex3. He was balancing himself on the dashboard of his car with that resourcefulness of movement that is so peculiarly American --- that comes. I suppose, with the absence of lifting work or rigid sitting in youth and even more, with the formless grace of our nervous, sporadic games.(P64)

Wu₁: ta yi fei chang mei guo hua de ji ling dong zuo, zai che de jiao ta ban shang, wen le wen zi ji ---zhi suo yi zhe yang, wo xiang, shi you yu nian qing shi que fa tai ju wu ping, huo zhe zong shi jiang ying di zuo zhe de yuan gu, jin er yan zhi, shi you yu wo men yi yu ji dong de, ling xing de yun dong que fa you mei zhi shi de yuan gu.(P57)

Wu₂: ta zhan zai ta che zi de dang ning ban shang, bao chi zhe shen ti de ping heng na zhong ling huo de dong zuo shi mei guo ren te you de ---wo xiang zhe shi you yu nian qing shi bug gan zhong huo de yuan gu, geng zhong yao de shi

you yu wo men ge zhong jin zhang ju lie de yun dong zao cheng zi shi zi ran er you mei.(P55)

Besides connectives such as who, that, but, or et al, some prepositions and prepositional phrases are well served to combine sentences in English but the formation of Chinese sentences are usually absent from ,or even omit prepositions and prepositional phrases. In this example, both translations are aware of the syntactical function of 'with' and respectively put it into the causal conjunction "you yu".

3.2 Static vs. Dynamic

Limited by the principle of subject-verb concord , English people use one verb only in a simple sentence or a clause, and the other verbs following the main verb should be nominalized or non-finite forms (such as gerunds, infinites). Then the description tends to be static, i.e, the priority of nouns over verbs. However, in Chinese there are no inflection forms and Chinese people get used to having the co-occurrences of many verbs, and the descriptions tend to be dynamic. For instance:

Ex1. "Whenever you feel like criticizing any one", he told me...(P1)

Wu₁: " wu lun ni xiang yao ze nan shen me ren de shi hou, " ta dui wo shuo...(P1)

Wu₂: " mei feng ni xiang yao pi ping ren he ren de shi hou, " ta dui wo shuo...(P1)

In the original English sentence the gerund "criticizing" is static but when rendered into Chinese, both translators have paid subtle attention to the difference and provide a "dynamic" verb with the version of "ze nan and pi ping" to better comply with typical formation of Chinese sentences .

Ex2. And, after boasting this way of my tolerance, I come to admission that it has a limit.(P2)

Wu₁: zai ru ci kua kou wo de kuai rong zhi hou, wo kai shi cheng ren kuan rong ye de you ge xian du .(P2)

Wu₂: zai zhe yang kua wo de kuan rong zhi hou, wo de cheng ren kuan rong ye de you ge xian du.(P3)

"Admission" is derived from the verb "admit". Being fully aware of the description with static characteristic in English, the two translators do a very good job in changing the "admission" into "dynamic" conveys of "cheng ren".

Ex3. About two years later I remember the rest of that day, and that night and the next day, only as an endless drill of police and photographers and news paper men in and out of Gatsby's front door.(P164)

Wu₁: liang nian zhi hou, wo hai ji de na tian qi ta shi jian , na yi wan he ci ri de qing jing , shu bu qing de he xun lian you su de jing cha, she ying shi he xin wen ji zhe zai gai ci bi jia da men kou jin jin chu chu.(P147)

Wu₂: shi ge liang nian, wo hui xiang qi na tian qi yu de shi jian , na yi tian wan shang yi ji di er tian, zhi ji de yi pi you yi pi de jing cha, she ying shi he ji zhe zai gai ci bi jia men kou lai lai wang wang .(P140)

English is rich in prepositions or prepositional phrases while the number of prepositions and prepositional phrases are relatively small. Therefore, the utilization of prepositions and prepositional phrases are typical of English sentences. During the process of E-C in the above example, the static "in and out of" are well transmitted into the dynamic "chu chu jin jin and lai lai wang wang" respectively.

4. Conclusion

English and Chinese, as two totally different language families share a great deal of differences, which deserves our incessant effort to explore. Based on the contrastive study as to the two Chinese versions of *the Great Gatsby*, it may be concluded that miscellaneous features of the two languages, to a big degree provide barriers to EFL learners. To better predict which aspect students are most likely to make errors, CA is of great significance in the improvements our TEFL. According to structuralism, foreign language teachers need place much emphasis on the contrastive analysis of sound systems, lexicons, semantic sense or even culture acquisition models so as to minimize the L1 interferences during a student's process of language output such as writing or interacting in the target language. Only with the concept of CA application in mind can we facilitate our English language in an efficient manner.

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Dealing with the Blank in Books' Layout Design

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Abstract

In traditional Chinese painting, blank functions importantly. But it is different from that of a general sense. It is actually the organic component of the whole piece of art work. Blank has a rich expression, making pictures vivid and lively. In the traditional painting and modern layout design, the content is black, that is, the entity. However, it is the blank that is oversensitive. When every entity is put in the position, there must be some blank to adjust the visual intension so that the strain and dynamic can be released and extended. The virtual space is blank-leaving. The blank in the format is not only for the visual pleasure but for an aesthetic realm it creates for readers.

Keywords: Black, Blank, Visual spatial, Visual aesthetics

1. The black and the blank create visual beauty

In traditional Chinese painting, blank functions importantly. But it is different from that of a general sense. It is actually the organic component of the whole piece of art work. Blank has a rich performance, making pictures vivid and lively. Ancient Chinese once made summarization about the aesthetic forms, saying "model beauty depends on the modeling patterns outside of the images". In the traditional painting and modern layout design, the content is black, that is, the entity. However, it is the blank that is oversensitive. When every entity is put in the position, there must be some blank to adjust the visual intension so that the strain and dynamic can be released and extended. The virtual space is the blank-leaving. The blank in the format is not only for the visual pleasure but for an aesthetic realm it creates for readers. The artful blank in pursuit of blank beauty is helpful to foil the theme, create atmosphere, attract eyeballs, strengthen space levels and makes a clear and orderly layout with proper density. The blank in Chinese paintings becomes an integral element and helps create a rich imaginary world for the aesthetes. The blank in the format is actually a breathable visual space for readers to gain a happy visual experience in a relaxed state.

In general, the blank of book layout design is on the end paper between the cover and the main content. The large blank on the first page of a chapter gives a signal of a new content to the readers. There are page header and page footer on the text, left and right margins of the main content pages, and the blank in the last paper, etc. With the development and creation of the book's binding and layout design, these blanks left are getting more and more smart and fresh. Some design can give a large page header. Some can even get rid of the left margin while gives more space to the left margin. The flexible arrangement gives every book its own personality, even becomes a symbol of some book. The blank, which is also named the fourth element, is an important part in a book's layout. It helps create visual space for readers to feel the nimbus of a book in the traceless room. Many newspapers and magazines now have developed their own style of layout and techniques of blank creation. For example, VISION has large area in its content page. The big blank has lowered the rate of utilization and relieved the strong excitement of pictures and colors, showing unique cultural personality and taste. Many newspapers have layout design of blank around the header, in boot reading area and in the column spacing. The design of albums adopts blank as an important element. Proper blank-leaving can beautify the pattern making books look more natural and breathable. The more important is that blank-leaving has a unique guiding role. Although a page in a book or a text in a page can not possess the important position, the designer s can make use of blank-leaving to highlight that page or the content, thus producing the effect of attracting the readers' attention.

2. The replacement of blackness and the blank

The same as the painting principle emphasizes the configuration of virtual space, in which both the blank and the drawing are parts of the whole, the conversion of the blank and the black of the layout is actually a kind of expression. This blank-leaving can be space without any ink, and can also be an arbitrary color or decorative graphics. The use of soft grey is an approach to deal with the virtual space. The color of grey can soften the strong contrast of the white of blank and the black. Adopting the colors of black, white and grey harmoniously and the plane structure of point, line, and surface can make this text and that one, a text and its title, this illustration and that one become a unified organic whole. In a design, blank is used to be a modeling element because it is featured with images. Its form, size and proportion determine the quality and the capability of conveying the information of the layout. The blank and the entity

depend on each other. The blank can make entity create the visual dynamic and gain the tension.

Excellent designers often gain their success by exploring and expressing the thoughts and feelings in what is designed. If a designer wants to successfully reproduce these thoughts and feelings, he should combine his emotion and design to create cleverly the blank and make full use of it to guide the readers' vision. Only by this way can he or she arrive at the creative thinking. In the process, the blank becomes the subject of the creation. It can be shielded and can be read by appreciation. The abstract of the blank has a virtual beauty, leaving space for further imagination of the scenery behind the veil. It is a form full of meanings and can deepen the information expressed in the design. It helps the readers to understand the work. Meanwhile it can create new visual expression and de-familiarize the work to attract the readers. In that case, the blank can be flexible and creative in the expressions. It can be the contrastive colors conflicting with the content of the layout, the pictures functioning as ingredients in editing, and the transitional part between entity and virtual scenes. The expression is often used in the fashion magazines. For example, a color mass integrated with the subject picture in the layout serves as the blank. But if it is taken out, it becomes independent with colors, form and expressive language. The expression of the form is different from that of Chinese paintings in which the most far-reaching pattern is empty (Lao Tze). The blank in layout, compared with that in Chinese paintings, has images and specific languages but what it has conveyed to the readers is the delight of exploring what is far to reach.

3. Moderate blank-leaving

The principal and the blank make an expression of rhythms and form aesthetic vision. However the blank can not be abused. In Chinese painting theory, it is said that dealing with the blank is much more difficult than drawing actual pictures. It needs careful consideration to deal with the blank in the layout design. Don't go to extremes by abusing the blank and making too much space. Too much blank or space may make the pattern look loose and make people feel empty and lifeless. The more important is that it is no good for reading. Some designers emphasize too much the artistry. They make the distance between the lines twice or three times than the spacing standard. And kerning is also too loose. Too big row spacing and kerning resulting in a big gap between lines and the unattached characters makes reading difficult. Others do not pay attention to the contrast relations expressed by the black and the white. They are extreme to use the contrast. Function should be the first to the designers in dealing with the relations between black and white. The practical function itself is one of the factors to produce beauty if it is reasonable. On the other side, too much blank in the layout will inevitably reduce the amount of texts and pictures, which is wasteful. This will undoubtedly increase the thickness of a book and make people feel that it can not provide readable information.

The moderation of blank-leaving must be considered carefully by the layout designers. Among different texts the blank should be left appropriately. It is necessary to separate articles to give readers a break, and keep the sense of the overall layout to form decent space. It is difficult to grasp the degree of blank-leaving. Do not fill where the blank should be left. Blank-leaving should make people feel neither empty nor boring.

Layout design is a process of artistic creation. A good layout can attract much attention from the readers, which is the prerequisite of effective communication. On the other hand, a good format can always participate in the performance of the book content. The layout design reflects the evaluation of designers to the content and its importance. In a layout, the designers should make use of the dynamic visual thinking to create the blank and skillfully adopting the blank-leaving and properly grasping the virtual space to produce a smooth and comfortable visual spatial effect with a coherent logic, the prioritized content, rich layers and the harmonious blank and black. So the readers can accept the information that the authors and editors want to convey while enjoying the beauty of the works, which is the ultimate goal of the layout.

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International Technology Transfer (ITT) Projects and Development of Technological Capabilities in Malaysian Construction Industry: A Conceptual Framework

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Abstract

The International Technology Transfer (ITT) projects has emerged as an important business and managerial concern to many developing countries across the globe as well as Malaysia. ITT projects according to many researchers involve the cross-boarder transfer of technology with the main purpose to enhance the local technology capabilities in response to a changing economic environment. These technology transfer projects could be viewed in the form of knowledge (soft technology), skill, and tools (hard technology) which usually congregate from advanced countries to the developing countries through construction project development.

Numerous modes (known as channels) of ITT could occur from the public and private firms of advanced countries to private and public sector locally. Some of the channels are considered effective while others are regarded as less effective. Therefore, the objectives of this paper are three folds; to investigate the major channels of international technology transfer (ITT) projects in Malaysia and how these channels and technology capabilities are diffused within the Malaysian construction industry. Finally, a conceptual framework is proposed for a successful ITT and development of technological capabilities for the Malaysian construction industry.

Keywords: International technology transfer (ITT) projects, Channels, Diffusion, Malaysia, Technological capabilities

1. Introduction

The phenomenon of 'international technology transfer' or ITT projects has emerged as an important business and managerial concern to developing countries. The main purpose of ITT projects is to enhance the local technological capabilities which, according to many researchers need to be improved and upgraded continuously (Saad et al. 2002; Putranto et al. 2003; Wie, 2003). In this respect, the construction industry is targeted due to the fact that the ITT transaction encompasses extensive and significant project based work throughout the four phases of project life cycle starting from the strategy formulation, procurement, construction, and project completion phase (Takim, 2005). It undertakes the production of various construction products in the form of buildings, infrastructure works, refurbishment works and the installation of various equipment and facilities.

The study presents an early research purely based on literature review on the understanding of international technology transfer (ITT) projects and development of technological capabilities in Malaysian construction industry taking into consideration the soft and hard issues of ITT, numerous channels of ITT, and the concept of diffusion in ITT projects.

2. Basic Concept

Technology, according to many researchers (Bell et al. 1984; Putranto et al. 2003; Wie, 2003), is a collection of physical processes that transform inputs into outputs with procedural techniques and organizational arrangements for carrying out the transformation. According to Chee (1981), technology is viewed as the knowledge and machinery

that are needed to run an enterprise. This could include both software (blueprints and operating manuals) and hardware (equipment). Stock & Tatikonda (2000) draws a more sophisticated definition for technology as a tool or technique, product or process, physical equipment or method of doing. While, in operational context, technology is defined as technical knowledge and could also be associated as a machine, an electrical or mechanical component, a chemical process, software code, a patent, a technique, or a person.

Technology transfer however, is the transfer of skills, technical know-how, machinery and other capital equipment (Wei, 2003). This is in line with the opinion of Putranto et al. (2003) that define technology transfer as the transfer of capital goods and operating skills to the development of technological capabilities. Technological capabilities could be in the form of investment (feasibilities and project execution) and production (process engineering, product engineering and linkages within economy). Furthermore, according to Lall (1996a), technological capabilities are the skills, technical knowledge and organizational coherence required to make industrial technologies function in an enterprise. Technological capabilities reflect not only the ability in using resources, but also capacities of resources, such as training, research and development (R&D), and maintenance of resources (Cohen, 2004).

As virtually, all advanced technologies are imported from advanced industrial countries. As such, international technology transfer (ITT) projects involve the cross-border transfer in which, technological capability regards the effective use of the imported technologies abroad which enable local firms or enterprises to adopt these technologies to the development of new products and processes in response to a changing economic environment. Several researchers (Perlmutter and Sagafi-Nejad, 1981; Contractor and Sgafi-Nejad, 1981; Simon, 1982 and 1991; Stobaugh and Wells, 1984; Agmon and Von Glinow, 1991) regard international technology transfer (ITT) project as a complex process that needs time to develop. The development process of ITT could be in the form of acquisition, adaptation, and improvement (Rosenberg and Frischtak, 1985). Given the above, ITT in construction is one option for a developing country to acquire newer technology internationally to enhance local technological capabilities.

In ITT, the process of knowledge diffusion however, is defined as a spread of technology transfer by means of communication in which potential users become informed about the availability of a new technology and are persuaded to adopt it through communication (Attewell, 1992). The process of diffusion could be made in five stages: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation (Rogers, 2003). Knowledge means gaining initial knowledge about new ideas; persuasion could be the altitudes towards new ideas, to adopt or reject; decision means decision making for adoption new ideas; and finally, confirmation is the confirmation of decision on the new imported ideas.

3. Statement of Research Problem

Over the last 20 years, the fast growing Asian region has experienced rapid industrialisation and economic growth. Much of this change can be attributed to international technology transfer (ITT) (Devapriya and Ganesan, 2002; Marton, 1986; Saad et al. 2002; Schnepf et al. 1990). The construction industry in Malaysia is of no exception, experiencing unprecedented growth through the formation of large building and infrastructure programs that are largely partnered with foreign enterprises (Economic Planning Unit, 2007). Therefore, the phenomena of ITT projects occurred at the macro and micro level in firms and organizations. The common question is how to managed technology development efficiently and effectively from the viewpoint of technology receivers.

Cohen (2004) reckons that there are numerous forms of channels or modes of ITT which takes place in the public and private sectors; that is from the private and public firms of the advanced countries to private and public sectors locally. Some of the channels are considered to be very effective (i.e., training programs, managerial and institutional programs, procurement and contractual contracts) whilst others are regarded as less effective (i.e. licensing agreement) (Ming 1999; Thee, 2003). The above statement is a concern of this study and the study aims to investigate further the effectiveness of different channels or modes of international technology transfer in the Malaysian construction industry.

As mentioned earlier, diffusion of knowledge is a spread of technology transfer by means of communication that could disseminate skills, licenses, patents, know-how and techniques in a more methodical and beneficial forms compared to diffusion of equipment such as machines and plants (Mansfield, 1995). The diffusion could be between the numerous channels to technological capabilities and could occur upon the demand of local stakeholders of that recipient country. The ease of knowledge diffusion and the level of absorptive capacity in the recipient country are widely cited as important in affecting the incentives for technology transfer. Farrands (1990) reckons that absorption patterns were crucial and to a certain extent it depends on their organization and management culture, the role and the structure of power relations within and between organizations. Furthermore, it is important for policy makers of the recipient country to understand the art of diffusion, the factors governing foreign firms' willingness to transfer technology, and the value of domestic firms' investment in international technology mastery. Therefore, the effects of knowledge diffusion on international technology transfer (ITT) projects are controversial and deserve further investigation, in particular in the Malaysian construction industry.

4. Structure of Construction Sector

As mentioned by Stock & Tatikonda (2000), technology comprises physical elements such as: equipment, tools and machines, the methods applied in the utilisation of physical elements, knowledge and methods of these elements, and documentation that embodied the knowledge (i.e. specifications, drawings and computer programs). In construction, technology is defined as a combination of materials and equipment resources, construction-applied resources, construction processes, and project requirements and constraints (Tatum, 1988). According to Simkoko (1992), construction resources can either be materials and permanent equipment (e.g. steel beams, elevators), construction-applied resources (e.g. information, skills), or construction equipment. Construction processes on the other hand, include the methods and tasks needed to build a constructed product.

The technology transfer and acquisition process takes place through various different mechanisms. Simkoko (1992) declares that a technology transfer or acquisition program consists of the training efforts designed for local personnel at the operational, functional and management levels, the involvement of local construction firms and construction-related institutions, and the provision of employment to the local staff. In simple explanation, Simkoko (1992) states that the concept of technology transfer programmes emphasizes the formation of integrated project teams and temporary joint-venture organizations between local and foreign firms in the course of the implementation of international construction projects. The participation of local construction firms as subcontractors to foreign firms is an important element in the concept of technology transfer. It is believed that one of the major conditions for development is access to new technology. If developing countries are to become industrialized, the overwhelming part of such technology must be imported, at least at the initial stages (Able-Thomas, 1996).

With the rapid growth of construction on a global scale, Malaysia is increasingly looking forward to market her construction technology abroad to enhance their business growth, apart from importing international technology. With advancement in technology and communication connectivity, business opportunities continue to present themselves in a foreign country as well as within the Asia region. The global construction market is generally categorized into three types: developed (advanced industrialized), developing (newly industrialized) and least developed (emerging and countries in transition). The global construction market will apply international benchmarks and standards and as such, Malaysian builders must meet these exacting standards or fail to survive in the regional or global market (CIDB, 2007). Towards this end, it is important for Malaysian builders to undertake continuous efforts to upgrade their skills and knowledge. This is to ensure that any work undertaken by Malaysian builders has a strong branding presence and will be much sought after internationally. As part of a broader capacity-building process, Malaysian builders need to comprehensively integrate and more efficiently utilise new construction methods, practices and technologies in delivering high quality work (CIDB, 2007).

Moreover, the involvement of Malaysian contractors in many Mega projects locally and abroad has nurtured the capabilities and expertise of Malaysian contractors. The construction industry benefited tremendously with the implementation of large infrastructure projects encompassing highways, ports, airport, power plant, and urban development various function projects. Several major projects in Malaysia were speeded up through collaborations between the private sector and the public sector which helped to force the economic development of the nation. Consequently, Malaysia has world class infrastructure such as the Petronas Twin Towers and Kuala Lumpur International Airport (CIDB, 2007). Since 1995, it was reported that the Malaysian construction companies have completed almost 300 overseas construction projects amounting to RM 20,912 billion and are currently implementing 56 projects valued at RM 24, 583 billion. About half of these projects are roads and highways, while building works represent approximately one fifth of the total volume of work.

There are numerous channels or modes of ITT open to Malaysia. These include direct investment (domestic and foreign) and privatization. Through privatization channels, foreign technology is transferred by means of build-operate-transfer (BOT) and Private Finance Initiative (PFI) procurement systems. Through Construction Industry Development Board (CIDB), Malaysia External Trade Development Corporation (MATRADE) and Professional Services Development Corporation Sdn Bhd (PSDC), Malaysia has a more focused strategy to market construction services through Government-to-Government arrangements abroad.

Given the above, the concept of cross-boarder international technology transfer project in Malaysia could be in two forms: technology from the developed countries transfer to Malaysia and technology from Malaysia transfer to the neighborhood countries and any other countries within Asian and ASEAN regions

5. Technology Transfer Models

Table 1.0 presents six types of international technology transfer models gathered from various researchers across the globe. Wei (1995) has classified the flows of technological content of ITT into three categories: Flow A, which consists of capital goods and technological services; Flow B composed of operating skills and technological know-how; and Flow C contains knowledge, experience and expertise in implementing technical change. These flows provide sources

of level of technological capability. It is from this point that the importing firm and economy get onto a dynamic path in which technical change is generated continuously at the international competitive rate. In addition, Wei's report concentrates on three important issues in ITT: the costs of technology transfer, the assimilation of the imported technology, and the extent to which technology transfer contributes to the development of technological capability. This model appears to be simple for international technology transfer but difficult to understand and to implement.

Lin & Berg (2001) propose a theoretical model for technology transfer effectiveness project. The major factors affect the performance of ITT project could be: the nature of technology to be transferred, international experience, and culture difference. However, based on his empirical findings the nature of technology and international experience are more significant than the culture difference in ITT. The reason could be due to the less attention was given to culture difference from the management level and is contradicted to the opinion of Pandia (1994). The strength of this model is that the overall concepts are easily understood and it is very simple to implement.

Saad et al. (2002) develop assessment of ITT projects by using 'extended life cycle approach' adopted from the Project Management Multiple Perspective (PM-MP) Framework. The assessment of ITT projects was carried out in four stages: project life cycle stage, technology transfer stage, the involvement of stakeholders, and the expected benefits that have impacts on the ultimate success of each of technology transfer projects. The involvement of stakeholders (suppliers, governments, workers, managers and wider community representatives) could produce different project benefits as well as problems associated with the ITT projects. The strength of this model is that it is easy to understand and comprehensive which takes into consideration stakeholders' viewpoint.

Putranto et al. (2003) propose a model of technology transfer using a feedback loop system emphasizing on the receiver's (transferee) point of view. From the receiver's point of view, technology transfer is best divided into four stages: preparation, production, operation, and evaluation stage. These four stages of ITT could contribute to the improvement of technological, investment and operational capabilities, the key important areas of ITT. The model developed by Putranto et al. (2003) is quite similar to the model developed by Saad et al. (2002) with the exception of stakeholders' involvement.

A conceptual model of technology transfer developed by Daghfous (2004) pays more attention to the technology and knowledge transfer of ITT. This model shows a relationship of learning processes, technology and knowledge transfer projects. A technology transfer projects is a form of knowledge accumulation task. Apart from explicit form, knowledge is often tacit which could not be transferred through blueprints and documentation. Instead, it is transferred through informal processes and communication channels. In ITT projects, technology transfer is a learning process. In addition, the model emphasises five stages of ITT i.e., prior knowledge, learning processes, project stage, intended benefits and unintended benefits that could contribute to the continuous capability development. The strength of this model is that it is easy to understand and simple to implement.

The five 'M' system approaches, illustrated by Haris & Haris (2004) present a sociotechnical system framework for contemporary ergonomics. This model shows how the five 'M's framework can be used to consider the likely effectiveness of ITT from one domain to another. In this model, they used the integration of user (Human), machine, mission, medium, and management. The human aspect encompasses the size, shape, personality, cognitive capabilities and training of the users. The machine component of the framework is the system with which operators interact to perform a mission (task). A mission commences when the human and machine components come together to perform a prescribed function. The management in turn, will task the mission and dictates some of the performance standard by providing the structures and oversees compliance with the regulatory standards required by medium (Physical and Societal Medium). The process of ITT occurs when the human used the machine to perform the task to fulfill the mission. This model appears to be appealing and sensible.

Given the above, most of the models approach above, if not all; focus on ITT across technology transfer project phase, by identifying the technology capabilities (Saad et al. 2002; Putranto et al. 2003; Wie, 2003). It should be noted that the six types of models described above could provide useful guideline in terms of: types of technology, the channels, stakeholders, barriers and benefits of ITT projects and contribution to the proposal of conceptual framework of ITT projects in Malaysia.

6. Propose Research Framework

Figure 1 proposes a conceptual framework for a successful international technology transfer (ITT) and development of technological capabilities in Malaysian Construction Industry. This has been developed based on a preliminary literature review undertaken on technology transfer processes. The conceptual framework consists of five major components; the types of technology (knowledge, skills and tools), the channels, the variety of stakeholders, barriers and the benefits of ITT projects.

The process of technology transfer to developing countries, such as Malaysia involves a complex series of stages. The first stage refers to the flow of technology transfer in the form of knowledge (soft technology), skills and tools (hard

technology) which usually congregate from advanced country to the developing countries. Knowledge transfer is about getting the right knowledge to the right people at the right time (Li-Hua, 2004). The knowledge is transferred perhaps when foreign and local managers have intimate interaction while working together. There are two major elements of knowledge namely: explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. The explicit knowledge is transferred through formal means, such as conferences, meetings, seminars, and training sessions. Tacit knowledge on the other hand, is transferred in an informal manner, during job training sessions, telephonic communications, and other social occasions.

Apart from knowledge, potential barriers are also vital to be considered to the success of technology transfer. Li-Hua (2004) reckons that the barriers of knowledge transfer are known as cultural differences, language barriers, social values, and different objectives. Among others, culture difference could become the major barrier in ITT (Kedia and Bhagat, 1988). The cultural difference exists between the technology provider and the technology receiver. This is in line with the opinion of Black et al. (2000) and Malik (2002) pointed out that for the technology transfer to function properly, the organizations involved in the process should endeavor to build a culture of mutual trust through effective communication between transferor and transferee. Working in unfamiliar markets is often burdened with difficulties due to culture differences. New cultures and business practices require time to understand, placing greater pressure on international construction companies to adapt to their new surroundings (Malaysia Going Global, 2007).

Skills transfer however, comprise of the technical, managerial and institutional, which utilizes the capital equipment and technical information efficiently and could be also regarded as technological capabilities (Harris and Harris, 2004). Further, technological capabilities could be divided into four levels. The first level is production or operational capability in which skills are required to control the production process and the machinery in the plants or in the site. The second level is investment or acquisitive capabilities. It refers to search, assessment, negotiation, and procurement of relevant technologies as well as the installation and setting-up the production facilities. The third level refers to adaptive (minor change capability) in which the skills is required to digest the transferred technologies or improvements in the existing product. Finally, is the innovative (major change capability) in which skill is essential to perform research and development, products modifications and developing new products.

The tools of technology transfer could be referred as machine, electrical or mechanical component, a chemical process, software code, a patent and a technique. According to Bennett and Zhao (2004) the tools transfer could be benefited to developing countries in the form of generating greater revenues. Moreover, technology may be transferred between persons, between organizations, between regions and countries. Technology transfer occurs because of the existence seller (transferor) and buyers (transferee). Technology transfer normally refers to formal and direct arrangements between a transferee and a transferor or non-commercial arrangements between donor and recipient. This form of transfer in particular, may well be a two way process between transferor and transferee. Transferor and transferee play a major role in which, the transferor willing to transfer the technology and the transferee willing to learn the technology, hence encourages the technology transfer process.

The second stage refers to the different channels or modes of technology transfer which includes; direct, indirect, commercial and non-commercial channels (Cohen, 2004; Li-hua, 2004). The direct channels could be regarded as managerial and institutional comprising of operating international cooperation, licensing agreements, hiring expert and contractor, and training of technical staff to abroad. The indirect channels are the purchase machinery, exchange information at international meetings and attend exhibitions and trade fairs. The commercial technology transfer channels are described as foreign direct investment (FDI), joint venture (JVs), licensing, franchising, marketing contracts, technical service contracts, turnkey contracts and international subcontracting. Non-commercial technology transfer however, includes the review of technical publications (journals and books) and the training of foreign students (Benedetto et al. 2003). In short, firms from developing countries can accelerate the speed by which they can produce globally competitive products through rapid technology transfer from developed nations.

The third stage refers to project stakeholders and these could be the suppliers, governments, workers, managers and wider community representative that have a stake to ITT (Cohen, 2004). Stakeholders are those people or organizations who have vested interest in the industry. Stakeholders can be those who are affected by the industry, have influence and power over the industry, and have interest in the success and failures of the industry. Stakeholders are important as players to ITT despite the difficulties in defining significant stakeholders that could measure the benefits of technology transfer. The final stage is the benefit of technology transfer. Benefits are perceived in the form of improving project efficiency, effectiveness, increased profits strategic goal, user satisfaction, social & environmental impacts, personal development, professional learning, profit, minimized production problems and economy impact to surrounding community (Roger, 1962).

Given the above, the framework of ITT projects in Malaysia should comprises the five areas of concerned. These are: types of technology, the channels, stakeholders, barriers and benefits of ITT projects. More extensive empirical research works on these five areas are needed to refine for the future findings.

7. Conclusion

This research attempt to investigate International Technology Transfer (ITT) and development of technological capabilities in Malaysian Constructions Industry which reinforces the issues of types of technology transfer (knowledge, skill and tool), channels of technology transfer, technology capabilities, the involvement of stakeholders, the benefits and barriers that could emerged in ITT. The outcomes of the study could provide an insight in Malaysian construction project development and will hopefully provide valuable guidelines, especially to public or private sectors in Malaysia with regards to ITT.

The research presented in this paper is part of an ongoing PhD research at Faculty of Architecture, Planning and Surveying, UiTM to develop a framework of international technology transfer (ITT) and development of technological capabilities in Malaysian construction industry. The result of the study could provide an insight into the Malaysian construction project development and will hopefully provide valuable guidelines, especially to public or private sectors in Malaysia.

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Table 1.0: Types of Technology Transfer Models

Wei (1995)	Lin & Berg (2001)	Saad et al. (2002)	Putranto et al. (2003)	Daghfous, (2004)	Haris & Harris, (2004)
Technological content of technology transfer	A theoretical model for technology transfer effectiveness	The "extended life cycle" approach to the assessment of TT project success	Model of technology transfer as a process with a feedback loop	A conceptual model technology transfer	The Five 'M' frame work
Major concerns Technical change for technology importing countries -Exporting Firms -Importing Firms Flow A -capital goods -Technological services Flow B -Operating skills and Know-How Flow C -Knowledge, experience, expertise for generating and managing technical change	The major factors affect the performance of ITT project The nature of technology -Complexity -Maturity -Codification International experience -Transferee -Transferor Cultural difference Result: Cultural difference impacts on a TT project through complex mechanism	Combination stages Traditional project life cycle -Initiation -Development -Implementation -Hand-over Technology Transfer stages -Feasibility -Acquisition -Operation & maintenance -Disposal Stakeholders -Government -Managers & workers -Parent corporation -Capital suppliers -Subcontractors Expected Benefits -Improved efficiency -Improved effectiveness -Increased profit -Satisfied users -Contractor profit	-From the transferee point of view Four main stages -Preparation stage -Production stage -Operation stage -Evaluation stage Each stage to allow improving technology capabilities Preparation stage -Identification project -Feasibility study -Specification of product -Negotiation Production stage -Design of product -Equipment improvement -Manufacturing product -Adaptation product Operation stage -Product operation -Product maintenance -Product repair Evaluation stage Dynamic learning	Relationship among learning processes, knowledge, and technology transfer projects -Prior knowledge -Learning processes -Project stage -Intended benefits -Unintended benefits	A sociotechnical system frame work of contemporary ergonomics and a frame work for assessing the likely effectiveness of technology transfer Integration of -User (human) -Machine -Mission -Medium -Management

Source: Wei (1995); Lin & Berg (2001); Saad et. al. (2002); Putranto et al. (2003); Dagfous. (2004); Hari & Harris (2004)

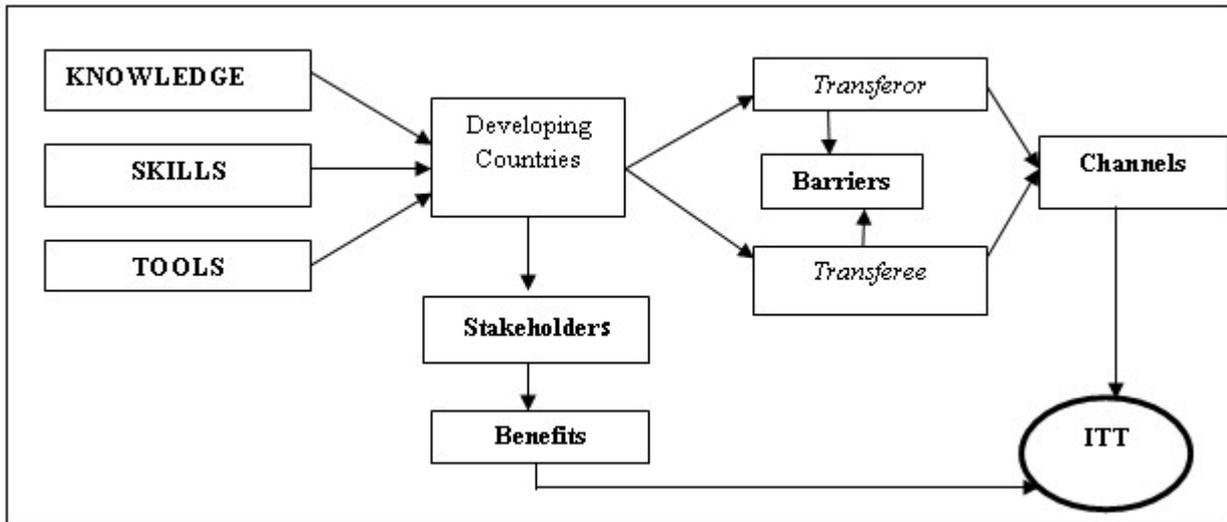


Figure 1. Proposed a Conceptual Framework for ITT projects in Malaysia



The Beveridge Report and Its Impact on China's Social Security System

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Abstract

When it was published on December 1st 1942, Social Insurance and Allied Services, or as it was universally called, the Beveridge Report, was an instant and phenomenal success.

It gives the criticism to the England's social security system. The report pointed that each problem has been dealt with separately, with little or no reference to allied problem. And it causes each kind of social security measure isolation, which sometimes creates repeat, sometimes appears the blank spot. Thus has affected the social security system's actual effect. The England social security system reform persists three principles. The first principle is that any proposals for future, while they should use to the full the experience gathered in the past, should not be restricted by consideration of sectional interests established in the obtaining of that experience. The second principle is that organization of social insurance should be treated as one part only of a comprehensive policy of social progress. The third principle is that social security must be achieved by co-operation between the state and the individual. The Beveridge Report is one of the most important works which influence the social security system of England and other countries in the world.

Keywords: Beveridge report, China's social security, System model, Enlarge coverage, Fund management

1. Introduction of Beveridge Report

The main feature of the Plan for Social Security is a scheme of social insurance against interruption and destruction of earning power and for special expenditure arising at birth, marriage or death. The scheme embodies six fundamental principles; flat rate of contribution; unification of administrative responsibility; adequacy of benefit; comprehensiveness; and classification. Based on them and in combination with national assistance and voluntary insurance as subsidiary methods, the aim of the Plan for Social Security is to make want under any circumstances unnecessary. It was this promise of comprehensive coverage and adequate benefits that created the vision that after the war, there would be no return to the bad old days of the Depression and that no-one need ever be poor again. This was the 'rare and refreshing Beveridge' that intoxicated press and public.

The report emphatically elaborated three ways of the social security, social insurance which is the basic needs for the safeguard, national assistance which is special for the guarantee, and voluntary insurance which is demanded outside the basic need. The social insurance is cash allowance refers to the insured provides compulsorily based on pays expenses, it is the most important kind of social security measure, it should be comprehensive and universal as far as possible, but it is not the only measure, also needs the national assistance and voluntary insurance as subsidiary methods. The national insurance is the safeguard which provides to the special demand, which is the social security system's essential supplement and is free. The voluntary insurance is the supplement to social insurance system and the national assistance system. The purpose of the social insurance and national assistance which is provided by the nation is safeguard one kind of basic survival income, and the different person have different income and the demand existence very big difference, so the goal to provide the high level for the life should be voluntarily insured, and the country should guarantee each measure exist and encourage it.

The report pointed out that the England social insurance system development should follow six basic principles: flat rate of subsistence benefit; flat rate of contribution; unification of administrative responsibility; adequacy of benefit; comprehensiveness; and classification.

Beveridge was adamant that his scheme must be based on the principle of insurance, as opposed to payments out of general taxation. 'Benefit in return for contributions, rather than free allowances from the State, is what the people of Britain desire'. He believed it was wrong in principle to relieve the insured from the burden of contributions so that they 'should not feel that income for idleness, however caused, can come from a bottomless purse'. This meant that benefits could only be set as high as the poorest members of the community could pay for with their contributions, which meant that while benefits should not be set any lower than was needed for subsistence. They should not be set

any higher; otherwise the poorest would not be able to afford the contributions. But he wanted benefits to be set at the minimum level for another reason; he believed that the State should not remove from individuals the will to improve their lot by hardwork and thrift, so he deliberately set the benefits at the minimum to allow individuals to provide for themselves above this if they so wished. Thus he decided that his Plan would be based upon a system of one flat-rate benefit for everyone who would be financed by flat-rate contributions. In deciding this he decided against the schemes, which were common abroad, of relating the benefits and therefore the contributions to the previous earnings of the insured. His insistence on sticking to the insurance principle also meant that he was in some difficulties when it came to retirement pensions. If pensions were paid at the new higher rate immediately then many pensioners would benefit without having made the contributions. He therefore proposed that the full pension should be phased in over a period of twenty years and that in the meantime only part of the subsistence level benefit would be paid. For millions of pensioners, however, having seen the promised jam, twenty years seemed far too long to wait for it, even if in the case of sound insurance, and this was the one proposal in the Plan which met with general condemnation.

2. The Enlightenments We Have Gained from Beveridge Report

2.1 Which model should we choose for our system

Before they make a conclusion they firstly make a careful investigation for England's present situation. The suggestions are on basic of the investigation. So in our reform, we should put the investigation on first. Only do like this, our social security system is suitable for our country.

At present, the high level social welfare is not fit for our country. As far as we know, our country is a developing country. And its productive and the industrialization level obviously cannot compare with development country. We should pay proper attention to both fairly with the efficiency social insurance system, simultaneously establishes the perfect cost relatively inexpensive society security system, which is the pattern of "the insurance-rescue". It is because that our country, at present the productive forces level of development is not high, and for a long time will occupy the socialism initial stage. At the same time, in view of the fact that the impoverished population scale is bigger in our country city and countryside, and in the quite long time the radical change reality is difficult, we should gradually establish and consummate the social security system.

Take aged-insurance for example. Internationally there are three major funding models for insurance for the aged: cash basis accounting, full accumulation and partial accumulation. Partial accumulation is actually a combination of cash basis accounting and full accumulation. It achieves across-generation shift in pensions for the aged and are distribution of income, as does cash basis accounting; it also stimulates the payment of premiums and improve efficiency, as does full accumulation. Partial accumulation reduces the burden of welfare expenditure in cash basis accounting, overcomes the imbalances in individual annual incomes under the full accumulation model, and provides retirees with resources for survival. Partial accumulation has the institutional advantages of full accumulation in terms of accumulating capital and coping with the problems of ageing, yet frees enterprises from the excessive burden of premiums and the problems of preserving and increasing the value of their funds. This model is therefore relatively ideal in China's current situation.

It relieves the pressure brought to bear on capital by the ageing of the population. Expenditure on retirement pensions is currently high in China partly because of the ageing of the population. Cash basis accounting will result in an enormous funding deficit in the approaching ageing crisis. China's Year Book of Statistics (1997) shows that with full accumulation retirement pensions are accounting for an increasingly larger proportion of total salaries. Full accumulation is beyond the capacity of enterprises since workers already bear a heavy burden in terms of pensions for the retired, and they can accumulate only very little. There must therefore be a practical way in which we can both provide security for the retired and accumulate capital to deal with the crisis caused by the ageing population. Partial accumulation minimizes the conflict between cash basis accumulation and full accumulation through an appropriate ratio of accumulation. This can keep the ratio of premiums stable without any systemic change.

