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EDITORS' NOTE

Welcome to the second issue of Philosophy, Politics and Economics! PPE was first established at the University of Oxford as a major to focus on the fascinating and intellectual fruitful intersection between three key academic disciplines almost a hundred years ago. Since then, many PPE programs and majors have been established throughout the Western world. Through these programs, hundreds of students have been able to explore multiple academic disciplines without the often restrictive boundaries of administrative obstacles. With such freedom, scholars have been able to make many unique contributions to multiple fields thereby improving the quality of discourse in many academic settings.

Philosophy, Politics and Economics aims to bring this wonderful field to the entire world, especially to high school students around the world. For our second issue, we received 98 submissions, and after many long nights of reviews, discussions, and considerations, selected 12 that we thought best portrayed the combination of the three disciplines. Thank you, scholars, for submitting your work to us, and we hope the best for your future endeavors.

- Philosophy, Politics and Economics Editors

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Management Systems of Social Enterprises and For-Profit Companies

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Abstract

The choice of management for any enterprise is concerned with the soliciting of ways of addressing its needs and that of other stakeholders. Different setups need different management styles. Therefore, the best management system is one that addresses the challenges faced being faced including those of other members affiliated to the enterprise. There are varieties such as classic, transformational, participative and strong management strategies that can be applied. These terms can be used with social enterprises. However, the legal status of the enterprise could be fairly illogical. A social enterprise structure does not determine its incorporation as a for-profit or non-profit. There can be a hybrid structure where the two entities are linked. In some other settings, one is usually a subsidiary under the other. A board is usually important enhance efficiency in terms of operations just as is the case in a conventional business set up. Essentially, the board oversees compliance with regulations and policies and most importantly safeguards the mission of the organization as it meets the demands of all stakeholders. An internal social enterprise model is usually structured inside the main framework of a parent organization that is usually non-profit. The social enterprise is normally nested inside the structure of the management of the main organization. It usually shares physical space with a parent organization. A social enterprise can be established as a separate entity and could be for-profit or for non-profit. The operations of either case are conducted like those of traditional business settings save for the additional social and philanthropic function. It usually may not share physical space with a parent organization. A social enterprise model can also be set in a similar way as that of the parent organization, changing it into the main activity of the organization. In simple terms, there is usually no host or parent organization. There are usually no other aspects of administration indicating the presence of other activities. Management has to do with such processes and systems that guarantee effective direction, accountability and supervision of an entity. The management mechanisms bring a compromise of boards, systems

of monitoring and warning structures for maximum operations and benefits. Social enterprises have an objective of finding solutions to issues faced by societies through the use of scalable, innovative and self-sustainable structures.

Introduction

As social equality is getting more attention than ever, many companies including profit and non-profit companies are focusing on giving equal rights to the society and the employees. In the center of the attention social entrepreneurship is the trending, getting attention from the society and the companies. While the for profit company only focuses the company's effort on creating the most profit, social entrepreneurship has its root on an idea that any company regarding the category which it falls into should provide equal opportunity and equal right when operating the company. The way the social entrepreneurship gives positive affects to the world can be extremely various. Any company that helps the society in a positive way can be considered as a social entrepreneurship. However, a big question occurs on which type of company does social entrepreneurship falls into. The answer is quite simple. Social entrepreneurship can go into any type of company including for profit and non-profit companies. Social entrepreneurship can be categorized into three big categories: The internal model, separate entity model and the same entity model (Emerson & Twersky, 1996). The internal model is structured with the parent organization. Inside the parent organization, usually a non-profit company, social entrepreneurship is nested. For any purposes, the social entrepreneurship lies inside the parent organization. The separate entity model is quite separated. Although the social entrepreneurship has a parent organization, the entrepreneurship is structured as a separate entity. The parent company can be both for profit and non-profit. Since the social enterprise is counted as a separate entity, the actions of the social enterprise can be independent and separated from its parent company. The final model, known as the same entity model is quite different. There is no parent company or organization and the social enterprise is an entity itself. The social enterprise itself is the whole company and can be highly focused into the social entrepreneurship itself (Alter, 2007).

