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The Turn to the Self: From “Big Character Posters” to YouTube Videos

Henry Siling Li

Queensland University of Technology

Abstract: This paper explores the process by which user-created content in contemporary China has evolved from being appropriated as a weapon of political mobilization and accusation to serving as vehicles of independent self-representation. The analysis is set in

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the context of the social, political and economic metamorphosis that China has undergone in the past five decades and foregrounds the dynamics of political, economic and technological forces that has been transforming Chinese media and the way media users have been (mis-)represented. The metaphor of ‘the wall’ is used to chart the contours of the struggle for self-expression and representation. The paper concludes with a brief discussion of the political and social implications of the internet and networked user created media content for China.

Key Words: User-created Content, Self-representation, “Big Character Posters”, YouTube Videos, Ti-yong

On June 20 2008, China’s President Hu Jintao thrilled a burgeoning generation of Chinese internet users by acknowledging their important role in China in a four-minute online chat with them in an internet chat room. The president said, “We care a lot about Internet users’ ideas and advice…The Internet is an important channel for us to understand and collect public opinions” (China Digital Times, 2008; Watts, 2008).

This was the first time that a senior party official had publicly engaged with internet users. There was no real substance to the online conversation, but it was symbolic: it showed that the Communist Party of China (hereafter CPC or the Party) had finally and formally acknowledged the internet as an important source of public information and opinion (Li, 2008). Before Hu’s “web chat”, a number of Chinese high-level officials had ventured online in one way or another. Wang Yang, Party secretary of Guangdong Province, has a QQ number (a popular local instant messaging tool). He posted on Blackboard Bulletin
Systems (BBS) using his real name and solicited ideas for government policy, even inviting netizens he met online to the provincial government to discuss issues face to face with him (Li, 2008; Nanfang Daily, 2008; People.com.cn, 2008).

For many researchers and scholars of China media, the new interest of the government in the internet as a source of public opinion might be less of a boon than cause for alarm. Considering the priority the CPC has accorded to political and social stability and ideological conformity and its track record on cultural diversity, it would seem to suggest heavier regulation and tighter control of the internet. In effect, this would also mean a more restrictive climate for user created content (hereafter UCC). By UCC I refer amateur media content created outside of professional routines and practices. In many forms UCC has witnessed exponential growth in the past decade, since internet access became available for ordinary Chinese people. While UCC has become recognized in the post-broadcasting age, it has a long history yet to be reclaimed in China, and there are some interesting historical comparisons to note. In this paper I start with a revisit to the 1950s to understand the first wave of UCC, and then continue to analyze the evolution of UCC to gain an insight into the continuities and changes that have happened in the past half century.

The historical review calls attention to the metaphor of a wall. The wall is an emblem of Chinese cultural sovereignty and political sensitivity throughout China’s dynastic past, as incarnated by the Great Wall (Roberts and Barme, 2006, P.10-11). Interestingly, “the wall” has also emerged as a thematic concept through the whole history of UCC in
contemporary China: from big character posters (dazibao) on brick walls to BBS and forums, blogs personal spaces on electronic wall on the internet; from the demolition of the “democracy wall” hosting dazibao to the installment of “Great Firewall” to censor internet information and expressions. A parallel to the wall metaphor is a discourse that originated in the late nineteenth century on the cultural and political impact of western technology and the means of taking advantage of it while preserving cultural sovereignty. This is known as the tiyong dilemma. Is history repeating itself? What does the future hold for networked UCC in China? A re-examination of the history of user-created content in contemporary China and the sociopolitical setting of its evolution will show that while the government has the capacity to slow down the internet in the name of safeguarding national security and maintaining a “clean” internet environment, it is likely to be more difficult than closing down a wall.

**UCC on Brick Walls: Dazibao as political instrument**

For those familiar with Chinese political history, President Hu’s talk rings a bell. It is a reminder of what Chairman Mao said over fifty years ago to encourage the massive popularization of another form of user-created content -- “dazibao” or “Big Character Posters.” In July 1957, addressing a conference in Shanghai, he extolled dazibao as “something wonderful” that should become “part of our heritage” (Mao Zedong, cited in Sheng, 1990). Mao went on to contain them when he found that the posters could be a double-edged sword. They could be appropriated to shape public opinion in his favour and against his enemies in and out of the Party. But they could also be adopted by the
general public and his adversaries to voice alternative or dissenting views, to his perceived peril (Dittmer & Chen, 1981; Sheng, 1990).