Partial accumulation will facilitate the goal of a national standard system while recognizing regional differences in terms of security. There are great differences in the economies of different regions in China, which could cause difficulties for a nation-wide system of basic old age insurance. Partial accumulation responds to differences in income and levels of security within an integral system by adjusting minimum premiums and the savings in personal accounts.

Partial accumulation encourages a sense of participation on the part of policy holders. Personal accumulation is determined not only by an individual's salary but also by the premium paid by the enterprise. An employee will therefore actively demand that his or her enterprise buy insurance and pay the premiums regularly. This will widen the coverage of old-age pensions, and encourage enterprises to pay the premiums for their employees.

Partial accumulation is more acceptable to the Chinese who have a tradition of saving. According to a World Bank report, residents' high rate of saving is one of the major factors contributing to rapid economic growth in Southeast Asia. Residents' rate of saving has remained around 40% of total salary income in China, a much higher rate than the Western

developed nations and other Asian countries. Saving as a part of the national tradition in China provides a sound foundation for partial accumulation.

Partial accumulation is relatively flexible as an institution. One important difference between full and partial accumulation is that with the latter a greater part of the policy holder's annual premium (basic old-age pension) is still funded by the overall social planning. During periods of high inflation when money loses its value and accumulation alone becomes too little to make any difference, it is even possible to ignore personal accounts and shift to cash basis accounting.

The division of premiums between the overall social planning account and personal accounts for basic medical insurance. Basic medical insurance in China is founded jointly by overall planning and personal accounts.

2.2 we should enlarge the coverage of social security

The social security systems also have many gaps and omissions. Current new social security system has not yet comprehensively been established, China's social security net also has many cracks in fact. National assistance is not able to consider fully, for example, the housing, the children get sick, the medical service, the child education demand and so on. Some places still have the phenomenon which put "the hypothesized income" and the difficult enterprise staff cannot receive on time to take the real income computation, which cause part low income resident cannot enter the lowest social security system. Majority rural area also hasn't established the social security system. In social insurance system aspect, there is almost more than half city labors are not covered by the basic old-age insurance, the system of medical care insurance is only covers less half people; the population of participates in the workers' compensation insurance is cannot contain all. Because of the old-age insurance system's gaps and omissions, the partial old population constituted the new poor which originated in the social welfare system aspect, adapted the senior citizen with the aging of population and the youngest son to nurse system not to mention welfare systems' construction program. The disabled person needs the recovery service also owes to lack. In addition, exceptionally village resident's also face the deficient social security, particularly the peasant the farmer laborer is the main transient population and the scale is huge, but the government consideration has not integrated it. The social risks are accumulating continually.

The rural community social security is neglect, it is a big fault of the policy China social security system construction since the country has been reform and open. Therefore, we must protect in countryside resident's weak trend population truly and urge the overwhelming majority countryside resident avoid to degenerate into the minority groups, we also have the necessity to advance the rural community system of social security construction positively. The suggestion urges the city and countryside lowest social security system integration take the village lowest social security system's establishment and as a foundation, take the mutual cooperation constructs as the principle to construct the new village medical service safeguard system, gives birth husbands and wives take the rural planning to construct as the breach the rural society old-age insurance system, concentrates take the countryside household enjoying the five guarantees provides for develops village welfare services gradually as the foundation.

2.3 How to improve the efficiency of management

Under government's leadership, makes the corresponding social security laws and regulations through the Legislature, clarify the responsibility of main body all of social security, further consummates the mechanism of the social security responsibility altogether take on.

Must be clarify the government's responsibility. The government's natural responsibility is undertaking protect the minority groups and the leadership entire social security systems. This responsibility is not only manifests in impetus social security aspects 's legislation supervision, and social security movement, moreover direct, manifests specifically in the financial responsibility which the government undertakes. The country must be clear about in finance's social security investment proportion. At the same time, through legislates to be clear about Local authority's social security finance responsibility, abandon the so-called achievements project and the image project, and use the limited financial funds in the promotion employment and protects on the minority groups.

Must be clarify the enterprise's responsibility. The enterprise payment is the important economic basis of social insurance system's. But the present payment rate extremely unfair, and is unbalanced high, which undermine the market economy fair competition environment and harm for the enterprise competitive power. Therefore, in order to make a clear distinction between the historical responsibility and under the realistic responsibility condition, we should be clear about the limits enterprise's responsibility as soon as possible and realize the enterprise burden equalization rapidly. The new social insurance system should collection social insurance charges to all conform of the legal norm enterprise according to the unified tariff standard, under the control enterprise responsibility's premise, we should enhance the government finance and individual burden proportion according to the social security fund demand.

Must limit the personal liability explicitly. Strengthens the national self-safeguard consciousness and the personal liability, let all the labors share the corresponding social insurance charges is the essential action. First, make a standard of wage statistics category, levies the social insurance charges according to real wages; Second, the expansion social

security coverage, lets young share the middle and old aged staff's partial responsibilities; third, through consummates measures, personal income tax and interest tax and formulation inheritance tax to adjust the national personal income assignment moderately, let somebody who go the first rich take more responsibility of social security.

While clarify the government, the enterprise and personal liability, the country must guide the community to share the corresponding social security responsibility positively. For example, the government may expand the lottery ticket release and attempt the horse racing and lottery industry safely positively, simultaneously uses the tax preference policy to adjust the enthusiasm which the merit participation charitable public utility from all walks of life contributes. This non-compulsory fund raising way will be able to collect the massive funds, they are the supplement government, the enterprise and individual bear ability directly insufficient important and the beneficial supplement

We should also care about the welfare systems in social administration. Efficiency have been raised repeatedly Western countries. Government socialservice departments are usually over-staffed and overlap, and serious bureaucra-tization has become a scourge in all welfare states. Another reason for low efficiency in social administration is the absence of a clear definition of targets and responsibilities. As early as 1968, the social security reform plan put forward by the American Brookings Institution pointed out that the biggest problem in the American social security system was the attempt to meet two entirely different objectives by means of the same mechanism. One objective was to prevent poverty among senior citizens and the other to make sure that pensioners retained a living standard compatible with that before their retirement. This means that one objective requires universal minimum security, whereas the other makes it necessary for different levels of security to be sought in line with incomes and tax payments. This analysis also applies to other European welfare states. The same mechanism has two different objectives and goals and actions are thus likely to be confused.

2.4 How to improve the management of fund

Firstly, the ability of the administrative system to separately manage investment, operations and supervision should be improved.

Secondly, government control over social security funds, particularly old –age pensionfunds, should be gradually relaxed. In the long run, when administration and investment have been separated, and when professional agencies have been established, various channels of investment should be allowed in terms of old-age pensions. It is desirable in China to establish several companies to operate old- age pension funds, and allowing them to invest in stocks and bonds. This will facilitate the development of a mature capital market. The current problem is that the operating companies cannot operate really independently. Even when a company is allowed to operate independently, it is very hard to establish an appropriate supervisory mechanism because of the publicnature of the funds.

Thirdly, there should be an appropriate policy frame work drafted by the central government with regard to enterprise's extra old-age pension payments for the irrespective employees. The funds for these payments should be taken only from the collective welfare funds of enterprises, and enterprises without collective welfare funds should not enjoy additional old-age pensions. At the sametime, there should also be a reasonable and well-managed plan inside enterprises.

Fourthly, the hidden debts of the central government should be liquidated in various ways. The transition costs incurred with regard to old age-pensions for middle-aged and elderly workers should be paid by the central government by transferring stock in state assets. This can be achieved in the following ways: (1)transferring stock in state assets directly to social security departments during the process of incorporation and reform of the joint stock system, and paying the debts with the profits from stock rights; (2)placing some state-owned enterprises under the control of the social security departments and paying the debts with their profits; and,(3)selling or leasing some state-owned assets(such as medium –sized and small enterprises and realestate) and paying the debts with the revenue.

Fifth, the social security overall planning should be reasonably stratified. It was decided in 1998 by the central government that basic old-age pensions should be implemented at the provincial level within three years. The system must be open and cover all members of society.In this sense, provincial overall planning serves only as an intermediate stage.

At present the scope of overall planning for medical insurance should be determined according to regional economic development. Regions with higher levels of urbanization and economic development should setup a system based on municipal overall planning with the support of provincial risk funds, while less urbanized regions with an under-developed economy should initially place greate remphasis at a county level. Large enterprises should also be all owed to setup their own medical insurance companies.

Sixth, legislation on the social security system should be speeded up. We should evolve an integrated scheme through experimentation, and regularize this scheme by incorporating it into StateCouncil documents. Adjustments and revisions should be allowed during the implementation process. Legislation with regard to medical insurances hould be undertaken gradually according to the difficulty of each programandits progress. The first step is to determine specific regulations, and on this basis develop social security laws to p rovide a legal framework.

3. Conclusion

Constructs the harmonious society, the most basic is to establish a perfect social security. Party's 17th conference proposed that we must speed up the establishment of social security system. It is not only the important attribute to maintains the social stability, but also a important attribute to promotion economic development.

Beveridge Reporte is designed by Knight Beveridge. Its background is 60 years ago, Britain is being in “the most brutal, the most comprehensive, the most essential” time of war. In order to unite the British nationals to cross the difficult time, Knight Beveridge has designed the one whole set the social security systems for Britain “from the cradle to the grave”, which is called the blueprint of welfare state.

Accroding to operating practice, Beveridge Rport is the prologue of welfare state construction, which has profound influence to the postwar capitalism world's social structure reconstruction and the transform functions of the government. Beveridge Rport is holding the indisputable immortal status in the social security history. It initiates the idea, the principle, the method and even established the welfare systems frame has the profound influence to social security's development. After the it is published more than 60 years, it is quoted by the innumerable people, studies, imitates. It is a milestone-like document in development of the human race history.

After the reform and open policy our country has adopted the non-balanced developmental strategy. Including: Gives priority to the economy; First individual local development and so on. This strategy while is promoting national economy development enormously, also has created a series of negative consequences. And the most serious consequence is, was not all people shares the achievement of reform and open policy, which performed by the income differential and the local disparity expanded day by day.

Although our country present is entirely different from Britain's macroscopic environment before 60 years, but it is urgently need to eliminate these negative consequences under the construction harmonious society's background. And Beveridge Reported has provided some beneficial mentalities for us.

These mentalities include: First, social security systems' basic goal is guaranteed that each citizen will not fall into the life difficult position in any situation. What Beveridge stressed repeatedly is “lets the most difficult person spend on the normal life”, but does not guarantee “on life in plenty” - - the latter to depend upon individual market diligently the strength. This is not only embarks from person's primary need, but also embarks from the national economical carrying capacity.

Second, the embarrassment of economy and the pecuniary is not the reason of postponing social security systems construction. Because social security systems solution is for the most difficult person, avoids this question take the financial problem as the excuse, not humanity.

Third, the social security systems plan need a Coordination committee which is inter-departmental to complete. Beveridge believed that social security systems' construction is a engineering systems, involves society's aspects, also involves the special benefit of various society group's. Therefore, it is unable to imagine without a such Coordination committee to advance construction of the system.

To promote the economical and society's accord development well, our country should begin from the below aspect to establish the reasonable social security system: Expands the coverage of social security, raises the social security fund in the multi-road, forms the joint effort of individual, collective and government; to promotes the specialization of employment service and the socialization. In social security system's construction, we must both enable social security system to play a full function but also must avoid harmful of the high safeguarding to the economic efficiency. finally we had better to achieve the unification of both personally fair and the social justice and realize individual efficiency and social efficiency balanced.

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Durning 11th Five-Year Plan Period, China's Social Changes Analysis

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Abstract

Applying comparative institutional analysis method, based on the the analysis of typical cases , in the framework of Marxist historical materialism, this article discuss the path and direction of Chinese Social Change during 11th Five-Year Plan period, we get a new form of government with a kind of indirect elections and the relative concentration of power in the People's Congress (parliament), consistent with the principle of separation of powers, it has important reference value for the reform of transition countries

Keywords: Classic case analysis, 11th Five-Year Plan, Social changes

From 2003 China's GDP exceed 10% annual growth rate, it is an extensive pattern of growth, the investment rate has been as high as 50%, and external dependence has reached 60%. This is an investment-driven and export-driven economic growth, according to the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences statistics, 1 trillion US dollars of GDP energy consumption is 7.2 times that of Japan, 3.52 times that of the United States, Germany 5.62 times and the world's average level of 3.28 times. Recently outbreak of cyanobacteria in Taihu Lake in Jiangsu Province shows environment for economic growth close to the affordability limit. the Communist Party of China enacted 11th Five-Year Plan, promote innovation, adhere to the scientific concept of development and trying to develop advanced productive forces to promote transformation of the economic growth mode from extensive to intensive, from epitaxial to connotation .CPC also try to overcome existing deficiencies in productivity . Marxism is the guiding ideology in China , the development of productivity need adjustment of the production relations ,it will trigger a profound social change.this article discuss the path and direction of Chinese Social Change during 11th Five-Year Plan period.

The social system is the collection of institution.man action produce a wide range of institution, these institutions also can exert influence to man action, various institutions have varying degrees of correlation and complementarity, forming a complex system.this decision changes in the social structure is very complex. In a book named "economic system Comparative Institutional Analysis,"A famous Japanese economist Aoki chang yan (1999) say that "what kind of approach can be the most achieving low-cost system reform? Key reform of the system.its impact will spread to the surrounding system, thus the reform will proceed smoothly. "After 20 years of reform and opening up, we have made great achievements, productivity has been tremendous development, we finally established a market economy system can adapt to the requirements for the development of productive forces. We did not meet the requirements of advanced productive forces because market economy system is not perfect, particularly our financial system. some important indicators of our financial system such as capital adequacy ratio, asset margins is far away from a full market economy country , there are strange phenomenon that different stock right exist in one stock. Comrade Deng Xiaoping, the chief architect of reform, has profoundly discussed The importance of the financial reform that "Finance is the core of modern economy. Once finance becomes a live game, Econmy will be a live game ".well-known American economist Joseph. Mr. Stiglitz proves importance of finance from the perspective of information economics. To represent the demands of advanced productive forces depends on deepen reform of the financial system.

Deepen reform of the financial system need new thinking and new path. We should use the model of system reform that financial system reform is core reform with which other reforms cooperate. This means that we must give up "cross the river by feeling the stones" pattern of gradual reform. Why? When we engage in the reform of the financial gradual reforms, we get a lesson. From 1998 the banking reform is quite strong, and in 1998 270 billion yuan special bonds which keep capital adequacy of the state-owned banks is issued, limit size of loans in the state-owned commercial banks is abolished, four Asset Management Corporation are set up to accept 1.4 trillion bank bad debts of the four state-owned commercial banks . What is Reform effect? In mid-2002, the four major state-owned commercial banks bad debts reached 1.7 trillion yuan again. The fundamental reason is that the reform of state-owned commercial banks are not in place, and modern financial enterprise system is not established , no property constraints and capital constraints support the reform of state-owned enterprises and social security system reform has not kept up. a moral hazard is triggered.

The model that financial system is a core reform will greatly facilitate to change the mode of economic growth in China. Now Chinese bank has a surplus of funds, Amount that deposits exceed loan reached 11 trillion yuan, it indicates the existence of a relative surplus of capital, In accordance with the principles of economics, capital is scarce. China's current monetary policy is tight, the deposit reserve level is as high as 12%. a relative surplus of capital can only be summed up as reasons that financial system is not sound, , In order to curb the current stock market and the property market bubble which has already taken shape and to prevent the negative impact of bubble, we must improve the financial system to absorb the excess liquidity. The Chinese economy is a typical export-oriented economy, according to the experience of Hoffman industrial law; It is divided into three stages of processing industries, light and heavy industries. Heavy industry has a investment cycle of five years, heavy industrialization began in 2002, It shows Chinese economy is at the end of an economic cycle. In order to maintain sustainable economic growth and stability, we must adjust the relations of production, to promote the development of productive forces, To strengthen the financial system, financial system can play a important role in the economic growth.

Let us use a case study deepen our understanding of the social system changes exposition. In 2003 macro-control, the case that illegal steel project of Tieben Iron and Steel Company Limited in Jiangsu Province (hereinafter referred to the Tieben) is cancelled gives us a lot of inspiration. Economists said the it is mistake of lending banks. Correct. During change course from executive to commercial banks, Because of the lack of advanced management techniques to control loan risks, we can not harmonize credit liquidity, safety, profitability. We are engaging in the reform of the shareholding commercial banks ,reason to be introduced strategic investors is to gain advanced management techniques to make up for this deficiency. Joseph. Stiglitz (2005) pointed out that "the ability and willingness of bank to issue loan and take risks is important factor in economic activities". If our bank become a real commercial banks, it will be spontaneous out these mistakes in the allocation of resources and minimize losses , fact prove it will be a big loss until the government intervention, price lever and competing mechanism is not sufficient to achieve the optimal allocation of resources.it is more important to set up a sound financial system.we should implement the market economy under regulation and control of the financial market , achieve economic growth with intrinsic motivation, improve its internal control mechanisms.

In Tieben case, there are the two facts link with the government. First, project is broke up to get dispersed approval. Second, illegal enclosure and violations of rights and interests of farmers.the government-led investment overheating and the government power to allocate resources has become a chronic problem of China's economy.Government authority is so large that litigation costs is sky high, bargaining power from enterprises and banks to the government is small, strong powers of the government contain business boomed activities, hinder the financial control mechanisms. The reform of financial system must be in line with the reform of political system.

Marxist political economics say that economic base determines the superstructure. We have abandoned the planned economy, and initially implement the socialist market economy, Because the economic fundamentals have changed, the superstructure objective require to be changed. The masses of the people strongly wish for political reform. a high click rate of the article named" who can monitor Provincial Secretary " is very interesting on XINHUA.com , general content is that the Organization Department of the provincial party committee appoints government official, and the provincial propaganda department manage newspaper theory, the provincial discipline department administer public security, pro-curatorial, judicial, Who dares to supervise provincial party secretary?

What trails should Political reform follow? We must adhere to our political traditions, cultural and historical traditions, in a nutshell, respect our values. Political reform should be guided by the following principles: (1) Comrade Deng Xiaoping pointed out that it is imperative "to root out the remnants of feudalism impact" to overcome the "excessive concentration of power" to expand inner-party democracy and people's democracy. (2) "The state uphold uniformity and dignity of the socialist legal system", the separation of powers must be used to check and balance strong power. (3), Comrade Mao Ze dong pointed out that "The People's Republic of China have all powers belong to the people" Comrade Jiang Zemin saying: "we must represent the broad masses of people's fundamental interests". (4) We should merge with the world and absorb all the political civilization of mankind fruit, (5) the reform of political system impact the overall situation, we must actively and steadily progress (6) "The State organs of the People's Republic of China apply the principle of democratic centralism". (7) We should implement comprehensive and coordinated development required by the scientific concept of development. (8) We must respect the people's wishes.

In accordance with the above principles ,we can gain a program about reform of the People's Congress.Deputies must be directly elected by people with the adoption of international standard election procedures and election monitoring procedure, provincial-level administrative region is defined as election District. The elected deputies should no longer concurrently be charge of other duties similar to those of western countries, professionally perform the work of state management. While the electoral law should be amended to ensure that the NPC deputies

from the Communist Party of China in absolute majority, to embody the leadership of the Chinese Communist Party. Directly elected The National People's Congress, as the highest organ of state power right, should use the principle of democratic centralism to elect government commander and the deputy commander to exercise administrative powers, Heads of government candidates should be nominated from the Communist Party and the democratic parties separately, candidates without party should be nominated by a certain proportion of deputies. After government leaders and deputies are elected by the principle of democratic centralism through NPC, they should be fully responsible for the nomination of department officials, it should be reported to the people's congress to get approved. The government is responsible and reports on its work to the National People's, and accept the supervision of the NPC, People's Congress in accordance with legal procedures can submit a no-confidence bill to remove the government or government department officials, However, the government has no right to dissolve the People's Congress. NPC exercise legislative power, The law can be implemented until it is signed by leaders of government. Summit judicial candidates are nominated from the Communist Party and the democratic parties separately, candidates without party should be nominated by a certain proportion of deputies., the heads of the judiciary should be elected by the principle of democratic centralism from NPC, A certain proportion of deputies can implement an independent judicial inquiry to monitor major issues in state management.

The new People's Congress system can be deem as modern version of famous Zunyi Meeting in the Chinese Communist Party's history, it is consistent with path dependency theory of historical changes and reflects advanced concepts of the modern social progress. Only democratic elections can really guarantee the people's freedom and rights, only competition can produce efficiency, the competition between the political parties guarantee effective use of power. Only the checks and balances of powers can prevent the abuse of power, corruption and despotism into the autocratic swamp.

During 11th Five-Year Plan period, China's society should be expected to be changed in two main direction, To establish a sound financial system should become a goal of economic reform, Currently preparing to create the GEM market and the corporate bond market show this trend, decentralization reform should become a goal of political reform, China will eventually become a a harmonious society characterized by complete market economic system.

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Perceptions of Malaysian Local Government Managers on Accountability Typology

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Abstract

Accountability is a concept that has been difficult to clearly identify or measure. There is disagreement over definitions of accountability and a lack of empirical evidence about ways the concept might be dimensionalized, although there is agreement that it is multi-dimensional in nature. The aim of this study is to provide evidence of the existence of common types of accountability that are considered by departmental managers in local governments in Malaysia to be rendered by their particular departments. Drawing from a range of writings that have propounded different dimensions for the accountability construct, this study develops an instrument and administers it to departmental heads and their immediate subordinate manager in local government authorities throughout Malaysia. A three-cluster solution resulted from the data analysis, indicating an accountability typology that reduces to the three dimensions managerial/public accountability, fiduciary/compliance accountability and political accountability.

Keywords: Accountability, Local government, Typology, Public sector organizations

1. Introduction

Accountability is a term used in business, political, and social contexts, and is viewed as an important concept for social and organizational systems (Cunningham & Harris, 2001; Thynne & Goldring, 1987). Traditionally, accountability means the giving or rendering of an account – i.e., a statement explaining one's conduct or actions (Roberts and Scapens 1985; Parker & Gould 1999). Jackson (1982 p.220) defines accountability as:

A process that involves explaining or justifying what has been done, what is currently being done and what is planned. Thus, one party is accountable to another in the sense that one of the parties has a right to call upon the other to give an account of his (or her) activities.

Organizational research has included accountability as a variable of social influence with increasing frequency. The basic concept in these studies is that accountability is the perceived potential of being evaluated by someone, and being answerable for decisions or actions (Frink and Ferris, 1998). In the public administration literature, the claim is made that “accountability is the cornerstone of the Westminster system of government” (Fountain, 1991, p191). In the

accounting literature, the rendering of accountability is treated as a central objective of external reporting by public sector entities (ICAA/CPAA, 2004). Although the rendering of accountability by public sector entities is deemed to have fundamental importance, and is the function that management is charged to achieve in public sector organizations (Roberts 1991; Munro and Hatherly 1993; Fowles 1993; Cochrane 1993), it is confounded by the fact that the concept of accountability is multi-faceted and remains elusive. In defining the concept of accountability, differing vagaries abound depending on the prevalent commercial, social, political and cultural norms (Giddens 1979; Roberts 1991; Sinclair, 1995; Sirajuddin and Aslam 1995). Past definitions have been subjectively constructed and changed with particular contexts (Sinclair, 1995). Accountability, too, tends to assume various forms as an end result of governance initiatives in the public sector directed toward some form of uniformity. Based on these observations, Sinclair (1995, p.221) noted that the concept of accountability remains elusive; *'the more definitive we attempt to render the concept, the more murky it becomes.'* A strong case can be made for the importance of accountability in local government authorities (LAs). LAs have direct working relationships with external accountees in their community. Thus, ratepayers, local consumers and municipal electors – as direct resource providers, service users and voters – can claim a right to information that facilitates their making of informed judgments about the plans and actions of their local government. Not only are LAs at the forefront of dealing with local communities, they are also answerable to a hierarchy of regulators, policy-makers, and other oversight bodies within State and Federal levels of government.

The objective of this study is to identify the primary dimensions of the concept of accountability and measure these dimensions in terms of the way local government authorities (LAs) render accountability to their multiple stakeholders, as perceived by departmental managers. This study provides results from a survey that seek to establish whether an exclusive set of dimensions of accountability exists as a typology, which can classify the dominant accountability orientations of functional departments of LAs.

2. Methodology

While a review of the literature has led to the contention that a typology of four primary types or dimensions of accountability exists in public sector organizations, evidence needs to be presented about whether in fact such a typology exists. A limitation of gathering evidence about the nature of an existing accountability typology is that it could differ in different contexts. Types of accountability may well be sensitive to different cultural and institutional settings. In this study, the evidence to be presented is limited to the context of sub-units of local authorities (LAs) in Malaysia. In this setting, the hypothesis to be tested is that:

H1 There exists a set of distinct types of accountability as perceived by departmental heads and associated supervisory managers of LA's in Malaysia.

An instrument on dimensions of accountability was administered to Heads of Department or their senior supervisory managers in Malaysian LA departments. Measures of elements of the accountability construct in the questionnaire were based on 15 items, each with a 5-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). These items were worded to obtain respondents' perceptions of the extent to which aspects of accountability are being rendered by their department. The items were adapted from Stewart (1984), Sinclair (1995), Taylor & Pincus (1999), Taylor & Rosair (2000) and Kloot & Martin (2001). A mailing list of 97 LAs in peninsula Malaysia was obtained from the Ministry of Housing and Local Government. There are 4 City Councils, 28 Municipal Councils and 65 District Councils. The departments targeted within each LA were those that provide direct services to the public. They cover the functions of health, urban services, building, engineering, licensing and enforcement.

The rationale for selecting departmental heads and senior managers of departments that provide direct services to the public is as follows: (a) They are responsible for the delivery of identifiable services to the local community and therefore, face public exposure, (b) They are responsible for the implementation of public programs and projects that have been conceived and directed from political wings of government, (c) They function in a work environment in Malaysia where the emphasis has recently been changing from a traditional bureaucratic style of management towards managerialism and 'new public management' reforms that have been influenced by the reform undertaken in Western countries in the 1980s and 1990s, and (d) There is a growing public expectation that departmental heads must be highly competent and take a morally responsible role. This expectation has been driven by local media attention to cases of LA mal-practices in Malaysia.

A total of 665 target respondents comprising 380 heads of departments and 285 supervisory managers from 97 LAs were sampled. The questionnaires were personally addressed to the targeted individuals, names having been obtained from the websites of the LAs. Useable responses were received from 165 (54%) departmental heads and 143 (46%) supervisory managers. The overall response rate was a respectable 47% (i.e., 308 of 665). The management level of the respondents when compared across type of LA is presented in Table 1. Table 2 shows the breakdown of the responses from each functional department heads & senior officers. Table 1 indicates that 71% of the departmental heads from District Councils participated in this survey. By comparison, 36% and 46% of departmental heads from the Municipal Council and City Council, respectively, participated.

The departments selected within each local authority would be the departments that provide direct services to the public such as the Health Department, Urban Services Department, Licensing and Enforcement Department, Engineering Department and Building Department. However, the names and functions of the departments in each local authority are not uniformed. It differs from one local authority to another. For example, one local authority may have the Health Department to do the function of maintaining cleanliness in the locality (such as to ensure rubbish is collected daily) and disease control. However, in some other local authorities it is known as Licensing, Urban Services and Beautification Department. Besides maintaining cleanliness of the locality and disease control, this department also does planning, developing and controlling urban services, landscape beautification as well as issuing of business license. Specifically in the district councils, one department is responsible for numerous functions. Table 3 shows the departments in LAs with their respective functions.

2.1 Validity and reliability tests

The 15-item measure of dimensions of accountability is tested for validity using principal components factor analysis. The result of the KMO test shows that the 15 scales of the accountability construct give a value of .912. According to the Kaiser (1974) scale, this result indicates a meritorious adequacy and thus is appropriate for use in further factor analysis. The factor analysis with varimax rotation of the 15 accountability scales yields 3 factors, as shown in Table 4. Each factor has an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 and together the three factors account for 56% of the total item variance. Table 4 reveals that scales pertaining to managerial accountability (items 1 to 5) and public accountability (items 6 to 8) loaded onto one factor. This result indicates that elements of informativeness and responsiveness to the public integrate with elements of managerial efficiency, effectiveness and quality of service provision in the conceptualization of a single dimension of accountability – labeled managerial/public accountability (MGLPUB). The second factor contains scales relating to compliance with rules and regulations and fiduciary correctness in use of funds. It is labeled fiduciary/compliance accountability (FIDCOMP). The third factor contains scales that emphasize the need to communicate with, and satisfy, political representatives as well as demands from other tiers of government. It is labeled political accountability (POLITIC).

In relation to internal reliability analysis, Table 4 gives Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for factors 1 and 2 that are above 0.8, suggesting strong reliability in the measure. However, factor 3 has an Alpha of only .5435, which is below the desired benchmark of 0.6. Hence, the measure of POLITIC is subject to improvement in any future replication of this study.

3. Results and discussion

It has been hypothesized that there exists a set of distinct types of accountability, as evidenced by the perceptions of departmental heads and supervisory managers about practices and policies in their Malaysian LA departments. Since an accountability typology has not been empirically established in prior literature, this study goes beyond factor analysis in analyzing the distinct dimensions of an accountability typology. A two-step approach is taken. The first step of requiring data reduction by using factor analysis was presented in the previous section, and resulted in three accountability dimensions. The second step involves the partitioning of data into homogeneous groups of respondents using cluster analysis. Cluster analysis can answer the research question of whether the respondents can be classified into two or more readily identifiable groups (or clusters) that are mutually exclusive and have high homogeneity within groups and high external heterogeneity between groups. This analysis has the effect of grouping respondents according to their perception of their department's most dominant type of accountability orientation.

In factor analysis a respondent can be described as having varying degrees of each of the dimensions of the variable. By comparison, in cluster analysis as soon as a respondent becomes a member of one cluster, that respondent cannot be in any other cluster (Kamen, 1970). After a case (or respondent) has joined a cluster, it cannot be removed from that cluster. There are a number of general assumptions in cluster analysis. Cluster analysis is an interdependence technique, which means the variables are not classified as independent or dependent variables. Existence of mutually exclusive groups in the population as well as the sample is assumed. Multicollinearity is assumed to be absent. When variables are highly correlated it means they represent the same concept, therefore, correlation between variables would have an effect on the final cluster solutions. By first reducing variables used in the cluster analysis through factor analysis, multicollinearity should be reduced. Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity, which are important in other statistical techniques, have a minor influence on cluster analysis (Hair et al 1998). Clustering algorithms or techniques used to place similar objects into groups or to form clusters can be chosen from hierarchical or non-hierarchical algorithms. A hierarchical agglomerative clustering approach was chosen as the clustering algorithm because this method produces non-overlapping clusters (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). This method starts from the point at which each case is considered to be a cluster by itself. Then progressively, the two closest clusters are combined into a new aggregate cluster, reducing the number of cluster by one at each step. Ward's agglomerative method was used to determine the optimal number of clusters. According to Milligan (1996), Ward's method is a good clustering strategy because it is not affected by the presence of outliers. Nevertheless, decisions on the exact number of

clusters in a cluster analysis solution cause problems with exploratory data analysis (Schweizer, 1992). The graphical examination of a dendrogram and the consideration of agglomeration coefficients are among the methods used to determine the appropriate number of clusters in a cluster solution for a data set. The agglomeration coefficient can be used as a stopping rule. Small coefficients indicate joining of fairly homogeneous clusters. Large coefficients mean two very different clusters are being combined. The stopping rule looks for large increases in the coefficient change (Krolak-Schwerdt & Eckes (1992).

The result for agglomeration coefficients that identify possible clusters or groups is given in Table 5. This table produces ten clusters. The agglomeration coefficient shows large increases when progressing from one to two clusters (230.1), from two to three clusters (151.8) and from three to four clusters (86.1). After the fourth cluster, the increments are relatively small. Hence, a three-cluster solution is selected because each of the first three clusters produces a substantial increment in the agglomerative coefficient, as reflected in the 'change in coefficient' column. The graph in Figure 1 plots the number of clusters against the agglomeration coefficients. The graph shows that the curve flattens at the point where the solution moves from three to four clusters and the line becomes flatter thereafter. To examine the characteristics of respondents in each cluster, group centroids (mean values) for each of the 15 items contained in the three-cluster solution are calculated. F-tests are also computed to indicate whether statistical differences exist across clusters for each individual item. The individual items can be viewed as 15 separate traits that relate to the three accountability dimensions. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6 shows the three clusters to be significantly different in the case of 14 of the 15 items or accountability traits. One item, which is a 'policy' trait of the political accountability dimension (POLITIC), did not fall into significantly different clusters. The centroid results in Table 6 provide revelations about the characteristics of respondents in the three separate accountability clusters. First, respondents in cluster one are characterized, on highest mean scores, in terms of perceiving their department to have the traits of presenting and answering for departmental and managerial performance, programs and their management, quality assurance systems, and the effectiveness of delivery of services to the public. Such traits suggest that LA departments in cluster one place emphasis on the importance of implementing programs and delivering services in their localities effectively and efficiently for the benefit of the constituent public. Therefore, the LA departments in this group can be deemed to adopt a combined managerial and public accountability approach. This cluster is a merging of the managerial and public accountability dimensions identified separately by Stewart (1984), Sinclair (1995), Day and Klein (1987), Normanton (1966) and Johnson (1974). The finding indicates that managerial/public accountability is a dimension of accountability that integrates into a single concept. Cluster one is the largest of the clusters, accounting for 45% (139) of the respondents. Second, as shown in Table 6, cluster 2 comprises of respondents with the highest mean rating for legality, process and probity. This result infers that a group of LA departments emphasize adherence to rules and regulations, maintenance of formal records and approved processes and probity in the use of resources. Respondents in cluster 2 are characterized as perceiving their department to have the traits of following Treasury's rules and regulations, keeping detailed records in accordance with regulations, and being answerable for the use of funds in a manner that have been authorized. These traits reflect a dimension called fiduciary/compliance accountability. Fiduciary accountability is identified by Taylor & Rosair (2000), and compliance accountability by Robinson (1971), Leat (1988), Stewart (1984), as including compliance with regulations and fiscal integrity. Cluster two accounts for 38.6% (119) of the sample of LA departments and is the second largest cluster. Third, Table 6 shows cluster three as the cluster with the highest mean rating in policy and political traits. This result suggests that the respondents in cluster three believe their LA departments, through managers and administrators within their LA, are primarily accountable to both elected representatives and significant policymaker/regulator-bureaucrats in local, state and federal levels of government. The traits that are prominent are those of satisfying requirements of relevant oversight bodies at state and federal levels, presenting performance information to councilors, and reporting significant matters to their state's Chief Minister. Attention is given to the 'political chain of accountability' in which sub-unit managers are accountable to bureaucrats and elected representatives further up the political hierarchy of government and, in turn, these political representatives and leaders are accountable to the public. The political dimension of accountability is identified by Johnson (1974) and Sinclair (1995). In this study, the 'political accountability' cluster accounts for 16% (50) of the respondents.

Overall, this 3-cluster solution has satisfied the hypothesis that a set of distinct types of accountability exists in Malaysian local government departments. The evidence shows an accountability typology of only three distinct dimensions – managerial/public, fiduciary/compliance and political accountability.

4. Conclusions

Accountability has been made an integral part of public sector organizations. Yet, prior literature has provided various overlapping and subjectively constructed perspectives on the nature of accountability. Empirical research studies on the nature and measurement of dimensions of accountability in different settings have been few. This study has consolidated prior proposed and qualitatively assessed types of accountability and has refined the prior empirical findings from Sinclair (1995), Taylor & Rosair (2000) and Kloot & Martin (2001). It provides results that reveal the

existence of a common typology for sub-units of LAs that classifies them into one of three exclusive accountability dimensions.

First, the results provide strong evidence that managerial and public accountability are correlated and are classified together as managerial/public accountability. This dimension infers that managers will have concern for the extent to which their department develops clear operating goals and performance measures with emphasis on efficiency and effectiveness, as well as providing responsive and high quality services to the public. About 45% (139) of the respondents perceived this dimension to be the dominant type of accountability rendered by their Malaysian LA department. Such an accountability emphasis is consistent with the finding of Kloot & Martin (2001) in their study on perceptions of accountability of managers to multiple stakeholders in Australian local governments. Second, the fiduciary/compliance accountability dimension derived in this study has similar characteristics and corresponds with Taylor & Rosair's (2000) findings relating to State and Federal government departments in Australia. Evidence is provided of a high degree of correspondence between fiscal probity (utilization of funds in an appropriate manner), legality (within the powers and authorities granted) and compliance (with applicable rules and regulations). About 38.6% (119) of managers reported the dominance of the fiduciary/compliance dimension in the rendering of accountability by their LA department. The third result of this study was the presence of an emphasis on political accountability in 16% of LA departments. This dimension is consistent with Kloot & Martin's (2001) finding that managers of local government in Australia demonstrate relatively high accountability to the state government. The finding suggests that some LA departmental managers will have a dominant emphasis on being accountable through both formal and informal reporting channels to councilors, ministers and other hierarchies of government concerning their department's implementation of policies and achievement of government objectives. As suggested in Sinclair's (1995) findings, public sector managers can perceive that the governing of their local government affairs is very much influenced by councilors and state and federal government ministers.

While the evidence in this study is specific to LAs in Malaysia, it points to the probable existence of this accountability typology, or a similar one, throughout the wider public sector. Hence, this typology has practical implications in terms of providing a better understanding, and a foundation for further refining, managerial and governance frameworks in public sector organizations. The results, nevertheless, are subject to limitations. The scope of the empirical evidence is limited to what departmental-level managers think is the dominant aspect of accountability being rendered by their particular department, not what politicians, senior bureaucrats or the relevant public think. The data has been collected from a field survey through newly developed scales in the survey instrument that have not been tested in prior studies. These scales elicit perceptions of the respondents, so the data is relatively 'soft' because it is largely perceptions of respondents. Like prior studies, this present study assesses the LAs departmental heads and senior officers' perceptions of their own accountability. The use of perceptual measures or subjective self-rated performance measures may be a limiting factor. Since the accountability instrument has been designed as self-assessment, it is possible that respondents may have biased their responses. Response bias can be problematic when the respondents seek to provide desirable answers or inflate their self-rating – i.e., a 'halo' effect may result. As such, possible bias associated with self-assessment by heads of departments must be considered when interpreting the results of this study. Managers' perception of their own performance might not have accurately captured their actual performance. However, prior research has shown that subjective self-ratings of performance are highly correlated with objective measures and/or superior ratings of performance (Heneman, 1974; Furnham and Stringfield, 1994; Bommer et al., 1995). Although financial measures of accountability (see Taylor and Rosair, 2000) are more desirable, perceptual measures (see Kloot and Martin, 2001) have also been used in research.

Further this is a cross-sectional study that is inherently affected by wider conditions existing at that time (e.g., pre- or post-introduction of new legislation or new minister). Further research on the determination of an accountability typology is required in different settings and using different research methods and different groups of respondents.

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Table 1. Types of Local Authorities by Management Level of Respondents

Respondents	Types of LAs			Total (%)
	City Council (%)	Municipal Council (%)	District Council (%)	
Departmental Heads	46%	36%	71%	54%
Departmental Senior Officers	54%	64%	29%	46%
Total	n=26	n=134	n=148	n=308

Table 2. Types of Local Authorities by functional responsibility of respondents

Response from Departmental Heads and Senior Officers by functions	Types of LAs			Total (%)
	City Council (%)	Municipal Council (%)	District Council (%)	
Building	19.2%	33.6%	41.2%	36%
Health	11.5%	8.2%	19.6%	14%
Enforcement	3.8%	10.4%	16.2%	12.7%
Engineering	26.9%	28.4%	12.8%	20.8%
Licensing	23.1%	6.7%	4.7%	7.1%
Urban Services	15.4%	12.7%	5.4%	9.4%
Total	n = 26	n = 134	n = 148	n = 308

Table 3. Functions of Departments in Local Authorities in Malaysia

No.	Department	Functions
1	Health	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> to maintain and keep the environment clean from water, noise and air pollution to control the spread of contagious diseases such as cholera, cleanliness of hawker premises and food quality control
2	Urban Services	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> to provide urban services such as rubbish collection and urban beautification to plan and develop the urban services to the highest level wild dogs and livestock control
3	Building	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> to process approval of building plans to ensure enforcement on the implementation of development projects to check buildings before issuance of Certificate of Fitness (CF) to prepare project designs for building plans and manage the Authority's building projects.
4	Engineering	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> to manage the Authority's, State Government's and Federal Government's Projects to identify development projects to receive and process the approval of infrastructure plans to maintain the Authority's assets to plan and maintain the Authority's vehicles.
5	Licensing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> to issue licenses for business and permits advertisements, entertainment, etc.
6	Enforcement	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> to enforce and execute the council's rules and regulations empowered by the Local Government Act 1976, Road and Drainage and Building Act 1974, City and Town Planning Act 1976 and the other by-laws.