The theory of a Social Enterprise is often overlooked as a simple understanding of an organization that has both the vision of profit as well as non-profit goals. However, in practice, this can be seen as a very difficult task to achieve as just the saying of being both a for-profit and non-profit organization at the same time is contradictory. Therefore, the overarching purpose of this organization must be for the social or environmental benefit for it to be a social enterprise. If its primary purpose was for profit, then it would be considered a for-profit organization. For example, although Apple makes products such as iPhones, Mac Books, and other growing technologies for people to be able to better communicate with each other through social means, their primary goal is to make a profit as a growing business (McGregor, 1960). They may also make generous donations, but the majority of the reasoning behind it is to better their business's image to bring in more consumers. One might also argue that their technology still has brought tremendous changes in the century in communication and hands-on devices, but to counter argue, the majority of their consumers are higher-middle class to the wealthy leaving around 40% of people only in the United States who consider themselves lower-middle class or lower.

A true social enterprise's primary goal therefore, must be to benefit even or especially those remaining 40% of people.

One of the underlying major differences between social enterprises and for-profit organizations are the people that they work with and work for. For-profit organizations or businesses desire their employees to be quite intelligent, and therefore look upon specs and history to hire and also work for such people as well whatever their product is. Social enterprises also most likely look at people's history to see their capabilities, but this may not always be the case, or even the opposite. One of the leading types of social enterprises are those that work for homeless people. These organizations often times also hire the same group of people they work for, to work both as a social and environmental benefit for these people, but also so that the people who work for them can exemplify and be a model for their organization. Another example that might be less likely are social enterprises that try to benefit those specifically with a criminal background who are also less desirable in the work force, even more so than the homeless. An important thing to note is that these organizations do not simply give out jobs or help these targeted groups of people, but rather help them by recovering so that these people can eventually stand on their own which often times has a longer lasting impact than say a one-time donation to these people. The groups of people worked with and for can be extremely different between these two types of organizations so in turn, their management systems will also vary and be affected by it (Perrow, 1972).

Social enterprises that use an internal model management system often times will share the same vision, finance, resources, and etc. as their parent organization. This is the most common form of social enterprise because it's easy to achieve as it is safe. It works a bit differently from how a parasite uses its host to leech resources, where both the parent organization and social enterprise work together sharing resources to achieve a goal. Many times, the parent organization will be a non-profit organization (although not always) and the social enterprise will help their vision through for-profit organizational means. Whether it's by supplying resources to make a profit or by generating income through other means, the primary goal will always be to achieve the parent organization's goals (Mak & Kusnadi, 2005).

Unlike the internal model management system, the separate entity model as implied leaves the social enterprise as a separate entity from their parent organization. In this model, the parent organization would be more of a partner organization, both maybe having separate visions, but working together on a big project to meet the demands of a social enterprise. Staff, office, space, and other resources may also be shared in this model much like the internal model. However, the shared resources are seen as a business stand point and legally, these resources are seen as separate entities belonging to two different organizations (Conyon & Peck, 1998).

The same entity model is the hardest to achieve as a social enterprise. As stated earlier, it's quite contradictory to be a for-profit organization and a non-profit organization simultaneously as the primary goal as implied will be one or the other. There is no delineation between resources as functionally there is only one organization: the social enterprise. So although the name same entity model implies that the social enterprise and the parent or host organization be the same organization, there is but one organization with one vision that owns and uses all of its resources.

As mentioned earlier, many businesses and organizations try to promote social equality. Diversity has become a huge consideration in the building of a work force not only between races, but even in gender differences. Although the leaders in society's work force are male dominant, America unlike other countries as seen a merge in statistics in diversity. However, one of the most difficult gaps to merge is the different classes of income level. They say the rich becomes richer and the poor becomes poorer and is statistically proven even today. The competition for work has only gone up which makes it even harder for the poor to rise to the top. Most social enterprises work for the benefit of these groups as should be their primary vision. However, these social enterprises' function in society can differ from building a work force that creates a self-sustaining organization, to providing necessary tools and resources for these people to be able to sustain themselves. The varying roles these social enterprises often need different flexible management systems to fulfill the needs of each enterprise.

The Social Enterprise Management Approach

Social enterprises are founded on the philosophy of creating social value along with economic value. A part of the strategy employed by the well-established companies is to deal with social issues and seek a better way of understanding the environment in which operations are carried out. Equally, a big number of the civil society organization endeavors to acquire new skills of management that will make them able to enhance social development performance (Weiss, 2008). For the building and development of social enterprises, the understanding and continued practice of leadership are important for the long-term success of organizations. The management strategy includes a plan of dealing with challenges that arise together with a constant balancing effort to safeguard the social mission while endeavoring for commercial growth and success. Other aspects include addressing the issues of volunteer and paid staff combination in the organization and the increased expectations from various stakeholders concerning their accountability, integrity and openness for participation of all (Hofstede, 1981).