“Dazibao”, or big character posters, were so called because of the large lettering used in the posters (Hala, 2007). Traditionally, dazibao had been used for business advertising or public notices (haibao) or for publicizing good news (jiebao), but rarely had they been used to publicize political opinion. For the general public, the reason to take up dazibao rather than other means of communication was obvious: they were cheap, effective, easy to use, could be anonymous, and most important of all, they were open public space where ideas could be shared, just like today’s BBS on the internet.

According to Hua Sheng (1990), the use of dazibao as a form of political dissent started with a 36-year-old pro-Communist scholar called Wang Shiwei, who wrote a long essay on a big poster in 1942 and put it up on a wall in Yan’an, the headquarters of the Red Army, lambasting Party leaders for their arbitrary and repressive treatment of political dissent. His poster struck a chord with people of similar views and more posters followed. Wang Shiwei was subsequently labelled as a spy and lost his life for his straight talking.² He would have never expected that this new form of political dissent he pioneered would

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² Dai Qing wrote about the life of Wang Shiwei in Wang Shiwei He Ye Baihe Hua (Wang Shiwei and Wild Lily) (Wenhui Monthly, May 1988). In her work she concluded that He Long ordered Wang’s execution. She was challenged by Xu Yiqing, the writer of the biography of He Long, who conducted a serial of interviews and managed to get the original record of the execution of Wang. According to Xu, Li Kenong gave the order after consulting his boss Kang Sheng, who was then head of social affairs in Yan’an and became a political star in the Cultural Revolution, but died soon after losing the trust of Mao. Wang’s name was cleared in 1991 by the Ministry of Public Security. For Xu’s account, see: http://politiccn.ifrance.com/politiccn/author/h/huangchangyong/huangchangyong007.txt.
become such an important means of public expression, extolled so highly and damned so fervently, loved and hated by so many people in the years to come.

Since then, dazibao has remained a notable feature of communication in China. As scholars noted they have accompanied nearly every major political movement in the PRC (Downing et al., 2001, p.171; Sheng, 1990). In the early post-revolutionary years, after the foundation of the PRC in 1949, people were enthusiastic about the promising new republic. However, class struggle was still the norm of life and Political sloganeering took over as the dominant form. The cultural domain, from newspaper to poetry and the comic book, was filled with accounts of the glorious heroism and idealism of the proletariat and the extolment of new socialist values.

The increasingly simplistic and formulaic sloganeering of the official media didn't suffocate the creativity of the general public, however. In 1957, When Chairman Mao invited intellectuals to speak frankly about the problems of the government, his liberalism was welcomed with big character posters critical of the government. Judging from a report in Guangming Ribao, “Students of Beijing University Put up “Democracy Wall”” (May 26, 1957, as cited in Sheng, 1990), the diversity of opinions and the spirit of open debate were palpable:

The dazibao written by Beijing University students were in diverse forms. They were a real feast for the eyes. They included lengthy formal theses, sarcastic essays, poems, cartoons, and traditional Chinese novels. After some posters were put up, many more followed to support or oppose views expressed in previous ones, resulting in
lively debate among the students. Students even wrote invitations on some posters challenging the author to a face-to-face debate.

With Mao’s encouragement, dazibao writing flourished and posters by hundreds and thousands were created by people across the social spectrum of society. What these enthusiastic creators didn’t expect was that Chairman Mao was not really keen on critical posters; rather, he was more interested in “luring the snakes out of the hole”. Many outspoken people were labelled “rightists” and “capitalist-roaders” conspiring to sabotage the rule of the proletariat and jailed or sent to the countryside for re-education. Dazibao were still encouraged, but only to support Chairman Mao, to attack his critics, or to echo government directives. As Chairman Mao said at the Shanghai Conference in late 1957, “Because most of them are on the side of the proletariat, dazibao are instruments favorable to the proletariat and not the bourgeoisie” (address by Mao Zedong, Shanghai Conference, July 1957, as cited in Sheng, 1990). The appropriation of dazibao as a tool of propaganda led to homogeneity of expression and strangled the spontaneity and thus creativity of public expression.