Table 4. Factor Analysis and Cronbach Alpha Tests of the Dimensionality of Accountability

Items (or scales)	Description of Accountability Items (15 items)	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	Highly responsible to ensure efficiency and effectiveness	.581		
2	Set clear operating goals	.707		
3	Maintain regular reporting system on achievements and outcomes	.757		
4	Implement performance measures to ensure quality of service	.809		
5	Abiding by procedures relating to quality assurance	.691		
6	Provision of excellent service to the public in answering enquiries and complaints	.618		
7	Emphasize on giving prompt assistance to the public	.628		
8	Provide considerable information about its services, projects and plans for the locality	.436		
9	Follow treasury rules and regulations in almost all circumstances		.808	
10	Maintains detailed and up to date records according to rules and regulations		.730	
11	Ensure funds are used in an authorized manner		.832	
12	Gives a lot of attention to fully satisfy the requirements of the relevant departments at the State and Federal levels			.444
13	Provide information on performance to councilors			.552
14	Report any serious incidence with negative impact on the public to the Chief Minister			.705
15	Political approval is normally sought to continue spending by a transferring from another vote, once a particular budget vote has been fully used up			.652
EIGENVALUE		6.066	1.293	1.130
% OF VARIANCE EXPLAINED		25.784 (25.784)	19.338 (45.122)	11.467 (56.589)
KMO-MSA		.912		
CRONBACH ALPHA		.8736	.8112	.5435

Table 5. Agglomeration Table

Number of clusters	Agglomeration Coefficient	Change in Coefficient	Percentage change in Coefficient
10	159.4	18.5	11.6%
9	177.9	21.3	12%
8	199.2	24.1	12%
7	223.3	30.2	13.5%
6	253.5	52.4	20.7%
5	305.9	62.1	20.3%
4	368.0	86.1	23.4%
3	454.1	151.8	33.4%
2	605.9	230.1	38%
1	836.0	-	-

Table 6. Mean scores of accountability items for each of the 3 clusters and their statistical difference

Accountability traits (i.e., the key feature in each of the 15 questions)	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	F value	Sig. level
Performance	4.56	4.15	4.40	12.341	.000
Program	4.46	3.94	3.98	22.093	.000
Program	4.29	3.71	3.74	21.145	.000
Performance	4.12	3.55	3.62	19.765	.000
Quality Assurance	4.29	3.74	3.74	18.351	.000
Service to Public	4.47	3.97	3.92	25.418	.000
Service to Public	4.53	4.04	4.14	21.985	.000
Service to Public	3.99	3.83	3.56	6.248	.002
Legality	4.19	4.42	3.48	34.315	.000
Procedures	4.00	4.17	3.28	28.409	.000
Probity	4.27	4.42	3.52	29.086	.000
Policy	4.10	4.12	4.02	.472	.624
Political	3.78	3.89	4.28	7.745	.001
Political	3.84	4.07	4.38	7.471	.001
Policy	3.71	4.10	4.50	20.679	.000
N (= size of clusters, i.e., number of respondents)	139	119	50		



China's Macroeconomy Forecasting

Research during 2008-2012

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Abstract

According to the latest statistical data from the “*China Statistical Yearbook-2007*” and “*Statistical Communiqué of the People's Republic of China on the 2007 National Economy and Social Development*”, the optimal grey model with logarithm new development coefficient is established by filtrating, to analyse and forecast China's macroeconomy development during 2008-2010. The results show that Chinese GDP in 2008 will reach RMB 28695.01 billion, it will arrive at RMB 39064.59 billion at the end of 2010, which is about 3.94 times of 2000. The expected goals planned by eleventh five-year will be achieved successfully.

Keywords: China's macroeconomy, Grey modeling, Optimal grey model with logarithm new development coefficient (GMLNDC), Forecast

1. Introduction

China has enjoyed rapid economic growth since reform and opening up to the outside world. She has attracted the world's attention. In the past 20-plus years, China created the world miracle that the GDP increased by 9.6% per year. This rate is not only higher than the one 6.1% per year from 1952 to 1978, but also higher than most of the countries in the same stage. At present, China's total amount of GDP ranks the fourth of the world and the speed of economic growth is 2 times higher than the average. The rapid growth of national economy not only enhances China's comprehensive power greatly, but also improves people's living standard significantly and increases China's international status further.

2007 is the second year of the eleventh five-year plan. The national economic keeps the good situation with rapid economic growth, excellent structure, increased benefit and improved livelihood. The GDP reached RMB 24661.9 billion, which increased by 11.4% of the previous year. It was 1.96 times of 2000. China achieved the goal; the first ten-year's total amount of GDP was doubled of 2000 in the 21 century, ahead of three years. The GDP growth rate keeps 10% or a little more five-year continuous, and the per capial growth rate keeps 10.6%. The national financial revenue, grew rapidly, reached RMB 5130.403 billion, which increased by 32.4% of the previous year and was 116.4% of the budget. The construction of new countryside has achieved new progresses. The expenditure for the problem of “Peasant, Countryside and Agriculture” was about RMB 431.8 billion, which increased by RMB 80.1 billion of the precious years. The adjustment of economic structure has strided a new step and the adjustment of industrial structure has made a significant achievement. The basic industry and infrastructure such as energy and traffic have got considerable development. The raw coal output was 2.54 billion ton, which increased by 6.9%. On the basis of increasing the input of “Peasant, Countryside and Agriculture”, we China strengthened financial macro-control further and perfected the relevant measures of robust financial policies for the prominent problems, to promote economic development fast and well. The per capial GDP of 2007 had reached 2456 dollar. China was transferring into the consumption-type country, as the per capial of GDP was over 2000 dollar, and the overall space of domestic consumption market was enlarged further. The SZ-6(*Shen Zhou 6*) manned spacecraft was successfully launched and landing in October 2005. Only two years later, the CE-1(*Chang'e 1*) lunar exploration satellite was successfully launched again on October 24th 2007, which was composed a marvelous chapter in the history of Chinese aerospace once more. It indicates that China is going forward with a definite target and its social economy is very prosperous.

It was fixed world's eyes upon whether China would be an engine of world economic development and be the third economic nation, under the situation of America Subprime Lending Crisis and economic recession in America, Japan and some countries of Europe. According to the latest revised data of main economic indicators from 1993 to 2007 in

table 1 and table 2, we try to analyse the current situation of China's macroeconomy, and we try to do the prediction, through screening and constructing the optimal grey model with logarithm new development coefficient, to provide an important basis for the eleventh five-year plan and its implement.

2. Establishment of grey model with logarithm new development coefficient

Grey prediction is the basic content of grey system theory (Deng, 1990). It probes the law of the things' development and change by establishing the dynamic model GM (1, 1). The model GM (1, 1) deals with inenarrable comprehensive quantities as the grey quantities, weakens random factors' interference by generating and developing the data, and extracts the useful information, to correct understand and effective control its running orderliness (Liu et al., 2004). The model GM (1, 1) has been widely applied in the fields of social science and natural science because of few data, flexible and convenient moderling, high prediction accuracy and strong

Table 1. The current price of Chinese GDP (unit 100 million)

Year	GDP	Primary industry	Second industry	Tertiary industry	GDP increment
1993	35333.9	6963.8	16454.4	14188.0	/
1994	48197.9	9572.7	22445.4	19480.7	12864.0
1995	60793.7	12135.8	28679.5	24950.6	12595.8
1996	71176.6	14015.4	33835.0	29447.6	10202.9
1997	78973.0	14441.9	37543.0	32921.4	7796.4
1998	84402.3	14817.6	39004.2	34018.4	5429.3
1999	89677.1	14770.0	41033.6	35861.5	5274.8
2000	99214.6	14944.7	45555.9	40033.6	9537.5
2001	109655.2	15781.3	49512.3	43580.6	10440.6
2002	120332.7	16537.0	53896.8	47431.3	10677.5
2003	135822.8	17381.7	62436.3	54945.5	15490.1
2004	159878.3	21412.7	73904.3	65210.0	24055.5
2005	183867.9	23070.4	87364.6	77230.8	23989.6
2006	210871.0	24737.0	103162.0	91310.9	27003.1
2007	246619.0	28910.0	121381.0	96328.0	35748.0

Note: The data are from the "China Statistical Yearbook-2007", Beijing: China statistical press, 2007.09. The data of 2007 are from the "Statistical Communique of the People's Republic of China on the 2007 National Economy and Social Development", 2008-02-28 [http:// www.stats.gov.cn/](http://www.stats.gov.cn/)

Table 2. The main indicators of China's macroeconomy during 2000-2007

Main economic indicators	unit	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
1) QSHGDZC	YY	32917.7	37213.5	43499.9	55566.6	70477.4	88773.6	109998.2	137239.0
2) SHXFPLSZE	YY	39105.7	43055.4	48135.9	52516.3	59501.0	67176.6	76410.0	89210.0
3) CZSRZE	YY	13395.2	16386.0	18903.6	21715.3	26396.5	31649.3	38760.2	51304.0
4) SSSRZE	YY	12665.8	15165.5	16996.6	20466	25723	30867	37637	49449
5) JCKZE	YMY	4727.9	5096.5	6207.7	8509.9	11545.5	14219.1	17604.0	21738.0
6) NYXFZL	WDBZM	138553	143199	151797	174990	203227	224682	246270	265480
7) XJMRJKZPSR	Y	6280	6860	7703	8472	9422	10493	11759.5	13786
8) NCJMEJCSR	Y	2253	2366	2476	2622	2936	3255	3587	4140
9) RJGDP	Y	7858	8622	9398	10542	12336	14103	16084	18665

Note: 1) The data are from the "China Statistical Yearbook-2007", Beijing: China statistical press, 2007.09. The data of 2007 are from the "Statistical Communique of the People's Republic of China on the 2007 National Economy and Social Development", 2008-02-28 [http:// www.stats.gov.cn/](http://www.stats.gov.cn/)

2) QSHGDZC means social fixed-assets investment; SHXFPLSZE means total retail sales of consumer goods; CZSRZE means total amount of financial revenue; SSSRZE means total amount of tax revenue; JCKZE means total amount of import and export; NYXFZL means total energy consumption; CXJMRJKZPSR means per capital disposable income of urban and rural residents; NCJMEJCSR means per capital net income of rural residents; RJGDP means per capital GDP; YY means 100 million yuan; YMY means 100 million dollars; WDBZM means 10 thousand

ton standard coal; Y means yuan. Following are the same.

practicality. The economic growth is the result of many complicated factors mutual restriction and harmonious development in the social economic system, so it is suitable to study and excavate this system's internal rules with grey models. This article is based on the grey model with new development coefficient in the literatures (Yu et al., 2008; Men et al., 2004, 2005). We are trying to establish a new grey prediction model with higher precision and more stability.

We assume the original time sequence

$$P^{(0)} = [p^{(0)}(1), p^{(0)}(2), \dots, p^{(0)}(n)]$$

We don't establish a prediction model on total amount of GDP sequence, but take logarithm for the original time sequence. That is $x^{(0)}(k) = \log[p^{(0)}(k)]$. Then we get $x^{(1)}$ by 1st-order accumulating generator operator on $x^{(0)}$, namely

$$x^{(1)}(k) = \sum_{i=1}^k x^{(0)}(i) \quad (k=1, 2, \dots, n)$$

We let the initial value be

$$a_0 = \ln \left\{ \frac{1}{n-1} \left[\sum_{k=2}^n \frac{x^{(0)}(k-1)}{x^{(0)}(k)} \right] \right\} \quad (k=1, 2, \dots, n),$$

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{1}{a_0} - \frac{1}{e^{a_0} - 1}.$$

The grey differential equation is

$$x^{(0)}(k) + a_1 z^{(1)}(k) = b_1,$$

and a_1, b_1 are the undetermined coefficients. $z^{(1)}(k)$ is the background value, which is

$$z^{(1)}(k) = \lambda_0 x^{(1)}(k-1) + (1-\lambda_0)x^{(1)}(k).$$

We apply least square method to get the solution.

$$\hat{a} = (a_1, b_1)^T = (B^T B)^{-1} B^T Y$$

in which,

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda_0 x^{(1)}(1) - (1-\lambda_0)x^{(1)}(2) & 1 \\ -\lambda_0 x^{(1)}(2) - (1-\lambda_0)x^{(1)}(3) & 1 \\ \dots & \dots \\ -\lambda_0 x^{(1)}(n-1) - (1-\lambda_0)x^{(1)}(n) & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Y = (x^{(0)}(2), x^{(0)}(3), \dots, x^{(0)}(n))^T$$

We let $\hat{x}^{(0)}(n) = x^{(0)}(n)$, and the solution is the time response function in the form

$$\hat{x}^{(0)}(k) = x^{(0)}(n) \cdot e^{-a(k-n)} \quad (k=1, 2, \dots, n).$$

Then the result is retrieved to the total by means of $p^{(0)}(k) = \exp(x^{(0)}(k))$. The model presented here is called Optimal grey model with logarithm new development coefficient (GMLNDC). This model ensures that the initial values are close to the actual values, which is favor of reducing iteration times. It makes calculation easy and effective, and improves the fitting accuracy and prediction accuracy. So this model has extensive application space.

3. Prediction and empirical analysis of China's economic development

3.1 Test prediction of chinese GDP in 2007

Based on the actual condition of China's economic development in the recent years, we single out 5~9 dimensions short series to construct general-type GM (1, 1) model, DGIM, GMNDC and GMLNDC after comprehensive analysis to select a suitable model for test prediction of Chinese GDP from 2005 to 2007. Test shows that the 6-dimension model gives the closest result, which is thus taken for use, with the values from all the grey prediction models summarized in Table 3 and 4.

Comparison of tests from table 3 to 4 indicates that grey model with logarithm new development coefficient has higher prediction accuracy and it is also reliable and stable than other models. The one-step predictions of Chinese GDP in 2006 and 2007 are up to 99.87% and 99.02% respectively, which is very satisfied.

Table 3. The comparison of test prediction about Chinese GDP in 2006 with some models (unit 100 million)

model	statistics	prediction	residual difference	relative error (%)
GM(1,1)	210871	208329.8	2541.2	1.21
DGIM	210871	211206.1	335.1	0.16
GMNDC	210871	209335.7	1535.3	0.73
GMLNDC	210871	210606.5	264.5	0.13

Table 4. The comparison of test prediction about Chinese GDP in 2007 with some models (unit 100 million)

model	statistics	prediction	residual difference	relative error (%)
GM(1,1)	246619	242956.6	3662.4	1.49
DGIM	246619	240165.6	6453.4	2.62
GMNDC	246619	243167.1	3451.9	1.40
GMLNDC	246619	244196.4	2422.6	0.98

3.2 The prediction of chinese GDP from 2008 to 2012

From the above comparison, we select grey model with logarithm new development coefficient on a 6-dimension basis by data from 2002 to 2007,

$$\hat{x}^{(0)}(k) = 12.415600 e^{0.01212565gk-6}$$

By comparison, we know that the standard deviations' ratio of model parameter $C=0.0324$, small error probability $p=1$, and the average fitting accuracy $\bar{q} = 99.94\%$. Therefore, the model is past with great accuracy. We calculate the prediction values of Chinese GDP from 2008 to 2012, based on this model. The results are listed in Table 5.

Table 5. The main indicators' forecasting table of China's macroeconomy during 2008-2012 (unit 100 million)

indicators	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total amount of GDP	286950.1	334494.3	390645.9	457088.1	535857.0
The first industry	32579.6	36766.1	41548.9	47020.7	53289.8
The proportion of GDP	0.1135	0.1099	0.1064	0.1029	0.0994
The second industry	144214.8	171779.4	205140.2	245620.9	294870.6
The proportion of GDP	0.5026	0.5135	0.5251	0.5374	0.5503
The tertiary industry	111892.8	130227.0	151865.8	177455.8	207779.8
The proportion of GDP	0.3899	0.3893	0.3888	0.3882	0.3878
The error	0.0060	0.0127	0.0203	0.0280	0.0374

With the same method, we establish models and do prediction on the three industries respectively. The results are also listed in Table 5. The last line of table 5 is the error checking line. The sum of proportion the three industries accounted for GDP should be 1. The relative error in 2008 is only 0.0060. As the error increases gradually following the year, the relative error in 2012 is only 0.0374 as well as. It proves in another way that this model has high prediction accuracies and reliable prediction results.

3.3 Main economic indicators' prediction from 2008 to 2012

China is still in the opportunity period of a rare international strategy at present. The economic society has a nice development stance, especially with its improved stability of economic operation and coordination of economic development, the breakthrough in the reform of important fields and key links, which lay a solid foundation for taking a big stride forward. We will establish grey model with logarithm new development coefficient with the data of main macroeconomic indicators from 2000 to 2007, and calculate the prediction values from 2008 to 2012. The results are listed in table 6.

4. Conclusion and discussion

(1) On the basis of grey model with new development coefficient, we put forward the grey model with logarithm new development coefficient. It weakens interference factors greatly and reveals the operation law of the system, which makes the model more stable. Thus, this model has higher prediction accuracy. It indicates from empirical analysis that this model is a new ideal tool in economic predictions for their absoluteness, facility and easy control, and this model has a greater prediction effect on time sequences increased quickly in the short time than other grey models.

Table 6. The main indicators' forecasting table of China's macroeconomy during 2008-2012 (unit 100 million)

Main economic indicators	unit	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
1)QSHGDZC	YY	173839.1	221238.1	282920.8	363583.4	469591.3
2)SHXFPLSZE	YY	102107.8	117063.2	134426.7	154618.9	178139.3
3)CZSRZE	YY	62018.8	80381.6	101314.6	128306.0	163276.6
4)SSSRZE	YY	62018.8	78153.5	98964.2	125937.9	161075.0
5)JCKZE	YMY	27710.5	35533.7	45841.8	59507.6	77738.6
6)NYXFZL	WDBZM	294699.9	327419.9	364093.1	405233.4	451426.2
7)CXJMRJKZPSR	Y	15603.2	17688.5	20085.2	22844.4	26026.1
8)NCJMRJCSR	Y	4647.2	5224.6	5883.3	6636.0	7497.5
9)RJGDP	Y	21598.9	25048.3	29112.4	33911.8	39591.8

(2) The prediction results show that GDP in 2008 will exceed RMB 28000 billion, be up to RMB 28695.01 billion, which will increase by 16.35% of the previous year in anticipation (The results are calculated with current price in 2007, without deducting the factors such as price rising, following are the same). The national fixed assets investment will reach RMB 17383.91 billion, which will increase by 26.67% of the previous year. The total retail sales of consumer good will reach RMB 10210.78 billion, which will increase by 14.46%. The total amount of financial revenue will reach RMB 6407.08 billion, which will increase by 24.9% of the previous year. The total amount of tax revenue will reach RMB 6201.88 billion, which will increase by 25.4% of the previous year. The total amount of import and export will reach 2771.05 billion dollars, which will increase by 27.47% of the previous year. At the end of 2010, the total amount of GDP will reach RMB 39064.59 billion, which is 2.12 times of 2005 and about 3.94 times of 2000. The per capital GDP in 2010 will reach 29112.4 yuan, which is 2.08 times of 2005. However the anticipated indicator in 2010 that the eleventh-five year planned will be 19270 yuan. It means that the prediction result will exceed the anticipated indicator 9842.4 yuan. The goal that the total amount of GDP will be double of 2000 was achieved in 2006. The goal that the total amount of GDP will be quadrupling of 2000 will be achieve in 2011. Hai Wen(2006), the famous economist, thought that the economic growth at high speed would last ten or twenty years at least and the key lay in system reform. At the speech in the Nanjing University on Mar 26th 2008, "Father of Europe Currency" Robert Alexandar Mundell predicted that the total amount of GDP would catch up with Japan in 2020, and the time would be short. Thus, the prediction results in this article are reasonable and reliable under the situation of maintaining economic rapid growth.

(3) As we all know, the reasonable three industrial structures will maximize the contribution of economic development. The change of three industrial structures is fit for the general law of industrial structure evolution in the world. The ratio of proportion that the three industries accounted for GDP in the period of the tenth five-year was 13.12: 45.90: 40.98. The ratio in 2007 was 11.72: 49.22: 39.06. If it keeps current operation condition of economic system, the ratio will be 10.64: 52.51: 38.88 at the end of 2010 (The ratio of proportion in the period of the eleventh five-year will be 11.07: 50.45: 39.83), from the prediction results in table 5. That is, the ratio of the first industry decreases, the ratio of the second industry uplifts, and the ratio of the tertiary industry weakens year by year. At present, the proportion of agriculture in GDP is quite large, but the proportion of the tertiary industry is lower than the developed countries in the same stage. The prominent problem that will affect sustained economic growth is employment deficiency, which is caused by the unreasonable industrial structures and weak competitive power. We should enforce the adjustment of industrial structures and focus on lifting the proportion of the three industries, aiming at the problems such as the low agricultural productivity, the big but not strong industry and the less development of service industry. In addition, the industrial distribution has been optimized, to some extend. New pattern of the regional industrial structure is being formed on the basis of comparative advantages, which is helpful to control repeated construction with low level and is beneficial to distribute resources effectively and optimize the industrial structures.

(4) At present, China is entering into a new stage with its sustained and stable economy. China has been enjoyed fast and stable economic development for five years. The speed of economic growth keeps 10% or a little more five-year continuous with small ripple among years and seasons. What's more, the quality and benefit of economic operation has been greatly enhanced, economic structure has been constant improved and people have got more material benefit. To the question of current price situation, Ma Kai, the director of development and reform commission, answered we had confidence, conditions and measures to inhibit the fast growing speed of general price level. Ma Kai also said the south snow disaster at the beginning of 2008 would not change the basic trend of China's economy. At the opening year of the eleventh five-year plan, China was entering into a stage with its stable and healthy economy, and the fiscal policy had been turned into robust one. Xie Xuren, the minister of finance, said that we were going to maintain the robust fiscal policy. We would focus on the structure adjustment and harmonious development, and we would strengthen the

coordination among fiscal policy, monetary policy and industrial policy. We were trying to prevent economic growth from overheating and prevent price from inflation by controlling the total amount of GDP, stabilizing commodity prices, adjusting structure and promoting balance. In a word, we would promote economic development fast and well.

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Development of New Products of Summer Women Trousers

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Abstract

In garment production enterprises, researches on and development of women's trousers play significant role. As an important component of summer women's garments, women's trousers shall be attached with significance. Garment enterprises concern about how to develop new products so as to obtain more profits. New products' development strategy, task plan book, product positioning, pattern and design, samples manufacturing and evaluation shall all be taken into consideration in women's trousers development process.

Keywords: Garment, Women's trousers, Product development

1. Development strategy for summer women's trousers

1.1 Investigation and research on women's trouser market

Before the decision on development of new women's trousers is made, the aim of the development must be clearly fixed and we shall approximately fix the products' position in the market. Subsequently, the existing women's trouser market shall be investigated so as to understand the existing problems in the market and to search for the standing point for the development of your own products. The following issues shall be resolved when conducting market investigation and research.

1.1.1 Who are the consumers? What are the characteristics of such consumption group?

Summer women's trouser is a rather vague and general concept. The key issue is that which group the development aims at. We need to do particular investigation and analysis so as to determine what kinds of products shall be developed, trousers for mature ladies or for young ladies, or professional or leisure trousers.

The next step is to determine the class of your products. The products' class must be clearly fixed at the primary stage. If the women's trousers are of middle or high class, to some extent, all professional women workers will have their own requirements on garments. If the trousers are for young ladies, the quality of the trousers will be not as high as professional trousers whilst pattern changes are the main characteristics and the detailed ornaments and the collocation of color shall be emphasized.

Seeing from these details, we must conduct investigation on women through market in order to understand women's different requirements on trousers and the preference of women of different ages when choosing women's trousers and skirts.

1.1.2 What shall be given preliminary attention when developing new products?

Different from garments of other seasons, summer women's trousers have their own characteristics. Summer is a hot season. The first line requirement of people when choosing a garment for summer is that the garment shall be pleasantly cool, convenient, slinky and decent. The color of a garment cannot be neglected, either. In summer, people's requirement on color is very strict. It is found through investigation that when people are choosing a garment, the all-important element is the visual selection while color is the strongest element in visual impact.

1.1.3 What to choose for women trousers' style, professional or leisure?

When choosing women trousers' style, one must comprehensively understand women's requirements on summer women's trousers. Different occasions require different garments. Groups of different ages lay different requirements too. In addition, we should also take into account whether we should focus on professional trousers or leisure trousers.

Aiming at the above mentioned three questions, we need to conduct market investigation on women's trousers in order to understand the market, the target groups and the specific requirements of people on garments. The appendix is a market investigation questionnaire (please refer to the appendix) on summer women's trouser market.

1.2 Analysis on fashion trend

With the improvement of living, the requirements of people on garments gradually advance. The garments need to be

slinky, comfortable and not harmful to the environment. What is more, the garments shall be elegant, soft, blandly colored, designed in simple and vivid style and teemed with modern sense.

Garments for young ladies should highlight free personality. The styles of garments for young ladies shall be finely designed so as to pursue simplicity and immanency. What garments for young ladies pursue is the decent and linear simple beauty, classic and fashionable style, elegance and sophistication revealed by unadorned coziness, and grace reflected in the search for low status.

Fashionable materials adopt natural fiber textiles, especially cotton textiles. Elastic fiber is added into those textiles. Spandex cotton textile is well welcomed in summer because it feels comfortable when wearing spandex cotton textile and it is easy for spandex cotton textile to keep their shapes. Other chemical textiles, such as the mixed fiber textile of terylene with cotton and acrylic with cotton, are also suitable for wearing in summer, which overcomes the defects of terylene and acrylic.

From the angle of fashion, the popular color and overall fashion trend of each year is just one aspect. Materials, decorations, ornaments, and architectures are also parts of fashion, especially color. Popular color of each year varies. However, usually several colors are keys in the fashion and there are other assisting colors.

2. Task plan book for women's trouser design

When making out design task book for new women's trousers, we shall include the following main contents:

2.1 Regulations on the styles of garment patterns; main structure and specification parameters; the wear functions and appearance quality of the garment, etc.;

2.2 The expected technical and economic indicators, such as planned investment costs, sale amount, price strategy, profit amount, and investment return period;

2.3 Product development modes and analysis, such as development expenses, development conditions, technical talents needed, development period and date the completion.

3. Product design methods

3.1 Shape and structure method

First, we should design the shapes and structures for our products, such as, seven-tenth wide lag boot trousers, nine-tenth small platelet trousers, ten-tenth middle canister trousers, slight trumpet long trousers. When the shape and structure are fixed, it will be much easier to make designs according to the requirements.

3.2 Color restriction method

First, the main colors and matching colors of works under design shall be given restriction. For example, black, deep blue and deep coffee is the color scheme and white of a style, stone, light blue is group color for the style. Therefore, we have to make choice according to the color restriction.

3.3 Material restriction method

First, the materials shall be restricted, such as jeans, corduroy, filament, and TR. Then in the design, we have to choose styles and matching materials that can go with this kind of materials. We can also make an investigation at the market so as to have a better understanding and to avoid the condition where the style does not suit the materials.

3.4 Track method

We can use one object as a stereotype, based on which we can deduce relevant forms of the object and apply them into the development of series styles. This method is suitable for quick design of large amount.

4. Product design of summer women's trousers

Women's trousers of a new season will usually be different from other seasons. Oliver Theyskens of Rochas once said that, "women's trousers must be sexy. Not like men's suits which should be erect and handsome, women's trousers can be casual and informal". New women's trousers pursue multi-elements in style and materials. They can be made of silk, jeans, cotton or flax; they can be long or short trousers, wide leg trousers, skintight sleeping trousers, high waist or low waist trousers. The followings are some trouser styles that are popular in summer:

Skintight thesium elder sister trousers: they are short pants to the up two or three centimeters of knee. Their styles are casual. At the beginning, men at Bermudas island wore such pants with half-length socks. Therefore, they got such a name. The skintight thesium trousers resembles the short pants that cyclists wear. Skintight thesium short pants fit well in the membrane. Going with navy suit, they are very fashionable and lively.

Hot pants: hot pants are as short as to the very top of the leg and skintight. As fashionable garments, hot pants can best reflect the body curve. For healthy women who have perfect body shape, hot pants are the best choice for them to show their magic figures. What is more, hot pants can make people look exquisite and full of energy. It is better to have some

ornaments of design sense on the hot pants, such as nail flowers, embroider, rivets and printed flowers. Short jacketing, such as gallus waistcoats and short T-shirts, can go with hot pants, which will bring more charms.

Seven-tenth and nine-tenth trousers: they will not be so stubborn as long trousers and will not be too active like short trousers, which not only meets the taste of lively and cute young girls but also can enable women at the age around 40 to be fashionable and energetic. Such trousers meet demands of women at various ages.

5. Analysis on style

It is better to compare the popular colors of the year with that of previous years and find out the particularity of the popular colors of the year. The summer women's garments are mainly in light colors. Young ladies' garments are in active and cut color. Red, green and blue are what people prefer in summer.

With regard to long leisure women's trousers, we can use slide fastener in the middle of the trousers' leg to decorate the trousers. By this way, the trousers can be both long trousers and short trousers. At the same time, the design on details can be complicated. The trousers' legs can be divided. However, such division is just for decoration, which can beautify the shape of the trousers. On the both sides of the trousers, outer pockets can be used, which can bring movement sense. A belt can be added as decoration, which will be special and break routine rules.

It is cool and convenient to wear short trousers in summer. Such young ladies' garment will be well welcomed. When taking on such garment, the young ladies will look pure, lively, and cute. To make slight changes on such trousers will bring a series of different styles.

The development space of women's nine-tenth to five-tenth trousers is big. The design mainly makes use of embroidery and folk pictures. To broider different pictures onto garments of the same style will also generate different style and effect.

6. Sample manufacturing and evaluation

Garment designers draw pictures according to the ideas of development departments. At this stage, the products are at the artistic works. Only though specific materials and needlework can the specific visual effect be represented. By sample manufacturing, a correspondent report on the sample manufacturing can be given. The contents of the report shall include whether the shape of the product complies with what is designed in the design plan book, opinions on the improvement of the samples, and the comparison of the sample with competitors on market.

After the sample of the new styles is manufactured, the technology department will comprehensively evaluate and appraise the shape effect, technology performance ad economy effect of the new products. The samples shall be appraised from the following three aspects: firstly, whether the design materials are integrated; whether the sample complies with technological regulations; secondly, whether the manufacturing quality and garment material are proper; whether the labor hours are recorded exactly and entirely; thirdly, the effect, structure, technique property and economic property of the samples will be evaluated and given conclusion and opinions on improving the product will be provided. Then, the sample appraisal certificate will be filled in, where the appraisers shall give advice on whether the new products could be manufactured in limited amount.

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The 21ST Century Accounting Career from the Perspective of the Malaysian University Students

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Abstract

Using questionnaire setting, this study examines the perception of the Malaysian public university students on the accounting career in Malaysia. This study seeks to identify the respondents' preferred accounting career, their career exposure, the factors perceived to be important for an accountant and the acquisition qualities of an accountant. The results of this study provide interesting responses from the respondents. More respondents prefer to become a public accountant rather than holding a management post. The respondents obtained their career exposure mostly from the professional accounting bodies and the factors perceived to be most important in an accountant are work performance and self confidence. Salary is also one of the factors perceived to be important for an accountant. The respondents also perceived the essential qualities of an accountant are acquired through education. The results of this study provide insights to the bodies of accounting profession, employers and academics on the nature and relative importance of the factors deemed important for the accounting students in their employment decision and their preferences to employment opportunities.

Keywords: Accountant, Perceptions, Preference, Career exposure

1. Introduction

Advances in information technology and globalisation have revolutionized the business environment of the 21st century. Following suit, our boundless economy now requires a new breed of professionals who have a broader knowledge of their profession and are multi-skilled. The new demands need a new breed of accountants that are more than just accountants or auditors. They are also expected to have a multitude of skills to enable them to become management consultants, financial analysts, tax experts, business system consultants, and many more. Of consequence, accounting education needs to be continuously evolves so as to produce graduates that can meet the contemporary demands. In 1995, the Minister of Education announced that the country is in need of 50,000 certified accountants by the year 2020.

The number of certified accountants in need further increased to 65,000 (Abdullah, 2001). The government is therefore encouraging the education industry not merely to provide education at the highest level for Malaysians but also to contribute to the nation's economic well-being. The government is committed to developing Malaysia as a centre of excellence for education and for this reason there must be a certain level of competence of the universities with compulsory supervision by the authorities. This has put pressure on the Malaysian universities to play their role in increasing the number of qualified accounting graduates and meet the nation's expectation.

In Malaysia, accounting graduates from the public universities who are interested to register as public accountants are required to become members of the Malaysian Institute of Accountants (MIA). At present, MIA only recognised accounting graduates who graduated from the public universities or from professional accounting studies such as Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (CIMA), Malaysian Association of Certified Public Accountants (MACPA) and Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA). That is, MIA only accepts candidates for membership who hold the relevant academic qualification listed under the Accountants Act 1967. It is therefore, arguable that the public university students would register to become public accountants as their qualifications are recognised by MIA. Several studies in the education literature have identified that students share a common belief that the accounting environment offer a higher supply of jobs compared to other areas of business (Paolillo and Estes, 1982; Wheeler, 1983; Cangelosi et al., 1985; Kochanek and Norgaard, 1985). Of consequence, such belief plays an important role in choosing their career decisions of accounting major. Further, these studies found their respondents preferring to become public accountants compared to other accounting profession (Carpenter and Strawser, 1970). In Malaysia, several studies have shown that accounting profession is still popular amongst the students (Goon, 1975, Samidi and Tew 1995; Hashim et al, 2003 and Said et al., 2004). For example: Goon (1975) found that the majority of her respondents had chosen accounting as a profession. Samidi and Tew (1995) reported that the profession is still the most popular choice 20 years later. Said et al. (2004) found that the accounting profession ranked amongst the two most preferred careers given by the public and private university students. It would be interested to research on whether similar results would appear when comparing the first and final year Malaysian public university accounting students.

The accounting education literature has suggested that students' perception derived from various sources. A large number of studies found that most of the career exposure encountered by the university students comes from the academics (Miller and Wager, 1971; Erkut and Mokros, 1984; Kavina and Pedras, 1986). Other studies have suggested the influence come from other sources such as from family, friends or recruiter (DeZoort et al., 1997). However, studies examining students' source of information in Malaysian context have not yet been extensively examined. Other studies have also examined students' perception on the accounting career. One issue being examined is the criteria in choosing accounting as a career (Carpenter and Strawser, 1970; Poallilo and Estes, 1982; Haswell and Holmes, 1988; Gul et al., 1989; Carcello et al., 1991; DeZoort et al., 1997). These studies generally found salary as one of the top five criteria influencing career decision (Carpenter and Strawser, 1970; Haswell and Holmes, 1988; Gul et al., 1989; Horowitz and Riley, 1990). Specifically, Carpenter and Strawser (1970) found that the top 5 criteria are first, nature of work, followed by opportunities for advancement, starting salary, working condition and job security. On the other hand, Haswell and Holmes (1988) found job availability as the top criteria, followed by prospects of promotion, salary, job security and job satisfaction. Said et al. (2004) found that accounting undergraduates of Malaysian universities perceived job satisfaction and salary are among the top three reasons why they chose accounting as a profession. However, apart from Said et al.'s study, there are limited studies that have examined factors influencing accounting career in Malaysian context.

The difference in the results above could be attributed to the sample used in these studies. Few studies have examined this area using junior and senior year students (e.g DeZoort et al., 1974). Others have used final year accounting students as their sample (e.g Carpenter and Strawser, 1970). Ferguson and Hatherly (1991) compares university students and trainees perceptions. Others compared students and practitioners (e.g Yunker et al., 1986; Reed and Kratchman, 1989) or students and academics (e.g Kavina and Pedras, 1986). In summary, the success of the education process depends not only on the physical facilities and qualified educators, but also as much upon attitudes, aspirations and awareness of the students themselves. The students' aspirations and awareness must therefore be taken into consideration in the future planning of the education needs. This study seeks to identify the Malaysian public university students' perceptions towards accounting career. The findings would hopefully assist the educational institutions to arrange proper guidance, counselling and exposure that can help the students to see clearly what opportunities lies ahead of them.

2. Methods

2.1 Research question

Globalisation has brought about colossal changes in the competitive and technological environment where the accounting profession is practiced. As a result the need for the accounting profession to keep up has become imperative. It is entering a new era with new expectations of those entering it. To meet the new challenges, the accounting educational process and the competency this process cultivates in accounting students should be parallel with the

changes in the accounting profession. Subsequently, apart from ensuring that the accounting students are armed with a broad array of skills and knowledge, the educational process should also expose these students to the boundless career opportunities that they now have ahead of them.

However, studies have reported that the public accounting profession is facing a problem of job satisfaction and high labour turnover rates of competent accountants (DeZoort et al., 1997). These studies have shown that one attribute to this problem is caused by the students' perception which is often not parallel to the professional accounting environment (Carcello et al., 1991; DeZoort et al., 1997). The university students often perceived accounting career as highly rewarding in terms of finance and status. These perceptions often come from their collegiate experiences. However, these perceptions in reality may not be true. Since the accounting course in Malaysia is becoming more popular, it is crucial that these students have a true and substantial understanding of what the accounting profession has in store for them and also the career opportunities available to them. In order to do this, it is important to understand the students' perception on the accounting profession. Although study examining students' preferred career has been examined in the Malaysian context, these studies have not included comparison between first and final year Malaysian university accounting students. Therefore, this study aims to examine this issue and develops the following research questions:

RQ1: What would be the students' preferred accounting career and who prompted such decision?

RQ2: Have the students had some career exposure and if yes, what type of exposure?

2.2 Hypotheses

The accounting education literature has identified few factors that are perceived to be important in the accounting profession. These factors include availability of employment, job satisfaction, earnings potential and aptitude for subject matter. Paolillo and Estes (1982) found that availability of employment as the most important factor. Earnings potential, years of education required, aptitude for the subject and teacher influence have a greater impact on career choice for accountants compared to the other professional groups. Other studies found that opportunity for advancement considerations to be influencing the choice of a career in accounting (Trump and Hendrikson, 1970, Barnhart, 1971, Zikmund et al. 1977). On the other hand, Shivaswamy and Hanks (1985) reported that job security is ranked first by accounting students in their study.

In Malaysia, similar study examining students' perception of the important factors in the accounting profession has not been extensively examined. Similarly, studies examining students' perception on the acquisition of essential qualities of an accountant have yet to be undertaken. This gap in knowledge motivates this study to examine this issue by comparing the first and final year Malaysian public university accounting students. Therefore, the following hypotheses are developed:

H1: There are no significant differences between the first and the final year accounting students' perception on the factors perceived to be important in the accounting profession.

H2: There are no significant differences between the first and final year accounting students' perception on the acquisition of essential qualities of an accountant.

2.3 Research design and data collection

This study focuses on the perceptions of accounting career of the Malaysian public university students. Specifically, this study seeks to identify whether the students would want to become public accountants, the sources attribute to the students' perception of accounting career (career exposure), factors perceived to be important in the accounting profession and the acquisition of the essential qualities of an accountant. This study examines these issues by way of a questionnaire survey. The first and the final year students in the Malaysian public universities are chosen for this study. The first year accounting students are chosen because, arguably, this group do not have any exposure on what accounting career is and has to offer. Therefore, their perceptions towards accounting career may be clouded by the lack of understanding on this career. The final year students are chosen because, arguably, after being exposed to the accounting process and environment for a certain period of time being in a university, their understanding on accounting career would be clearer.

A questionnaire design is adapted from a series of articles, namely, Carpenter and Strawser (1970), Paolillo and Estes (1982), Haswell and Holmes (1998) and Gull et al. (1989) with appropriate modification. The questionnaire is divided into 3 sections. Section A involves requesting the respondents' demographic profile. Section B seeks information related to respondents' exposure on the accounting career before and after they enrol to the universities; their preferred career choice, the main reasons for studying accounting, their intention to pursue professional courses and their expected starting salary in the accounting profession. Section C seeks to identify the factors perceived to be important in becoming an accountant. This is examined using a 5-point scale of 1 being extremely important and 5 being not important at all. One thousand five hundred questionnaires are distributed to the lecturers in charge of the first and final year university students. The lecturers are requested to return the completed questionnaires within 3 months. The

lecturers distributed the questionnaires to the respondents during their contact hours. Out of the 1500 questionnaires, only 802 responses are usable, resulting in 53.0% response rate.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Demographic attribute and main reasons for studying accounting

Table 1 sets out the demographic attributes of the respondents and their main reasons for studying accounting. Panel A, Table 1 shows that 42.3% of the total respondents are the first year accounting students and 57.7% are the final year accounting students. In relation to the Cumulative Grade Point Average (C.G.P.A.), information is extracted only from the final year students, since the first year students have not done their final exams. Panel B, Table 1 shows a larger proportion of the final year students (62.9%) have C.G.P.A. of between 2.00 to 2.99 whereas 25.7% of the final year respondents have C.G.P.A. 3.00 to 3.49.

<INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE>

Panel C, Table 1 present the respondents' response on the main reasons for studying accounting. The results show that self-interest is the most popular reason for studying accounting for the public university students (72.4%). The second most popular reason is limited choice (10.2 %) and thirdly, is their parents' wish (7.1%). Specifically, both first and final year students chose to study accounting because of self interest (71.7% and 73% respectively). Due to changes in the accounting profession as a result of globalisation, an accounting degree alone may not suffice to arm the students with the skills they need to compete in a borderless world. Therefore, it would be an added value if they continue with professional qualification. The respondents were asked whether they have any intention to pursue professional qualification and their responses. The results shown in Panel D, Table 1 indicate that the percentage of students who wish to pursue a professional qualification is (55.4%) whereas only 37.9% state that they would certainly pursue professional qualification.