There is definitely a huge difference between social entrepreneurs based on demographic factors such as gender education and age. However, the leadership style is all the same. There are founded on core leadership aspects of ethics, transformation and empowerment. Ethical leadership is defined through leaders that can be trusted and serve as ethical role models and enforce well laid-out basics for ethical behavior among the followers and again conduct their individual life in a manner that is ethical. Employee management is one of the core interests of ethical leaders. Most importantly, the leadership is keen in bringing a transformation to the followers through the vision. The management seeks to stimulate everyone to challenge themselves and think critically while bring them together to a common goal and vision supported by same core values. Empowerment comes with aspects of promoting independent action, employee self-development and mutually set performance goals and is vital in unleashing the creativity, engagement and potential of the followers (Doherty et al., 2009).

The social enterprises have various objectives and desired outcomes. All the same, they are not resistant against the demands made by the funding organs and regulators to have a greater accountability for the financing they get. Actually, it is a vital matter for the social-enterprise operators as it is related to one of their main strategy of management: the ceaseless

availability of suitable funding. Management through self-regulation is a very important aspect in the social enterprise sector. The quickly increasing social enterprises and NGOs have had a lot of influence and therefore have become important players in the society, which stresses accountability and responsibility. The success of social enterprises in changing both national and global policy has led other agents such as unions, companies, governments and public opinion to question the legitimacy of their existence.

Management of For-Profit Companies

Companies usually have a framework of procedures and processes used to ensure that they fulfill all needed tasks for the achievement of the laid-down objectives. For example, an environmental system of management enables for-profit companies to enhance their environmental performance by a process of continuous development and improvement. There are a list of areas that for-profit companies conduct their management roles and that includes in the areas of quality, customers, employees, safety, finance, sales and many others. Evidently, for-profit companies have more management duties than the social enterprises. For-profit companies also take up a social role in an effort of marketing its products and services to the society (Di Domenico, Haugh, & Tracey, 2010).

Quality management lays an emphasis on the savings and extra revenue that companies can realize if they do away with errors all through their operations and generate services and goods at an optimized quality level desired through their customers. Errors can be of various forms – for instance, generating the wrong number of products, releasing bank statements to customers even after having closed their accounts or even sending an incorrect bill to a particular client (Mason, Kirkbride & Bryde, 2007). While these mistakes are common, their repetition could lead to increased operation costs. Therefore, managing this situation increases the bottom line of a company in a significant way.

For-profit companies endeavor to balance between pressing operational issues and lasting strategic priorities. The tension is very important: world-class procedures and processes won't amount to success without the correct strategic direction and the most suitable strategy in the universe will have no impact without the best operations to execute it. Therefore, successful for-profit companies endeavor to effectively manage both operations and strategy by connecting them firmly in a closed-loop system of management. The management system includes five stages starting with strategic development that comes from the vision, mission and value statements of the company and again from an assessment of its weaknesses, strengths and competitive environment. In the next level, managers translate the already stated strategy into initiatives and objectives with strategy maps that organize objectives through themes and balanced scorecards, which connect objectives to metrics of performance. The third stage has to do with the creation of operational plans to achieve the initiatives and objectives. It takes into account targeting process developments and the preparation of sales, capacity plans and resources along with dynamic budgets. Managers then act upon these plans, assessing their effectiveness in the fourth stage. They review environmental, operational and competitive data – evaluate progress and point out barriers to the execution. Lastly, managers test the strategy, making an analysis of cost, correlations and profitability between performance and strategy.

Strategies are then updated when the underlying assumptions made turn out to be faulty and starts another loop all over again (Conger & Lawler III, 2001).

The tools established for the business performance system of any company enables the management to see, prioritize and pursue continuous improvement on a daily routine. The case may be different for social enterprises whose mandate mainly has to do with managing the resources provided by partners. On the contrary, unit leaders in for-profit companies have a well-structured management system of reporting to reduce any form of variation in their styles of management. All heads of departments follow a give leadership standard work and their day-to-day work is consistently aligned with the company and system strategy. For-profit companies usually have clear and robust criteria to choose team participants leading any change. Most importantly, leaders do so by examples and manage together with the team. Making profits and engaging in measures that are sustainable from time to time is very important to for-profit companies. Therefore, all levels of organization are tied to performing activities that direct the flow of either services or goods into the market. The management of for-profit companies is mainly assessed on performance to facilitate the making of decisions both for the present and in the future.