People learned fast. When Chairman Mao launched the Cultural Revolution in 1966 to eliminate the residual manifestations of bourgeois culture in the arts, sciences, education, medicine, and in popular or elite attitudes (Dittmer& Chen, 1981, p.3), the country fell into factional rivalries to show their loyalty to Mao, competing with each other in radicalism. The big character posters in this period were full of reverent expressions, and martial and violent images such as:

Think of Chairman Mao day and night!
The red heart forever turns towards the party!
The head can be cut off, blood can be shed, but the revolutionary spirit cannot be forsaken!
A great victory of Mao Zedong Thought!
Xi’an Red 6th Company are all destroyed!
5.16 Military Corps fire cannon at Premier Zhou!

(Dittmer& Chen, 1981, p.30-38)

The mass criticism movement initiated at the beginning of the Cultural Revolution started a witch-hunting process. Some took this opportunity to settle old scores. There have been many accounts of this period since in film and literature. Others reported on their neighbours, even family members with fabricated wrongdoings to show their own political uprightness and protect themselves. Yuhua, a famous writer in China, had an interesting account of dazibao in an interview with Standaert (2003):

I believe my first real literary reading experience began with my reading Big Character Posters during the Cultural Revolution. Big Character Posters were filled with lies, accusations, denunciations, and attacks. The Cultural Revolution brought out the full potential of Chinese imaginative powers. People invented crimes for each other out of thin air…
For the CPC, dazibao were used mainly as a way of mass mobilization. But it is important here to emphasize once again that this they did give the general public a chance to have their voices heard. Many, both politicians and ordinary people, appropriated this opportunity to vie for political power or to abuse each other. The witch-hunting seriously damaged the social and moral fabric of China, leaving an open scar that took many years to heal, if it has healed at all. It is hardly surprising that then people still use dazibao to express their indignity or frustration when they cannot have issues resolved through official channels.

Dazibao culminated in 1978 in the form of the “Democracy Wall”, a dazibao-hosting brick wall near Xidan, a shopping area of Beijing. It gained popularity and became China’s “YouTube” of that time. It attracted people all over the country to read dazibao, to put up their own and discuss face to face with authors and readers of other posters. The political momentum of dazibao alarmed the Party. The wall existed for less than a year before it was removed in 1979. And in 1980, the right to write dazibao was deleted from the Constitution.

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3 For example, in July 2007, house owners in Chunshuyuan Residence Quarter in Xuanwu District, Beijing put up a series of posters to air their grievances when their rights were violated in the process of housing reform. One of the posters says, “I shall decide what to do with my own property”. For more information about the posters, visit: http://dzh.mop.com/mainFrame.jsp?url=http://dzh.mop.com/topic/readSub_7645083_0_0.html

4 The desire to broaden readership and influence, and frustration of being quickly covered by others (like posts in today’s popular BBS) led these authors to seek better ways to have their view heard. They found a solution in the form of the unofficial journals, in the same way as we do with blogs and personal spaces today. Unofficial journals were banded in 1981.
Of course, alternative public expressions could be found at the time. The restrictive political atmosphere forced the people to turn to popular doggerels—a form of popular expression, mainly for political and pornographic jokes, that is still fashionable today—to express themselves in private. This also occurred in the later stages of the Cultural Revolution, when revolutionary zeal waned and many got disillusioned. One of the doggerels goes like this:

Those who once climbed the snowy mountains and tramped the grasslands are not better off than the one who sings the Red Lantern;
It is no use to have survived the hardship of the Long March;
Better dance a ballet;
Head bowed like a willing ox, I serve the children;
Still, I am inferior to the ping pong player!

(Dittmer & Chen, 1981, p.50)

**UCC on the Internet: The Turn to the Self**

The ban of dazibao in 1980 and the disbanding of unofficial journals in 1981 ended an era of mass participation in political debate by means of user-created content. It ushered in a period of “collective amnesia” (Tripathi, 2008), when people indulged in money-making and material pursuits and avoided their political past. Whether this is moral sickness, perversion or social progress is a matter of personal opinion.