3.2 Preferred career

This section presents the response of the respondents' preferred career. It also presents the results of the persons responsible to influence the students' preferred career. Panel A, Table 2 presents the respondents' preferred career upon graduation. The results show that in general, the position of public accountant is the most popular choice (31%), followed by management position (24.7%). The results also show that between the first and final year students' choice of career, the first year students to prefer to become public accountant (37.4%), followed by the post of auditor (22.1%) and management position (15.6%). The final year students prefer to hold management position (30.7%), followed closely, public accountant (25.5%) and auditor (20.2%).

<INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE>

Panel B, Table 2 seek response on whether the respondents' preferred career could be attributed by the encouragement from persons outside the university. The results shown in Table 2 may also shed some light on their preferred career. The results, as shown in Table 2, indicate that universities students' family (36.7%) is their major influence, followed by the public/society (22.2%) and the educators (21.1%). These findings support the common belief among Malaysians that the society in general and parents in particular, perceived accounting as a career where the supply of jobs is better than in any other areas of business. Similar results are shown for both first and final year students where family is their major influence and career counsellor plays the least influence in prompting their career decision.

3.3 Career exposure

This section presents the results on the career exposure encountered by the students. Panel A of Table 3 presents the results on the career exposure encountered by the respondents during their course of study in their universities. The results show that slightly more than half of the respondents (56.5%) did have some career exposures. Thirty seven percent of the respondents did not have any career exposures. The reasons given by the respondents are: (i) Unable to attend career talk or counselling due to time constraint; (ii) Could not see the benefits of attending the career talk or counselling and (iii) Unaware the existence of career talk or counselling program.

<INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE>

Panel B, Table 3 provides the results of the respondents' career exposure at their universities. The results show that in general, most of the respondents have had some career exposure given by the professional accounting bodies (40%). Thirty one percent of the respondents encountered their some career exposure from their lecturers and 14.9% of the respondents obtained career exposure through career week. Specifically, the results show that between the first and final year public university students, majority of both group of students attended career exposures given by professional bodies (37.1% and 42.1% respectively). The respondents were also asked whether they have encountered any career exposure prior to their university entrance. The purpose of this request is to determine whether the differences in career choice could be attributed to their career exposure encountered while still at secondary schools. The results in panel C, Table 3 show that only 27.7% of the public university students state that they never had any career exposure. Eighteen

percent response that they have had career exposures organised by professional bodies, which provide indication that they may have some influence on their most preferred career (public accountant) while they were at the universities.

3.4 Factors perceived important in the accounting profession

In section C of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to rate a list of factors that they perceived as important in the accounting profession. A five-point scale was used with 1 being extremely important and 5 being not important at all. The mean score of the first and the final year respondents were compared and analysed using T-Test to test hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 states that there are no significant differences between the first and the final year accounting students' perception on the factors perceived to be important in the accounting profession.

The results in panel A, Table 5 show that the overall perceptions on the top three main qualities that they need to have as an accountant, based on the two lowest mean scores are self-confidence (1.7930), self-motivation (2.0574) and qualification (2.0636). Specifically, the lowest mean score for both the first and final year students are self-confidence (1.9917 first year, 1.8223 final year), indicating these two groups perceived self confidence as the most important quality in achieving chosen career. However, the results show that there are significant differences at 5% level, between the first and final year students on leadership skills ($p=0.040$) and qualification ($p=0.002$). This indicates that the final year students perceived leadership skills as significantly more important than the first year students whereas the first year students perceived qualification as significantly more important than the final year students.

Panel B, Table 4 shows the perceptions of the respondents on the extent of importance of some factors in the determination of salary. The results show the overall mean scores in ascending order, the most important factor is work performance (1.9735), followed by experience (2.1229), then both qualification and hardworking (2.1531) and lastly, seniority (2.5446). Specifically, both first and second year students also agree that work performance should be the important criteria for salary determination and seniority should be excluded as important criteria for salary determination. The results indicate that there are significant differences at 5% level, between the first and final year students' perception on qualification ($p=0.038$) and hardworking ($p=0.005$). In other words, the first year students placed qualification and hardworking significantly more important than the final year students.

Panel C, Table 4 goes on to present the perceptions of the respondents on the extent of importance in determining an accountant's satisfaction. The results show that salary (2.1996), job responsibilities (2.2167) and interest (2.2933) are the major factors the respondents perceived that would make an accountant happy. Specifically, the first year students' perceived salary as the most important factor for an accountant's satisfaction but to the final year students, the job responsibilities comes first. The results however, show that the first year students perceived satisfaction ($p=0.034$) and job responsibilities ($p=0.009$) as significantly more important than the final year student. Lastly, panel D, Table 4 illustrates the mean scores on the important skills for work performance. The findings indicated that the overall perception on the most important skill that they need to have is decision making (2.1141). The results show that the ascending overall mean scores are speaking English fluently (2.1749), strategic planning (2.2091) and oral communication (2.2391). Specifically, both groups perceived decision making as the most important factor in work performance. However, the final year students perceived speaking English fluently and oral communication as the second and third most important skills that they should possess whereas the first year students perceived speaking English fluently as the third most important skills they should have. Both groups of students placed strategic planning as the fourth most important skills. The results show that there are significant differences between the first and final year students on computer skills ($p=0.002$), indicating the first year students placed computer skills as significantly more important than the final year students.

<INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE>

3.5 Acquisition of essential qualities of an accountant

This section also includes respondents' perception on the essential qualities of an accountant and on the prospect of an accountant. The respondents were asked to rate their responses using a 5-point scale of 1 to being strongly agree to 5 to being strongly disagree. A T-test was used to test hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 states that there are no significant differences between the first and final year accounting students' perception on the acquisition of the essential qualities of an accountant.

Table 5 provides the mean scores of the respondents' opinion on how the essential qualities should be acquired. The results demonstrate that the respondents agree that the essential qualities of an accountant are acquired first through experience (2.0552) and then followed by education (2.2095). The respondents are closer to being neutral on the opinion that the qualities are in born. The detailed breakdown on both groups of students revealed that they have the same flow of opinions. Nonetheless, there is a significant difference between the first and the final year students on the opinion that the qualities are acquired through experience ($p=0.006$), an indication that the final year students believed this point more strongly in comparison to the first year students.

<INSERT TABLE 6 ABOUT HERE>

This study focuses on the perception of accounting career of Malaysian public university students. The results of this study show that the most preferred career for public university students is public accountant. This is consistent with the previous studies where students favouring public accountants the most compared to the other accounting career (Carpenter and Strawser, 1970). One attribute could be the increase of career exposure encountered by the students at their universities from the professional bodies. In addition, the fact that public university students' requirement to become MIA members is less rigid could also contribute to this choice of career (Said et al., 2004). Since public accountants is the most popular choice among accounting undergraduates, it is suggested that all the parties involved in the accounting profession, from educators to practitioners, must work together to encourage the students to take the relevant steps to become public accountants upon graduation. Ironically, the results show that the final year accounting students prefer to hold management position instead of public accountants. Perhaps in attempt to increase the number of students to pursuing professional studies, the professional bodies may review their approach in their talks to these students so as to encourage more of them to become public accountants.

The results also show that majority of the public university students encountered career exposure from the professional bodies. This finding is inconsistent to DeZoort et al., (1997) whom respondents obtained their career exposure mostly from the academics. It would be expected that the public university students would chose public accountant as their preferred career. However, the results show a reduction of respondents' interest in pursuing professional study between the first and final year student. One possible reason is that that the final year students were not highly influenced by the sessions given by the professional accounting bodies. Perhaps the professional accounting bodies need to review their presentations since it would be the final year students who would be joining the employment market shortly after graduation. The differences in career choice could also be attributed to the students' exposure to career choice while they are at their universities. The results in this study show that majority of the first year students have never attended any career exposure whereas majority of the final year students have attended some career exposure (refer Table 4). This could explain why the final year students have different career choice than the first year students. They could have changed their mind as they become more exposed to the career options available to them.

Panel D, Table 1 discloses that the percentage of pursuing professional qualification is higher among the first year students in comparison to the final year students (45.4% first year, 32.4% final year). Parallel to the results depicted in panel B, Table 3, the large exposure to talks by professional bodies could have contributed to the large number of students responding either certainly or probably (total of 93.3%) in wishing to pursue professional qualification. To shed some light on the causes of this outcome, the respondents were asked an open-ended question on the reason for their decision. Interestingly enough, among the reasons given by the respondents who chose to pursue a professional qualification are to obtain recognition, higher qualification, higher salary; to obtain in-depth knowledge, competency; it is easier to get a better job and to be able to make it in the current competitive and global environment. On the other hand, some of the reasons articulated by the remaining 6.7% respondents for not pursuing a professional qualification is prefer to do a Master degree; prefer to work; the course is too difficult and financial problems. The respondents also tend to agree on the factors that are important in the accounting profession. The four most important factors are work performance, qualification, hardworking, and experience. They believe that these factors would determine their success as public accountants. In terms of accountants' satisfaction, the results showing salary as one the top three factors is consistent with previous studies showing salary as the top criteria influencing students' career decision (Reha and Lu, 1985; Haswell and Holmes, 1988; Horowitz and Riley, 1990), where salary was included in the top criteria influencing the career decision of students. The results in this study, however, could not support studies that found job employment as one of the top factors in the accounting profession (Paollilo and Estes, 1982; Haswell and Holmes, 1988).

4. Conclusion

The findings of this study would also be useful to accounting educators in reflecting whether they have play a major role in developing the students' understanding and awareness in the accounting career. This would subsequently enable them to focus on how and what can be done to further enhance their role in preparing the students for the practical world. Furthermore, they could look into how the university's curriculum and activities can be improved to tailor the students to fit in the contemporary environment more easily. The findings of this study would also be useful to the relevant universities in formulating plans on what they could offer so that their institutions could attract high quality students and produce highly competitive graduates.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Panel A: Year of study

Year of study	N	%
First	339	42.3
Final	463	57.7
Total	802	100

Panel B: Cumulative Grade Point Average for final year students

C.G.P.A	N	%
3.5 – 4.0	51	11.0
3.0 – 3.49	119	25.7
2.0 – 2.99	291	62.9
<2.0	2	0.4
Total	463	100

Panel C: Reasons for studying accounting

Reason	PUBLIC					
	First		Final		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Self-interest	243	71.7	338	73	581	72.4
Limited choice	39	11.5	43	9.3	82	10.2
Parents’ wish	22	6.5	35	7.6	57	7.1
Relatives motivation	6	1.8	10	2.2	16	2.0
Friends’ influence	5	1.5	9	1.9	14	1.7
Teachers’ motivation	14	4.1	9	1.9	23	2.9
Others	10	2.9	19	4.1	29	3.6
Total	339	100	463	100	802	100

Panel D: Intention to pursue professional qualification

Response	PUBLIC					
	First		Final		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Certainly	154	45.4	150	32.4	304	37.9
Probably	164	48.4	280	60.5	444	55.4
Unlikely	21	6.2	33	7.1	54	6.7
Total	339	100	463	100	802	100

Table 2. Preferred accounting career and persons prompted accounting career

Panel A: Most preferred career

Career	PUBLIC					
	First		Final		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Auditor	75	22.1	94	20.2	169	19.9
Public Accountant	127	37.4	118	25.5	245	31
Financial Controller	44	12.9	48	10.4	92	11.6
Financial Analyst	16	4.8	15	3.2	21	3.9
Management Post	53	15.6	142	30.7	195	24.7
Others	24	7.2	46	10.0	70	8.9
Total	339	100	463	100	802	100

Panel B: Person responsible in prompting career decision

Choice	PUBLIC					
	First		Final		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Media	28	8.3	44	9.5	72	9.0
Public/society	62	18.3	116	25.1	178	22.2
Family	137	40.4	157	33.9	294	36.7
Friends	20	5.9	40	8.6	60	7.5
Educators	79	23.3	90	19.4	169	21.1
Career counsellor	13	3.8	16	3.5	29	3.6
Total	339	100	463	100	802	100

Table 3. Career exposure

Panel A: Career exposure attended at the universities

	PUBLIC	
	No	%
Never	299	37.3
Occasionally	429	56.5
Often	74	9.2
Total	802	100

Panel B: Types of career exposure encountered most at the universities

Exposure	PUBLIC					
	First		Final		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Career counsellor	36	16.9	31	10.7	67	13.3
Careers week	26	12.2	49	16.9	75	14.9
Professional bodies	79	37.1	122	42.1	201	40.0
Lecturer/ Academic staff	70	32.9	85	29.3	155	30.8
Others	2	0.9	3	1.0	5	1.0
Total	213	100	290	100	503	100

Panel C: Career exposure prior to university entrance

Exposure	PUBLIC	
	N	%
Career counsellor	36	4.5
Careers week	59	7.4
Professional accounting bodies	145	18.1
Teachers	104	12.9
Others	236	29.4
None	222	27.7
Total	802	100

Table 4. Factors perceived importance

Panel A: Important qualities in achieving the chosen career

Factors	First year	Final year	Overall Mean	P value
Self confidence	1.9917	1.8223	1.7930	0.064
Qualification	2.1694	2.2404	2.0636	0.002
Experience	2.4008	2.4336	2.3416	0.290
Leadership skills	2.5083	2.4460	2.3942	0.040
Interpersonal skills	2.3693	2.2369	2.2232	0.219
Self motivation	3.1281	2.0557	2.0574	0.176
Can work under pressure	2.3917	2.4650	2.3703	0.788

Panel B: Important criteria in salary determination

Factors	First year	Final year	Overall Mean	P value
Qualification	2.1074	2.1916	2.1531	0.038
Seniority	2.6151	2.4861	2.5446	0.256
Experience	2.1612	2.0906	2.1229	0.344
Work performance	2.0041	1.9477	1.9735	0.648
Hardworking	2.1405	2.1638	2.1531	0.005

Panel C: Important factors for an accountant

Factors	First year	Final year	Overall Mean	P value
Salary	2.1500	2.2413	2.1996	0.156
Job Satisfaction	2.2863	2.3228	2.3061	0.034
Interest in the profession	2.2490	2.3310	2.2933	0.125
Job responsibilities	2.2075	2.2246	2.2167	0.009
Status/prestige	2.5934	2.6456	2.6217	0.290
Prospect of promotion	2.4042	2.3979	2.4008	0.452

Panel D: Important skills for work performance

Factors	First year	Final year	Overall Mean	P value
Written communication	2.3808	2.4495	2.4183	0.156
Oral communication	2.2845	2.2014	2.2391	0.261
Strategic planning	2.2042	2.2133	2.2091	0.271
Decision making	2.1208	2.1084	2.1141	0.665
Speaks English fluently	2.1841	2.1672	2.1749	0.050
Computer skills	2.1583	2.3101	2.2410	0.002
Interpersonal skills	2.3222	2.2902	2.3048	0.720
Information technology skills	2.3937	2.4034	2.3981	0.071

Table 5. Acquisition of essential qualities of an accountant

Factors	First year	Final year	Overall Mean	P value
Qualities are in born	2.7364	2.8877	2.8187	0.092
Qualities are developed through education	2.2083	2.2105	2.2095	0.964
Qualities are acquired through experience	2.1715	1.9589	2.0552	0.006



The Cognition and Image Preservation in the Translation of Metaphor from English to Chinese

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Abstract

Metaphor is viewed in a broad sense in this paper, which is no longer a mere rhetorical device but a mode of thinking. This violation against the traditional concept of metaphor will definitely result in great changes in both the cognition and translation of metaphor. Firstly, this paper aims at casting off the conventional idea of metaphor and widening the cognition scope of it. Secondly, this paper focuses on the selection of metaphor translation methods to preserve the image contained in metaphor for carrying out significant cross-cultural communication.

Keywords: Thinking mode, Metaphor cognition, Image preservation

1. Introduction

Traditionally, metaphor is merely a rhetorical device, which functions mainly as the aesthetic device. However, there came a great break-through in metaphorical study with the publication of *Metaphors We Live By*, a work written jointly by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson: metaphor is addressed as an entity pervasive not only in language but also in thought and action (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Therefore, great changes have been brought into the cognition and translation of metaphor. This paper firstly introduces metaphor in its broad sense with the aim of enabling readers to comprehend metaphor from a completely new perspective. Relevant theories are introduced for providing readers with a clear picture of metaphor in its new sense. The second purpose of this paper lies on the selection of metaphor translation methods so as to preserve the imagery contained in metaphor. Certain examples are given for enabling readers to have a good command of image preservation in metaphor translation.

2. Cognition of Metaphor

2.1 *The Definition of Metaphor*

2.1.1 Metaphor in Its Narrow Sense

In its narrow sense, metaphor might be defined as a figure of speech in which one thing is described in terms of another. Three components are included in a metaphor: the tenor (or object), the vehicle (or image), and the ground (or sense). Taking this sentence for example, "Hope is man's bread", the tenor should be "hope", the vehicle, "bread", and the ground "the necessity of mankind". (Wang Yulong, 1996).

2.1.2 Metaphor in Its Broad Sense

In its broad sense, it refers to any figurative expression, including the transferred sense of a physical word, personification of an abstraction, and application of a word or collocation to what it does not literally denote. All polysemous words and most English phrasal verbs are potentially metaphorical. Metaphor in this sense seeks its root cause in the human mind and addresses the relationship between mind and cognition. Therefore it can be defined as a cognitive process facilitating human conceptual thinking.

The initiative idea of metaphor being addressed as an entity pervasive in language, thought and action counts as a turning point in the metaphorical study. It is no exaggeration to view it as a great break-through because function, classification, identification, comprehension as well as the translation essence and methods of metaphor have been marvelously changed.

2.2 *Classification of Metaphor*

Ways to classify metaphors vary greatly based on different criteria of classification. And the same is quite true with metaphor classification in both broad and narrow senses.

2.2.1 Some Traditional Methods of Metaphor Classification

Firstly, some traditional ways like one possible way, invented according to various structures of metaphors, divides

them into four kinds: Sustained Metaphor, Extended Metaphor, Dead Metaphor, and Mixed Metaphor.

2.2.2 The Classification of Metaphor in Its Broad Sense.

Secondly, metaphor in a broad sense can be classified based on different criteria. Then Mr. Shu Dingfang roughly classified linguistic metaphors, on the basis of their syntactic, semantic and cognitive characteristics, into explicit and implicit, radical and derivative, similarity-based and similarity-creation etc.

1) a) An explicit metaphor is commonly known as simile, which is a comparison of A to B with indicating words such as “like, seem” etc. For example, *Encyclopedias are like gold mines*.

b) However, metaphor seldom displays the similarity between the tenor and the vehicle. For instance, “Man is a thinking reed”, whose sense (or ground) is quite simple and aims mainly at emphasizing the vulnerability of human beings (Dingfang Shu, 2000).

2) Metaphor can also be classified into radical and derivative metaphor.

a) *A radical metaphor is a central conceptual metaphor, as the one in “Life is a journey.”*

b) A derivative metaphor is usually implied, yet acting as a reflection of the early recognition towards the nature and the world of human beings. For instance, “*Understanding or knowing is seeing.*” is a radical metaphor. Its relevant or derivative metaphors may contain verbs like: 1), see, glimpse, see the light, see through, get the picture; 2), look at, examine, survey, regard, etc.

3) a) A similarity-based metaphor is one that is based on familiarity, that is, the generally accepted similarity between Tenor and Vehicle. For instance, in “John is a pig”, the metaphor based on the similarity of “dirtiness, laziness and stupidity” between “pig” and “John” is included.

b) A similarity-creating metaphor is one that contains similarity that is temporarily unfamiliar to most people. For instance, before the creation of the metaphor “as tender as water”, people can hardly detect out any similarity between “tenderness” and “water”.

Other metaphor classification methods are listed as follows:

2.3 Function of Metaphor

2.3.1 General Analysis of the Function of Metaphor

Generally, the function of a metaphor is generally two-fold: the first is the referential purpose, describing a mental process or state, a concept, a person, an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language; the second is its pragmatic purpose, simultaneously with the first one, appealing to the senses, to interest, to clarify “graphically”, to please, to delight, and to surprise. Hence the first purpose is cognitive while the second aesthetic. If a metaphor is a good one, the two purposes usually fuse well with each other like the content and the form. When metaphor was considered merely a rhetorical device, it attracted our overt attention to its outer features and ornamental function. However, much more function of it can be explored if viewing it in a broad sense as a mode of thinking.

And its function can be described from many aspects:

2.3.1.1 From its sources with the development of our thinking modes.

Metaphor was originally considered as only a concrete representation of an abstract concept. For instance, “Sermons are like sleeping pills”, in which the dullness and other features are carried out by the characteristics as contained in the vehicle “sleeping pills”.

However, with the development of human civilization, metaphor also happens in describing a concrete object in terms of another, a concrete object in terms of an abstract one and an abstract one in terms of another one. The examples listed in the following can somewhat indicate this tendency of the changing function of metaphor.

a) I saw a long honeycomb of streets. (A concrete concept “streets” is described with another concrete word “honeycomb”.)

b) When you wear fur, or buy it, you are wearing cruelty, or buying it. (In it the abstract concept “cruelty” is used to express a specific action of human beings: the massacring animals and wearing their furs. Dingfang Shu, 1992).

2.3.1.2 From the Perspective of Cognitive Psychology.

Secondly, if viewed from the perspective of cognitive psychology, the function of metaphor can be described as follows, Metaphor acts as a cognition mode of the world, a reflection of culture; a universal rule in language and the result of cognition and comprehension of ours in a metaphorical mode.

As what the Class-inclusion of Metaphor theory believes, metaphor is a process of re-classifying the objective world and it unites things of originally different kinds into one. However, this process is often restricted by the cultural mode.

For instance, in the sentence: “My job is a jail”, the tenor “job” and the vehicle “jail” belong to different categories. However, the latter embodies the features of being unpleasant and punitive, which are considered to be characteristic of marriage, schools, etc. Hence, anything containing these features could be classified into this category.

Metaphor can also be comprehended as a reproduction of language. However large a vocabulary a language may contain, it is usually incapable of describing so complicated a world (both our inner and outer world), to the full. Metaphor then firstly acts as a key factor in strengthening the power of speech, in retaining the openness and vividness of a linguistic system. For example, certain parts of a computer are given names of mouse, disc, etc. Secondly, it can concisely express a complicated concept. Thirdly, the vivid imagery can be created by a metaphor, for it arouses association and imagination of lively images.

2.4 Identification of metaphor

It is not always easy to identify a chunk of language as metaphors, because it is usually implicit rather than explicit. However, metaphors can be identified in the following possible ways:

2.4.1 The Explicit signal of a metaphor

The first is through the explicit signal of a metaphor: “to put it metaphorically” “speaking metaphorically” or, “in a metaphorical sense” and so on.

2.4.2 The Anomaly in Either Semantics or Pragmatics

The second is through the anomaly either in semantics or in pragmatics with the assumption that the speaker is making sense. In metaphor what is transferred are the relations, which pertain within one semantic field to a second distinct content domain. For example, we say of a basketball player that her playing is “hot” in this game, “hot” is the vehicle, and its semantic field is the field of temperature terms; the domain of the tenor is athletics. Hot and cold are graded antonyms in the temperature field; when they are transferred to sports, we can construe a hot player as one who plays well and scores, while a cold player does not. The antonym of the pair is preserved. Moreover, if a player scores only moderately well, we can say “he was lukewarm in the third quarter.” Since “hot” and “cold” are not absolute but graded antonyms, it is therefore possible to capture all sorts of performance in between, and even on the outer extremes.

2.4.3 The Violation of Cooperative Principles

The third is to detect the violation of cooperative maxims; as classified by Grice (1957).

It is generally agreed that metaphorical statements often violate the maxim of quality and the maxim of relevance. Here are a few examples:

I am as hungry for them as for food, I am thirsty for them, and my thirst is overwhelming. Your words are my food, your breath my wine. You are everything to me.

This sentence breaks the maxim of quality and the maxim of relevance. These words appear in a love letter, so the context provides some hint that the sentence cannot be understood literally.

2.5 Comprehension of Metaphor

It has been generally acknowledged that semantic, contextual and cultural information plays a great role in the comprehension of metaphorical expression. But it remains to be seen as to what type of information and how much amount of it is needed for the correct comprehension of a novel metaphor.

It is generally acknowledged that the semantic conflict, also known as semantic deviation, count as the basis of the production of metaphor.

In order to comprehend metaphor well, many theories related to metaphorical comprehension have been proposed, such as Interaction Theory, proposed by Richards (1965) and Black (1962), Mapping Theory, proposed by Lakoff (1987), and the recent Blending Theory, by the coordinate efforts of Fauconnier (1997). And a rough analysis of the said three theories are listed as follows,

2.5.1 Interaction Theory

Experts of this theory hold the opinion that metaphor is a result of the interaction between the tenor and the vehicle.

It can be explained in the case of “Marriage is a zero-sum game”, in which a complicated complex is included, which can be described in the following aspects:

- a) A “game” is a contest;
- b) Between two opponents;
- c) In which one player can win only at the expense of the other.

Then the implied meaning of “marriage” can be detected upon the comprehension of “contest”, opponents and

especially “winning”.

Therefore, one possible way of understanding this metaphor is displayed as follows,

- a) A marriage is a substantial struggle;
- b) Between two contestants;
- c) In which the rewards (might be power, money, satisfaction, etc.) of one contestant are gained only at the expense of the other's.

2.5.2 Mapping Theory

Instead of using terms like Tenor and Vehicle, Mapping Theory adopts “source domain” “target domain” to indicate the directionality of the interaction between these two domains, which is called “mapping”. According to this theory, metaphor can be a projection from the source domain to the target domain. One possible example is the sentence: “Life is a journey”, in which the source domain is “journey”, the target domain “life”.

Obvious characteristics contained in the source domain include:

- a) A traveler;
- b) The beginning, the process and the ending of the journey;
- c) All possible situations in the process of the journey. These characteristics are systematically projected to the domain of “life”. Hence there may be such expressions in English:

“He got a head start in life.

I am where I want to be in life.

He's never let anyone get in his way.

He's gone through a lot in life.”

The theory holds the point of view that the meaning of metaphor is defined by the meaning and structural characteristics of the source domain.

2.5.3 Blending Theory

According to the Mental Space of Fauconnier, two psychological spaces are included in Metaphor: source psychological space and target psychological space. In Blending Theory, these two spaces provide input for a new psychological space----- the sense of metaphor, as well as another space called generic space, which also attributes to the production of a new space.

Metaphor in this sense is no longer an interaction between the source space and the target space but one existing among the source, target, and generic spaces. For example, in “The doctor is a butcher”, four spaces:

- a) The source space is relevant to “The doctor”;
- b) The target space is related to “butcher”;
- c) Generic space, more abstract, including “doctor”, “butcher” and structural relationship between the two;
- d) A final blended space..

The interaction of these three spaces contributes to the appearance of a blended space, in which characteristics of three spaces are embodied. Hence the meaning of the metaphor can be defined, as “The doctor is an unqualified one with clumsy skills.”

3. Translation of Metaphor

Once the paragraphs above have analyzed metaphor cognition from the five aspects, there will be a clear and scientific process for our identification and comprehension of metaphor. However, in order to realize the goal of cultural communication, metaphor is often translated from one language to another. The translation of metaphor has never been a simple thing, and it will become more complicated due to the widened scope of metaphor. The following part will deal with the translation of metaphor by applying the theories as introduced in the above.

In the 1980s, George Lakoff and Mark Johnson initiated the cognitive study of metaphor. And the study of cognition is mainly concerned with the processing of cognitive information. Moreover, it is motivated by scientific curiosity, by the desire for practical applications, and by the need to provide a foundation for other fields of social sciences. Translation studies belong to this kind of cognitive study. There are some basic assumptions on translation: on the one hand, translation is a verbal process. Therefore it is reasonable to study the process of translation in the light of linguistic methods and research findings. On the other hand, translation is also a cognitive process. The process of translation is

not merely language transference but a mental one, since it involves complicated activities in mind. Therefore, an examination of the process of translation shall incorporate analysis of the basic mental process involved.

Cognitively, translation of metaphors is held as a cognition-oriented mental process, during which the human brain unravels and transmits the cognitive information of the target metaphor. In this way, we assert that the essence of translation of metaphor is virtually a process of cross-cultural transmission of cognition based on the above understanding.

3.1 The Selection of Translation Methods

In order to preserve imagery in different situations, effective translation methods should be cautiously selected in metaphorical translation.

3.1.1 Literal Translation

The firstly and most commonly used method is called literal translation, which is adopted when source and target languages maintain similar cognitive modes, linguistic forms. The image can therefore be transferred directly from one language into another. For examples,

a) *During the 1980s, a new drug called crack began to flood the street. (80 nian dai, you zhong jiao zuo qiang xiao ke ka yin de du pin zai da jie xiao xiang da si fan lan.)*

Here in the translation process, the features of flood: ferocity, and in great amounts, etc. are reflected on the new drug.

b) *Jane's uncle is an old fox, up to all kinds of evils. (jan de shu shu shi ge lao hu li, shen me huai shi dou gan de chu lai.)*Ji' an Xia ,2000)

In this sentence, characteristics of fox like being cunning, tricky, etc., are reflected on "Jane's uncle".

3.1.2 Replacing the Images of the Source Language with Another from the Target Language

The second translation method might be replacing the images of the source language with another from the target language. With this method, translators can choose this method to use the accepted images in the target language to take the place of the original images in source language.

This can be seen with the help of some examples:

1) There are some color examples reflecting it. It is sometimes hard to translate color words from one language to another without introducing subtle changes in meaning. The English phrase "red-blooded" does not mean "hong xue de", rather, it is another way of saying that someone or their behavior is confident and strong. And the English phrase "red-eyed" just means "having red eyes (for lack of sleep)", while the Chinese equivalent "hong yan" means at least two things: having red eyes, and interesting enough, "green" with envy. In both cases, language expresses cultural reality Yanhong Yu, 2005).

2) Sometimes, if we retain the original vehicle in translation, the target readers cannot easily recognize the implied meaning. In such cases, translators may replace the metaphor with the conventional metaphors in the target language. Thus, the readers of the translated metaphor have no difficulty in understanding. And, such translation can make the target readers have the same association and emotion as the source readers do. For example:

She felt that she must not yield; she must go on leading her straitened, humdrum life. This was her punishment for having made a mistake. She had made her bed, and she must lie on it Wenlan Liu, 2002)

3.1.3 Combining Direct Transference of Images and Annotation

The third effective metaphor translation method in preserving the images in metaphors is a combination of direct transference of images and annotation. Some examples are listed in the following:

a) *He was a Machivellian, who would employ all means to attain to power. (ta shi yi ge ma ji ya ji lishi de ren wu, hui yong yi qie shou duan lai jue qu quan li.*

b) *The waiter said with a voice like butter cake and eye like the cherry in a Manhattan cocktail. (fu wu sheng shuo hua shi sheng yin xiang nai you dan gao yi yang ni wai, yan jing xiang man ha dunji wei jiu zhong de ying tao yi yang hong.)*(Xia Ji an, 2000).

Annotation is added for the above sentences so as to transfer the meanings contained in the metaphor which can then be better understood by readers in a different cultural background.

Actually many other methods for metaphor translation are still to come, with the ultimate aim of preserving the imagery of metaphor while transferring its meanings.

4. A Complete Process of Metaphor Translation

Since the cognition and effective translation methods of metaphor have been discussed in the above, the knowledge of metaphor can then be utilized in the practice of metaphor translation.

One example is given bellow:

“Metabolically, the brain is a pig. It consumes a fifth of the body’s oxygen and similarly large portions of its calories and phospholipids. Greedy neutral tissue lying around beyond its point of usefulness is a good candidate for the recycling bin.” (Pinker, 1994). *The Language Instinct*)

Identification of Metaphor

This chunk of language is grammatically right, though a detailed look at it can reveal the violation of logic in that a brain can never be the equal to a pig. Hence, this sentence “Metabolically, the brain is a pig” violates the maxim quality and the maxim of relevance.

Comprehension of Metaphor

Since this metaphor functions for characteristics of “a pig” to “the brain”, the adoption of Mapping Theory for comprehending it will be better.

Characteristics of the source domain, “a pig” include: a big eater, greed, and always consuming a large amount of food every day.

As these characteristics are reflected on the target domain “the brain”, and the context given in the sentences following the metaphor gives us more specific information, characteristics of “the brain” can be described as being a giant consumer of energy and nutrients among all organs of human beings.

Since the image of “a pig” also exists in Chinese, it can be transferred directly from the source language to the target language, hence the adoption of liberal translation plus some annotation explaining more about its meanings. Thus this sentence can be translated as: *Cong xin chen dai xie de jiao du kan, da nao shi tou zhu, xiao hao da liang de neng liang he yang fen.*

5. Conclusion

Now that metaphor is not a mere rhetoric device but a reflection of certain cultures and modes of thinking representing the essential characteristics of the conceptual system on which people rely to think and act, great changes have taken place in its cognition and translation. This paper depicts a clear picture for metaphor in its broad sense.

By cognizing metaphor in a broad sense, this paper firstly widens people’s understanding of metaphor; fully comprehends metaphor from different aspects. In this part, the systematic introduction of metaphor from the five aspects of its different definitions, classification methods, its function, its identification, and its comprehension reveals to readers what a metaphor in this sense means and how to understand metaphor completely.

The paper also emphasizes the importance of image preservation in metaphor translation. In view of the important roles imagery contained in metaphor plays, it is imperative that it be fully transferred from the source language to the target language so as to carry out the task of cross-cultural communication.

The analysis and practical usage of metaphor cognition and translation methods will certainly bring great benefits to the better understanding and reproduction of metaphor in a broad sense. Hopefully readers of this paper can benefit somewhat by the thorough reading and understanding it .

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Viewing China's CI Design from Shenzhen

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Abstract

China is expected to start from its realities, to absorb the merits in CI of U.S. and Japan, to rely on conception and to convey enterprises' operation conception as well as culture to those individuals or organizations related to them with its integrated transmission system. As an image project, CI refers to the packaging and improvement of an enterprise's image. With our increasing knowledge about CI, we can learn more about an enterprise's conception and regulations of conduct, and accordingly, base the whole designing process on conception. Besides, an enterprise's performance should be judged according to scientific statistics instead of perceptual feelings.

Keywords: Shenzhen, CI, Transition, Conception, Brand, Opinion

Despite of its short-time existence in China, CI has experienced its unknown period, popularity and current stage as a quite common thing, which really deserves our reflections. In the preliminary stage of market economy, enterprises mainly competed with each other in desirable products. However, with increasingly fierce competition, desirable products had to give way to excellent salespersons to promote the sales of products. Nowadays, due to a lot of elements such as the constant expansion of market, the globalization of competition and the narrower gaps in quality among similar products, consumers tend to be more particular about the brand, quality, service, style and color of products. Accordingly, consumers should be satisfied not only in their practical demands but also in their aesthetic, mental and psychological demands. Therefore, company image has become an important way to improve the competitiveness of products.

Shenzhen is a pioneering field for the existence and development of CI. Ever since 1997 to 1998, CI has been widespread from Shenzhen to other parts all over China. Inspired by the success stories of Apollo, FIRS and Master Kang, many enterprises longed for CI with the hope to succeed in market competition with its magic. At that time, because most enterprises were still ignorant of CI, the CI companies in Shenzhen would earn several million yuan for a case. For example, Icon-Image Corporation, once well known for designing CI for FIRS, signed a contract with Ningbo Cigarette Factory to design its image at the price of 3,800,000 RMB. However, with the cooling of the previous upsurge, the price for CI has dropped down sharply. Then many people would ask why. Are clients more mature now or has CI failed to adapt it to the changing times?

1. The Beginning of CI in China

China's CI theory comes from Japan. Despite the 20-year delay in Japan's introducing CI compared with that in Europe and U.S. influenced by World War II, it followed U.S. to create a CI theory system with its own characteristics in 1970s. Compared with the design of Europe and U.S., Japan's design puts more emphasis on marketing-oriented visual design and the intuitionistic impressions created by logo, font and color and takes visual identity system as the core of its CI strategy. In addition, by combining its CI theory with its operation traditions, Japan came up with "Humanistic CI" and "Cultural CI", enriching elements for theoretical identification and activity identification in CI system. Meanwhile, emphasis is attached to establishing company image in the aspects of operation conception, enterprise spirit, corporate culture, institutional system and regulations of conduct and so on. By putting human beings at the center of CI, it clarifies its corporate conception and culture. It further develops its CI into CIS, in which theories about MI, BI, VI are included to emphasize the great importance they have paid to passing down its corporate culture, accumulate forces to develop enterprises and to strengthen employees' cognition and identification.

Taiwan began to introduce CI in 1967. For instance, Taiwan Plastics Company introduced CI, which became the landmark in the history of Taiwan's CI development. In addition, Weiquan Company invited Japanese designers to

design CI for it, hence promoting Japan's influence on Taiwan in CI.

CI development in the mainland has been directly influenced by the cases of Apollo, FIRS and Master Kang. Therefore, CI in Japan and Taiwan has laid the theoretical basis for the development of CI here.

2. The Current Situation and Development of CI in China

CI is defined as taking standard fonts and trademarks to reveal corporate conception and culture in Europe and U.S.. Actually, their CI design focuses on VI, which emphasizes the standardization of visual effect, pursues the unity of designing elements and transmission media in order to employ the symbol, standardized font and color properly in the whole enterprise and therefore to convey the overall information of the whole enterprise with its visual image. However, Japan's CI is regarded as a kind of activity to clarify corporate conception and culture, which focuses on the reform of corporate conception and operation guidelines. Accordingly, in its CI design, not only visual effect, but also corporate conception and behavior should be emphasized. Efforts should be made in operation conception, enterprise orientation, value orientation and enterprise morality to standardize employees' behavior in order to promote production and create greater profit.

CI in Shenzhen focuses on VI, so do those Taiwan companies located here with MI as a complimentary enclosure. However, most CI design companies in the mainland only know some theories about MI and BI while feeling a loss when it comes to real practice. Actually, those Taiwan CI companies, just like ours, have no experience in this field, only relying on plenty of information coming from Japan's achievements in CI. In this sense, China's CI originates from Japan's CI theory system.

After the reform and opening in China, most enterprises, still exploring their operation, management and so on, had only perceptual knowledge about CI. It is in that very period that enterprises and CI design companies got in touch with this new thing. The success stories of some enterprises inspired more entrepreneurs to have their own CI designed as well as informed CI design companies of enterprises' desires for CI. As a result, CI boomed rapidly, and reached its peak in 1997 to 2000. Almost all CI design companies took the Japanese-style MI, BI and VI theory and design and tried to develop clients in a variety of ways such as holding lectures and organizing trainings and so on. In their lectures, lecturers made CI an all-purpose god by connecting it with marketing, enterprise management, staff training, quality control and institutional structure and so on.

In that period, CI companies emerged in great numbers. In order to attract more clients, most CI lecturers emphasized the difference between visual-type CI in U.S. and cultural-type CI in Japan and particularly pointed out that MI, BI, VI were created in Japan and would be the tendency of China's CI. Therefore, CI became popular, which also brought about some questions. Why should enterprises introduce CI? Is it the proper time to introduce CI? What problems can be solved by CI?

3. The Misunderstanding and Puzzle in China's CI

In the initial period, CI companies in Shenzhen kept wavering between design and planning, lacking in specific range and definition. From the very beginning they went to extremes, some focusing their attention to design while others to planning in which MI, BI and VI were emphasized.

Those CI design companies made progress more or less in VI design and packaging, while those companies involved in CI planning felt at a loss about the real function of CI. Their MI planning included a variety of things in a variety of ranges, such as operation conception, development strategy, target management, institutional structure, staff spirit, operation orientation, operation target and so on. As a result, clients were shocked by the thick pile of reports with words, tables and figures. In a word, neither design companies nor planning companies have realized the actual demands of Chinese enterprises. What is MI for? What can it do for enterprises? These questions are bothering CI companies, including those from Taiwan.

Actually, without any professionals in economics, management, accounting, statistics and so on, CI companies are artistic design companies in a sense. However, MI in Acer is a success because it deals with this part by itself instead of having it done by CI companies.

4. The Deficiency and Immaturity in China's CI

The main reason why many clients in Shenzhen aren't satisfied with those full-service CI companies lies in that these companies fail to conduct careful investigations and analysis about the market and the involved enterprise or to compare the enterprises of the same kind horizontally and vertically. Some CI companies don't conduct any analysis on image indexes when planning and designing for an enterprise, hence failing to obtain authentic and scientific basis for their decision. In most cases, CI companies don't care about the profit and the effect an enterprise will earn by introducing CI. Instead of regulating their own design thoughts and service attitudes in order to better satisfy enterprises, these CI companies keep complaining about their clients' ignorance of the current global marketing pattern and development tendency and inspire the new ideas about integration, marketing and transmission into them. In fact, they are just

armchair strategists.

In addition, some other CI companies try to attract clients by boasting that they could save their enterprises with their so-called professional abilities. After accomplishing the design and planning for enterprises, they seem to have nothing to do with them. If anything wrong happens to MI, it is up to enterprises themselves to solve it, hence resulting in some new problems. However, regardless of hardships, Japanese CI companies have paid enough attention to these problems and have stuck to a strict, scientific and responsible attitude to their clients, which is what we should learn from them.