The management of social entrepreneurs needs a continuous identification and resolution of conflicts that may arise. In any form of organization, conflicts cannot be avoided. In the anticipation of such conflicts, the social enterprises along with their boards must develop rules and policies for the manner of addressing and dealing with any form of conflicts of interests that may come up. As a matter of practice, all looming conflicts of interest must be surfaced and discussed. In most cases, conflicts may result from the board members with an objective of getting financial gains from their involvement in the board. This is more in particular in the event that a board member has an expertise that may be needed by the social enterprise such as accounting or marketing services. Other gains could also come without financial attachments when a family member gets hired through the social enterprise or some family member becomes a beneficiary the enterprise hence influencing the operations to attain personal own interests.

In social entrepreneurships, there usually are competing loyalties and obligations such as the boarder member serving on two organizations that apparently compete in a given market or maybe the social enterprise forms part of an oversight body or regulatory board of the government. Dealing with conflicts of interests will require all members of the management board to declare any conflicts with a potential to arise. When people are conflicted in any way, they should be taken out of the process of making a decision. Conflicts along with other benefits, whether direct or indirect should be disclosed in the reports prepared on an annual basis. Among the major characteristics of any social enterprise is its strategic and financial management through various people representatives of the society and not merely one sole person. Therefore, in most cases, there should be at least three directors who are not related in any way. The social enterprise should primarily have few employed directors except in a case where the organization is a cooperative (Paton, 2003).

The board of directors has a very important responsibility to do including having a legal responsibility for the general management of the social enterprise firm. Such responsibilities include but not limited to having contractual obligations, oversight on employment law,

environmental law, health and safety, protecting data and safeguarding duties. The defining duty of these directors is to ensure that the social objects in the Articles of Association are strictly followed to make sure that they are strictly followed enhancing good practice and that the social obligations of the enterprise are met in the proper manner. Additionally as required by the law, they are supposed to exercise control with due diligence according to the responsibilities of the directors.

Everyone in the social enterprise in the governing board has a role to play in developing the social enterprise. All should help in determining the vision and mission of the organization, engage in strategic planning, assessing and monitoring the plan of the business, ensuring the formulation of procedures and policies, ensuring that financial resources are adequate, offering effective oversight on financial matters and making sure that there is a good risk management process in place. Moreover, choosing, supporting as well as appraising the senior manager should be exercised by the board team members and defining the connection between the staff and the board. It is also within their scope of responsibilities to enhance the public image of the organization, choose and induct other members to the board and conduct a skills matrix of the board as well as conducting important training. These are some of the most important functions in the top-management level of the social enterprise. An effective implementation of these requirements will lead into a successful realization of the primary goal of the enterprise.

Important Management Aspects of Social Enterprises

Improving the effectiveness of social enterprises, particularly in harsh economic times, board members and senior executives should first establish the up-to date performance of the organization. Therefore, performance measurement is largely needed in realizing the mission and vision of the enterprise. Social enterprise managers and leaders must make use of the performance measurement of the organization to develop the ability of the organization in delivering its mission. The focus should be on striving to make the company excel in any kind of economy. Successful social enterprise organizations and networks are realized in the implementation process accounting for about 80% of organizational culture and 20% by way of technology. However, failures could be realized in the latter while rolling out technology without managing the behavioral changes of the people.

Communication is very important in effecting the desired changes within a social enterprise organization. Therefore, the management should communicate the vision and purpose and support needed for the transformation in the social organization. For instance, technology is not merely a potentially changing task process but rather changing the manner in which people get to interact with each other and most importantly the manner in which they work throughout their whole careers. Work culture change should be effectively managed making everything clear and unambiguous for all. In a nutshell, there should be communication on the vision, the mandate and benefits of any proposed changes for implementation. The transformation should be supported by identifying the roles of community managers, team leaders and SME's among other stakeholders (Meadows & Pike, 2010). Other means come by conducting training on the way of using the tools alongside procedures and most significantly, re-asses to change things that are probably not working. Enterprise social analytics are useful

in tracking change management activities in terms of their efficiency.

Secondly after communication, another mistake done in the management of social enterprises is running them like projects and not products. Engaging vendors, coming up with functional needs, starting the project with less consultation from different business areas, building, evaluating and consequently going live is usually very tricky. There is a high chance that the management will embark on the next project after that. This presents a big problem in the enterprise social implementation because it gets run as if it was a project. Unlike in other program implementation efforts, social enterprises projects should only be a small activity when put in comparison with the continuing adoption, use and extraction of value. The moment should be kept going with or without activities (Defourny & Nyssens, 2007).