**A Different China: Politics Sidelined by Popular Culture**

Deng’s Southern Tour of 1992 led China through a metamorphosis that has not only utterly transformed the economy and much of society, but also the Communist Party. In
politics, pragmatism has become the order of the day while communist ideology is becoming increasingly irrelevant to policy decisions (Hook, 2007). David Brooks (2007) in his *New York Times* column essay, made an insightful observation about the “seismic shift” in China’s political climate over the past decade:

> Westerners think the Communist Party still has something to do with political ideology. You know there is no political philosophy in China except prosperity. The Communist Party is basically a gigantic Skull and Bones\(^5\). It is one of the social networks its members use to build wealth together.

Or as Han Yuhai, a professor from Peking University, sensationally put it: “Money is the only ideology” (as cited from Hook, 2007).

The general public, once demanding political participation, are now more preoccupied with material aspiration, more spacious housing, bigger cars and better education for their kids. College students are on the whole less political and more concerned about economic freedom and opportunities, jobs with government agencies or multinationals, scholarships from US universities, success stories of Bill Gates and Steve Jobs, soccer World Cup and NBA basketball games. Teenagers are immersed in different passing fads, Korean fashion (*Han Liu*) and TV plays (*Han Ju*), Japanese comics, computer games, instant messaging, “super girls” (and boys), and loads of homework from school. With

\(^5\) Skull and Bones is an elite secret society at Yale University that includes some of the most powerful men of the 20th century including George W Bush and John Kerry. For more information, visit: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Skull_and_Bones](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Skull_and_Bones).
the drive to prosperity, public life in China – like that in the West at the same point in its economic development – metamorphosed from political activism to pop culture.

With the metamorphosis of the society, the media landscape has also changed beyond recognition. The Chinese media are still subject to Party control and regarded as the mouthpiece of the Party, but with state subsidies cut or scrapped altogether, they are more tuned to market rules and have become more responsive to readers’ demands. Broadsheet newspapers such as People’s Daily and Guangming Daily, and provincial Party newspapers, are becoming more and more marginalized by the general public and are facing increasing pressure to change. Few people read them, even less subscribe to them with their own money. Along with these traditional Party press, there has emerged a sort of ‘quasi-official’ or popular press (Li, 1998). The introduction of the internet is another sea change for the media in China. It provides an alternative, and more credible, source of information. More and more people have migrated from traditional media to the internet because accurate information is to be found not in newspapers or on TV, but online (Li, 2008).

The internet has also provided a new platform for self-representation and a distribution channel for user-created content in China. But this time, with more freed minds, the content is of a different kind: it is now time for self-broadcasting. The backbone creators now are still the young, but they are the “Yuck and wow” generation rather than the “Lost Generation”. They are rarely politically motivated and if anything are motivated by an attitude of frivolity and lightness. Their catchphrase is to “have fun”. For them, the
internet is a mirror. As Keen (2007, p. 7) disapprovingly observed, “Rather than using it to seek news, information, or culture, they use it to actually BE the news, information, and culture” (original emphasis). According to a survey on internet video conducted by China Internet Network Information Center (2008a), of the 210 million users in China, 65.7 percent have engaged in user-created content, posting comments or uploading contents online. The same survey also profiles typical creators as urban youngsters aged 18 to 24 with relatively good education.

The Emergent Self: Lotus Sister, Back-dorm Boys and Spoof Videos

Shi Hengxia, known as Sister Lotus, will surely go down in history as one of the pioneers of networked user-created content in China. Sister Lotus is a homely girl from a small town who claims to be very beautiful. She is a mediocre dancer who regards herself as among the best. She tried and failed three times to gain admission to Peking University and then to Tsinghua University, China's most prestigious institutions of higher learning. In the spring of 2005, she posted her personal stories about her failure and determination, together with some of her photos and a short dance video clip on to the BBS of Tsinghua University. They touched a nerve among students who forwarded her posts into other websites. Sister Lotus became an instant celebrity, courted by newspapers and TV talk shows. She now runs her own official website (http://www.sfrjj.com/bbs/) and is on constant performance tours.