Meanwhile, some clients, ignorant of CI, only turn to their subjective opinions, instead of any strict and scientific data or evidence to judge the result of CI. According to most entrepreneurs, only the identification system matters, just like names for people, brands for enterprises.

As for corporate conception, some wise entrepreneurs regard it as their basis, guideline and a window for the whole society to know about them, hence preferring to deal with it by themselves. Accordingly, they are more concerned about some issues such as how to reflect their enterprises' conception and what actions or methods will help to achieve better effects and so on.

Ever since 2002, CI in Shenzhen has declined, which is attributed to, first, reduced demands for CI and, second, lowered price for CI design and planning (only 60,000 to 80,000 RMB)

5. My Views about Current CI in China

As shown in the development course of CI in Shenzhen, the most critical point lies in that CI companies mainly rely on perceptual judgment instead of a combination of scientific data analysis and the reality. Clients once spent so much money in introducing CI expecting the professional support of CI companies, only to find that what they really needed was not empty theories but solutions to practical problems. However, even up to then CI companies were struggling their way in mist, failing to satisfy the demands of clients in time.

For an enterprise, conception should be its operation principle, the basis for its competition and survival and therefore the premise of all. When establishing its corporate conception, an enterprise is expected to consider the advice of the leadership and common staff as well and then to form it by exerting creativity, which includes the significance of its existence, operation guidelines and principles. In this way, they can express their enterprise's overall image and conception with the most concise, vivid and representative schemes or words.

With more detailed division of labor, CI services should be more specific. CI companies should base their design and planning for an enterprise on its established conception and help to form wide recognition among the individuals or organizations related to this enterprise about its operation conception, corporate culture and spirit. In CI design, modern design conception and enterprise management theory should be considered to position an enterprise's individuality and characteristics in order to give prominence to the connotation of its corporate spirit. Internally, the purpose of unifying thoughts and will as well as enhancing the cohesion among individuals can be fulfilled; externally, it will help to achieve the function of enterprise identification and social recognition, and therefore to encourage enterprises to achieve their goals with their design and planning system. This standard calls more for CI companies, in whose work not only a great amount of surveys but the elaborate designs of first-class designers are required. To be more specific, during the designing process, CI companies should rely on the specific enterprise's conception and the data and material they have got in actual surveys and analysis and further to learn about its conception, rules of conduct and spiritual connotations. Only in this way will their CI designs stand the tests of time and market.

In fact, when introducing CI, some issues should be taken into consideration: first, VI should be tested in whether it will reveal an enterprise's conception and behavior in an overall and authentic way and whether it will reflect the basic idea and spirit of the enterprise's conception and behavior. If an enterprise's image is divorced from its conception and behavior, its CI will be lacking in solid base, resulting in the failure in establishing and strengthening its corporate image. Second, attention should be paid to whether an enterprise has achieved effect by specifying its operation conception. The answer of "no" reveals some problems in the process to be solved. Third, in addition to specifying conception, the transmission of conception should be tested in its systematic and strategic degree, and in whether people accept such conception and to what extent it is accepted and so on. If its conception is not accepted, surveys, analysis, research, exploration and positioning should be conducted again to test its correctness, and then to convey it after immediate amendments. Some issues, such as the recognition degree of image indexes among the staff, the design methods preferred in the target group (emphasis on font or graph), the popular color in the specific industry and some relevant regulations in its industry and so on, should be taken into consideration. When CI companies display their analysis charts based on their surveys about design method, color and other design elements to their clients and explain why to come to such a design, clients will, of course, regard them professional enough. This seems quite necessary because no client would like to pay a lot of money, only to listen to your design or planning based on your experience or feeling. Instead, they prefer to achieve their goals with the help of CI companies, which are expected to demonstrate what problems in their CI should be solved and what ways can be relied on to do that with detailed data analysis and

scientific planning schemes.

6. Conclusion

CI will develop with the development in our society and culture, and of course, will vary in different areas, nations and times. Therefore, we are expected to develop our own CI by relying on our own realities as well as learning from U.S. and Japan in their CI

The value of CI (brand= product + culture) lies in its aiming at serving brands, then further promoting the branding process of enterprises and then expanding the market to earn better economic profits.

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Subjective Judgments and Overall Perception Dominate The Accreditation Processes - A Case Study from India

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Abstract

An effective accreditation mechanism should be able to demarcate between a good programme and a bad programme without any bias or preconceived notions of the assessor. This should be achieved through the analysis of variability of performance of programmes in various well-defined dimensions of quality. Moreover, the process should be as objective as possible to avoid the criticisms about the correctness of the decision. Considering these factors, a study has been planned to analyze the effectiveness of a well-established accreditation process. Accreditation process of National Board of Accreditation (NBA), India is taken as a case for the analysis. The study reveals the dominance of subjective judgments and overall perceptions of evaluators in the decision of accreditation status of a programme.

Keywords: Accreditation, Assessment, Subjective judgements, NBA India

1. Introduction

According to most of the leading experts on quality, attaining quality goals through a process of continuous improvement over time depends critically upon a firm's ability to define in specific performance terms what it means by quality and then to measure these performance variables objectively (Krishnan et al, 1993). Definition of indicators of quality and the objective measurement of these indicators are critical in the assessment of quality of engineering programmes. A measurement system gives the ability to communicate meaningfully about what quality means. It provides the basis for unambiguous debate and decision-making by the stakeholders on quality on all aspects of the education programmes. Adopting a clear quality measurement also allows specific goals to be established and specific results to be predicted. Subsequently, the measurement process allows faster identification of quality problems, and interventions to solve those problems, greatly facilitating the achievement of programme's overall objectives. It is clear that the direct tie between quantifiable objectives, outputs, measurement and accountability that complete the quality loop and drive a continuous quality improvement process (Lau and Anderson, 1998).

2. Views on quality on engineering education

What is quality, quality of education especially engineering education, and how it can be achieved are of great interest to the stakeholders of engineering education. The quality of education is becoming important, particularly so in engineering education, where the output of the system, can have a direct impact on the quality of their employer organizations. Reeves and Bednar (1994) contend, 'the search for a universal definition of quality has yielded inconsistent results. Such a global definition does not exist; rather, different definitions of quality are appropriate under different circumstances'. Mukhopadhyay (2001) remarks that, depending on the goals, the term 'quality in education', has been defined by different researchers as excellence in education, value addition in education, fitness of educational outcome & experience for use, conformance of education output to planned goals, specifications & requirements, defect avoidance in education process, and meeting or exceeding customer's expectations of education. Quality in education has been defined variedly even as, 'fitness for purpose' (Tang and Zairi, 1998). Some studies concentrate on the institutional inputs and outputs. Mortimore and Stone (1990) draw attention to the 'normative and comparative' element inherent in quality, emphasizing quality in education as 'an attribute or defining essence; a degree of relative worth; a description of something good or excellent; and a non-quantified trait'. Any definition of quality should be expected to change over time, because 'it necessarily reflects a society's interpretation of educational needs and the intensity of its moral and financial commitment to fulfilling them'. The concept of quality when applied to higher education has been inconclusive (Cheng and Tarn, 1997; Pounder, 1999). Education quality can be viewed as the combination of the quality of input, process, and output of the education system. Eriksen (1995) argued that the primary input is the student (before exposure to a value-added service) who is subjected to a transformation (the application of a value-added service), which, in turn, produces an output (the student after exposure to a value-added service). It regards education quality as a multi-dimensional concept that cannot be assessed by only one indicator.

LeBlanc and Nguyen (1997) identified curriculum, physical evidence, responsiveness and access to facilities as the factors, which explain service quality. These factors are related directly to the process of service delivery (Nelson, 1974) and reinforce the belief that quality control measures could be applied along the service delivery system. Education services need specific practices based on the three defining features of services: intangibility, concurrent learning and student participation in the service (Chung et al, 2001). According to Harris (1994) there are three generic approaches to TQM. First is a customer-focus approach, where the idea of service to students is fostered through staff training and development. Second is a staff-focus approach that is concerned to value and enhance the contribution of all the members of staff to the effectiveness of the school. The third approach that takes a service agreement focus, seeks to ensure conformity to specification at certain key measurable points of the educational process. Cheng (1996) defines education quality as the character of the set of elements in the input, process, and output of the education system that provides services that completely satisfy both internal and external strategic constituencies by meeting their explicit and implicit expectations. This definition involves the characteristics of input, process, output and multiple constituencies of an education institution. It regards education quality as a multi-dimensional concept that cannot be assessed by only one indicator. Many opinions can be observed in the literature about the factors promoting quality and excellence in engineering education. Some of them are teaching process (Cropley, 2003), University – Industry collaboration (Natarajan, 2003), role of management (Gopalan, 2003), student intelligence & interest (Mouly and Padmaja, 2003), excellence of teachers (Shrivastava, 2003), accreditation standards (Prem vrat ,2003), e-education (Maji, 2003) and proper documentation of activities (Jagdeesh, 2001). According to Dhend and Biradar (2000), they are Personnel, Policies, Functions, Activities, Procedures, Systems, Facilities & Infrastructure, Services, Environment and Funds. The quality assurance process should address specific academic issues involving faculty development & collaboration, strengthening of research programmes, curriculum development etc and in this connection the networking of institutions and the accreditation policy can play a vital role (Sirohi and Sinha, 2003).

It is clear from the above literature review that the Quality of Engineering Education cannot be defined by any single factor or dimension. The authors have viewed quality as the combination of various factors. Hence, the assessment of quality, and the accreditation process based on this assessment, should not be one-dimensional - one based only on the overall-perception/preconceived-notions of the assessor.

3. Scope of the study

The study is planned to check the above-discussed factors with respect to a well-established accreditation process. As far as Indian engineering education system is concerned, NBA is the official performance assessment mechanism. Through a series of workshops and seminars of academicians, industrialists, and administrators, NBA has finalized the criteria and procedures for the accreditation process (Manual for NBA Accreditation, 2000). Hence, the study is focused on the NBA accreditation process of engineering programmes from India.

The All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), India; set up to oversee the growth and quality of technical education; established the National Board of Accreditation (NBA) in 1994 . The NBA is charged with the task of evolving a procedure for quality assessment in the technical education sector based on the specified guidelines, norms, benchmarks and criteria. By accreditation, NBA aims to ‘recognize and acknowledge the value addition in transforming the admitted raw student into a capable engineer, having sound knowledge of fundamentals and acceptable level of professional and personal competence for ready employability in responsible engineering assignments’. The criteria or standards, by which individual programmes in any institution will be judged, are formulated to give an indication of the strengths and weaknesses of the programmes. These are classified into indices that measure the quality of different aspects of the programme. Under each index, typical criteria are included for measurement of performance. The points assigned for each of the criteria and the basis of accreditation decision is illustrated in tables 1 and 2.

The institutions who wish to accredit their programmes should submit the information and data according to the Performa provided by the NBA. The NBA will identify the Chairperson and the members of the visiting team with regard to the accreditation of a programme. The expert team selected by NBA will visit the institute and conduct discussions with the management, principal, faculty, supporting staff, students and other stakeholders to assess the performance parameters of the programmes. NBA uses a scoring system based on 8 criteria with a maximum score of 1000 points. The final decision of accreditation of the programme is based on the summated scores allotted for these 8 criteria variables by the experts visiting the institute.

4. Methodology

The study is planned to examine whether the accreditation/ assessment process of engineering education programmes are multidimensional and not based on the prejudice/preconceived-notions of the assessor about the performance of the programmes. The accreditation process of NBA, India is taken as a case and hypotheses are formulated as follows

Main Hypothesis:

Accreditation status (Accredited/Not-accredited) allotted to a programme by NBA is the outcome of an objective assessment based on all the 8 criteria of NBA.

Sub hypotheses:

None of the eight criteria of NBA process is correlated.

Assessment of NBA is multidimensional.

Only the combined score in all the eight criteria of a Programme have the discriminatory power in segregating between the 'Accredited' and 'Not-Accredited' status.

4.1 Data description

The study requires the collection of score sheets prepared by the NBA expert team during their visit to the Institute/College for accreditation. The score sheets filled up by the experts during these visits are confidential documents, which are not accessed by the public. Pure random sampling is difficult when dealing with such confidential data. With the special permission from the NBA, accreditation scores of 160 programmes that have undergone NBA accreditation process during the period 2000 – 2003 have been collected for the study. The selected samples of 160 engineering programmes (from 13 states) represent a cross section of Indian engineering education system. Different expert teams assessed the programmes. All these factors ensure the randomness of the samples. Criteria scores are tabulated and outliers are removed.

4.2 Testing of sub-hypothesis 1: Correlation analysis of NBA criteria

A Correlation analysis has been conducted to find out the relationships among the eight criteria. The Correlation matrix is shown in Table 3. Twenty-eight ($8C_2$) t-tests have been conducted to identify the significant pair wise correlations between the criteria. There is a probability of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis for any of the pair wise comparisons in the family of eight criteria that does not exceed ALPHA (0.05). To avoid this situation, multiple comparison methods that control the family wise error rate need to be used. Hence, the Holms-adjusted multiple comparison p-values are used to determine the significant correlations between the criteria. The matrix of Holms adjusted p-values is given in Table 4.

4.3 Testing of sub-hypothesis 2: Principal component analysis on NBA criteria

As the quality of engineering education is multi-dimensional, our interest is to find out whether the NBA assessment process is also multidimensional. We have to check whether the eight criteria can be reduced to a smaller number of linear functions (principal components) of these criteria, which can best summarize the original process. Principal component analysis (PCA) is used for this purpose of data reduction and summarization. In deciding when to stop factoring (that is, how many components to extract), 'latent root (Eigen value) criterion' is followed. To support this decision, 'Scree test criterion' and 'Percentage of variance criterion' are also used. The rationale for the latent root criterion is that any individual component should account for the variance of at least a single variable if it is to be retained for interpretation. Each variable contributes a value of one to the total Eigen value. Thus, only the components having latent roots or eigen values greater than one are considered significant, all components with latent roots less than one are considered insignificant and are discarded. The scree test is derived by plotting the latent roots against the number of components in their order of extraction and the shape of the resulting curve is used to evaluate the cutoff point. The point at which the curve begins to straighten out is considered to indicate the maximum number of factors to extract. The percentage of variance criterion is an approach based on achieving a specified cumulative percentage of total variance extracted by successive factors. The purpose is to ensure practical significance for the derived factors by ensuring that they explain at least a specified amount of variance. No absolute threshold has been adopted that would be valid for all applications. In the social sciences (as in the present research), where information is often less precise, a solution that accounts for 60 percent of the total variance (and in some instances even less) is considered satisfactory (Hair et al, 1998). The components with eigen value greater than one are extracted. Result of PCA on the eight criteria of NBA is given in Table 5. The Scree plot of the PCA is shown in Figure 1.

4.4 Testing of sub-hypothesis 3: t-tests on the criteria scores of the programmes

Among the 160 programmes for which data were collected, 138 scored 650 and more points in the accreditation process. The remaining 22 programmes scored only less than 650 points. Hence, 138 programmes got the status 'Accredited' and the other 22 are declared as 'Not Accredited'. Eight set of t-tests have been conducted to test the hypothesis 'Only the combined score in all the eight criteria of a Programme have the discriminatory power in segregating between the 'Accredited' and 'Not-Accredited' status'. The results of t-tests are displayed in the Table 6.

5. Results and Discussion

Correlation matrix (Table 3) and Holms adjusted p-values (Table 4) of the criteria show that most of them are highly correlated. Hence, the hypothesis 'None of the eight criteria of NBA process is correlated' is rejected.

Principal Component Analysis resulted in a single component (Table 5). The Scree plot (Figure 1) also emphasizes this finding. Around 63 % of variability is explained by this component alone. This result indicates that the eight criteria

considered to be the essential dimensions of NBA evaluation process actually represent only a single component. Hence the hypothesis 'Assessment of NBA is multi-dimensional' is rejected.

With reference to the Table 6, at the 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis of 'equal criteria scores' is rejected. All the criteria scores are significantly different for the 'Accredited' and 'Not-Accredited' programmes. Moreover, all the eight criteria scores are significantly higher for the 'Accredited' programmes than the 'Not-accredited' ones. Hence, each of the criteria has discriminatory power in segregating between the 'Accredited' and 'Not-Accredited' programmes.

The discriminatory power of all of the criteria of NBA is already tested in a previous study (Viswanadhan et al, 2004) through another statistical technique, logistic regression. A model has been developed that contains the minimum number of variables and capable of making the prediction with maximum accuracy. It is found out that a model, which is made up of only a single criterion variable, can predict the accreditation status with good accuracy (86%). This result indicates that with the determination of a single criterion score, we can predict the accreditation chance of the programme with sufficient accuracy.

Results of the studies pointed out that:

The eight criteria of NBA are highly correlated

NBA process, in actuality, is one-dimensional

Through a detailed procedure, NBA assesses only the overall performance of the programmes.

6. Conclusions, practical implications and limitations

An effective accreditation mechanism should be able to demarcate between a good programme and a bad programme without any bias or preconceived notions of the assessor. This should be achieved through the analysis of variability of performance of programmes in various well-defined criteria of quality. However, the study revealed that whatever elaborate procedures are adopted for the assessment, in reality, the final decision solely depends on the subjective judgment and overall perception of the evaluator. This finding has the following implications:

Necessary steps may be initiated to eliminate (or to reduce) subjectivity from the assessment and accreditation processes or

As the subjective judgments control the assessment process, elaborate and tedious scoring systems may be avoided from the accreditation procedures.

The scope of the present study is limited to the accreditation system and processes of NBA, India. The methods used in this paper can be extended to any quantitative accreditation processes. However, they cannot be directly applied to the assessment process of many of the accreditation boards around the world as they adopted non-quantitative methods for accrediting the programmes.

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Table 1. Accreditation decision of NBA

<i>Total Points (Out of 1000)</i>	<i>Grades allotted</i>
>750	Accredited for 5 years
650-750	Accredited for 3 years
< 650	Not accredited

Table 2. Criteria of NBA

<i>Criterion Number</i>	<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Points</i>
1	Mission, Goals and Organization	100
2	Financial & Physical Resources and their Utilization	100
3	Human Resources: Faculty & Staff	200
4	Human Resources: Students	100
5	Teaching – Learning Processes	350
6	Supplementary Processes	50
7	Industry – Institution interaction	70
8	Research & Development	30
Total		1000

Table 3. Correlation matrix of eight criteria of NBA

<i>Variables</i>	<i>MGO</i>	<i>FPRU</i>	<i>HRFS</i>	<i>HRS</i>	<i>TLP</i>	<i>SP</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>R&D</i>
Mission, Goals and Organization (MGO)	1							
Financial & Physical Resources and their Utilization (FPRU)	.44	1						
Human Resources: Faculty & Staff (HRFS)	.57	.06	1					
Human Resources: Students (HRS)	.69	.46	.47	1				
Teaching – Learning Processes (TLP)	.45	.34	.42	.61	1			
Supplementary Processes	.4	.5	.3	.6	.46	1		
Industry – Institution Interaction (III)	.54	.4	.37	.67	.6	.55	1	
Research & Development (R&D)	.51	.32	.46	.45	.38	.29	.41	1

Table 4. Matrix of Holms adjusted p-values of correlation coefficients

<i>Variables</i>	<i>MGO</i>	<i>FPRU</i>	<i>HRFS</i>	<i>HRS</i>	<i>TLP</i>	<i>SP</i>	<i>III</i>
Mission, Goals and Organization (MGO)							
Financial & Physical Resources and their Utilization (FPRU)	.018						
Human Resources: Faculty & Staff (HRFS)	.000	.682					
Human Resources: Students (HRS)	.000	.015	.011				
Teaching – Learning Processes (TLP)	.016	.084	.029	.000			
Supplementary Processes	.040	.005	.108	.000	.015		
Industry – Institution Interaction (III)	.001	.039	.053	.000	.001	.000	
Research & Development (R&D)	.003	.099	.015	.000	.049	.108	.034

Table 5. Principal Component Analysis on the eight criteria of NBA

<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Coefficients</i>
.Mission, Goals and Organization	.88
Financial & Physical Resources and their Utilization	.85
Human Resources: Faculty & Staff	.85
Human Resources: Students	.79
Teaching – Learning Processes	.78
Supplementary Processes	.74
Industry – Institution Interaction	.74
Research & Development	.69
Eigen value	5.02
Percentage of Variance	62.73

Table 6. t-tests on the criteria scores of the Accredited and Not-accredited programmes

<i>Sl. No</i>	<i>Criteria</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p-value</i>
1	Mission, Goals and Organization	6.04	0
2	Financial & Physical Resources and their Utilization	3.47	0.003
3	Human Resources: Faculty & Staff	4.43	0
4	Human Resources: Students	7.18	0
5	Teaching – Learning Processes	8.19	0
6	Supplementary Processes	5.26	0
7	Industry – Institution Interaction	4.07	0.001
8	Research & Development	4.26	0

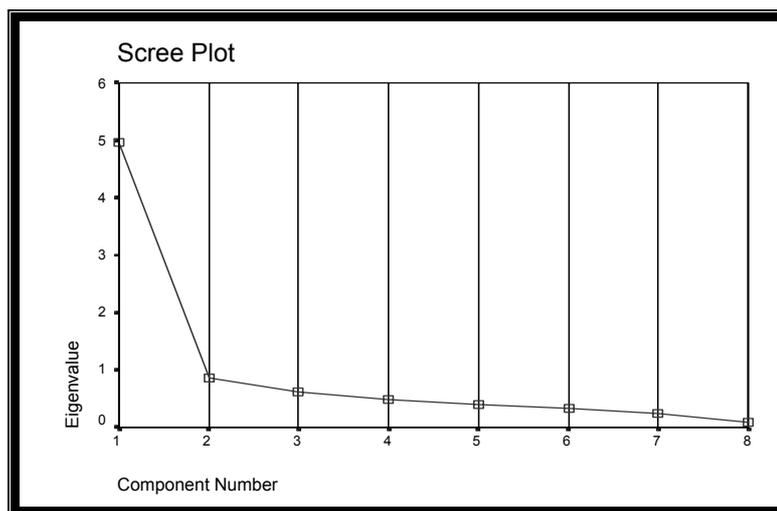


Figure 1. Scree plot of Principal Component Analysis on NBA criteria



A Comparative Study of Literary Images between Chinese and English from the Cognitive Perspective

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Abstract

The theory of the literary image and the theory of the cognitive image are one of the most important theories in the literature/cognitive linguistic domain. On the one hand, they demonstrate striking difference thinking of the definitions, the content of the theories, the concerned domains and the practical usage; on the other, they meanwhile show inter-disciplinary connections between the literary text and the cognitive principles, with the literary image supplying the direct materials for the cognitive image, and the cognitive image the theoretical enlightens from the linguistic point of view.

Keywords: Relation, Literary Image, Cognitive Image, Domain

1. Introduction

The theory of literary images is one of the most significant principles in the field of literature. Compared with linguistic images, literary images were advocated much earlier. Therefore, the connection and the differentiation between literary images and linguistic images are essential to help us have the bird-eye view on the development of the theories of the images. And then, this paper mainly focuses on briefly analyzing the nature and identical manifestation of literary images and exploring the relationship between literary images and linguistic images.

2. Diachronically studying definitions of literary images

2.1 Classical definitions in Chinese literary field

Image, as one deeply-rooted conception of Chinese classical literary theories, needs us to make all-round study in historic point of view. According to the written materials, it can be traced back to Zhouyi and Zhuangzi to find out the earliest records of "yi" and "xiang" which are the discrete Chinese characters combining together equally to "image". Recorded in the book named *Zhuoyi-xichishang*, the relationship among languages, concrete image and meaning are discussed as follow: "Confucius said 'the sage attempts to have the laws of the nature fully expressed by weaving images in divinatory symbols'." (Xueqin Li, 1999, p.291) In other words, in the course of the ancient ritual process of divinatory symbols, the eyes were fixed on the appearing pictures--images whose meaning need to be analyzed the meaning through language. And this is true of the discussion in *Zhuangzi*, it is said that language is used in order to convey meaning; and the meaning can be caught at without taking notice of its linguistic form.

As time marches ahead, various schools of discussions about the relationship among the above elements go on. And the scholar, named Wangbi living in the period of Wei-Jin Dynasty, made comparatively clear analysis of the dialectical relationship among "language", "image" and "meaning", which developed the theories upheld by Zhuangzi, whose opinion is "The use of the image aims to have the meaning fully manifested, and the use of language aims to have the image explicitly pictured. It is the most effective way to convey the meaning though displaying the image, so does weave up the image through linguistic forms. This is because: 'meaning' fully comes out with the help of 'image', and

'image' vividly occurs with the help of 'language'. Therefore, the purpose of using 'language' is to profile 'image' which, in turn, is prominently highlighted at the expense of weakening 'language'; and then, in the same way 'image' is focally to convey 'meaning' still at the expense of bleaching 'image'." (DingZhen-yan, 2000, p.204) It is very clear that WangBi paid attention to "image" serving to convey "meaning" through demonstrating "language". It was the time of South Dynasty when Chinese compounding characters counterpart to "image" in English was firstly adapted as the literary token in Liuxie's Criticism on Literary Arts interpreted by Zhou Zhenfu as "For the writing stimulus can grow out of the thin air without any limitation, the writer must willingly try to develop such inspires queerly. Although language certainly acts as the actual choice to note all these strange thoughts, it is hard to be used to re-picture them ingeniously. Thus, there must be such transferring processes: thought—image—language; that is, the well-conceived image will perfect the effective language to convey the thoughts; in contrast, the ill-conceived image must mislead the words stray far away from the originalities." (ZhouZhen, 1980, p.132) And also LiuXie expounded elaborately the functions of using images in literary works in this way that the author stirred up by the routine inspires re-occurs such thoughts with conceiving images in mind.

From then on, the connotation of "image" as one important literary theory has been continuously developed and improved. In the period of Ming and Qing Dynasties, some then well-known scholars had made deeply study about "images" on the base of the former achievements and proposed their innovative ideas, among which WangFu-zhi spoken of "meanings lie outside in forms of and lies on in nature images", and WangGuo-wei made generally discussion of such specific literary categories as "the mood of a literary work or a work of art" and "the state/realm of a literary work" etc. And some scholars got research in the methods by which images were created from the perspective of the rhetoric, among which ZhangXue-cheng, the accomplished historian and writer in Qing Dynasty, expressed out his opinions that the efficient way to form images mostly resents to metaphor, as in "the methods to construct images discussed in Yin is similar to the figures of speech in Poetry". From this point, figure of speech in the poem and simile and metaphor in the literary works are brought into the category of the image has greatly influence on the later Western imagery theories.

As time goes into the contemporary period, and as the result of the western philosophies pouring inside, most scholars attempt to clarify the intonation and the connotation of the image by defining from different angles. All the following definitions concluded by LiuYan in his articles, which will help us to trace the developing process of the image, are taken out here:

"AiQing believes that the image is the generalizational sense, thus it is purely sense-related.

ZhuGuang-qian regards the image as the profile shadowed in mind out of the concrete objects by intuition.

ZhuQi defines the image from the poet's point as some objective physical image which transfer the poet's subjective emotions.

LiYuan-le pays attention to the powerful manifestation of the words; thus he defines that the image come into being as the result of the interaction of the objective every-day scenes and the poet's subjective thoughts and emotions, and then appears as the artful pictures or the virtual realm created by using the proper words with permeating the creator's aesthetic prejudice.

YuZhao-ping takes the image as a psychological state which unconsciously constitutes a reasonable and emotional psychol (biaoxiang) and this image is embodied and fossilized in the form of words, and conveys some concrete meaning in a particular, aesthetic—concerning situations." (LiuYan, 1995, p.125)

Besides those, there are some other scholars in the modern time talking about the image, and some of their opinions are quoted here:

WuXiao gives the definition of the image as "the compounding formula which is shown off in the visible words and functions as the bridge to look insight into the objective materials from the subjective side."(WuXiao, 1990, p.16)

JinKai-cheng holds that the image is the physical image reflecting the author's subjective conscience with the emotional value included, or the physical picture occurring to the mind processed in the course of the imagination which can also be named imaginative image termed in the course of psychology. And the image can be analyzed from two levels; on the higher level, the image is the variant attached the writer's thoughts and senses, that is at the name of Yin in Chinese; and on the basic level, the image, which Chinese counterpart is Xian, is some certain real physical image which may be originated from the objects in the nature, or the imaginative image conceived in the mind resulting from the sense of the surroundings. (JinKai-cheng, 1999, p.49)

From all the definitions enumerated in above part, we try to summarize features of the literary image mentioned in ancient and modern Chinese authentic scholars and thoroughly permeating in Chinese literary works. First, as one of the most popular ways used in Chinese literary works, the theory of the image has underwent a historical, continuous, and developing process. And, this theory was derivative from the literary practice much earlier than regarding as one

effective method to transmit the writer's meaning. So, we will be enlightened to study the image as the continuum entity from the historic point view. Second, the literary image is in nature one entity with two interacting sides—the physical image which comes from the subjectivized physical object, and the personal emotion which is implemented through the physical image. What is more, language acts as the concrete material to connect these two sides, in other words, it is unavoidable to study what is the function of the language has played in the course that the image comes into being in the mind and then conveys the writer's meaning through the image. Third, as one mature-directed theory, the image can be discussed from several aspects. As far as what has been researched in Chinese literary field is concerned, the image can be unfolded in the literary, aesthetic, psychological, or cultural perspectives and so on. And what is the most important we have concerned in this part is from the literary point of view to focus on how the image is created out of language and how it functions through language. Fourth, by comparing with other figures of speech, the author personally hold that the image itself is not attributed into the category of the rhetoric, but rationally is one effective measure to convey meanings which are weaved up in reality with some figures of speech as practical methods. And among these figures of speech, simile, metaphor, and even symbolism act very important roles.

2.2 Classical definitions in Western literary field

Generally speaking, though it is in the early time that the theory of the image has been used as one efficient measure to transmit meanings explicitly in the writing practice, the image proposed and then entrenched as one theoretical term in Western literary field is relatively later than that in Chinese literary field. And the later developing image theory has a lot in connection with that mentioned in Chinese definitions. Therefore, it will be much inspiring if we make a brief look at the definitions given in Western literary scope.

Compared with the term completely put forth in China by LiuXie, it was 18th century, about 1300 years later that Immanuel Kant initially proposed the definition of the image in Critique of Judgment. Till 20th century when the poetry movement of imagism arose in American and English literature, "image" was recognized as one of the basic aesthetic terms. In this poetry movement, it was the British poet and theorist T. E. Hulme who firstly clarified the conception of the image as the essential pursuit of the direct language. (YinGuo-ming, 1999, p.140) And then the imagism poets with Ezra Pound as the head have imposed great influences on the western literary field at the beginning of the 20th century, and had the importance of the image theory re-understood. Ezra Pound who was deeply influence by the Chinese classical poetry gave the definition of the image as following "an image is that which represents an intellectual and emotional complex in an instant of time". (Ezra Pound, 1935, pp.3-5) Thus we can tell that the image, in Ezra Pound's understanding, is the straightforwardly identical connection between the physical image and the subjective emotion instead of the humanization of the object.

Under the influence of the poetry movement of the imagism, the western scholars attempted to elaborate the image from different aspects and then put forth their own viewpoints about the conception of the image. Here, we just briefly listed several among these understanding about the image, which LiuYan have mentioned in his writing: "May Sinclair thinks that the image is not the replace, and advocates such views that the image does not substitute for nothing except for itself, and that the image naturally is the way of manifesting instead of reoccurring. Then, you can not distinguish the real object from the image. Peter Jones believes that the image mentioned by the imagist have the changeable meanings, just like the signals 'a, b, and x' in the course of the algebra. The nature of the imagism is that the writer adopts the method of the image just because that he observes or feels the existing of it, not because he thinks the use of the image in order to support some decree or some aesthetic or economic mechanism. Gertrude Patterson gives such definition as the image is a clear, explicit, and precise observation which, if expressed, will occur in the form of the poem, and function as the form of the direct conversation between the poet and the reader without concerning any logical coherence. Suzanne Juhase defines the image from discussing its relationship with the symbolism, i.e. the image reoccurs the sensual experiences, and it can act as one symbol once it comes into being." (LiuYan, 1995, pp.125-126)

And the American signal aesthetician Susan Langer exploits the image from the signal angle. She thinks "the image, included in the term of the imagination, acts as the key to open up the newly-weaved world. In my own opinion, that the image is traditionally and popularly regarded as the re-production of the sensual impression has made some recognitionism-proposed philosopher omit the signal features of the image. And it is just the signal feature of the image that gives all-round answers to why the sensual character of the image is generally so ambiguous, transient that the image is almost hard to be described; and also why the sensual image is always irresemble to its real physical image." (Susan Langer, 1983, p.126) And Wellek and Warren in their book the theories of the Literature discusses the image in the field of "analogy and comparison" and think that the image "is one essential part of the syntactic construction and the stylistic level" Wellek and Warren Besides some other scholars study the image from the similar or some different perspectives and also give us a lot of enlightens. We do not enumerate their opinions here for the limitation of the length of this paper.

From all the understandings of the western scholars about the image, we partly feature the literary image mentioned in Western literary works. First, much later when the theory of the image was used in the literary works as one efficient

measure to convey the writer's meaning, it came into the theory of the image. This point is similar to the history of the origination and development of the image in Chinese. Second, when it comes to the nature of the image in the literary field, the theory of the image is deeply influenced by that of Chinese theory. Both concern the interactive relationship between the physical image and the image formed in mind, and also stress on the transmissible function of language to melt these two sides together. Third, although the image has been discussed from the literary, aesthetic, psychological, or cultural perspectives, the western scholars have attempted to make further study from the signal aspects and especially fix their eyes on the permanent role of language which have set up the base for the born of the new branch of the linguistics—Cognitive Linguistics. And in turn, Cognitive Linguistics has now becoming the overwhelmingly developing trend of Linguistics in 21th century, which sheds light on the development of modern linguistic theories in China.

3. The manifestation of the image in the literary works

3.1 The manifestation of the image in Chinese literary works

There are varieties of criteria to classify the images in the field of Western literature. Of course, different classification means different routine images appearing in the literary works. In this paper, the author adopts the one among all those measures of classifying, which is easily understood and also familiar to every-day life, in order to make clear discussion about this topic. Thus, we take as the criteria of the classification what category the object belongs to.

The statistical measure of the image is one effective method in studying and analyzing the image, which have been ever popular in the West academic field. Caroline Spurgeon, an English scholar, invented this method. And she wrote the book the images in Shakespeare's works, in which the ratio of the images occurring in the works was statistically figured out in order to study the mood and atmosphere of the Shakespeare's, and consequently to predict Shakespeare's career, interests and personality traits. To our joy, one American scholar has done the statistical work about the natural images sampling Poetry of Tang Dynasty. And the writer refers to his method and re-organizes his achievement in form of the statistical table to construe the images in this Chinese classical book logically and explicitly as Table1:

Table 1. The statistical graph of the natural images in Poetry of Tang Dynasty

category	content	times	ratio
weather	wind, cloud, rain, snow, mist, dew, frost, frog	359	22.9%
mountain	mountain, hill, stone, canyon, gorge, valley	309	19.8%
water	river, water, sea, wave, spring, tide, pond	260	16.7%
celestial body	the moon, the sun, sky, star, the Milk Way, the Big Dipper	269	17.1%
tree	tree and woods, willow, pine, bamboo, peach, mulberry, cypress, laurel, pear, plum	159	10.2%
flower	flower, hibiscus, lotus, lily, thoroughwort, chrysanthemum	106	6.8%
creature	bird, wild goose, phoenix, swan, mandarin duck, unicorn, swallow, warbler, oriole, gull, egret	101	6.5%

In this statistical table, it can be found out one significant phenomenon that the occurring times of the image standing for the general conception, for example the image of "tree, flower, grass and bird" in the latter four categories, take on increasing trend, compared with that in the former. Therefore, the poet living in Tang Dynasty sketched the natural scenery briefly instead of aspiring for a minute description. In this way, the general concept is conventionalized through the figure of speech metaphor or symbolism as the literary image which aims to transfer the poet's connotative meaning by the superficial description.

3.2 The manifestation of the image in English literary works

And the criteria and the measure used in section2.1 still work well in this part, so then we get the following three general categories exemplified with some typical representatives. Namely, the first category is the natural image referring to the mountain, the water, the flower, and the grass etc. which are the real things remaining in the nature; the second refers to the human-related image characterizing the travel, the get-together, the war and the farming etc. which are loaded with imagery meaning in the given literary situation; and the third involves in the god-and-spirit-related image featuring in the imaginative people and creature which are created to hint peculiar connotation in the folks and legends. (Faxiang Zhou, <http://book.5ivote.com>)

A fundamental requirement in any empirical science is that a theory be in substantial accordance with known facts. In order to make all-around comparison with the statistical number and the corresponding ratio of the images in the

Chinese classical poetry Poetry of Tang Dynasty, we, at first, intentionally choose the well-known Western classical dramas--Shakespeare's Eight Dramas (A Midsummer Night's Dream, The Merchant Of Venice, As You Like It, Twelfth Night, Hamlet, Othello, King Lear, Macbeth)(Beiling Qiu, 2006, p.49)---as the researching target material here, and try to count up the total number of the images and figure out their corresponding ratio in Table2:

Table 2. The statistical graph of the images in Shakespeare's Eight Dramas

category	number	Percentage
animal	165	32%
Plant	24	5%
color	6	1%
nature	28	6%
Gods and spirits	147	29%
slang	68	13%
others	73	14%
totality	511	100%

The number in Table2 is taken from page 49 of the book the Changing Course of the Beauty written by Beiling Qiu. In this table, almost all the images appearing in Shakespeare's Eight Famous Dramas are categorized in terms of their originations and also counted the percentage in the totality.

As rating in the first place in 32% proportion in contrast with other images in Shakespeare's Eight Dramas, the animal images amount to 165 cases in these seven categories listed in the above statistical graph. Therefore, we just instantiate these animal images here as the special representative in the Western literature to show what are fixed as the well-established images. And then Table2 (Beiling Qiu, 2006, p.51) statistical table can help us to make a bird-eye's look about the animal images entrenched in each drama respectively.

Table 3. Animal Images in Shakespeare's Eight Dramas

Dramas	Animal images
A Midsummer Night's Dream	sucking dove, nightingale, duck, dove, spaniel
The Merchant Of Venice	Parrot, colt, swan
As You Like It	dog, Chanticleer/cock, Irish rat, goose
Twelfth Night	mouse, ass, dog, turkeycock, beagle, lamb, dove, hare
Hamlet	Nemean lion, porcupine, hawk, Hyrcanian beast, paddock, bat, gib, adder, Danish dog
Othello	Fly, old black ram, Barbary horse, wildcat, haggard, goat, monkey, wolf, raven, fitchew, serpent/viper, Spartan dog
King Lear	dragon, vulture, hog, fox, wolf, dog, lion
Macbeth	Scorpion, serpent, Russian bear, Hyrcan tiger, lion, monkey, hellhound

Generally speaking, this figure provides us a unitary understanding about the typical animal images implemented in Shakespeare's Eight Dramas from what kind of animals these images have originated. However, if we divide this table into two comparable units—the former four comic dramas versus the latter four tragedies, we can be aware of the subtle differences implied here that the animal images used in the comic dramas are usually originated from some lovely, active, especially heart-won little animals, in contrast, those in the tragic dramas from some low type of life, insects and reptiles strikingly compared with some other animals of a certain dignity and grandeur. In this way, Shakespeare intended to convey his personal prejudice about the characters in the dramas through attached different emotions to some well-established animal images. For the limitation of this thesis, we don't plan to give more examples to demonstrate this point here.

3.3 The comparison of the images in Chinese Literature and in English Literature

All the theories of the literary images at home and abroad are always focusing on its function as the artful measure to convey the special meanings. From this perspective, the image refers to residing the meaning intentionally expressed into some existing things, i.e. the subjective emotion finds its spiritual substance in the physical image coming from the objective world. The Chinese famous modern poet, whose penname is Shahe Liu, in his book The Twelve Images gives his individual understanding about the literary image that the literary image is the unified unit by melting the mental image with the physical image. This nature of the literary image is really similar to what have delineated in the

definitions discussed in the above part. And it happened that the outstanding artful critics Elliot point out that “the unique artful way of expressing oneself is to find out the physical image transmitting the hints. This image appears as a series of the physical images concerning some stories in a given situation aiming to foreground some particular meanings immediately stirred up at the sight of the sensual images.” (Yuanluo Li, 1987, p.148) Above all, what is the focus of the literary image in Chinese literature is naturally true of that in the field of English literature. The following table is about the literary images in Shakespeare’s Eight Works compared with their counterparts in Chinese versions translated by Shenghao Zhu, Shiqiu Liang, Ping Fang respectively. The writer resorts to the consequence made through the software Wordsmith by Beiling Qiu, and revises on the base referring to Miss Qiu’s statistical tables (Beiling Qiu, 2006, pp.335-336) to get this following table.