It is therefore important to launch a social enterprise network in a manner that will retain its momentum of activity goes together with an application of feedback. The input of the community managers should be felt and analyzed in terms of behavior and use and continue realigning activities that are aimed at supporting the goals of the enterprise. The community management should be part of the roles of the people and add key performance indicators to drive organizational success (Kytte & Ruggie, 2005).

Thirdly, organizations tend to miss out on the strategy. When social enterprises do not have a clear strategy, they are bound to fail. It is important to always have a strong set of requirements and tools. This should be accompanied with vivid set of desired outcomes or what the organization desires to achieve. This is important in getting actual determinants of success. While enhancing communication, collaboration and the sharing of knowledge are important in a social enterprise, organizations should be somewhat particular on the mission it is carrying out. This helps a lot in knowing when success has been achieved. Any deployments of projects without clear-cut plans are bound to cause failure. It is always important to come up with a number of organizational goals that are specific and somehow measurable. It could be an increased employee engagement and the scores of satisfaction in the annual survey and increasing the retention of staff by more than 20% in a year or something else (Op't Land et al., 2008). The moment these high level objectives have been attained, the focus should be shifted to more departmental goals or team based objectives.

Research on matters related to social entrepreneurship, particularly on management falls behind practice despite having found increased interest in the area of policymaking. The various aspects applied through the literature are usually not well-defined and can take on various meanings with little agreement attained by scholars. The entire concept has different meanings to different people and there is no an outstanding explanation on where to point it out and how social enterprises can be qualified. This is indeed a blurring idea as applied in academic literature covering a wide range of initiatives and activities that form part of a certain continuum that includes non-conventional activities on entrepreneurship speaking in general terms. The activities are not necessarily finalized towards production or meant to be stable all through, starting from social initiatives taking place in for profit companies, institutionalized bodies explicitly taking on social relations, goals and practices that amount to social benefits, entrepreneurial developments in not-for-profit firms including ventures established within the public sector.

Activities of this nature can be carried out by people and such organizations as listed. However, the main social enterprise features have an objective of shaping models of governance to enhance the extents to which the participation of democratic management and stakeholders contribute to the inclusion of strategic community decisions by participatory mechanisms. These aspects can lead to the pursuit of the goals through the organization as such and those of the people involved consistently making way for the enhancement of performance based on efficiency and effectiveness. The pursuit of building structures and systems upon which the social enterprises are built upon should be the primary goal of all seeking to manage the affairs of such operations. While management is different from that of common business organization, order and efficiency are significant in making them viable products and not just organizations working on projects after another (Sachs, Post & Preston, 2002).

Creating Governance in Social Enterprises

Governance in social enterprises is not far from the management of the systems. Governance can ensure effectiveness, direction, accountability, and supervision in the organization. Governance can be created through the use of governance machines such as monitoring systems, governing boards, and signaling mechanisms like codes of conduct or reporting. In order to create governance, boards have to be created within social enterprises. The boards are used to address the pressing problems that are faced by the enterprises. They employ self-sustainable, scalable, and innovative business models. The models balance the social impact and the financial responsibilities among the different stakeholder groups such as regulators, employee, investors, beneficiaries, and clients. Complex trade-offs can also be managed by the leaders of social enterprise. Therefore, it is the duty of the social enterprises to select well- managed and designed boards that can help the enterprise to reach its goals (Spear, Cornforth & Aiken, 2009).

The key to overseeing compliance with regulations and policies is governance. It can also help to safeguard the mission of the organization when appropriate thoughts and efforts are not invested while creating a well-functioning board. In this, a governing board can help a social enterprise to strengthen its leadership and to ensure the success of the organization. In social enterprises, governing boards can help organizations to achieve their mission and vision through the provision of strategic expertise and support. A lack of in-house expertise or competencies can also be compensated by the organizations that manage their social enterprise systems. The governing board can provide access to networks. It can help the members to open valuable doors to other networks. Some of these can be achieved through the recruitment of highly talented employees, advocacies, and fundraising (Young, 2001).