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6 Both the number of internet users and the percentage of active video users are based on the survey released at the end of February (CNNIC, 2008b). According to the latest statistical survey of the internet in China (CNNIC, 2008c) released in July, the number of internet users has reached 253 million, added another 3 million in the first half of 2008. The latest statistics for video users are not yet available.
The popularity of Sister Lotus was hailed by some as “the victory of the common people” and the internet, and lamented by others as a sign of “lack of beliefs among young people”. A more-to-the-point explanation was offered in a *Washington Post* column: Sister Lotus has grabbed the imagination of young Chinese because she is affirming her individuality so blatantly in a society where children are generally taught to conform and avoid sticking out (Cody, 2005). Sister Lotus was just such a symbol of a wakening self-identity among the young.

The “Back-Dorm Boys”, an art student duo in Guangdong Province named after the Backstreet Boys, are more representative of a new generation of Chinese who spend hours online every day, surfing, blogging, playing interactive games, doing video and text chat, and downloading music and movies.

In March 2005, they lip-synched the Backstreet Boys hit *I Want It That Way*, filmed their performance in their dorm room with a cheap little web camera and posted it in their college intranet. It quickly migrated to big sites like Google Video and YouTube (for a sample Back-Dorm song, visit [http://au.youtube.com/watch?v=IGnhMR4Mdu8](http://au.youtube.com/watch?v=IGnhMR4Mdu8)). It fast became one of the most watched and highest rated amateur clips online. Web forums discussed their private lives. National radio and television shows have hosted them. Even their roommate, just visible in the background playing computer games, gets celebrity treatment. The Back Dorm Boys phenomenon has resulted in an internet ‘meme’ and

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spawned a variety of spoofs and countless copycats *(The Economist, 2006; www.china.org.cn, 2006)*.

Another internet hero is an amateur movie director called Hu Ge, who helped to popularize spoof videos in China. He brought internet video into public debate in early January 2006, when he posted a video clip *The Murder Caused by a Steamed Bun (yige mantou yinfa de xue’an)*, spoofing Chen Kaige’s flop movie *The Promise (Wu Ji)*. The video became an immediate hit and raised Hu Ge to fame overnight. It also brought a widely publicized lawsuit against him. This case added to Hu Ge’s popularity. The effect was to raise awareness of spoofing culture beyond internet users. A multitude of spoofs with a wide range of topics followed and ‘spoof’ became one of the most popular words of the year. As a result the year of 2006 was called by many the “Year of Spoofs”*(egao nian)*.

He Ge triggered a wave of spoofs in China. Everybody and everything could be the target of spoofery. Twelve well-known hosts from CCTV were turned into Twelve Beauties of Jinling from *A Dream of Red Mansions (honglou meng)*. In the series of the spoof photos, Bai Yansong, a former host of “Focus Report” *(jiaodian fangtan)*, and now Chief Commentator of CCTV, cursed George W. Bush for getting Saddam Hussein killed*⁹*. In other spoofs, Confucius became a model, a popular singer and was called “a homeless

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dog”. Pan Dongzi, the young revolutionary from a classic revolutionary movie Sparkling Red Star (shanshan de hongxing), wanted to participate the CCTV singing show in pursuit of fame and quick money. Even the National Anthem and Chairman Mao have been targets of spoofs. In Changsha, the capital city of Mao’s home province, a creative restaurant proprietor, spoofing the classic painting A Grand Ceremony on National Day by the famous painter Dong Xiwen, featuring Mao announcing the establishment of People’s Republic of China, went as far as having the Chairman announce “the establishment of ‘Big Rice Cooker’ (Da Fanguo)” instead of the People’s Republic.\(^\text{10}\)

These networked “risky” spoofs and spoofs in general have been in the centre of controversy from the very beginning. They received mostly favourable comments among young internet users. However, among established and traditional media, they have been criticized for “vulgarizing” popular culture or using “claptrap” simply to please the public (Lin, 2006).\(^\text{11}\)

Spoofs and other internet videos provide an outlet for people’s creativity and a new form of self-expression. To a certain extent, through ironic inversion of authority and the


classics, showing their viewers what is possible, they serve as a liberating force for the Chinese, who for many generation have been taught to respect order and follow trodden paths. Fifty years after the foundation of the new republic, Chinese people finally get a chance to turn to themselves for representation.