Table 4. The original images Versus their Chinese translating counterparts

category	Number I	Number II	Ratio I	Number III	Ratio II	Number IV	Ratio III
animal	165	134	81.2%	146	88.5%	151	91.5%
Plant	24	21	87.5%	19	79.2%	19	79.2%
color	6	3	50%	5	83.3%	4	66.7%
nature	28	22	78.65	23	82.1%	17	60.7%
Gods and spirits	147	114	77.6%	132	89.8%	117	79.6%
slang	68	37	54.4%	58	85.3%	48	70.6%
others	73	30	41.1%	50	68.5%	48	65.8%
totality	511	361	70.6%	433	84.7%	404	79.1%

In Table4, Number I refers to the total number of the images used in Shakespeare’s Eight Dramas, Number II in Shenghao Zhu’s Chinese-translating versions, Number III in Shiqiu Liang’s, and Number IV in Ping Fang’s. And Ratio means the proportion of the literary images in Chinese-translating version to those in Shakespeare’s Eight Dramas. Ratio I, Ratio II and Ratio III respectively is the literary images in Shenghao Zhu’s Chinese-translating versions, Shiqiu Liang’s, and Ping Fang’s rated to those in Shakespeare’s.

From Table4, we know the literary images are very popular in the literary works. The statistical numbers (Number I, II, III, IV and Ratio I, II, III) can obviously prove this statement. Associated with the statistical results in Table1 and Table2 and together with the typical examples in Table3, we can make a reasonable statement that the literary images, whatever in the field of Chinese literature or of English literature, have a lot in common with each other in contrast with uncommon points typically reflecting in the linguistic forms. And some literary theorists in the eastern and western academic circles have got identical understanding with respect of the theory of the literary images to a large extent. Especially, Shahe Liu, after studying the ten varieties of the definitions given at home and abroad, points out that “the images used in Chinese or Western literary works as one effective literary measure naturally mean the same except that the images differ essentially in aspects of their corresponding linguistic forms.” (Shahe Liu, 1987, p.189)

4. The relationship between the literary image and the cognitive image

To be honesty, it is very hard to talk out the similarities or differences between the literary image and the cognitive image because both are basically different theories in different academic fields; in other words, the literary image is one of the most important principles in the literary field, but the cognitive image is one newly-developed theory in linguistics, especially in the domain of cognitive linguistics.

As Linguistics and Literature are closely connected and some theories are overlapping on some level, we can predict that there must be some things between them. At first, we make it clear that both theories have revealed the different level of the theorization, the literary image being more concrete concerning the physical and mental images which constitute one implied course of the emotional transmission, and the cognitive image comparatively more abstract which focuses on how this course works in terms of the linguistic forms. Secondly, the scope of the cognitive image is much larger than that of the literary image. (Yesheng Tan, 2003(4), pp.19-22) And the image in the literary field is the typical usage of the cognitive image, then all such typical images are abstracted to form the schema which is further conceptualized to get the cognitive conception covering all the prototypical character of the constituent. Thirdly, whatever focal point of the literary image or the cognitive image is, there is some common place overlapping these two theories as Jiakuan Shen says: “All the human being can form some sensual recognitions out of the initial intuition, and then such sensual recognitions will be highly rationalized to some natural rules of the worlds. In this way, there remains the similar process of growing the cognitive mentality by which the modern man can touch the mental process of the ancient man, and surely by which Chinese can understand the way that the foreigner conceptualizes some general rules out of the objective world.” (Jiakuan Shen, 1994(1), pp.12-2)

Therefore, we can borrow raw materials from the literary image if we try to study the cognitive image, and the cognitive image will in turn supply the theoretical guidance.

5. Conclusion

This paper mainly studies the nature of the literary image in Chinese and English literary works. We have compared the similarities and differences of the Chinese literary image and the English literary image on the ground of analyzing some authentic definitions at home and abroad, and at the same time exemplifying their concrete occurrence in the classical works—Poetry of Tang Dynasty as the typical representative of Chinese literary works and Shakespeare's Eight Dramas as the typical representative of English literary works. From a cognitive perspective, the literary images as one important principle in the field of Chinese and English Literature show more consistent characters, strikingly in contrast with their different linguistic-expressing forms.

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The Application of Chinese Elements in the Product Design

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Abstract

The 21st century will see the design competition in the market with cultural contest right behind it. A 5,000-year history civilization has left many Chinese elements to the modern China. It is worth considering as to how and where the precious cultural heritage can be melt into the modern life. I think a designer should make an in-depth understanding and application of traditional cultural elements after giving a profound study to Chinese culture and seizing its essence. He or she should pay attention to the world cultural exchanges and truly convey the spirit of China. He should never do any simple patchwork. I think those are essential to a successful product design that can display Chinese elements.

Keywords: Chinese culture, Chinese elements, Product design

Introduction

This text attempts to explore the product design from the perspective of the design elements which embodies the Chinese elements. As a Chinese future designer, facing the booming Chinese cause of design, he or she should open a field of design with Chinese features when connecting with the world, and put the Chinese culture into the modern product design.

1. What are Chinese elements

When talking about Chinese elements, either natives or foreigners will blurt out many living examples. Chinese elements are displayed in traditional culture, such as, Chinese painting, calligraphy, seal carving, Beijing Opera masks, cloisonne, Chinese japons, Chinese knots, shadow play, martial arts, tea, Chinese medicine; in religion or mythology, e.g. Guanyin, Rulai Buddha, Chinese Loong, and Qinlin; and in architecture, such as, the Imperial Palace, the Great Wall, Dunhuang fresco, Suzhou gardens, temples, Huabiao, Paifang, kiosks, and wells; in such costume of unique style of China as the emperor's crown, the Queen's phoenix coronet, silk brocade, Qipao, Tang Costume, sun yatsen's uniform, Dudou, embroidered shoes, tiger head shoes, Douli. Even the Yangtze River, Yellow River, Mount Huangshan, Mount Everest and other natural scenes, as well as Chinese pandas and Baiqitun fish are all unique elements.

Are Chinese elements the only forms expressed by these specific symbols? In fact, as early as in ancient times the correct answer was already given. Chinese philosophy was almost perfect even in the Spring and Autumn Period. It stresses the impartial Doctrine of the Mean. In the course of seeking Dao, the interaction and balance is adjusted between Heaven and man, body and mind. Nature takes its course. The limited life can realize its immortal significance. Great happiness can be achieved by self-transcendence over existence and non-existence. That is Chinese Yuan and Su. Yuan is the initial. And Su refers to the silk without being dyed. Chinese elements are profound and have broad meanings with prominent features of strong harmony and the expressions of images of man and nature.

2. Chinese elements and Chinese culture

Culture is strong enough to affect or even control the people's life though it is invisible. Chinese culture is the crystallization of Chinese civilization of several thousand years. In a new background of economic era, it has become a strong fulcrum to the commercial vitality. Nowadays more and more Chinese enterprises have begun to adopt the elements of Chinese culture while making sale promotion in the world and have already achieved a lot.

Geely Automobile attracted a large number of visitors by performance with the authentic Beijing Opera masks at Frankfurt Auto Show. Li-ning sports shoes drew the inspiration from the Zhaozhou Bridge and integrated the history and culture of the Chinese nation with the modern technology successfully in the product design, which is favored by numerous consumers. The identifier of shadow boxing in Beijing's bid for Olympic Games and the identifier of Chinese seal for Beijing 2008 Olympic Games both reflect that Chinese elements have brought inspiration to the field of design. In the background of Chinese traditional culture, more and more Chinese elements are applied into many fields of industrial product design, plane design, and costume design.

People have come to realize the importance of the Chinese elements. They have started to attach importance to using it and even to shouldering the mission of the rejuvenating the Chinese elements. Chinese culture is the core of Chinese

civilization while the Chinese elements are the basic respect of the Chinese culture.

When more and more Chinese enterprises make for the international market, when the growing proportion of the Chinese products occupy the world, when China is getting closer and closer with the vast stage of the world, how to display the Chinese culture is not a question for the enterprises themselves because what they have shown about the Chinese elements is actually the synonyms of the images of China and Chinese products. From the design perspective, the world needs China for China's cultural heritage is a very rich resource bank to the world design and creativity.

3. Chinese elements and product design

The profound Chinese culture reveals the relationship between man and nature and guides the direction of development for the modern design.

How to apply these objective laws that has arrived for thousands of years to today's modern product design and how to integrate Chinese culture, Chinese elements into the product design are the topics that are worth deep thinking and researching.

The connotation of design is actually the culture. Design is not just a visual art. It is multi-disciplinary and needs much knowledge of different layers. Thus it is important for designers to get cultural accumulation in daily life. Design serves the reality so the application of Chinese elements should be acclimated to the trend of development on the basis of traditional Chinese culture. It can not do without the support of culture. Therefore, how to embody the culture in the design and how to cleverly integrate Chinese elements into the design will depend on a designer's background of knowledge and his or her capability of understanding the culture.

To better integrate Chinese culture and Chinese elements into the product design, first of all, a designer must deeply study the Chinese culture and be able to seize the essence of Chinese culture. Great China has owned a 5,000-year heritage of the Chinese culture, and a person can not understand all the wonders of it in a whole life. Chinese culture has left with us a great wealth and contains incalculable strength and potential so far. A Chinese designer must understand Chinese culture. However just having book knowledge and knowing history are far enough. A designer must be good at grasping the cultural essence of the modern design, and fully understand it. He or she can not be in the too much pursuit of culture while detach from the reality, or he or she can not completely be addicted to the reality without cultural knowledge as foil.

Secondly, when studying Chinese culture to seize the essence of the Chinese culture, we should pay much attention to the cultural exchanges. Applying the Chinese culture and adopt the advanced concepts into the modern product design, we can make the design cause to a new height.

Thirdly, integrating Chinese culture into the modern product design does not simply mean to draw the patterns with traditional features on the surface of the products. What is integrated into the product is spiritual civilization and cultural emotion rather than culture itself. Taking the products as carriers to give a natural expression of the cultural connotation set in products is exactly the embodiment of the third value—the spiritual value, which is above the economic and aesthetic values of products. What belongs to China is not historical. However it must be profound and can reflect and spread Chinese culture and Chinese spirits.

Finally, the application of Chinese elements in the design should not be deliberately emphasized, in particular, not put the cart before the horse. Chinese elements are not a panacea. Some symbols can be used, but it is not necessary to give eisegesis for symbol's sake. A Chinese element in product can not be deliberately sought or even be labeled on any surface. It should be a natural emotional outpouring of the designer after he or she gives a full understanding of the national culture. Thought Chinese elements are charm and rich in connotation, they need properly integrating and innovating. We must use Chinese elements to truly convey the Chinese spirit. It is not a simple patchwork. Chinese culture is like an inexhaustible old well and no one can know how deep it is. Symbols and superficial Chinese elements can not fully reflect the profoundness of the traditional culture and can not bring the genuine soul to the products.

Giving a profound study of Chinese culture and seizing the essence of Chinese culture, emphasizing the exchanges with other world cultures, stressing the Chinese spirit expressed by colors, patterns and other forms not only in the apparent products by also in the whole process of production, consumption and use, I think, are the means by which Chinese culture is integrated into the modern product design.

Epilogue

21 century will see the design competition right in the market. However it is the cultural contest that is behind the design competition. So we should broaden our mind and make our own judgment and expressions on the basis of deeply understanding the profound Chinese culture. Only by exploring our own culture can we go further in the creative economy.

As far as the design is concerned, aside from Chinese elements, it should agree with the actual development and the reception psychology of the masses, inherit, stress and develop Chinese culture. And Chinese product design will also

be brilliant in the world.

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The Effect of Balassa-Samuelson in South-East Asia

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Abstract

High growth in the South-East Asian countries for the past three decades should imply high increases in productivity to reveal the Balassa-Samuelson (BS) effect of high growth accompanied by real exchange rate (RER) appreciation. This paper examines the effects of productivity increases by developing a robust unrestricted error correction model (UECM) of RER based on a class of theories of time-varying equilibrium exchange rates as opposed to the conventional PPP-based theory. An empirical study was carried out on four selected Southeast Asian countries: Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand. This work suggests that the effects of productivity increases may be more complicated than what the theory suggests and points to the possibility that the Balassa-Samuelson is affected by the stage of economic development rather than mere productivity increases.

Keywords: Balassa-Samuelson, Currency, Equilibrium real exchange rate, Productivity, Unrestricted error correction model.

1. Introduction

According to Balassa (1964) and Samuelson (1964), as an economy expands, there is a tendency for the economy to exhibit productivity increases which in turn leads to RER appreciation. In other words, robust economic growth is accompanied by RER appreciation as a result of differential in productivity growth between tradable and non-tradable sectors. Currency RER appreciation can imply reduced export competitiveness for an economy, hence empirical findings from this work have policy implications particularly to exchange rate management as they may clear some dilemma regarding productivity increases and the effects to competitiveness (Mohamad & Nair, 2007).

Although the traditional BS hypothesis is usually treated as the relevant theory to explain the RER appreciation, empirical evidence gathered from several developing countries is not always in accordance with the BS hypothesis (Gente, 2006). In particular, the growth exhibited by productivity increases in the tradables in developing countries was not accompanied by RER appreciation. On the other hand, the BS theory is found to be valid for the OECD countries. In an earlier work, Japan, Korea, Taiwan and to a lesser extent, Hong Kong and Singapore were found to follow the BS path as these fast growing countries observe a similar industrialization pattern (Ito, Isard, & Symansky, 1997).

The objective of this paper is to empirically examine the validity of the BS theory in the selected Asian economies of Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. The emphasis will be in putting forward evidence on the long-run relationship between RER and productivity and a set of other control variables.

2. The theory and empirical methodology

The RER is defined as the relative price of non-tradable (P_n) to tradable (P_T) (Edwards, 1989):

$$RER = \frac{P_n}{P_T}, \quad (1)$$

The RER can also be written as follows:

$$RER = \frac{P_n}{P_T} = E \frac{P_n}{P_T^*}, \quad (2)$$

where, P_T is the domestic price of tradable, P_n is the domestic price of non-tradable, P_T^* is the world price of tradable and E is the nominal exchange rate defined as the price of domestic currency in terms of foreign currency (foreign currencies per unit of domestic currency).

The equilibrium real exchange (ERER) rate is defined here as the steady-state real exchange rate conditional on a vector of permanent values for the fundamentals (Baffes, Elbadawi, & O'Connell, 1999), and can be described by the following linear transformation:

$$\log q_t^* = \beta' F_t, \quad (3)$$

where, q_t^* is the ERER and F_t is the vector for the fundamental variables at period t . The vector β is the parameter of interest.

The empirical analysis in this study is motivated by the theoretical model of Elbadawi (1998) and Edwards (1989). The RER can be written as a function of the following determinants:

$$\log q_t = f(F_t, NFI_t, DRNK_t, MACRO_t, CNER_t) \quad (4)$$

where,

q Real exchange rate (defined as the ratio of the price of non-tradable to tradable, where an increase in the value of RER means an appreciation)

F Vector of four trade balance fundamentals:

TOT - Terms of trade

GCON - Government consumption as a ratio of GDP

OPEN - Trade openness defined as total exports plus imports as a ratio of GDP

PROD - Productivity proxies by productivity differential between manufacturing and services industries

NFI Ratio of net income from abroad to GDP

$DRNK$ The difference between the change in RES and NKI

(i.e., $DRNK = \Delta RES - NKI$), where, ΔRES - The ratio of change in reserves to GDP

NKI Ratio of net foreign capital inflows to GDP

$CNER$ Rate of change in nominal exchange rate where exchange rate is defined in terms of foreign currency (USD) per unit of domestic currency

$MACRO$ Indicator of monetary policy measured as a ratio of change in domestic credit and lagged broad money supply

Next, the UECM framework used for modeling the ERER is outlined. The dependent variable is the RER ($\log q_t$) and the matrix x_t denotes the vector of all the independent variables. The focus of this paper is on the conditional modeling of $\log q_t$ given the vector x_t , and the past values of $\log q_t$ and x_t . This can be characterized by the following UECM:

$$\Delta \log q_t = \alpha_0 + \phi \ln q_{t-1} + \psi_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_{yj} \Delta \log q_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{q-1} \beta_{yj} \Delta x_{t-j} + w \Delta x_t + u_t, \quad (5)$$

where ϕ and ψ captures the long-run effects, while the β s capture the short-run effects of the determinants on RER. The UECM model in (5) can be estimated using the OLS method. It can also be interpreted as an autoregressive distributed lag model (ARDL).

The Bounds test was used to test the long-run relationship between RER and its determinants. The Bounds test is equivalent to conducting a restricted F-test (or Wald test), where the null and alternative hypotheses are as follows:

$H_0: \varphi = \Psi = 0$ (no long-run relationship between $\log q_t$ and x_t)

$H_1: \varphi \neq \Psi \neq 0$ (there is long-run relationship between $\log q_t$ and x_t)

The asymptotic distribution of the test statistics of the Bounds test is non-standard under the null hypothesis. The Bounds test is conducted as follows: if the computed F-statistic falls outside the critical value bounds, a conclusive inference can be drawn without needing to know the order of integration of regressors. For example, if the F-statistics is higher than the upper critical bound (UCB), then the null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected. If the F-statistics is smaller than the lower critical bound (LCB), then the null hypothesis of no cointegration is not rejected. However, if the computed F-statistic falls between the LCB and UCB, the inference is inconclusive and knowledge of the order of integration is required before conclusive inference can be made.

The rejection of the no cointegration relationship implies that there exists a stable long-run relationship between $\log q_t$ and x_t which can be described as follows:

$$\log q_t = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_t + v_t, \quad (6)$$

where $\theta_0 = -\frac{\alpha_0}{\varphi}$, $\theta_1 = -\frac{\psi}{\varphi}$ and v_t is a mean zero stationary process. Note that θ_1 is the long-run multiplier. The estimated model in (6), that is $\log q_t$ is the estimated ERER.

For all the countries, all the potential variables of LTOT, LPROD, LOPEN, LGCON, DRNK, NFI, CNER, MACRO and LRER(-1) are tested for long-run relationship.

The long-run coefficients obtained can then be used to generate the long term path of RER. This long-term path of RER represents the ERER that is defined as the RER that is consistent with the internal and the external balance.

3. Results

Based on the Bounds test in Table 1, the computed F-statistics exceeds the UCB for Malaysia and Indonesia with the 8 regressors at the 5% significance level. This implies that there exists a long-run relationship between the RER and the 8 regressors in these economies. In the case of Thailand, the rejection of the null hypothesis of no cointegration can be established if LPROD and LOPEN are dropped from the model. This implies that RER and LGCON, LTOT, NFI and DRNK are co-moving at the 5% significance level. For Singapore, co-integration relationship can be established if LTOT is excluded from the model, implying that the RER in Singapore is co-integrated with all the predictor variables, except LTOT.

<Table 1>

Table 2 gives the final specification for the most parsimonious models for the estimated ERER for each of the countries. All the models chosen pass the diagnostic tests of Lagrange multiplier test of serial correlation, Ramsey's RESET test for functional form, normality test and heteroskedasticity test.

The long-run coefficients of the fundamentals obtained from the final specification are now used to derive the ERER. Instead of using the actual values of the fundamentals based on the historical time series to derive the ERER, the set of *permanent values or sustainable values* of fundamentals are taken from the five years moving averages of the fundamentals.

<Table 2>

4. Analysis

The variable productivity LPROD is significant in all the countries, except Thailand but only Singapore registers a positive sign--with increases in productivity giving an appreciating effect to RER. This means that only the Singapore case supports the BS hypothesis. The findings for Malaysia and Indonesia with negative impacts of a productivity measure on RER are not an isolated case. This finding is consistent with some other empirical studies, for example, Edwards (1989, 1994), and Montiel (1997) where the variables used to proxy for the BS effect did not give the expected appreciating impact on RER.

The BS hypothesis is based on several assumptions, including that higher income per capita reflects higher total productivity and that productivity growth is faster in the traded-goods sector than in the non-traded-goods sector. Secondly, capital is highly mobile internationally and intersectorally, and in particular, the real interest rate parity holds (Montiel, 1999). Thirdly, there is identical relative size of the tradable sectors across all economies (Benaroya & Janci, 1999).

In this framework, the price of the traded good is determined by the law of one price and wage competitions then lead to price increases in the non-tradable rather than the tradable. The theory assumes that as an economy progresses there will

be higher productivity increases in the tradable relative to non-tradable, but the competition for labour and law of one price means that there will be rises in the price for the non-tradable (the price for the tradable depends on world price which is assumed to be based on free competition and therefore is not influenced by domestic wage increases) which will result in RER appreciation.

There may be a few reasons why the BS effect does not hold true in these economies. Firstly, assuming indeed that there is higher productivity in the tradable, it is conceivable that for some economies this has not led to corresponding rises in the price of the non-tradable in practice or that because of spare capacity, growth can still take place without large increases in wages in the non-tradable sector. This is indeed plausible in the case of Indonesia and to a lesser extent Malaysia where labour in the service sector is still cheap and can actually be lower than those in the manufacturing export sector. Only when the labour market is tight, like in the case of Singapore, would increases in the price of non-tradable most likely to take place.

Secondly, it is plausible that until a certain stage of development high growth rates in these countries may not be accompanied by productivity increases that surpass their trading partners. Even though growth in these countries has been rapid, labour productivity relative to some trading partners like Japan was lagging behind (Montiel, 1997). Recent findings on the productivity performance of the dynamic economies of East-Asia suggest that the growth process in these countries has been "extensive" in the sense that it is primarily driven by input accumulation rather than productivity increases (Unayama, 2003).

5. Conclusion

Overall the estimation results of the RER model strongly corroborate the predictions of the theoretical model, in which current account and capital account fundamentals are found to be associated in the long-run. Countries however, differ in terms of specific factors and/or the degree to which the factors influence the RER in the long-run.

The study indicates that the effect of productivity on RER is not uniform across countries and economic growth accompanied by productivity increases need not lead to RER appreciation. This means that the appreciating effect of productivity increases would only come into effect at a certain stage of economic development. An RER appreciation supported by productivity increases means that the economy has reached a certain stage of economic development and this should not be viewed as a loss of international competitiveness that requires intervention into the exchange rate trends.

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Table 1. Cointegration Test: The Bounds Test

Country	Computed F-statistics	Critical Bounds* Lower	Upper
Indonesia (8 regressors)	12.072	2.272	3.447
Malaysia (8 regressors)	5.872	2.272	3.447
Singapore (7 regressors)	4.544	2.365	3.553
Thailand (6 regressors)	3.537	2.141	3.250

* at 5% significance level

Note: Critical values are taken from Pesaran and Pesaran (1997: 478), Table F Case II: intercept and no trend. Lag structure =1.

Table 2. Long-run Parameter Estimates for Selected East-Asian Countries

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Singapore	Thailand
Constant	1.4878** (2.16)	4.8838*** (6.5)	6.1342*** (7.82)	3.2528*** (2.55)
Log(TOT)	0.5793*** (3.08)	0.4035** (2.4)		0.2098 (1.01)
Log(GCON)	-0.3309 (-0.93)		-0.0859 (-0.44)	0.2845* (1.83)
Log(PROD)	-1.6739*** (-8.01)	-0.2385*** (-5.22)	0.2776** (2.02)	
Log(OPEN)		-0.4669*** (-8.58)	-0.1914** (-2.22)	
NFI			0.0223* (2.78)	0.0812* (1.73)
DRNK	0.0031 (0.3)	-0.0125*** (-5.29)	0.0060** (2.11)	0.0047 (0.76)
Adjusted R ²	0.94	0.97	0.88	0.87

Notes: The numbers in parentheses are t-ratios. The dependent variable is log (RER).

*, **, *** denote 10%, 5% and 1% levels of significance.



China's Economic Miracle in 30 Years

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Abstract

It has been 30 years since the reform and opening policy in 1978 in China. During the past 30 years, China has created an economic miracle with its rapidly developing economy, sharply expanding foreign trade, constantly improving living standard and all-time strong overall national strength.

Keywords: China, Economic Miracle, Reform and opening policy

1. Introduction

China has conducted its reform and opening policy for 30 years since 1978, which can be divided into 6 periods according to the changes in government terms every 5 years. The first period lasted from 1978 to 1982; the second from 1983 to 1987; the third from 1988 to 1992; the fourth from 1993 to 1997, the fifth from 1998 to 2002 and the sixth from 2003 to 2007. The past 30 years has witnessed China's efforts to become the fourth largest economy, the third largest trading nation, the second largest exporting nation and to create the greatest foreign exchange reserves, to draw the most foreign investment among developing nations and to achieve the most rapid economic growth among large nations. All of these have proved China's dramatic achievements during this period.

2. Rapid Growth in China's Economy

With an average annual GDP growth of 10%, China has actually created a miracle among large nations. With the factor of price fluctuation taken away, China's total GDP has actually expanded by 12 times. In 2008, China is very likely to become the third largest economy in the world. Among all the six periods in the past 30 years, the last one (2003-2007) has got the greatest achievements, when China's economy remained steady growth of more than 10% for 5 years and its average annual growth reached as high as 10.6%. In addition, China has achieved an ideal economic condition of high growth rate, low inflation rate and steady development with its fluctuation rate in GDP growth of 0.48%, its annual CPI growth of 3% and its annual CPI fluctuation rate of 1.4%.

Table 1.

Period	1978-1982	1983-1987	1988-1992	1993-1997	1998-2002	2003-2007
Average annual GDP (trillion yuan)	0.5	0.9	2	6	10	18.7
Average annual GDP growth	8.9%	12.2%	7.4%	11.9%	8.2%	10.6%
Average annual CPI growth	2.8%	7.4%	7.2%	16%	-1.6%	3%

Note: Here, GDP growth fluctuation is represented by the standard deviation of GDP growth and CPI fluctuation rate is represented by the standard deviation of CPI. The involved data comes from China Statistics Yearbook (1978-2007), Statistical Communiqué of the People's Republic of China on the National Economic and Social Development (1978-2007)

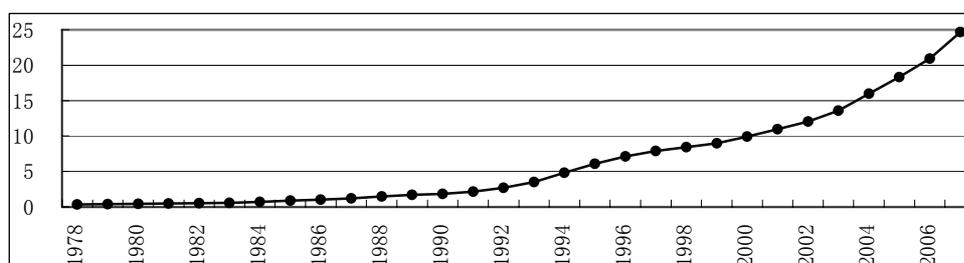


Figure 1. The figure of the changes in China's GDP from 1978 to 2007 (trillion yuan)

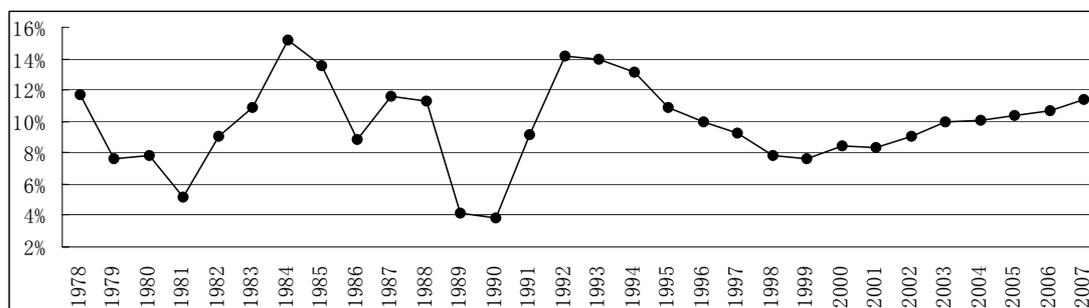


Figure 2. The figure of the changes in China's GDP growth from 1978 to 2007

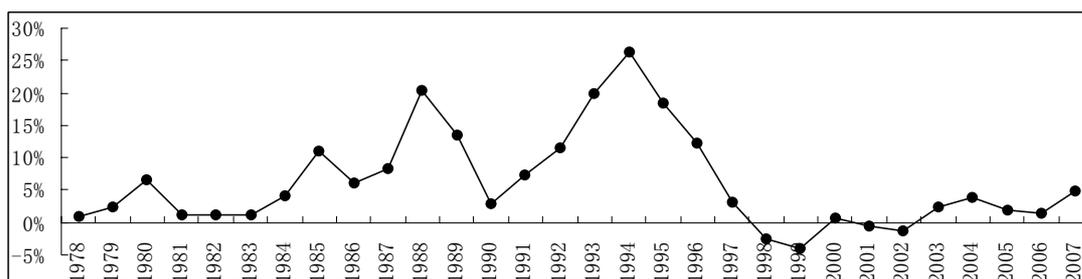


Figure 3. The figure of the changes in China's CPI from 1978 to 2007

3. Outstanding Achievements in Foreign Trade and Dramatic Expansion in Foreign Exchange Reserves

In the past 30 years, China has made every effort to promote its foreign trade, to create favorable atmosphere for direct foreign investment, to enhance its participation in global economy in all aspects and to promote the development of global economy.

Compared with its foreign exchange reserve balance of \$200,000,000 in 1978, China became the top one with its foreign exchange reserves of \$1,000,000,000,000 in 2006 and up to 2007 it has reached up to \$1,530,000,000,000, which is 7650 times of that in 1978. As for the total of imports and exports, it used to be only \$35,500,000,000, exceeded \$1,000,000,000,000 in 2005 and has gone beyond \$2,100,000,000,000 up to 2007, which is 61 times of that in 1978. In the aspect of trade deficit, it was \$2,000,000,000 in 1978 and not became surplus until 1990 with the value of \$8,700,000,000 and has come to \$262,200,000,000 in 2007, which is 30 times of that in 1990. Now China has the largest trade surplus among all nations.

Table 2.

Period	1978-1982	1983-1987	1988-1992	1993-1997	1998-2002	2003-2007
Average annual foreign exchange reserves (hundred million dollars)	17	40	174	783	1928	10633
Average annual total trade volume (hundred million dollars)	576	864	1262	2657	4579	14725
Average annual trade surplus (hundred million dollars)	-25	-73	31	125	300	1198

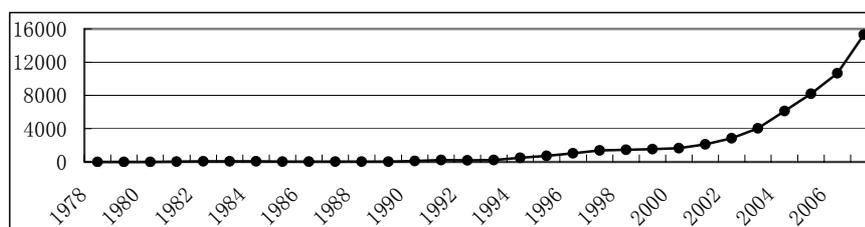


Figure 4. The figure of the changes in China's foreign exchange reserve balance (hundred million dollars)

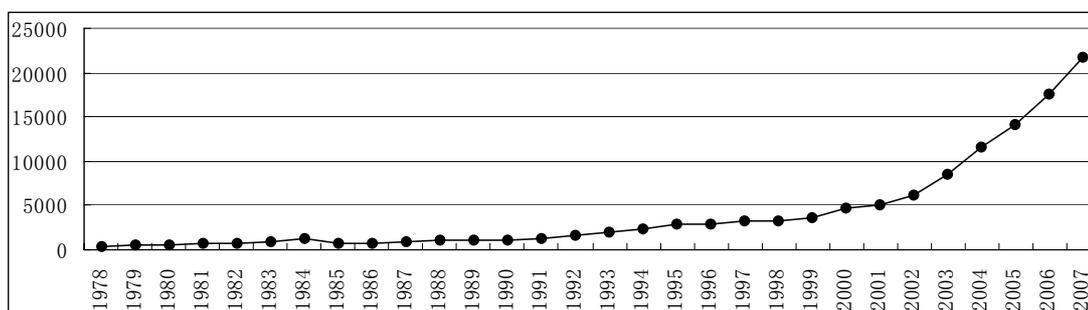


Figure 5. The figure of the changes in China's total imports and exports (hundred million dollars)

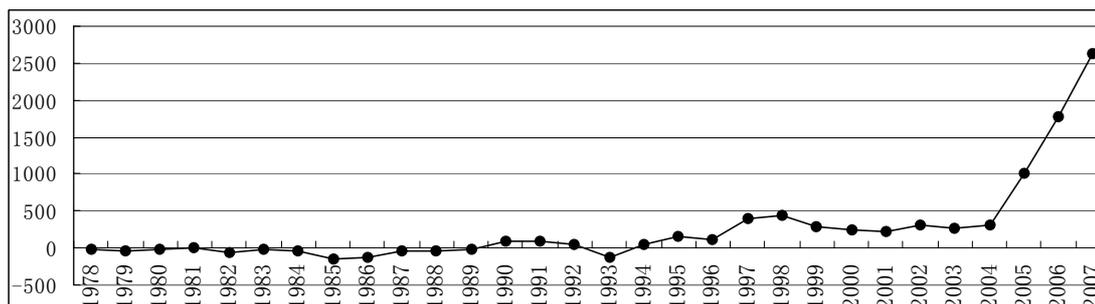


Figure 6. The figure of the changes in China's trade surplus (hundred million dollars)

4. Great Achievements in Industry and Agriculture

Currently, China has got into the top ranks over the world in the production of some important agricultural products. To be more specific, in addition to the greatest production of grain, meat, cotton, peanut, rapeseed, tea-leaf, fruits and so on in the whole world, China is the largest aquatic product

breeding nation with its 35% proportion in the world's total output in which its breeding total accounts for two thirds of the world's total. China is also the largest nation in pork production and consumption, with its annual production accounting for half of the world's total. Besides, over the past 30 years, China's grain output has increased by 1.6 times, cotton output by 3.5 times, that of pork, beef and mutton by 7.8 times and milk output by 41 times.

China's production of some major industrial products, such as steel, coal, cement, chemical fertilizer, cotton, and sugar, has leaped to the first place in the world, and its total generating capacity has ranked second among the world. Its crude steel output is the top one in the world with it even more than the total of the second to the eighth largest nations, accounting for 36.4% of the world's total. Besides, over the past 30 years, its crude oil output has increased by 1.8 times, crude coal output by 4 times, its generating capacity by 12.6 times, steel and iron output by 15.4 times, cement output by 21 times, that of automobiles by 60 times, that of household refrigerators by 1570 times, that of color TVs by 22,000 times, that of household washing machines by 60,000 times and that of air-conditioners by 400,000 times.

Table 3.

Period	1978-1982	1983-1987	1988-1992	1993-1997	1998-2002	2003-2007
Average annual grain output (hundred million tons)	3.3	4	4.4	4.7	4.8	4.9
Average annual output of pork, beef and mutton (ten thousand tons)	1096	1721	2540	3826	4891	6370
Average annual milk output (ten thousand tons)	120	255	426	567	907	2711
Average annual generating capacity (trillion kilowatt hours)	0.3	0.4	0.6	1	1.4	2.5
Average annual crude coal output (hundred million tons)	6.3	8.4	10.6	13.0	11.6	21.4

Average annual steel and iron output (hundred million tons)	0.35	0.48	0.68	0.98	1.41	3.5
Average annual cement output (hundred million tons)	0.8	1.5	2.4	4.5	6.1	11
Average annual automobile output (ten thousand)	16	37	70	144	222	631
Average annual car output (ten thousand)	0.5	1	6.6	34	70	318
Average annual refrigerator output (ten thousand)	5	169	569	861	1300	3233
Average annual air-conditioner output (ten thousand)	1.2	9	62	637	1958	6568
Average annual color TV output (ten thousand)	10	342	1110	2086	4189	7813

5. The Vigorous Development in Logistics, Telecommunication and Tourism

Nowadays, China has become the second largest nation in total mileage of electrified railways with its total of 24,000 kilometers as well as in total mileage of express ways and air transport volume. With the development in the above fields in the past 30 years, China's cargo transport volume has expanded by 9 times, passenger transport volume has expanded by 8.8 times. As for the growth in transport turnover, it has been 10 times in cargo service and 12.4 times in passenger service. Compared with the 500-kilometer express way mileage in 1990, 2007 has witnessed a 107-time expansion with its 53,600-kilometer express ways. Besides, with its nearly 400,000,000 clients in mobile communication, China was accepted as a large mobile communication nation all over the world in 2005. As for the Internet, it had over 100,000,000 users in 2005, and up to 2007, the number has exceeded twice of that. From only 0.38 telephone per hundred persons in 1978 to 68.6 per hundred persons, the popularity rate of telephone has increased by 180 times. Then comes tourism. From 1978 to 2007, the number of inbound tourists has increased from 1,810,000 to 132,000,000, with the latter 73 times of the former. In addition, the past 30 years has witnessed a rapid increase of 159 times in international tourism revenue from \$260,000,000 in 1978 to \$41,900,000,000 in 2007.

Table 4.

Period	1978-1982	1983-1987	1988-1992	1993-1997	1998-2002	2003-2007
Average annual cargo transport volume (hundred million tons)	48	77	100	122	136	188
Average annual passenger transport volume (hundred million persons)	34	61	81	117	148	189
Average annual cargo transport turnover volume (ten thousand ton-kilometers)	1.2	1.8	2.7	3.5	4.4	7.8
Average annual passenger transport turnover volume (ten thousand person-kilometers)	0.22	0.43	0.62	0.89	1.13	1.77

Average annual express way mileage (ten thousand kilometers)			0.06	0.3	1.6	4
Average annual telephone popularity rate (per a hundred persons)	0.4	0.6	1.2	5	21	56
Average annual inbound tourists (ten thousand persons)	548	1798	3102	4806	8133	11559
Average annual international tourism revenue (hundred million dollars)	6	13	26	86	162	297

6. Improvement in Science, Technology and Education Scale

During the past 30 years, China has achieved dramatic development in science and technology, in which the operation of the moon mission “Chang E Scheme” has stimulated the worldwide exploration into the moon. Besides, it has obtained breakthroughs in many significant fields including wireless communication, Maglev transportation, missile and space technology. Up to 2007, China has leaped into the second place of the world in the scale of high-tech industries with its high-tech product exports accounting for 28.6% of the total exports in 2007 compared with 4.7% in 1992. In 2007, the proportion of R&D fund in GDP has increased from 0.7% in 1992 to 1.5%. Besides, the acceptance amount of applications for patent for invention is 29 times of that in 1985. Currently, China has become a manufacture base of electronic and information products, which produces one thirds of the world’s electronic products.

As for education, compared with 400,000 students enrolled in regular higher education in 1978, 2007 has achieved a 14-time increase with 5,670,000 enrolled students. In 1978, only 165,000 students graduated from regular institutions of higher education, while the number has reached 4,950,000 in 2007, which is 30 times of the former. In 1978, there were only 9 college students in every ten thousand people, while the number has reached up to 142 students, 16 times of the former. The gross enrollment rate of higher education has increased from 3.4% in 1990 to 23% in 2007, which as 6.8 times of the former. In the aspect of postgraduate education, the enrollment has increased from 11,000 in 1978 to 424,000 in 2007 (39 times). Compared with the number of 9 in 1978, as many as 310,000 students graduated from their postgraduate courses (34,000 times). Besides, there were only 0.1 postgraduate student in every ten thousand people, while the number has reached up to 9, 90 times of the former.

Table 5.

Period	1978-1982	1983-1987	1988-1992	1993-1997	1998-2002	2003-2007
Average annual number of regular higher education graduates (ten thousand)	20	37	59	74	100	321
Average annual number of postgraduates (ten thousand)	0.3	1.4	3.4	3.5	6.2	20.4
Average annual gross enrollment rate of higher education				7.1%	12.2%	20.4%

Average annual number of college students in every ten thousand people	11	15	18	24	46	117
Average annual number of postgraduate students in every ten thousand people	0.2	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.6	7.2
Average annual number of accepted applications for patent for invention (ten thousand)			1.1	2.5	5.4	17.3
Average annual proportion of high-tech product exports in the total				6.9%	15.4%	27.9%
Average annual proportion of R&D fund in GDP				0.6%	1%	1.4%

7. Improved Living Standard and Consumption Will

Table 6.

Period	1978-1982	1983-1987	1988-1992	1993-1997	1998-2002	2003-2007
Average annual per capita dispensable income for urban residents (yuan per person)	452	772	1558	4071	6424	10786
Average annual per capita net income (yuan per person)	196	390	665	1574	2294	3308
Average annual per capita savings (yuan per person)	42	171	639	2476	5328	10651
Average annual Engel coefficients for urban residents	57.3%	55.3%	53.4%	49.2%	40.4%	36.7%
Average annual Engel coefficients for suburban residents	62.8%	57.7%	56.6%	57.4%	49.8%	44.9%

Compared with some relevant data in 1978, the per capita disposable income for Chinese urban residents has increased by 40 times, the per capita net income for suburban residents has increased by 31 times and the per capita savings balance has increased by 589 times. In the aspect of the Engel coefficients, for urban residents, they have dropped from 57.5% in 1978 to 36.3% in 2007, and for suburban residents they have dropped from 67.7% to 43.1%.

8. Conclusion

Despite some problems in current China, such as excessive resource consumption, deteriorating ecological environment, unbalanced development among different regions and sharpening polarization between the rich and the poor, it is safe to draw the conclusion that China is at its best now. With its outstanding achievements in the 30 years since reform and opening, China has created a miracle of maintaining constantly rapid economic growth in a great nation.