Social enterprises need to be managed with legacy and vision. A well-established board should encompass aspects that aid in empowering the selected individuals. Guiding through every activity is the role of the board members. This means that the management systems should be succeeded by the vision of the enterprise. These acts require aspects which are beyond the management team or the founder of the organization for the enterprise to be successful. The governing board is an important part of a social enterprise. It is used to manage the systems of the social enterprise in a manner which is credible. Therefore, the board signals credibility to

the stakeholders in the external environment. Some of these include; contractors, customers, and investors. All these individuals can trust the organization if it has well-regarded board members.

Peattie and Morley note that governance in a social enterprise is created in order to manage the systems of the organization (2008). However, many wonder how the boards evolve over the lifespan of the enterprise. In this, the answer is simple. All social enterprises do not require single governance for the activities to succeed. Therefore, the governing board should be dynamic to the needs of the organization which change over time. It should also be tailored to the organization which it serves. The governance structures should be modified and evaluated by the social enterprises in a regular manner. However, this cannot be evident at all times apart from the instances when the next lifecycle stage is reached by the enterprise. The social enterprises can also modify the governance structures during circumstances when changes occur to the legal structure of the enterprise. In cases where the financial structure of the enterprise changes, the governance structures can be modified. However, the financial structure must relate to the shareholder base for the change to be effective. The external environment can change as a result of new regulations from the government. If the founder of the social enterprise steps down, it is guaranteed that changes in the governance structure will be evident.

Choosing the Right Governance in Social Enterprises

In efforts to manage systems in social enterprises, the right governance needs to be chosen. Social enterprises cannot encompass a single size. Organizational factors such as complexity, size, and maturity influence the optimal structure which is optimum. To create a well governance structure, various considerations must be put in place. For instance, governance in a social enterprise needs to encompass a single governing board which can either be a two-tier or a one-tier. The one-single tier comprises of the external non-executive members and the management team in the Anglo-Saxon countries such as the UK and USA. In short, the system reflects a board of directors. In the two-tier system, the supervisory board and the management board are in parallel and are evident in continental Europe (Cornforth, 2003).

The management of social enterprises requires the use of several boards, depending on the state in question. As noted, some countries require the two-tier system of governance while others require the one-tier system of governance. Social enterprises that expand into new markets require some considerations for them to operate in effective manner. The centralized condition of these structures usually coordinates depending on the operational alignment and strategy. Social enterprises that require a centralized approach on top of a scale may be prompted to use the vertical governance approach which limits their autonomy for growth and empowers their differentiation and decision-making as affirmed by Borzaga & Defourny, (2004).

However, some social enterprises require several boards in order to operate. These boards can coordinate and align by ensuring that all the boards use a reporting template which is uniform across all entities. They must also ensure that one representative from each board participates in a meeting that is held annually. They should also encourage transparency while

creating positive competitive pressures and in the case of transparent metrics. This issue should also be evident in shared enterprise practices and goals (Nyssens, 2007).

Managing systems in social enterprises can be translated differently by different people. In short, some organizations establish board committees in efforts to delegate the ongoing functions. Once the functions are over, the boards are dismantled. Other organizations need the boards to keep working in the other functions of the business. They are also required to leverage the capabilities of the members across all segments of the organization. In cases where the boards are dismantled, the previous committees, those that held the different positions in the organization, are burdened with extra work and find it difficult to create specific work streams within the organization. In addition, they may also lack the specific skills for specific activities. For example a governing board that deals with finance and auditing can find it difficult to deal with other matters in the organization that are far from finance and auditing (Moore, 2000).

Organizations need to choose the right governance to ensure that all its activities are in place. In this, the committees in the organization should have a task purpose which should be dedicated to the proposed members. The finance experts should deal with the preparation of the annual budget, scrutinize major capital expenditures, and review performance in accordance with the budget. The finance experts can also deal with investment. In this, they can oversee and appoint investment and offer advice on the investment strategies. The auditing experts should review the adequacy of internal control systems and oversee the annual audit (Korten, 1998). They can also oversee risk management activities and the accuracy of the financial reports and statements. Legal experts need to check compliance with the agreed areas of law and the significant structures that deal with breaches and deals. The fundraising strategy can be confirmed by fundraising experts. In this, they can contribute to contacts and ideas that help to provide oversight and governance in the various activities that deal with fundraising. The board members should have fundraising skills and a wide network in order to perform all activities in the best way.