**User-created Content in China: Continuity and Change**

The present paper has charted the contours of the evolution of UCC in contemporary China. In half a century, popular expression in China has migrated from brick walls to electronic walls on the internet. The changes in form have also been accompanied by changes in content. While UCC in the pre-internet stage tended to be politically oriented, in the internet age, it is now more about fanfare and fun-making. Popular culture plays an ever more important role in public life. Rather than politics, the focus of user creation has turned to the self.

Socio-political metamorphosis and technological change have not only altered the conditions of media production, but also the contexts of circulation and reception. What remains the same in China is the need of users to have their voice heard and their voices expressed and represented, and the ambivalence of the CPC in treating these user creations. As Jenkins & Hartley (2008) argues, there is a history of user activism in the growth of user-created content and we shouldn’t erase the politics behind those struggles to prepare the way. By reclaiming the history of user-created content in China, and revisiting the vicissitude of the user’s fight for self-expression, we get a better understanding of why internet as a new public ‘commons’ has been quickly embraced,
adopted and widely diffused in China, and what might be possible if we participate in this emergent culture.

**The New Ti-yong Dilemma for CPC**

In the nineteenth century the concern to conserve Chinese values to guard against the “potentially corruptive effects” (Baark, 1997, p.196) in the application of advanced Western technology gave birth to the concept of *ti* (essence, or core values) and *yong* (means, or practical use): Chinese essence, Western means. This concept makes a clear separation between the technology itself and the morals and values that shape its impact, diffusion and use. The concept has underlain numerous efforts in introducing western technology, including railways, telegraphs and fax machines, and continues today to shape thought and development of the internet in China (Tsui, 2005), with adaptations.

If reformers and their antagonists in one and half centuries ago were concerned about the erosion of traditional Chinese values with the adoption of western technologies (Baark, 1997), the CPC today are more concerned about its grip on power. For the Party, *ti* is Party rule or Party values, and *yong* is all the means by which the Party rule can be strengthened. *Yong* is always expendable. When threatening or undermining *ti*, *yong* is always watered downed or removed. This concept was at work in the encouragement and ban of dazibao, and in the praising and condemning of “Democracy Wall”. However, for the Party, the line between *ti* and *yong* has not always been clear, and it has been the subject of much soul searching—indeed a redefinition of core Party values in the past fifty years. Hence the scrap of communes in 1960s, the removal of planned economic
system in the 1990s and the more tolerant media environment now. David Shambaugh, a political scientist at George Washington University, profiles the CPC as “adaptive, reflective and open, within limits” (cited in Yardley, 2008). This process of adaptation and reflection can be understood as the process of redefining of the Party essence and values, and the limits is its survival. Its openness is based on the confidence that being open on certain issues will boost rather than undermine its rule. Seen this way, the policies of the Party look more logical and predictable, the ambivalence of the Party toward the internet and networked UCC more understandable.

The internet as a way to bring about economic modernity and free up information flow can enhance the legitimacy of the Party and thus is a service to the Party rule. However, by undermining the Party’s privileged access to information, and providing a “generative” system (Zittrain, 2008), the internet has taken away a fundamental means of control, demonstrated huge possibilities, and become “inconvenient” to the rule of the Party in many ways (Baark, 1997, p.195).

In the ever more globalized world, the internet is no longer expendable, as was the case with dazibao and other channels of information sharing and distribution. The “Great Firewall” to rein in the internet to the advantage of the Party has proved to be largely a failed attempt. As Eric Baark argues, in China’s modernization process, excessive state control has been responsible for the failure to resolve the recurring dilemma of successfully pursuing modernizing reform under authoritarian auspices (Baark, 1997, p.190-191). The Party has experimented loosening its grip on the internet, trying to live
with the kind of criticism and ridicule the UCC habitually subject it to and co-opt the often recalcitrant internet (Hala, 2007), as long as these criticism and ridicule doesn’t changes the Party rule. The users know very well this hard-won, though fettered, freedom, and have been very careful looking after the commons that is the internet and have co-opted the sometimes authoritarian Party, in a way people outside China would not understand.

This has been a tacit agreement and a delicate balance. As Zheng Yongnian (2008, p.10) observes, the game between the state and society concerning the internet is not always a zero-sum one. It has not been one in China. With users turning to the self and forums becoming more vocal, to sustain the positive-sum game will put the wisdom of the Party to test. It will be ever harder than installing and dismantling “walls”.

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