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On the Translation of Public Sign Expressions

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Abstract

English has become an important link in the communication between China and the world; at the same time more and more experts and scholars are paying attention to the translation of Chinese public sign expressions (shortened as PSE) into English. Public signs play a very important role in the life and work of the public. This paper tries to analyze the characteristics and functions of public signs and the linguistic features of English public sign expressions. Some basic translation principles are concluded in the thesis.

Keywords: Public sign expressions (PSE), Functions, Linguistic features, Translation principles

1. Introduction

With the rapid development of its economy, nowadays China plays a more and more important role in the world. At the same time, English language begins to enter into people's lives as an important way to communicate with the world. Since the 2008 Olympic Games, the XVIII World Congress of the International Federation of Translators (FIT) and World's Exposition are on their way, the government is urging the officials to pay more attention to the translation of public sign expressions. Translating the expressions of public signs needs to be standardized in order to enhance the cultural environment of our country and strengthen the communication with the world.

Public signs refer to words and pictures giving information about people's lives in public places in order to inform, indicate, suggest and warn the public. We can see public signs everywhere. Where there is lodging, traveling, entertainment or shopping, there are public signs. Some public signs aim at encouraging customers to consume.

Public signs help to refine people's social behavior, human relationship, enhance manufacturing efficiency, deter the criminals, raise people's spirit, improve living conditions and help to build a harmonious society. It is very important for us to pay more attention to public signs, especially the translation of them into English in such a crucial period of development of our country. It represents our cultural background and leads our country to enter into the world stage since the world knows better our country through them.

2. Classification of public signs

Chinese public signs and English public signs share a lot in common. Both Chinese and English public signs are meant to play the same role in people's lives. According to their functions, public signs can be roughly divided into four kinds, indicative public signs, suggestive public signs, limitative public signs and imperative public signs.

2.1 Indicative Public Signs

Indicative public signs are applied to give information to the public without any limitative or imperative suggestion in them. This kind of public signs can be seen almost everywhere in public places. The following are some of them:

“Underground”, “Public Toilet”, “Information”, “Pedestrians”

These public signs do not necessarily require the public to take any particular action. They only provide the public with every piece of information that they might need. Indicative public signs are the most often used and most important public signs in our lives. We can not imagine what our lives would be like without them. For instance, with the development of the economy and the rising of the standard of our life, more and more people would like to spend their holiday traveling all around. In this case, without indicative public signs there to inform us, we may get into a lot of troubles.

2.2 Suggestive Public Signs

A suggestive public sign is another kind of widely used public signs. Suggestive public signs are used to give the public some useful suggestions in such places as a park, a supermarket or a hotel.

For example, when coming into a station, probably we may find a sign which reads “For your personal safety and security CCTV is in operation at this station”. This public sign does not tell us particularly what we must do or we must

not do, it just gives us the information to make us feel secured and at the same time gives a suggestion to those who have any idea of committing a crime. The following are some Chinese suggestive public signs:

2.3 Limitative Public Signs

Sometimes we may find some public signs such as:

“Handicapped Only”

“Construction Site Keep Out”

“THIS IS A PRIVATE PATH NO ADMITANCE”

This kind of public signs tells what the public should or should not do so as to give instruction to their actions. The language is usually direct but reasonable so that the public can not feel offended and unacceptable.

2.4 Imperative Public Signs

Imperative public signs refer to the kind of public signs that forces the public to take certain actions without any place for consultation. This kind of public signs is usually written in a straightforward way with a compelling tone. The public must obey the order if they do not want to get into trouble.

Public signs such as “Police Line Do Not Cross”, “No Photography”, “NO SMOKING EXCEPT IN DESIGNATED AREAS”, “

Imperative public signs are very important in creating a more disciplined and peaceful society by restricting people’s actions.

3. Linguistic Features of English Public Signs

Although there are many similarities between English public signs and Chinese public signs, English expressions of public signs have their own features. On reading and analyzing some public sign expressions we may easily find some of their linguistic features.

3.1 Abundant use of noun

If we take a close look at public signs, especially indicative public signs, we may safely draw a conclusion that there are many nouns used in public signs and most of the indicative public signs are composed of nouns. These nouns can serve to give exactly the information that the public need. Most of them mean to give information about service, indication or instruction. Here are some examples:

“THE CASTLE EXHIBITION”

“Food & Beverage”

“Business Center”

3.2 The use of verbs and gerunds

Some of the public sign expressions use verbs and gerunds to make the public pay much attention to the actions that they require them to take. Verbs and gerunds are very often used in limitative public signs and imperative public signs.

“KEEP CLEAR”

“NO PARKING”

3.3 The use of noun phrases and verb phrases

Noun phrases and verb phrases are usually very easy to understand. Public signs use many noun phrases and verb phrases to make the signs as brief and easy as possible. Here are some examples,

“CAUTION MAINTENANCE IN PROGRESS”

“Cameras in Operation”

“Game Reserve”

3.4 The use of abbreviations

Abbreviations are adopted very often in the case that we are so familiar with those public signs that the meaning of them is clear and definite. We do not have to take the trouble to write every word. It saves a lot of space and effort. The public facilities and services that we probably have to use every day use abbreviations frequently.

3.5 The use of everyday word and simple word

Public signs are produced to serve the public and the travelers, so their education background should be considered. Uncommon words, jargon, slang, technical terms and archaic words should not be used in public signs in order that they can be understood by almost everyone without any difficulty. Here are some examples:

“INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS HOUSE”

“NO THROUGH FOR PEDESTRIANS”

“POSITION CLOSED SORRY FOR ANY INCONVENIENCE”

3.6 *The use of the combination of words and symbols*

In some public places, public signs are composed of words and pictures. Pictures are added to the signs as the complement to give instructions and confirmation so as to make the signs eye-catching and much easier to understand. Here are some examples:

3.7 *The use of present tense*

Public signs only use present tense to give indications, suggestions, limitations or orders because public signs only concern with the actions in their everyday life, what they should always do, yesterday, today or tomorrow, so other tenses are not needed here. Here are some examples:

“THIS TOILET IS OPEN DAILY 7:00AM-7:00PM 7DAYS PER WEEK”

“Smart Water Detection Operates in This Area”

3.8 *The use of imperative sentences*

Public signs are subjected to the public who go out or travel in a hurry doing their business and they certainly do not want to waste a lot of time reading the public signs so imperative sentences are frequently used in public signs. The following are some examples:

“GIVE WAY TO BUSES”

“Passenger Emergency Alarm Pull Handle to Speak to Driver”

3.9 *The use of set expressions*

Public signs are very important in our lives. Almost every one of us has to use them almost every day. Imagine if there is something improper or sometimes something wrong with the public signs, many people will be influenced. So the most often used public signs in our daily life have become standardized after many years' application. Usually we do not change them even if we have another way to say it and it is absolutely right and proper. There is no problem with this way of expression since it is grammatically right and literally understandable. But we do not use the second one since the previous one has been universally accepted and considered the only way to make the sign even when the other can also be understood without any problem by the public.

3.10 *The use of brief and exact vocabulary*

Public signs are usually very short and precise. We can make them as brief as possible as long as their function to indicate, suggest, limit or give orders can be realized and meanings understood. Therefore, concrete words, key words are enough for public signs and the use of articles, pronouns and auxiliary verbs can be avoided. There are some examples:

“Eurostar International Terminal”

“SORRY, NO CHILDREN STRICTLY OVER 21'S ONLY”

3.11 *The use of public signs with local characteristics*

As we all know, English language has its own variants in America, Britain, Canada or other English-spoken countries. Each country has some characteristics of their own in language. These differences can also be found in public signs. The following is a comparison between some of the public signs with local characteristics:

Britain	America
Underground	Subway
Mind your Step	Watch your Step

4. Translation Principles

After a brief introduction of the functions and linguistic features of, now we have a better understanding of English public signs. To translate Chinese public signs into English, knowing this is far away from enough. The translations of public signs into English does not only require us to know the generally used translation principles but also to know the specific principles of public signs according to the characteristics and functions of public signs and the linguistic features. The translation of public signs is very practical. The following are some translation principles often used in the translation of public sign expressions.

4.1 *be easy to understand*

As we have discussed previously, public signs are for the public including those who have not received good education

and even the illiterate people. If we use big words or difficult words in public signs, they will have difficulty in understanding. Then the use of public signs will become meaningless. Maybe some big words or difficult words can well-represent our culture and education, but public signs are not just for show. No matter how elegant or deep the public sign expressions are, as long as the public can not understand them, they lose their primary meaning and function. We have to take into consideration the functions of the public signs and the public's need. Therefore, we have to make sure that there is no difficult word with which the public may not be familiar when we translate a Chinese public sign expression into English.

4.2 be definite in meaning

When we translate the expressions of Chinese public signs into English, we must make sure that the English version must be definite in meaning, no vagueness or ambiguity which may cause problems for the public to understand. Since public signs often give the public directions or explanations so they should be very definite and precise in meaning otherwise the public may get into trouble. In order to give a definite translation, we have to try to find the exact corresponding word in English and make sure there is no misunderstanding or ambiguous interpretation.

4.3 be brief

Most of the public sign expressions are very short and sometimes only one word will be sufficient. We should not make the translation too long or wordy since public signs are only supposed to offer the public with necessary and useful information. Too many modifications and explanations only make public signs troublesome and complicated. We do not need to and should not try to translate the Chinese public sign expressions word by word into English. Nobody that is on his way to do business or is in a journey would like to stop by the trouble in reading public signs.

4.4 be proper in tone

Different public signs may use different ways of expression according to where they are and to whom they speak to. Some of the public signs sound very gentle and polite, some casual and humorous and some more serious and formal and still some others sound even imposing and compelling. If we want to come up with a good translation we not only need to think about its form and meaning and the public's acceptability but also the tone we use to say it. This is very important because we do not want to be impolite to our guests and customers, and we do not want to be humorous to a man who spit in the street. With a proper tone we can reinforce our ability to express, avoid misunderstanding and make us better understood.

4.5 use standardized words and avoid Chinglish

After they have been put into use for several years, some of the words or the way of expression has become standardized and fixed. We can not change them into the way we want. At the same time, we have to avoid word-by-word translation which makes our translation like Chinese. Therefore, we have to find out the similar English usage of the words, phrases or sometimes idiomatic expressions. Even if we may find some other similar expressions in Chinese, we should not use them since there is a commonly accepted way to express in English.

Conclusion

The translation of public sign expressions has been under a gradual improvement as more and more scholars and experts are taking part in many activities which aim at the modification and standardization of the translation of public sign expressions into English. However, although many improvements are made through these efforts, there is still a long way to go. In order to develop the research in the translation of Chinese public sign expressions, more efforts have to be made.

First, we have to further study the basic translation principles. The language of public sign expressions is very simple and it bears obvious linguistic features. However, as we have to take their particular functions into consideration then the translation becomes much more complicated. The study of basic translation principles is very important for us to standardize our translation of public sign expressions.

Then we have to make a deep research in pragmatics in translation. The study of public signs belongs to social pragmatics. Language using reflects the education background, morality and spirits of the society. The study of translation of public sign expressions can not be separated with the study of pragmatic translation. Pragmatics can give a good explanation of translation and offers us a new respect to solve the problems in translation. The combined study of translation and pragmatics will lead to a new translation principle form and offer the study of translation the instructions of principles and methods. In the translation of public sign expressions, to give an exact expression of what we mean is essential to effective communication. Therefore, one of the problems that we have to solve is to look for the differences of language using between Chinese and English.

Thirdly, we have to set up some standards and rules for the translation of public sign expressions. In order to standardize and improve bilingual public signs, some standards have to be made. With the standards we can avoid divergent translation versions of the same sign and give the translators references and suggestions in the translation

process.

To build an internationalized metropolis and to integrate with the world, a favorable international language environment is required. Under this environment, it is a crucial and urgent task to make efforts in the research of the translation of public sign expressions and take effective measures to improve the translation. As a translator, the first thing to be considered is the linguistic features and functional significance of the public signs and moreover the analysis of the differences of the cultural characteristics between Chinese and English public signs. The problems that exist in the translation of public sign expressions are not only about the translation techniques but also about the way in which the translators think. Many people think that they can translate as long as they know English. In fact, translation of public sign expressions requires not only knowledge of the foreign language but also the knowledge of the foreign culture. Only with this can we improve the language environment of our country.

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Planning Implications of the Ethnic Structure Of Residential Areas of Metropolitan Lagos

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Abstract

The study present the ethnic structure of metropolitan Lagos in order to unravel the correlation between ethnic composition of the city and the choice of residential areas by the city dwellers. It investigates the determinants, problems and prospects of this situation. The study makes use of data collected from primary and secondary sources during which the city was divided into identifiable residential districts. A total of 200 questionnaires were administered for information on the views of residents about their residential areas. Among major findings of the study are that ethnic enclaves in the city present a mixed bag of fortunes. In the first place, ethnic enclaves appear to offer residents a psychological sense of security which is simultaneously counter balanced by an equal sense of insecurity especially during any ethnic conflict. Secondly, since most Nigerians tend to vote along ethnic lines, ethnic enclaves may make themselves easy targets for discrimination by a government that is not supported during an election. Thirdly, land use may assume different and discordant colouration based on tribal attitudes and habits irrespective of planning laws. It is therefore common to see neighborhoods in laid-out areas experiencing different dimensions of environmental restructuring in planned residential areas, a phenomenon which is fast resulting into many residential areas developing into unsightly landscape. Based on these findings the study offers suggestions as to how socio-cultural settings of residents can be integrated into the city residential planning. The need to plan in line with the economic realities of the city dwellers is also emphasized in the study.

Keywords: Residential, Land Use, Ethnic Area

1. Introduction

The nature of human socio-cultural patterns and their relationships with the process of urban residential pattern have received the attention of urban researchers since the last millennium. McGree's (1971) discomfort with the application of western standards of urbanization to third world situations, justifies the need for research on the peculiarities of the third world cities. Extensive efforts have been made in this direction in the third world generally and in Nigeria in particular, as can be seen in the works of Mabogunje (1968), Ayeni (1979) and Okpala (1981). Other studies on the importance of residential land use in urban areas include those carried out by Onakerhoraye (1984); Okewole (1997), Omirin (1998), Adindu and Ogbonna (1998), Adedibu, Opeloyeru and Ibraheem (1998), Egunjobi (1999) and Olayiwola (2000). Most of these studies show that urban areas are of enormous political, social, economic and cultural importance to the various regions in which they are located. The importance of these cities in societal development derives from their unique roles as centers of innovation, adoption, diffusion and growth. They therefore propel the growth of societies and are able to attract to themselves large numbers of people from the hinterlands.

Lagos is the commercial nerve center of Nigeria and the West African sub region. It therefore attracts people from all parts of Nigeria and West African sub-region countries. Over 300 ethnic groups in the country are all represented in Lagos (Odumosu, 1999). As a result, most of these ethnic group settled in different parts of Lagos, thus traditional ethnic enclaves had developed prior to national independence in 1960. These areas have retained their identities and have grown to be influential in the structure of the city politics, religion and social setting compositions. Despite the abundance of town planning laws and land use policies, the city growth has been heavily influenced by the social-cultural peculiarities of dominant ethnic enclaves. This is however not surprising as it has long been established in urban land use that behaviour setting is a notion that has congruent relationships with milieus and human behaviour. Such relationships are consistent with "synomophy of behaviour and milieus." Barks, (1968), recommended the need for organized research to determine the causes in order to provide a rational explanation (Okewole, 1998).

2. Theoretical Context

Various approaches have been used to explain the setting of urban areas. Among these approaches which are both descriptive and quantitative in nature are the Burgess (1925) Concentric Zones Models, Hoyt's (1939) Sector Model;

and Ullman's (1945) Multiple Nuclei Model. These three models are described as ecological models. Other models include the Social Area Analysis and Factorial Ecology. Some of the models are not so general but they deal with specific urban features. Wingo's (1961) and Alonso's (1964), land use models are micro-economic models of urban land values. Central to this study are those attempts, which strive to categorize settings according to their capacity to affect the behaviour of their inhabitants. This attempt to unravel "person-environmental fit", according to Rapoport (1977), constitutes the core of the environmental approach to urban form. Caplan (1983) believes that residents will find fulfillment if neighborhoods are planned and built in relation to their expectations as expressed in the social-cultural and physical elements of housing areas.

The line of argument of Caplan (1983) is that such approach is not entirely novel in Nigeria. For example, Mabogunje (1974) argued that four socio-economic indicators namely employment, liveability, manageability (of the environment) and serviceability (of the social services and amenities) will provide good measures of the quality of environment and by extension, the level of satisfaction derivable from it by its inhabitants. These attributes, he stressed have collective and individual effects on consumers' satisfaction with homes. Okewole's (1987) comparative analysis of adaptation of selected residential environment in Ibadan, Nigeria unravelled the importance of socio-cultural elements' roles on residents adaptation to new residential settings. Afon (1997) and Nwanikowe (1998) researched into "environmental quality indicators" and satisfaction level of housing environmental elements" in the core areas of Ogbomoso, and Benin in Nigeria.

Elsewhere outside Nigeria, the users satisfaction theory pioneered by Barker (1968) emphasize that when a congruent relationship exists between two-component milieu and standard pattern of behaviour, situation of synomorphy of behaviour and milieu arises. Unfortunately in arriving at this, Barker did not take into consideration other socio-cultural, political and environmental variables which may equally affect residents' behaviour. The influence of economic variables are stressed by Freeman (1973) as they affect residents response to their environment. Freeman is of the opinion that the satisfaction derived by residents will depend on the amount of valuable services performed by the environment for the economy. Galster and Hessor (1981) classified the influence of variables influencing resident satisfaction into "composition" elements and "contextual" elements. The compositional elements they observed are those attributes which relate to resident characteristics such as social class, stage in the life cycle and economic status. Contextual attributes on the other hand, are the physical characteristics of dwellings and the neighbourhoods.

Studies on the influence of socio-cultural and economic characteristics of the people on the physical fabric of their environment have been approached by scholars in various ways. Good Child (1974) noted that residents' decision on the way they restructure their environment closely relate to efforts to remake their surrounding into a form more like that of their perceived "ideal image". These images vary from person to person. Rapoport, (1977) note individual aspiration to achieve culturally derived satisfaction. Fried and Gleicher (1961) emphasize the importance of psychological and emotional attachment of residents to their local area. They identified kinship ties, neighbour relationships, localism in close inter-personal relationships, stability of tenure, perception of the local area as a home and sense of identity with local areas as strong factors influencing residents satisfaction. Marris (1920) in the study of the re-housing scheme of residents moved from Lagos Island to Surulere concluded that the newly resettled residents were dissatisfied with the planned environment as it failed to meet the communal living and closely built forms which they were used to in their former Lagos Island location.

From the foregoing literature and conceptual issues, it can be seen that physical planning has a great responsibility to come up with peculiar residential designs that will fulfill specific users' needs in terms of socio-economic and cultural expectations. This will involve constant modification of established principles, concepts and models of residential area planning and will, no doubt, pose a great deal of challenge but will be based on principles of planning with the people.

3. The Study Area

Metropolitan Lagos is located in the south- western (see Figure 1) part of Nigeria. It is the largest metropolitan area in Nigeria (Ayeni 1979). Framing the southern part of the study area is the Atlantic Ocean. Lekki settlement forms the eastern boundary, while on the northern boundary is the landmass of Ikorodu in Ikorodu and Alagbado towards Abeokuta and Sango-Otta, a satellite town which lies at the boundary of Lagos and Ogun States. Badagry and Republic of Benin land mass defines the western boundary of the study area (see Figure 2). Until 1991 Lagos was the capital city of Nigeria, a country of about 120 million population. The population of Lagos today is estimated to be about 12 million people on a built-up land area of about 18,558 Hectares made up of about 9,669 hectares (52.1%). residential, commercial, 1,021 hectares (5.5%); industrial, 1,448 hectares (7.8%); institutional and special areas, 2,784 hectares (14%); transportation 3,340 hectares (18%), and open spaces 52 hectares (2.8%). The implication of the population on land is that the city average population density per hectare is about 650 persons. Nigeria has about 300 ethnic groups and there is hardly any Nigerian ethnic group without her representation in Lagos. Interestingly traditional ethnic enclaves or residential areas developed prior to the national independence in 1960 and these areas have retained their identities and they have grown to be influential on the structure of the city politics, religion and social setting,

However it must be noted that there is preponderance of neighbourhoods of mixed ethnic compositions, in metropolitan Lagos.

3.1 Ethnic composition of metropolitan Lagos

Metropolitan Lagos is the most heterogeneous single settlement in Nigeria. Apart from the major indigenous ethnic groups that originally inhabited the area, there has been tremendous influx of people of all ethnic groups from other parts of the country since the colonial period. Being the former capital before the movement of the nation's capital to Abuja, in 1991, it has attracted different people from many parts of the world. The original inhabitants of the city are the Ijebu and Aworis who now occupy respectively the eastern part at Bariga and Somolu while the later group, the Aworis occupy the central part from Lagos Island and eastward to Oshodi, Egbeda, Igando and Ijanikin.

Mabogunje (1968) also notes that the diversity of ethnic composition of Lagos favoured massive immigration into the city. Odumosu (1999) notes that of the estimated 9 million population of the city the Yoruba migrants from South-Western Nigeria account for 61.31% while the other ethnic groups in Nigeria constitute 20.96%. Tribal proportions of the Yoruba population can be given as follows Egbas (22.62%), Ijebu (33%), Ondo (13.93%), Oyo (15.4%) and Ilorin (6.18%). Of the 20.96% non-Yoruba ethnic groups, the Ibos from south-eastern Nigeria constitute (55%), the Edos from the south- middle area, constitute (15%), the Ijaws from the south south constitute (10%), the Hausa-Fulani about 15% and other groups about (10%). Among these ethnic groups are the Isokos, Urhobos, Ukwanis and Igbiras. People of other West African countries such as Ghana, Sierra-Leone, Liberia, Benin, Cameroon and other African countries also reside in Lagos. Citizens of European origin, Russians, Americans, Germans, Japanese, Indians, Lebanese among others are significantly residence in Lagos.

3.2 Evolution of major land uses in metropolitan Lagos

According to the Master Plan for Metropolitan Lagos (MPML) urban land use was approximately 1772 square kilometers in 1985. (Master Plan for Metropolitan Lagos, Vol. 1). The major part about, 97.5 per cent, was in the contiguous built-up area which generally falls within a broad triangle having a base of about 30 kilometers along the Bight of Benin extending from Lekki, Maroko and Ikoyi westwards to Ojo Ijanikin. The north-south part of the triangle covers a distance of about 26 kilometers from Lagos Island to Alagbado in the southern and northern ends respectively. A detached portion of the Lagos urban development surrounds Ikorodu. This 2.5 per cent of the total metropolitan area is separated from the contiguous area of the metropolis. The 1976 study by the Master Plan Project Unit in collaboration with the United Nations Development Program shows that the metropolis occupied 17,228 hectares of land and had an estimated population of 3,300,000 estimate. This translates to an overall population density of nearly 200 persons per hectare of developed land area in residential use, which includes abutting streets. Other ancillary units such as schools and churches account for 8939 hectares of all urban land, representing 51.9 percent of total land area. The 2005 masterplan review by the Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development shows that in the total built up area of Lagos, 10,341 hectares, representing 52% of the total is residential.

In colonial Lagos, there was a sharp contrast in the morphology and quality of housing between the European, the educated Africans (Saras), the Brazilians and the indigenes. Each social and racial group settled in different quarters. The contrast was typified on the Lagos Island. The Europeans, lived along the Marinas, the educated Africans dwelt mainly on west of the Europeans, the Olowogbowo area, and the Brazilian behind the Europeans. The Brazilian quarters were known as Portuguese Town or Popo Aguda or Popo Saro. The indigenes settled on the rest of the Island behind the three quarters earlier mentioned (Akinsemoyin, 1968). On the mainland were many indigenous settlements then under the former Western Region of Nigeria. For example, Ikeja still retains parts of the indigenous settlements. However, these have been reduced drastically in size and in less than two decades, it is projected that these ethnic enclaves will disappear altogether in the face of massive changes brought about by urbanization, and they will all be transformed into commercial land use. It is not only in Ikeja where such inner core settlements exist. Some are found in Opebi Village, Abule Coker, Ipodo and Abule Egun in the central area. Still others exist in Agege, Isheri, Iwaya, Ketu, Somolu, Bariga and Lawanson among other places.

The population growth rate of Lagos has serious implications for the trend of urban land use development. First, there is high demand for housing, the supply of which has been far short of need. Also there is acute shortage of infrastructure in the area of water supply, waste collection and disposal, road network, and electricity supply. The housing situation is often further complicated by indiscriminate erection of substandard structures by residents who cannot afford standard housing and some of the sub-urban areas most affected include satellite settlements of Amuwo, Abule Egba, Alagbado, Ajegunle and Ibeju Lekki. The pressure on land, it is believed, is caused by lack of town planning integration and with social and economic development, limited supply of land and prohibitive pricing of available land in the fringes. In the central area, the few land areas available are not made available for sale. Also another major cause of lack of land in the market has been land speculation.

The medium-grade residential area, according to Mabogunje's (1974) classification consists of residential areas of Surulere, Yaba, and Ebute-Metta, characterized by houses of grid iron patterns set within a mosaic of small plots of

about 300 square metres. Most of the buildings in these areas used to be bungalows but have been pulled down and replaced with storey buildings in response to economic demands. The low-grade residential district in the inner city are in Ebute-Metta West, Ojuelegba, Obalende and inner Ikeja. Though these areas started as slum areas, they have been improved reasonably. The poorest land grade areas are in Mushin, Somolu, Ajegunle, Ajeromi, Agege, and Yaba East. These areas were never planned. The problems of these areas are further compounded by urbanization, which encouraged intensification of land leading to increasing housing density. As stated in the 1985 Metropolitan Lagos Master Plan in terms of spatial distribution of residential districts, seven communities can be identified in Lagos Island Area with population ranging from 13,000 to 113,000. These include Ikoyi, Victoria Island, Lekki and Obalende Areas. In the Lagos Mainland, eleven communities identified, with population ranging from 11,000 to 740,000. In Ikeja area, 10 communities made up of large industrial and institutional area can be identified. The population of these communities varies from 50,000 to 200,000. In Somolu areas ten communities can be identified with population ranging from 120,000 to 179,000. Ikorodu and its three adjacent villages have a population estimated at 92,000. Industrial and storage uses currently account for about 7.8 per cent of the developed area representing a land area of 1448 hectares. 87.7 per cent of the industrial and storage land was found in a total of eleven industrial estates. The distribution of commerce and industry throughout the built-up areas appears relatively even.

Institutional and special uses include universities and colleges, hospitals, army cantonments, police college and barracks. These classes of uses occupy about 2784 hectares (or 14 per cent) of the built-up areas. The largest component of this use classification is the Ojo Cantonment along Badagry Expressway. The trend of church and mosque development has tremendous effect on the urban landscape setting of the city. An average of about eight worship centres can be observed per square kilometer of any residential area except in private estates within Lagos Metropolis. Two airports serve Lagos, both of which are located in Ikeja, the capital of Lagos State. The airports are the old Local Airport and the Murtala Mohammed International Airport. Two major seaports also serve Lagos, namely the Apapa Wharf and the Tin Can Port. Transportation facilities occupy 3340 hectares (or 18.0%) of the total development area.

4. Procedure for selecting the studied residential neighbourhoods

The review of literature and personal reconnaissance survey showed that Lagos metropolis has 224 identifiable residential neighbourhoods. Each of these residential densities were used as the basis for residential classification in this study. The type and number of the different categories are shown in table 1.

Table 1. Classification of existing residential neighbourhoods in metropolitan lagos

Type of Residential Neighbourhood	Total No. of Neighbourhoods	Neighbourhoods sample d	Questoinnares administered	% of Total
Core Area (Down town)	32	7	30	14.30
High Density	152	30	130	67.84
Medium Density	20	4	20	8.93
Low Density	20	4	20	8.93
Total	224	45	200	100.00

Source; Field Survey, 2005.

From table 1, there are 32 residential neighbourhoods representing 14.3% of the total as cores areas, high density 152 (67.84%), medium density 20 (8.93%) and low density 20 (8.93%). Twenty percent (i.e. 45) of the total number of neighbourhoods in the study area were administered with questionnaire. This means that 7 neighbourhoods were picked in the core areas, 30 out of the high density, and 4 each in the medium and low density areas respectively. A total of 200 questionnaires on which analysis was based were distributed to household heads and recovered. The distribution pattern of the questionnaires and locations where the samples were taken are as follows. In the core area a total of 30 questionnaires were administered covering the following areas. Igbosere, Ajegunle, Itire, Onike, Bariga, Ikeja, Oshodi and Agege. In the high density, medium density and low density areas, 130, 20 and 20 questionnaires were respectively administered. The questionnaires were distributed through systematic random sampling in the neighbourhood sampled, while the neighbourhoods were picked through stratified random sampling.

5. Data Analysis

Data obtained were analyzed through the principal component analytical method. The responses of respondents base on the determinants of residential choice in metropolitan Lagos namely: location, quality of the environment, custom/tradition, ethnic origin, social status, economic status, cost of land/rent, land tenure system/laws, town planning regulations, and technical infrastructure, were sampled.

Respondents were asked to respond on “Yes” or “No” terms to variables identified as factors which, influence their choice of areas in which they reside. The results obtained are indicated in table 2.

Table 2. Responses on variables influencing choice of residential areas in metropolitan lagos

Variables	Frequency			
	Yes	%	No	%
Economic Status	182	91	18	9
Social Status	134	67	66	33
Ethnic Origin	120	60	80	40
Custom/Tradition	70	35	130	65
Cost of Land or Rent	122	61	78	39
Land Laws And Tenure System	64	32	136	68
Town Planning Regulations	77	38.5	123	61.5
Technical Infrastructure	97	48.5	103	51.5
Quality Of Environment	106	53	94	47
Location	110	55	90	45

Source: Field Survey, 2005.

While 182 of the respondents, which represent 91% of the total respondents indicated that economic status influenced, their choice of residential area 134 (67%) indicated social status while 120 (60%) said their choice was influenced by custom and traditions of the community they live in. Responses on other variables are cost of land/rent 122 (61%), land laws and tenure system 64 (32%), town planning regulations 77, (38.5%), technical infrastructure 97 (48.5%), quality of environment 106 (53%) and location 110 (55%) response.

On the issue of ethnic structure of residents in Lagos, a detailed analysis was done and the data obtained show that many ethnic immigrants into Lagos prior to independence in 1960 came into Lagos to join their kinsmen and this automatically led to their indoctrination into the communal life system similar to their home of origin. They ultimately settled permanently in these areas, usually through purchase of land. Through this process, the Ibo from the south-east of Nigeria are mostly found in Ajegunle and Festac. The Egbas (Yoruba) in Abule Egba meaning Egba village, Ojokoro, and Agege and the Aworis (Yoruba) at Ipaja, Egbeda, Igando and Mafoluku. The Hausas from northern Nigeria are common at Obalende, Itire and Agege, while the Ijebus are commonly found at Somolu (see figure 3)..

Areas with relatively mixed ethnic composition are usually in the government laid out residential neighbourhoods where economic factors solely determine who resides. These areas include the Ikoyi, Victoria Island, Lekki Schemes Government Reservation Areas (GRA), which include Apapa GRA, Surulere, Ogudu GRA, Ikeja GRA, and Adeniyi Jones. All these low-density residential areas are fairly mixed in terms of ethnic compositions.

To further analyse the variables influencing residents choice of neighbourhoods, the study employed the principal component technique to reduce the variables to manageable number

The results of the component loading of all variables are shown in table 3:

Table 3. Component loading of variables

Variable	Frequency		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Economic Status	4.785	47.853	47.853
Social Status	1.218	12.185	60.038
Ethnic Origin	1.107	11.069	71.107
Custom/Tradition	.733	7.330	78.436
Cost of Land or Rent	.699	6.993	88.429
Land Laws And Tenure System	.573	5.733	91.163
Town Planning Regulations	.400	4.003	95.105
Technical Infrastructure	.260	2.603	97.768
Quality Of Environment	139	1.394	99.162
Location		.838	100.000

Source: Field Survey, 2005

The extraction of the major components are shown in table 4

Table 4. extraction of initial factors (components)

Factor No	Eigen Value	% of Variance	Cumulative% of variance
1	4.785	47.853	47.853
2	1.218	12.185	60.038
3	1.107	11.069	71.107

Source: Field Survey, 2005.

Table 4 shows the result of the extraction process when the ten variables (determinants of residential area choice) were subjected to principal component analysis. The ten factors have been reduced to three, which gives account of all the other factors. The first is economic status, the second social status and the third ethnic origin. It can be observed that in table 4 the first factor has an Eigen value of 4.785, which is the relative magnitude, and proportion of variance accounted for by the first variable. Usually the first Eigen value accounts for the highest variance in the data set. The first component also explains 47.853% of the variance of the data, while the first three components accounts for 71.107%. The first three components, which account for 71 (107%) of the variance in the data are retained. This is based on the criterion that the three factor components have at least 50% of the total variation based on Spence's (1968) specification.

Table 5 reveals the component loading for each primary variable of the three components when they are subjected to varimax rotation.

Table 5. components loading for each primary variable

Variable		Factors		
		1	2	3
Variable 1	Economic Status	.924	.131	.177
Variable 2	Social Origin	.901	.129	.160
Variable 3	Ethnic Origin	.850	.122	.156
Eigen value		4.785	1.218	1.107
% of Total Variable		47.853	12.185	11.069
Cumulative % of Variance		47.853	60.038	71.107

Source: Field Survey, 2005.

Based on Logan (1970) suggestion that loading of 0.40 and more are considered to be high, the first factor which accounted for 47.853% of the total variance loads highly on economic status, social status and ethnic status whereas the second factor which accounted for 12.185% loads relatively low on all the variables. The same scenario is observed on the third factor which accounted for 11.069%, loads relatively low on all the variables. Economic status, social status and ethnic status load highly on only the first factor. The implication of this is that improvement or otherwise in economic status will have significant implication on respondents' decision on choice of residence in Lagos.

6. Planning implications of findings and suggestions

As stated in the Lagos Metropolitan Master Plan and observed in this study the spatial pattern of areas predominantly occupied by specific ethnic groups shows that they are located in specific areas in the city. The Egbas are in the northern part of the city and the main reason for this could have been the fact that they originally migrated into Lagos through this direction. The case of the Ijebus bear similar explanation. The Hausas are found mostly around the city center due probably to the historical fact that administratively the Hausas were predominantly in charge of central administration of government when Lagos was the seat of government. Thus they are at Lagos Island (Obalende and Ikoyi) and it is not surprising that the Hausas have firm control of tenure around these locations. Their settlement at Itire may have been due to the resettlement programme of people in Lagos Island to Surulere and Itire. While the Yoruba and Ibo stock occupied the Surulere part, the Hausa resettled at Itire.

This scenario where people of different socio-cultural backgrounds are within a metropolis under common planning legislations poses great planning challenges. The problem is highlighted by the response of respondents whose definition of environmental fit variously expressed psychological satisfaction with their environment as they are among their kinsmen. Planning problems are common in the core areas and the high-density neighborhoods. In the medium and low-density areas adjustment to common planning control and standards is by contrast less problematic because of the relative economic prosperity of residents.

It was also discovered that in some of the core areas and high density neighborhoods problems of land titling and tenure are evident. Most dwellers here are actually squatters and they have settled in these areas for over five decades. Government being aware of this, is reluctant to provide basic technical and social infrastructure in some of these areas as a way to discourage people from consolidating their false tenure. Therefore many of these areas have deteriorated into terrible slums and major urban renewal of total clearance might be required. In addition many of these slums are within water catchments areas. This further complicates development as most of the dwellers are unable to muster the resources to develop such a difficult terrain to the standard approved by planning law. It is also a common knowledge that Nigerians do vote along ethnic lines during elections. Political control of Lagos is usually not by the same political party with the government at the center; given the fact that the government in Lagos is traditionally an opposition government. This has been the situation since independence. The State government is usually reluctant to improve the physical condition of areas inhabited by supporters of the opposition, which are usually of non-Yoruba ethnic dominance. As a result these areas are not usually given fair attention in terms of regularization of land title, provision of social and technical infrastructure among others. These areas are also flashpoints during political crisis as they are usually easy to identify. With increasing socio-economic and ethnic mix in the medium and low density areas it is hoped that better understanding will emerge among ethnic groups in the city. This will lead to better understanding of planning problems in these ethnic enclaves as well as greater responsiveness by policy makers. Such understanding will provide a good platform for pragmatic planning policies that will take into consideration specific planning needs and aspirations of different ethnic groups in Lagos.

7. Conclusion

This paper has been an exploration of the nature of the ethnic structure of one of Africa's most dynamic cities, Lagos. The paper emanates from the theoretical position that socio-economic and cultural variables are major determinants of people's environmental fit. It concludes that there is need for policy makers to take cognizance of the specific nature of problems encountered by various ethnic and residential areas in Lagos when generating planning standards and policies. The central issue in physical development of residential areas being the real needs of different areas, politics should not be the major determinant of land use and provision of public infrastructure.

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Discussion on Gender Differences and Costume

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Abstract

Society has assigned different expectation and obligation to male and female. And this difference is shown in many ways, especially in clothing. Society prescribes standard costume for both sexes. Human clothing represents great otherness because of the gender differences. This dissertation is to discuss the relationship between gender differences and costume.

Keywords: Gender differences, Costume, Reverse

1. Introduction

Gender differences, are the differences between men and women. It is an eternal proposition. By these born differences as well as the innermost feelings and the sexual relations, it has certain influence to the costume art. As is said in Chinese, Yin and Yang, are two opposing principles in nature, the former feminine and negative while the latter masculine and positive. Generally speaking, women have the characteristics of softness, exquisiteness, geist and caprice, while men are often considered adamant, brave, rational and straightforward. As a result of these differences, the divisions of costume shapes are also extremely visible.

2. Costume and consciousness of gender differences

After being born the human form cannot help but to receive the behavior pattern the society stipulates. The expectation of culture is first realized through costume, causing him to put on the accordant clothing for his gender. Girls are in favors of soft, romantic and well-decorated clothing while boys prefer terse, spiffy, and sober clothing. If one does not get the proper psychology of sex in his childhood, he is likely to get a costume behavior that does not tally with his own sex in the growth process. If the boy displays an enormous interest to girl's clothing, he may encounter people's censure and ridicule. It is obvious that one was told everything about his gender since he was young and this kind of consciousness of sex is naturally shown by costume which is closely linked with his life.

Men's and women's gender differences are created by nature force. These natural differences have decided their behaviors. However, the human spirit voluntarily destroyed this kind of psychological structure. The gender gap the slave society constructed causes both sexes' personalities to appear enormous inclining. After the slave society, human culture enlarges this gap, from behavior manner to costume appearance, and consciously molds sexes in ideaistic differences. The silk painting of Chu Grave discovered in China, showed that over two thousands years ago, costume already has gender differences. In literature and history record, Chou Dynasty's clothing system displayed obvious sexual status. The different social position of both sexes has been performed through clothing. In the west, far in 2800BC in Mesopotamia, costume already had different manifestation by gender.

In certain societies, there is not only different anticipation to the amphoteric clothing, but also the strict taboo. Famous scholar C.Braun pointed out in "Explaining Other Cultures": "In our society, women possibly put on masculine clothing, but people absolutely oppose men putting on feminine clothing." Indeed, in most societies, if a male wears female clothing, he may receive the public's ridicule. Similarly, if a female puts on excessively virilized clothing, she will lose her gentle and beauty. It can be said that, putting on different clothing to differentiate gender, has deeply taken root in social culture and daily life. Even some countries establish this custom stipulation in the statute books, or observe this as a kind of social ethics in some area. Some also forbid acting opposite gender in the stage role.

Beauty of firmness and beauty of gentillesse, are both kinds of intrinsic beauty. The corresponding costume can display the different characteristic, by strengthening this kind of esthetic standard. Usually, the feminine costume shows sexual characteristics obviously. First, feminine costume reveals stature. For example, the Egyptian women in ancient times were putting on tight and long tunic, unfolding exquisite and exposed body. Secondly, colors displayed the female particular sexual characteristic, such as "Megranate Skirt" (a kind of red skirt dyed with madder) which was super welcomed by women in Chinese Tang Dynasty. Thirdly, the structure or the modeling is variant with that of male's, generally decorated much, divided often. The modeling outline is usually curving. From the tight-fitting corsage of 16th

century to the tight-fitting pants of 19th century, the outline has dome shape, bell shape, ballet shape and so on. Overall the female costume style is so diverse as to make people dazzled. However the masculine costume is often showing strength, speed, innervation and personality. The outline shape is clear and succinct, with straight line primarily; The structure is vivid without much decoration; The color is steady, capable and simple.

3. The sexual reverse in costume history

Nature has given men and women sexes which distinguish them mutually, but not all of the people accept the roll they get. For those people, they often attenuate their role by wearing clothing. For example some quite delicate women who are not satisfied with their own characteristic, may wear the virilized clothing to attenuate their own female characters and emphasize decisive and capable individualities.