The Right Size of a Management Board

A governing board can be whichever size depending on the number of employees or the size of the organization. It is apparent that small organizations have few numbers of members while the huge ones have many members. The large boards create coordination and more administrative effort to the social enterprise. They also foresee the danger of a downturn or losses which could be experienced in the organization. With the large boards, the danger of inefficiencies in the activities of the social enterprise would be reduced because each of the employees will be monitored. This is due to the affirmation that some employees tend to ride on the efforts of others (Bagnoli & Megali, 2009).

Businesses in the small organizations tend to have smaller boards, especially in the for-profit enterprises. The non-profit enterprises have larger numbers of members because they deal with a diverse network. Large boards in the US are granted to the social enterprises that encompass donors. This is due to the fact that the boards contribute to fundraising. On the other hand, for-profit organizations have small members of the governing board in order to stay manageable. Research depicts that the boards have small numbers in order to be effective

and to create influence in the issue of organizational performance (Hillary, 2000). The decision-making process is believed to be favorable when an uneven number of members are presented to the governing board.

In order to manage systems of social enterprises, the right board members must be recruited. The recruitment process takes significant steps, each of which creates efficiency in the process. Some social enterprises in the past days created early-stage boards in order to build their friends and family. In the present day, the board members are people who have the potential to run the organization in the best way, on top of encompassing the relevant skills, reputation, and representation. Selecting family and friends can have a disadvantage to the social enterprise since many of the activities may not be performed in the required manner. Individuals with expertise help to provide strategic oversight and guidance because they encompass the relevant skills (Austin et al., 2006).

Social enterprises require recommendations from foundations, investors, and other social enterprises in order to search for capable board members. They can also search through intermediary platforms such as bridgestar.com, among others. The social enterprises can identify, research, and reach out for people with passion or expertise for the cause. Attending networking events can also help an enterprise to obtain or ask intermediaries for support. In these events, the social enterprises should look for individuals who have worked with other organizations to provide excellent results in their specific fields. The social enterprises should also align with social and financial objectives to ensure that the funds of the enterprise do not disappear in unprecedented ways (Kaplan, 2001). The management systems of social enterprises can, therefore, be effective if the right personnel or the board members are selected for the various positions in the organization.

Conclusion

The management of social enterprises depends on a number of considerations, as noted. The needs of all the stakeholders must be addressed for the system to be effective. In this, different management styles are required, as well as different set ups. Even though some challenges are evident in this field, the social enterprises should aim at choosing the varieties which are transformational and those which encompass strong management strategies. A board should be available for any social enterprise to succeed. The governing board must have the relevant skills. Therefore, an organization needs to enhance its activities through the selection of capable board members. Potential members help to regulate the demands of the organization in an appropriate manner. In short, a separate entity must be established for the for-profit and non-profit organizations.

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Consciousness

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Consciousness

Consciousness refers to a person's awareness about his or her unique memories, thoughts, sensations, feelings, and environment. The conscious experiences of a person are constantly changing and shifting. For example, a person maybe having a conversation with a friend then his consciousness shifts to a storybook he read about the same topic they are discussing with the friend. Next, it may shift to the evening dinner he plans to have with the girlfriend. These streams of thought keep changing between various events but a person's experiences remains effortless and smooth.

In brain philosophy, consciousness was one of the first topics to be discussed by the psychologists (Bennett, 2007). Consciousness sensations, experiences, and thoughts were analyzed and reported by the process referred to as the introspection. Some psychologist such as William James, the American psychologist, stated that consciousness was like a stream; it is continuous and unbroken despite the constant changes and shifts.

Philosophical issues about consciousness

The Problem

It has been a problem explaining the state of consciousness concerning neurological basis. The sensation that a person gets when in pain is not easy to explain why it must be the sensation for pain and not any other sensation. On the other hand, couldn't pain exist without any sensation? The term consciousness itself has a variety of uses and has been used to control behavior, report information this is a question that has experienced failure on both the side of having an answer and the materials to get an answer (Knobe, & Nichols, 2014). Nobody seems to have the answer or the tools to answer this question. There are various perspectives that try

to offer solutions to this dilemma:

- *Eliminativism* - this one tries to avoid the problem by stating that the sensations do not exist so there is no problem to be discussed.
- *Philosophical deflationism* - this perspective acknowledges the existence of consciousness but shows no commitment to the idea. It analyzes consciousness in non-phenomenal terms such as cognitive, representational, functional, and behavioral.
- *Phenomenal realism* - this is the perspective that explains consciousness as a substantial property, which would not be conceptually reduced. The concept of pain can therefore not be analyzed in terms of some behaviors.
- *Dualistic naturalism* - the perspective states that naturally, there are deeper levels in which reality can be explained. The sensation of pain is believed to exist and is accompanied by certain types of behaviors.