As a result of the sexual difference, female are always in the subordinate position in our society. The society's crackdown disables them to realize their own desire, thereupon melts this kind of strong desire into one kind of spiritual reposing, realizing it through costume. Hua Mulan who joined the army instead of her father in China ancient times might be an example in the costume history who dared to counterwork this kind of rule. It is indicated in ancient literature and history record that female putting on men's clothing was popular in China's Tang Dynasty. Open costume design was gloomed in Tang Dynasty's historical environment. Women liked to put on a kind of clothing which is called Hu minority's clothing. Its typical sample has brocade in the collar, sleeve with decoration, circle collar, narrow sleeve, felt hat, grass belt, small mouth trousers, and soft boots. In ancient times there were also female taking part in government in men's clothing and this was inseparable from the prevailing custom at that time.

The sex-reverse, may also be called the sexual dislocation. Men and women's relations originally should be mutually exclusive, like two weights of a balance. However, if one wears the opposite sex's attire excessively and pieces together carelessly, then this kind of funny costume behavior will not only destroy society esthetic rule but also be laughed at by people.

During China's "Great Cultural Revolution", female dare not marcel or wear skirt. Men and women all put on large green military uniform or the Chinese tunic suit or its variational clothing, merely different in the collar, the pocket and the waist. It is most absurd that Jiang Qing designed "the Jiang Qing skirt" which is appraised by people: "One half looks like male; the other half looks like female. It looks likes nun from behind and monk from front."

A renowned writer once said that, "I like woman's clothing, because they are too absurd." But too few people calmly think that, since several centuries, men's clothing is just like this. Man also has the vanity that woman has in the clothing aspect. It is because their life and women's are extremely similar. They have many serfs working for them, so these aristocrats live profligately, and accordingly their clothing is also profligate. In order to manifest their status through clothing, they enjoy the pleasure and satisfaction clothing brings by any means possible, causing men's clothing more and more exaggerated. In ancient Egypt, men used jewelry, tower-shaped hairstyle, hairpiece and cosmetics. Men of ancient Assyria liked thrush, all kinds of cosmetics, and to sprinkle diamond dust on the hair. Greek and Rome's young people also liked women's attire. Empress Elizabeth advocated frivolous fancy clothing to her royal courtier. Men put on leotard, wore earring, put on collar with lace and wore feather hat with the gem, looking just like woman without any difference. In 18th century, the English decadents established the dandy club. These aristocrat members wore long silk stockings and butterfly knot, laughable and frivolous but famous. Roman asceticism philosopher Seneca made the following narration for those men: "Among us some men would rather keep long hair, dress up themselves like a woman, causing all nations to be laughed at." "Men in female clothing cannot be forgiven. They have not any difference with women except the spinning wheel." Even fashion aristocrats of the upper ten also express their view: "I hope women not to dress up grotesquely and gentlemen not to dress up like dancing experts." But, these caustic criticism and ridicule have not weakened these playboys' dispirited attire slightly.

4. Calling on the appropriate beauty of dislocation

The French revolution changed the national condition, eliminated aristocrat's property, causing them not able to continue their luxurious life or to dress up like women. The middle class men chose simple style instead of magnificent style. From then on, the bright colorful faggy palace dress went into hiding, and came the modern costume which is fuscous in color, simple and steady. Men's costume trends standard very quickly, and does not have remarkable difference every year. Men in fastidious attire are no longer considered lacking esthetic performance. When the world war occurred, women were pushed towards society. The women's liberation movement deeply affects female clothing and female attire has been more and more advantageous for work. In 1970 the women's movement initiated the violent attack to the traditional natural role. They thought "the natural role" and "the natural psychology" had caused male and female unfair. Women of the entire civilized world did not pay attention to the moral scientists' attack, liberated themselves from the past despotic costume, and threw the suffocating tight-fitting corsage, the unwieldy skirt bracket, the ill-suited small shoes and so on into the garbage heap of history.

Modern civilization causes the amphoteric psychological pattern to change. One of its performances is the equality,

which confirms female has equal value as male. The change of sexual role has led human esthetic idea to change. Strength is no longer male's unique characteristic, and at the same time it can also be seen on female body. Daintiness is not only feminine characteristic, but also male's. Esthetic sense's change can reflect inevitably on costume. This has become a phenomena of contemporary fashionable costume. In modern society, more and more women go to work, and take on the work which was always taken by men. The modern female costume obvious trends to virilization, or is designed with some virilized designs. The jeans which was created for men also become a modern feminine fashion, because the jeans shows the body sex, the vigor of youth, the exquisite line of feminine buttocks and legs. The western-style clothes, the shirt, the tie, the suspenders, the lining shoulder, the military uniform and so on, many men's clothing elements are also used by the multitudinous designers in their female costume design.

At the same time, men's costume also starts to use the female costume elements in the design, the decoration, the color, the modeling, etc. Orange color, lemon yellow, scarlet and so on are added; They also use narrow-body design and some details which are belonged to female clothing originally such as embroideries. In 1967, in US men's costume reform movement, so-called "peacock revolution" was raised. Its objective was to promote diversification of men's costume. It advocated that men's costume must manifest the spirit of the age. This leads to a great change of men's costume in color and design all over the world. The 60's "hippie", the 80's "yuppies", until the 90's "the X race", once, these vanguard styles of men's costume were described with "the effeminacy", "artificially carves" and so on, and many people regard that these clothing are feminized and sideline products of homosexuality. It sometimes makes sense, but we cannot deprive person with normal sex orientation to choose clothing. The tide cannot be explained by logic, especially in the age where individuality principle is so popular. Young boys diligently choose the same gorgeous shirt and long hair as girls, at will, freely and easily. It is fit to describe this with the American photographer Cecil Beaton's words: "He is both attractive and ugly; he is like a woman and also a man; he is very sexy, but unable to summon your libido."

In films and television plays, men's feminization has revealed the clue. The international design masters also start to put more feminization elements into men's costume. "The narrow-body design, lace material, transparent lining, embroidery and fresh colors are boldly used. Vivienne Wister Wood's designs have boldly used the female costume designs: the chest prominent, the buttocks obvious, full of feminine qualities. The D&G men's costume is filled with obvious feminization style and kind of playboy's dissolute breath style. The Armani men's clothing's biggest characteristic, is that the designer likes using materials similar to the female clothing such as extremely soft cloth, which gives the western-style clothing a different feeling. For the non-muscle gentleman, this kind of clothing is certainly good to decorate the effect. These have been catering to the present tide in the feminization of men's clothing, and the virilization of female costume.

In modern society many neutral clothing appear which men and women can both put on. It has only size distinction, but not the gender boundary. Its size changes to a balance point, and can match both men and women. In modern society, men and women have different characteristics and take on different social positions, but human's psychological quality does not take gender as the classified standard. Men can be engaged in the feminine work, and women can also take on the masculine post. Under this condition, people have the desire to close up to the opposite gender. People realize that different genders need supplementary. The person with characteristics of the two genders at the same time, will probably have more advantage to succeed. In other words, if a woman combines her chariness with masculine logic and courage together, she will get twice the result with half the effort in her work. Since people have such desire, they will have its external performance naturally. If they show this thought through their clothing properly, a kind of appropriate beauty of dislocation will be formed.

The progress of civilization, "gives both genders the same respect and appraisal". This is coordination of personality value, but not the sexual assimilation. The sexual characteristics and gender differences will eternally exist, for it is the need of human life. Therefore, the sex appeal of both genders' clothing, is not unification of genders. The male's and female's sex appeal which clothing displays will never vanish, and the diversities exists forever. But, seeking the similarity from the diversities, will possibly become the subject of costume design in the future.

In brief, the social culture has constructed the sex idea based on the sexual differences, formed humanity's costume standard, and combined masculine beauty and feminine beauty with their different esthetic characteristic. It is just this characteristic that has caused the different fashionable psychology in the development of costume design. Along with society's development and the gender equality, the costume standard will unceasingly change the proportion of masculine beauty and feminine beauty.

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Visual Language in Visual Communication

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Abstract

In visual communication the design information is mainly communicated by visual language, the correct use of which is the standard of evaluation of a graphic design composition. Therefore it is necessary to understand and percept visual language properly. It will be helpful for viewers to percept the desired information from the designer as well as the significance within the work.

Keywords: Visual communication, Visual language, Motion presentation, Verbal communication, Non-verbal communication

Art, instead of being only regarded as fine art or art activity, has been involved in our daily life or even been part of everyday life. All kinds of advertisements are available everywhere. Principles and elements of design could be recognizable on commodities packing, books and magazines etc.

Visual communication, as a visual way of art design in social life, is the presentation of information by visual recognition and it is also the most commonly used way with the longest history for human beings.

1. Conception of visual language

In nowadays communications of mankind can be divided into two aspects: direct communication between people with languages, words, gestures and so on; indirect communication between people via objects which are very popular and typical in logo, advertising, illustration, product design and packing etc. the latter forms a different way to communicate each other. That is visual language.

Visual language is a sound set of principles and elements of design which carry meanings. Certain arrangements of words, symbols, hues, values etc, the base of design, have certain significance, which forms visual language and has impact to people. All kinds of information are carried with the movement and change of the design order, direction, illusion, psychological implication.

Visual language is an effective tool to indicate one's attitude, behavior, or even cultural preference.

2. Application of visual language

In communication theories, communication occurs through "verbal symbols" and "non-verbal symbols". The former mainly refers to languages and words while the latter includes music, dance, drawing, architecture and even body language such as gestures. They both are for the presentation of emotion and perception.

Samovar, an American expert in semantics, indicates that words are symbols, of course. They are not the thing itself for it is a non-acute system. People from different places and cultural background will have different perception and imagery about one thing when it is described via words. However, pictures are able to present things in a relatively clear way. In this case, visual language becomes one of the most important ways to communicate between people.

Visual language is largely recognizable due to its popularity. People from all walks of life are able to percept the significance of this kind of language in their own way. It is the designer's duty to look for the correct visual language adherence to some significance. Moreover, the language should be of creation and cultural value.

3. Emotional presentation of visual language

Emotion is defined as response to things and people via gestures and expression due to psychological instinct. The emotional presentation of visual language, with the fundament of visual physics and mentality, is the combination and arrangement of elements of design such as pattern, hue, words etc. Since visual language is impressively varied, it is possible to have different emotional experience.

3.1 emotional presentation of form

Forms can greatly be influenced by psychology. A rectangular form, for example, stays put in relation to gravity, and are not likely to tip over. A triangle with upside down suggests instability. Form itself means strong plenty. Lines communicate a feeling of delight. Rectilinear lines suggest speed, while curved lines suggest comfort, safety, familiarity.

All these elements bring people different emotions. The combination of point, line and form suggest passion, nervousness, comfort, relaxation etc, which are the fundament of visual communication.

Objects, as material for graphic design, keep images in our convention instead of a single significance. They will have new meanings with different backgrounds. Forms and shapes can be thought of as positive or negative. In a two dimensional composition, the objects constitute the positive forms, while the background is the negative space. It is difficult to ignore the background and treat it as merely empty space. The effective placement of objects in relation to the surrounding negative space is essential for success in composition.

3.2 emotional presentation of hue

Color is one of the most powerful of elements. It has tremendous expressive qualities as well as forms and shapes. Understanding the uses of color is crucial to effective composition in design and the fine arts.

Hue has priority to other elements in visual design. Color illusion, as an important element, can directly suggest information which is not available via non-verbal and form symbols. Color arrangements are very powerful and have enormous impact on our responses to color. It is unsuitable to have cool color as background when advertising a warm-air device. It brings coldness to viewers who will have wrong impression for the new product. In this case, the advertisement will have no effect.

Hue, as presentation of culture, carries certain meaning even takes place of verbal symbols in certain circumstances. Non-verbal cues function via stimulating passion and emotion beyond verbal symbols. Culture significance in hue has something to do with the tradition and convention of a country and nationality. Certain colors are related to certain situations, which grow from regional culture. "Korea fashion", for example, is recognizable in traditional Korean garments. Lightness and color are combined in their design, which form strong visual impact and impression.

3.3 emotional presentations of format and written design

Although it must be visual when emphasizing visual communication due to our impressive convention of languages and words, we have no reason to ignore the importance of written design, especially the literalness format in printing.

A writing format in printing within visual communication is crucial to the success of a composition. Visual tendency in a writing format has great deal to do with psychological physics and mental circumstances. Variations of combination of point, line, form, pattern, hue and the way in which these elements are combined have different functions respectively.

Format design is the orderly and personally combination and arrangements of elements to carry information. It will have quality of aesthetics and economy as well as spiritual value.

Different format design, placement of patterns and selection of media avenue are used in visual language and communication. Visual tendency in the center, horizontal and vertical line on the page suggest plenty of attraction and impact with graceful symmetry, while visual tendency with round edges means stability, inside power and weak aggressiveness. Meanwhile, the impact of forms with smooth edges also has something to do with the concrete shape. Circle and triangle outline supply different inside power and specialties. Forms and shapes with uneasy edges are of impact, random and personal. Shapes with open visual format have less attention and control and more separate and aggressiveness, which occupy large space. Relatively, shapes with close form are easy to recognize. The density of writing is visual with change and variation.

Font, as a tool of graphic design, is of importance in application. Variation of font suggests different functions. Some font indicates humor, while some means reverence. Also we can recognize weakness and power in font. Human impression can be found in font. A post with a serious content, for example, is not able to carry the information of reverence and power and becomes meaningless if round font is used. A composition has strong visual effect and emotion with the arrangement of large and small font.

4. Conclusion

To summarize, visual language, the tool to stimulate art design, is changeable and developing instead of stationary. The communication of visual information lies not only to the accuracy and scientific objectivity but also effectiveness and discrepancy of media. It is with this emphasis that good result in visual communication is available.

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The Effect of Empathy on College English Speaking

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Abstract

With various learner factors identified, empathy have been assumed to affect foreign learning to the extent to which it may result in certain differences in learner's learning styles and strategies as well as the ultimate achievements. This paper reviews the research on the correlation between empathy and language learning .A small-scale survey about empathic state of non-English majors was carried out to indicate the effect of empathy on language learners' speaking proficiency. It aims to implicate that college language researchers could attempt empathy-related teaching techniques to create completely "native" classroom environment to help language learners improve their speaking performance in a most favorable affective state.

Keywords: Foreign language Teaching, Personality traits, Empathy

Introduction

The latter half of the twentieth century has witnessed a shift in interest in foreign language teaching research from teacher's teaching to learner's learning. Thus a considerable number of empirical researches have been directed at the study of learner factors in foreign language learning. Compared with attitude and motivation, personality research has a long tradition in psychology. There were discussions in Aristotle. With the affective domain, such personality traits as extroversion/introversion, anxiety, risk-taking, self-esteem, inhibition and empathy, etc, have been proposed that are likely to affect second language learning.

Brown (1994) describes empathy as "the projection of one's own personality into the personality of another in order to understand him or her better." Brown holds that there are two necessary aspects to the development and exercising of empathy: first, awareness and knowledge to one's own feeling, and second, identification with another person. According to him, empathy is probably the major factor in the harmonious coexistence of individuals in society, and it facilitates communication, since social communication requires people to "permeate" their ego boundaries so that they can send and receive messages clearly.

Guiora (1972: 142) defines empathy as "a process of comprehending in which a temporary fusion of self-object boundaries, as in the earliest pattern of object relation, permits an immediate emotional apprehension of the affective experience of another, this sensing being used by the cognitive functions to gain understanding of the other."

Guiora and associates at the university of Michigan have been attempting to study the relationship between empathy and the ability to pronounce a second language; an instrument called the Micro-Momentary-Expression Device (MME) was developed. It was felt that empathic observers would be able to accurately detect such changes. In another study (Guiora et al, 1972) with 411 students at the Defense language institute learning Japanese, Chinese-mandarin, Thai, Russian or Spanish, subjects were given MME as well as other empathy measures. The MME scores correlated with pronunciation scores for the several languages, but the correlation was positive for Spanish, Russian, and Japanese and negative for Thai and Chinese Mandarin. Despite the inconsistent results, Guiora apparently maintained his belief that empathic capacity is related to pronounce a second language. He and his associates then decided to attack the problem of the proposed link between empathy and pronunciation through experimental manipulation. In one study (Guiora et al 1972), the effect of small amounts of alcohol on the ability of college students to pronounce words and phrases in a language totally unknown to them (Thai) was investigated. It was hypothesized that alcohol would temporarily lower inhibitions and heighten empathic capacity and thus have a beneficial effect on pronunciation.

Hogan (1969:309), one of the leading researchers on empathy, refers to empathy as "a relatively discrete social phenomenon recognizable in the experience of laymen and psychologists alike."

As applied to second language learning, it is believed that individuals who are sensitive to the feelings of other would be expected to recognize unique characteristics in the other language, and thus acquire it more readily than those who are less sensitive. It is also believed that highly empathic L2 (Second Language) learners are more likely to identify with the communicative behavior of users of the target language.

However, in the process of language learning, when he fully or mostly understands what another person is feeling, the

learner may not see himself as a layman in language activity. Thus adequate interest can be aroused to foster his language capacity. The learners may not be active-minded and even suffer from serious psychological barriers, if they are lacking in the necessary enthusiasm for language learning. So it is agreed that empathy can encourage learners to learn language successfully and that if a learner shows no interest, he will not have a thirst for knowledge. On the contrary, the appropriate empathic state one holds helps him to be energetic and quick-minded in learning process, consequently make the most of his language potentials.

Since many experts believe high empathy positively affects language learning while low empathy does the opposite side, it is urgent to come up with a practice to enhance it in our daily class. We expect the help from the subjects and methods to convey the significant correlations between empathy and compatible knowledge areas. Meanwhile the paper presents the new teaching methods and the results of the experiment aiming at increasing students' empathy in oral class.

1. Methodology

1.1 Objectives

This study intends to track the reasons that cause students' low empathy on speaking ability so as to provide some practical implications for college English speaking instruction.

1.2 Subjects and instruments

About forty four-year non-English majors of grade 2002, drawn from Chinese department of Yantai Teachers' University, complete the study, among whom twenty-five are girls and fifteen are boys. The participants come from different parts of Shandong province, varying from eighteen to twenty-one in age. As college age students, they have been learning English for eight or nine years on the average from junior middle school to the present day. The experiment began in October 2002, when they just started their college life and lasted for seven months till July 2003, excluding a month's winter vacation.

1.3 Observation

This period lasted for about a month and a half, from October to the late November. The purpose of observation was to find out the physical response from students on oral class as well as the possible relationship between teacher and students. The whole procedure was conducted in a natural setting in order to observe the subjects' natural reaction to keep the validity of the whole experiment.

1.4 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is made to assess the level/intensity of the subjects' empathy on oral class (see Appendix 1). It has been used twice before and after the application of new teaching techniques. The items in the questionnaire were designed in the form of statements, and the subjects' responses were rated on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The results were collected for later statistical analysis to test the students' level of empathy in language learning.

1.5 Some new teaching techniques

Based on years of teaching experience, the writer tried out several practical teaching techniques in the light of the results of the previous stages to enhance the empathy of students. The class activities that prove to be effective are employing NVC into classroom, exchanging the roles between the teacher and the students, teamwork, role-play, humorous time and special day, etc.

1.6 Data collection and analysis procedures

The results of the observation were to make a verbal comparison on students' empathic state before and after the employment of these new teaching techniques. The questionnaires were distributed to students on November, 24, 2002 and on July 6, 2003 respectively. They were immediately collected back after their accomplishment. The results of questionnaire were input into computer, and Microsoft Excel was used to transform them into charts so as to analyze them conveniently.

2. Results and analysis

The first figure shows the empathic state before teacher employs new teaching techniques; the second one is the students' empathic state after the application of new teaching techniques.

The comparison between the two periods of observation shows that after the employment of new teaching techniques students have achieved relatively high empathy in language learning in terms of both the students' responses and the classroom atmosphere. Both the teacher and the students respond that English learning and teaching becomes easier to go than it did before except that only few students still feel still nervous, indifferent and worried about speaking English on class. Most of them expressed their willingness to have English class since they have regarded it as ways both of acquiring knowledge and of communicating with or about people.

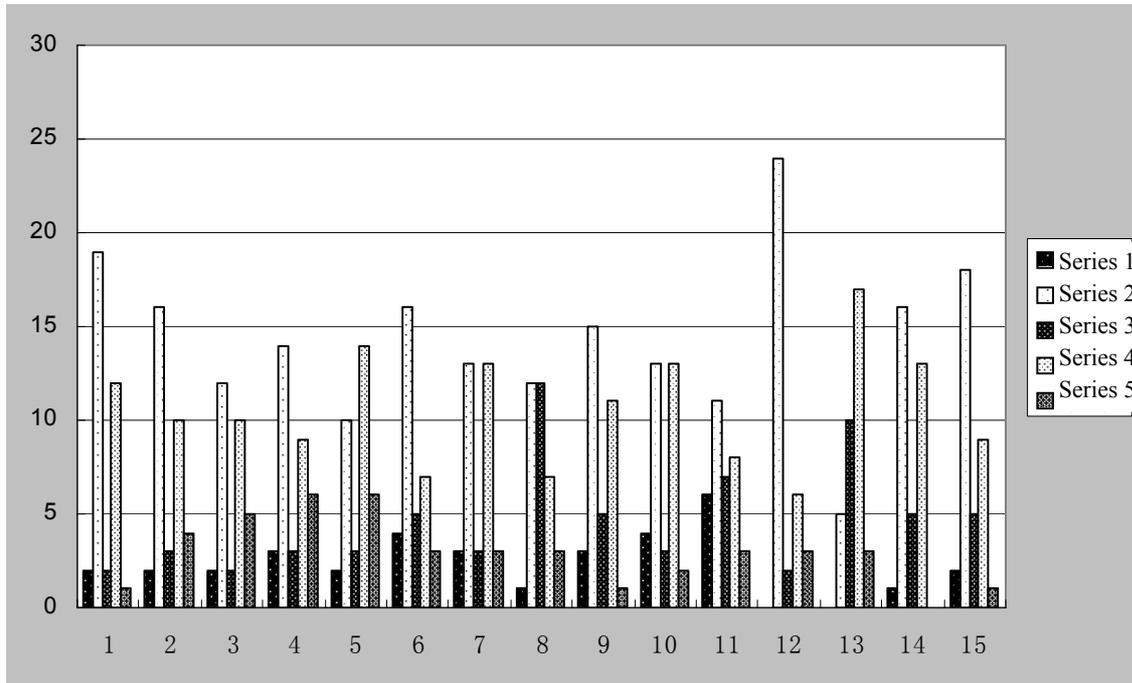


Figure 1.

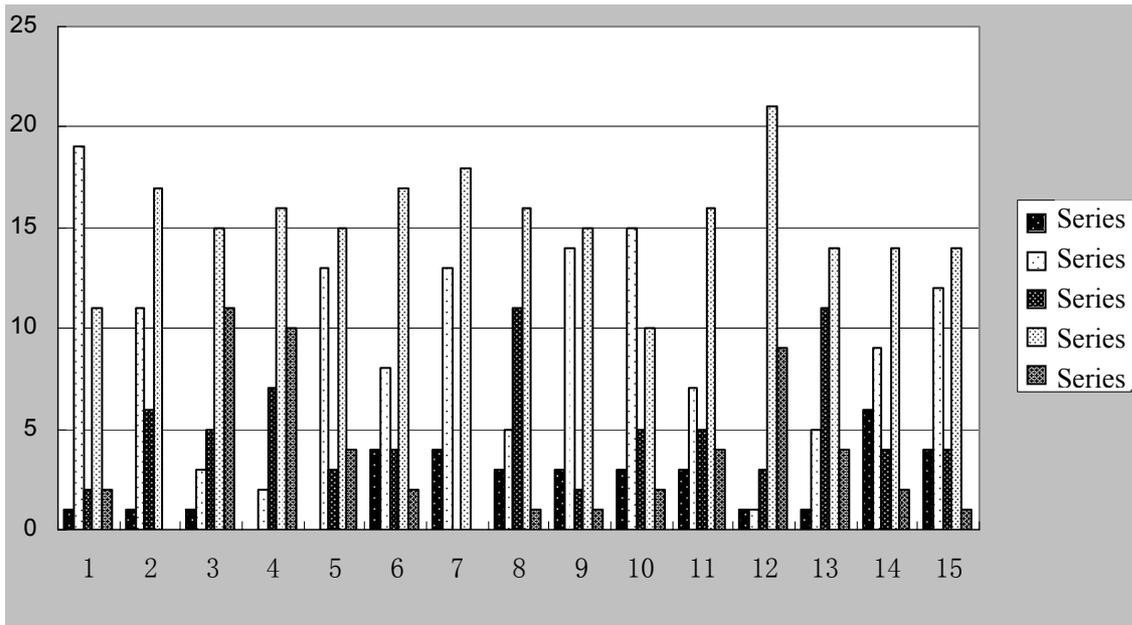


Figure 2.

1 = I strongly agree 2 = I agree 3 = I 'm undecided 4 = I disagree 5 = I strongly disagree

(1) The comparison between the first and second questionnaires indicates that empathy has little correlation with motivation. Respondents did not discard their former English learning purpose of passing CET 4 because the test-oriented education has much influence on Chinese students. The four-year college students have to pass CET 4 and CET 6 in case they are not qualified to get the Bachelor's Degree.

(2) Students are no longer vulnerable to engage in speaking and listening interaction on oral class though a few low empathy students produce shorter academic solicits than high empathy group because of the long established power relationship between teacher and the students in China.

(3) Students can feel less competition among classmates for teacher succeeded in applying teamwork techniques into class activities in order to promote mutual encouragement and understanding as a great help especially in the earlier phase.

(4) However, students' anxieties about the unbalance between "give" and "take" in language learning contribute to their poor learning styles and strategies.

(5) Highly empathic students pick up more cultural knowledge because they believe it helps their understanding of the content. Vocabulary and grammar are not their focus of attention any more because they gradually realize the value of communicative use of language and have a desire for knowing both the English-speaking countries and peoples.

3. Pedagogical implications

(1) As early as they were admitted to college, most of the students aimed language learning little at communication, because they mistakenly but firmly conceive that language learning can be achieved by means of a good command of vocabulary, grammar and some test-oriented techniques. What should be clarified is that the present CET 4 and those term achievement tests in college are only ways to judge how well the syllabus has been executed and how effective the teaching process is. But the ultimate purpose of language learning is to train students to communicate. Therefore, a proper attitude towards test should be developed. Meanwhile, it is strongly suggested that the content of CET 4 should be further improved to induce student's perfect management of the relationship between language learning and examination. Accordingly, the current college English Test patterns could be readjusted to closely relate to the cultivation of student's communicative skills.

Communicative skills mean more than reading and writing. It is a comprehensive process, including speaking and listening. However, nowadays, most of language learners in China acquire knowledge for coping with CET 4 and CET 6 and have long overlooked the ability of speaking because it is not listed as a part in this kind of test. In order to help students eliminate this misconception, an oral test is strongly suggestive in CET 4. Correspondingly, an oral class can be added to college English teaching though starting an oral class is not yet a mature consideration for reasons of all kinds. It is advisable that the present listening class teaching be adjusted into a real speaking and listening class teaching. It would be better if the class size can shrink into thirty students or less. In so doing, the possible results may be:

- 1) The form of old listening class in which students utterly input the language information can be avoided.
- 2) A good access to opening speaking class for non-English majors has been provided at first attempt.
- 3) The combination of speaking and listening enhances student's communicative skills.

Thus in college English instruction, teachers should get rid of the test-oriented pattern to cultivate students' communicative ability by providing them adequate speaking tasks and materials and to derive pleasure and enjoyment from authentic human interaction. In short, the teacher should optimize their learning motivations and attitudes.

(2) Communicative competence involves knowing not only the language code, but also what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in a given situation (Saville-Troike, 1996). Moreover, this ability to use and interpret linguistic forms appropriately calls for social and cultural knowledge and experience beyond the grammar of the language (Bialystock and Hakuta, 1994). To help students understand appropriateness in English interactions and intercultural communication, teachers need to affirm individual differences and diversity, and differences must have positive value for students.

It is time for us to stop deprecating differences and instead, to encourage students to understand them empathically, to generate a new harmony that will create a school environment where differences can be viewed more constructively. An empathic viewpoint can sensitize one to the full range and depth of someone else's affective stage or situation (Goldstein and Michaels 1985) and create new insights into classmates' personal differences. By fostering empathy in an EFL context, a Chinese teacher with only limited knowledge of English appropriateness can still help students develop competence in intercultural communication.

Gudykunst and Kim (1995) explain that we cannot understand the communication of people from other cultures if we are highly ethnocentric.

Ethnocentrism leads us to see our own culture's way of doing things as "right" and all others "wrong." While the tendency to make judgments according to our own cultural standards is natural, it hinders our understanding of other cultures and the patterns of communication of their people. Becoming more culturally relativistic, on the other hand, can be conducive to understanding.

According to Porter and Samouvar (1991), inter cultural understanding goes through several stage from ethnocentrism to ethno relativism. Ignorance or feelings of denial and rejection are natural at the first stage. To help students shift their viewpoint, the teacher needs to make them encounter value conflicts. The stronger the impact on the students' belief systems and their value judgment, the more they will question the stability of their values. Then, by reflecting on their belief systems and value judgments in comparison to the norm of the new culture, students will become aware of, admit, and then accept the differences. When students can tolerate differences and believe that no cultural group should be judged as being inherently superior or inferior to another, the teacher has successfully created a classroom culture where students have acquired empathy through intercultural understanding via the learning of English.

(3) As far as foreign language learning is concerned, it is indispensable to understand the culture and customs of native countries. Just as Xia guo-you has notes, "Nobody can separate language from its culture. Knowing the cultural background of English-speaking country can greatly promote and facilitate language learning." Apparently English teachers can intentionally encourage and instruct students to gain more about cultural information in which reading original novels, magazines and newspapers or communicating frequently with native speakers are some workable ways. Owing to such a practice, students can put what they have learned into use.

(4) The quality of English teachers can be improved. As is suggested by the present study, empathy can be heightened to a certain extent with the help of certain teaching techniques executed by the teacher. So language class requires a lot out of the teacher. A good language teacher should not only possess language knowledge which is to be transferred to the students, but also have corresponding techniques and good professional ethics which can make use of the quality of the transference.

To be a good teacher, rich academic knowledge and experience are necessary but not all. What he or she needs more is academic theories which can dominant and guide his or her teaching practice. For instance, without the guidance of the Affective Filter Hypothesis, a teacher may not notice the existence and increase of empathy and of course will not take any measures against it. And without knowing such helpful methods as Community Language learning, a teacher may not know how to manage empathy. With certain knowledge about successful theories, a teacher can better pass on his or her rich knowledge in his teaching practice.

Conclusion

Learners are the most important part in English leaning, so is the speaking. Every teacher is responsible for creating a highly empathizing atmosphere in classroom to spur their high motivations for speaking and to develop students' capacity of language use in the most favorable state. In addition, it is high time that the traditional test-oriented and teacher-centered teaching methods were transformed into those emphasizing the students' overall competence.

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The Influence of Employee Benefits Towards Organizational Commitment

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Abstract

Employee benefits which included mandatory benefits and fringe benefits are becoming essential portion of the compensation packages that are offered by organizations to their employees. The purpose of this study was to reveal whether employee benefits offered by the organization are important as antecedents to organizational commitment for employees in food-manufacturing industry in the state of Kedah, Malaysia. A total of 161 employees responded to the survey. The results of the study suggested that mandatory benefits and fringe benefits were positively influenced organizational commitment. The results further denoted that fringe benefits fully mediated mandatory benefits when predicting organizational commitment. The implications of the findings were discussed.

Keywords: Organizational commitment, Employee benefits, Food-manufacturing industry, SMIs

1. Introduction

Employee benefits is defined as any form of compensation provided by the organization other than wages or salaries that are paid for in whole or in part by the employer. Employee benefits are also essential for the development of corporate industrial relations. Examples include retirement plans, child care, elder care, hospitalization programs, social security, vacation and paid holidays (Christoph, 1996). According to Herzberg's two factor theory (motivation and hygiene), an employee benefits programme was a necessary and sufficient working condition. The hygiene factor will affect employees' work-motivation and thus productivity (Hong, Yang, Wang, Chiou, Sun and Huang, 1995). Thus the employee benefits become essential if employee satisfaction to be maintained and employee commitment is to be increased. Malaysia employment Act 1955 has some provisions which are compulsory for every employer to provide some form of benefits to their employees. These mandatory benefits become the employers' liability which has to be paid for. In addition to the mandatory benefits, some companies may also provide fringe benefits, which are very significant to the employees.

Organization commitment is defined as the employees' feeling of obligation to stay with the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment, which is the dependent variable in this study, has been the focus of many researchers. A well-known model proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990) proposes that there are three components of organizational commitment, namely, affective, continuous and normative commitment. As described by Allen and Meyer, the affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. The continuous commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. The normative commitment refers to the employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organization. However, in this study overall organizational commitment construct was measured because multi-dimensional organization commitment was not the focus of the study.

Research into employee benefits and organizational commitment is becoming more important because some researchers have examined the relationship between them (Christoph, 1996) and also the relationship between employee benefits and motivation and productivity (Hong, et al., 1995). Based on the above prerequisite this research intended to investigate whether the employee benefits (mandatory and fringe benefits) could give an impact towards the employees' organization commitment in food manufacturing industry of Malaysia. Thus, the research model was proposed as in Figure 1.

The research hypothesizes the following hypotheses:

H1: Mandatory benefits will positively influence the organizational commitment.

H2: Fringe benefits will positively influence the organizational commitment.

H3: Relationship between mandatory benefits and organizational commitment will be mediated by fringe benefits.

2. Methodology

2.1 Sample and Procedures

The list of Kedah food manufacturing industry was taken from Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority (FAMA), Kedah branch. Out of 625 food manufacturing factories in the state of Kedah, Malaysia, 161 employees from 51 food manufacturing factories who served more than one year were chosen as the samples of this study. The collection of data was carried out in the month of mid July – mid September, 2004. Employers' consents were acquired before the distribution of questionnaires. Distribution of questionnaires and collection of data were undertaken during their working hours. On the average, it took about 25 minutes for the respondents to complete the questionnaires.

2.2 Measures

This research involved a field study where the survey instrument was adapted and adopted from Mowday et al., (1979) for Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). This questionnaire consisted of fifteen items. Examples of these items include: "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful", "I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for". A seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was employed. Self developed questionnaires were used to measure mandatory and fringe benefits. Five mandatory benefits (e.g. EPF, SOCSO, annual leave etc.) and ten fringe benefits (e.g. staff education, residential/hostel, food/subsidies and etc.) were listed out to measure the availability of the benefits in the company.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 The demographic profile

The demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 1. In this study, 59.6% (n=96) of the respondents were male whereas 40.4% (n=65) of them were female. As for age group, respondents were categorized into three age groups. They consist of respondents ranging from 29 years old and below, 30-39 years old and 40 years old and above. The result showed that above half of the respondents were in the age of 29 years old and below, which amounted to 51% (n=82), followed by 31.7% (n=51) in the age group of 30-39, 17.3% (n=28) in the age group of 40 years old and above. Half of the respondents were married, representing 57.1% (n=92), followed by the group of respondents categorized under "single" with 38.5% (n=62), and only a minority of them were widow/widower, consisting of 4.3% (n=7). Result indicated that 79.5% (n=128) of the respondents were within the range of 1-5 years in service, followed by 14.9% (n=24) of them were 5-10 years in service and 5.6% (n=9) had served 11 years and more.

3.2 The influence of employee benefits towards organizational commitment

To test whether there is a direct impact on mandatory benefits and fringe benefits on organizational commitment; a linear regression was run whereby organizational commitment was taken as the dependent variable and mandatory benefits and fringe benefits as the independent variables. Figure 2 showed the summary of regression that was performed.

From Figure 2, the standardized beta value of 0.152 ($p < 0.05$) suggested that mandatory benefits directly influences organizational commitment and fringe benefits was also found to significantly influence organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.399$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, H1 and H2 were supported.

In order to determine if fringe benefits mediates the relationship between mandatory benefits and organizational commitment, multiple regression was employed, by taking organizational commitment as dependent variable whereas mandatory and fringe benefits as independent variables. Results were summarized in Figure 2.

It can be seen from Figure 2, when regressed together to determine the extent of influence of mandatory benefits and fringe benefits, mandatory benefits does not impact organizational commitment, whereas fringe benefits exerts significant influence with a beta value of 0.388 ($P < 0.01$).

The relationship between fringe benefits and organizational commitment is found to be significant at beta value of 0.399 (H2), and mandatory benefits with a beta value of 0.152 (H1) was also found to significantly influence organizational commitment. When regressed together (mandatory benefits and fringe benefits on organizational commitment), fringe benefits has significantly impact on organizational commitment whereas mandatory benefits becomes insignificant, thus it can be concluded that fringe benefits acts as a full mediator when predicting relationship between mandatory benefits and organizational commitment. Therefore, H3 was fully supported.

The data of this study were collected from 161 subjects. They were the food manufacturing SMIs employees located in the state of Kedah, Malaysia. The purpose of this study was to reveal whether employee benefits offered by the organization are important as antecedents to organizational commitment for employees in food-manufacturing industry in the state of Kedah, Malaysia.

4. Conclusion

Findings suggested that both mandatory and fringe benefits were having significant and positive relationship with organizational commitment and fringe benefits having higher relationship as compare to mandatory benefits. This finding proposed that when employees received more fringe benefits, their organization commitment tend to be higher. Therefore the employers should not only provide mandatory benefits as required by the law, but also provide and/or improve the fringe benefits in order to strengthen the employees' organizational commitment, motivation, productivity and job performance.

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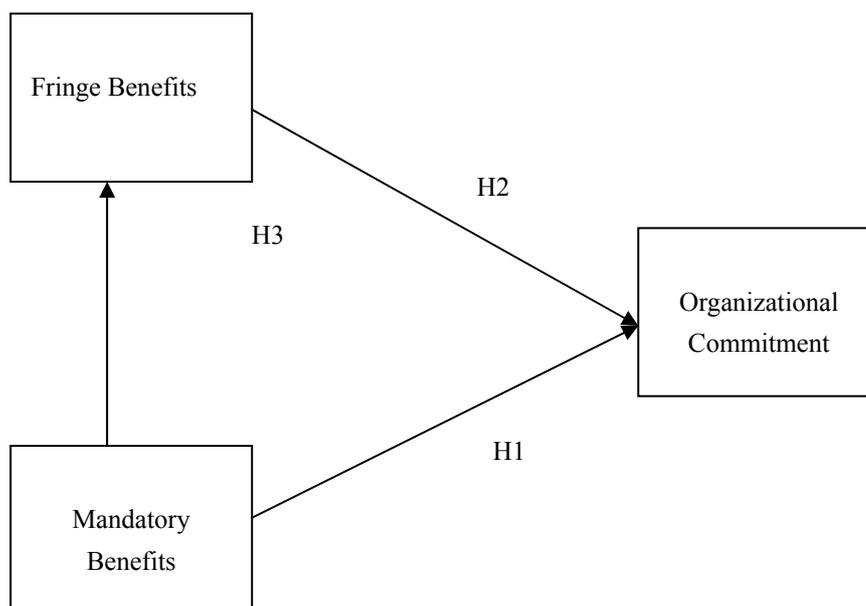


Figure 1. Research Model

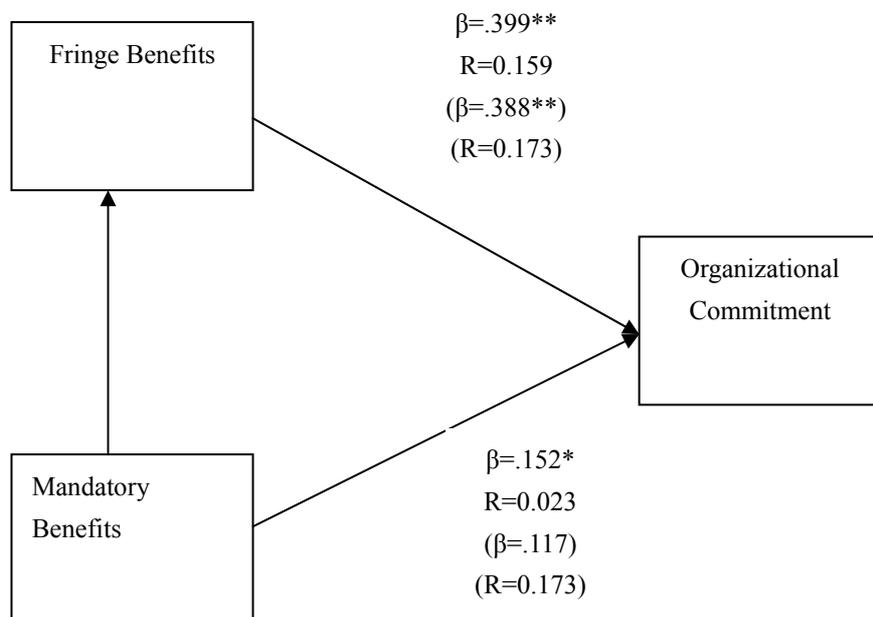


Figure 2.

Table 1. Demographic profile of respondents

Variables	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	96	59.6
Female	65	40.4
Age		
<=29	82	51.0
30 – 39	51	31.7
>=40	28	17.3
Marital Status		
Single	62	38.5
Married	92	57.1
Widow / Widower	7	4.3
Years of services		
1 – 5	128	79.5
5 – 10	24	14.9
>=11	9	5.6
Total	161	

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