The place of nature in the natural world

The ways consciousness fits into the natural world is characterized by some kind of uneasiness. Natural world has the conception of being physical; this makes it difficult to conceive consciousness as being part of it (Robinson, 2008). This means that for anyone to find how these two may fit into each other then the conception of one of them must be revised and find out where the other might fit in. Consciousness is a phenomenon of the brain and the problem lies on how to configure brain to the physical world. The solution lies in the fact that mentality could have the same characteristics of neutral substance or physical substance. The problem mentioned above shows that physical process such as those of the brain are closely related to the experiences people have in their lives (Ellis, & Newton, 2010). The experiences people go through are a result of physical processes that happens in systems such as the brain.

Attention and consciousness

There is a close relation between the concept of consciousness and attention. Neurophysiologic scientists have had some challenging questions regarding the issue of attention and consciousness (“history of science,” 2012). Some of the questions asked by the researchers are; is possible to be conscious of any object without attending to it? Is it possible to attend to objects, which are suppressed consciously? Between the two, it seems easier to define attention than consciousness. Being able to describe a face without being conscious to it means that it is possible to attend to something or someone even when you are not conscious about it.

For one to be conscious to anything, he or she has to attend to it. This means that it is tricky to attend to anything without attention (Bor, 2012). Consciousness involves being aware of something but goes further to include the content and feelings of the awareness. Attention involves vigilance, a person would always try to detect a signal whenever paying attention. Attention also involves search whereby a person would be looking for certain features in the environment. Distracters, which try to destruct a person’s attention from what he or she is searching for, are also considered in attention. This leads to the concept of selective attention. One must ignore all other features and distracters in order to focus on specific object or stimuli.

Attention is more controllable and active than consciousness. The conscious part of the brain seems to be receiving information from the outside world and then working on them. In selective attention, a person is involved in the processes of attending to some events while ignoring others (Menon, 2013). In consciousness, a person is able to talk about the things he had attended to. These are the things he focused on and ignored others, it therefore follows that there is a very close relationship between consciousness and selective attention.

Suggestion, Suggestibility and Hypnosis

Suggestibility refers to the extent an individual is willing to accept suggestions from people. The higher the suggestibility, the greater the effect of those suggestions on how the person would perceive reality. Suggestibility depends on the state of mind of a person. Hypnosis refers to the altered state of a person's consciousness and can enable a person reach higher suggestibility levels (Gennaro, 2012). These alterations can cause great effect to an individual including amnesia, hallucinations, and anesthesia. When a person is at the top of suggestibility then it is said the person is in hypnosis.

Suggestions have the power to influence a person's decision. Sigmund Freud had stated that suggestion is the result of group psychology and that people are compelled to follow what the group has said or suggested. When a person receives suggestion from other people, he has time to communicate with his inner subconscious being to try to find out which of the suggestions would be good. In adults, people perceive each other differently depending with what has been suggested over time therefore building and strengthening societal stereotypes. It is a wide-spread behavior to typecast a person based on factors such as their sexual orientation or even race yet one has not had a first-hand experience but ends up form conceptions on about the person, society, tribe or even race.

Impact of Meditation and Yoga on Mindfulness and Consciousness

Practicing yoga increases a person's mindfulness. The practices affect all aspects of consciousness enabling a person to be more aware of them and be able to create connection with the people around them (Mind & McHugh, 2006). After a short period of meditation and Yoga lessons, an individual would show improved changes in their emotional and physical consciousness. These improvements increase with time until a person has achieved a complete self-awareness. Consciousness involves a person's wellbeing and the practice of yoga or meditation promotes both the mental and physical wellbeing of an individual.

When one is involved in regular yoga sessions, he would experience improved aspects in his or her quality of life and cognition. Brings the feeling of happiness and enthusiasm to face life positively (In Smith, & In Whitaker, 2014). The effects of meditation are functions of the cognitive-attention processes, which are involved during yoga or mediation sessions. Studies have also shown that people who have been in involved in the mediation exercise for long scores high when it comes to activities that required attention. Mediation enables people to have higher sustained, executive, and selective attention.

Mediation is sometimes regarded as one of the states of human consciousness. All the five senses are involved whenever someone is experiencing the environment awake. These

experiences at the end of the day make people so tired that they need a good rest. Deep sleep is considered by many as the time when the brain is resting. The truth is that the brain only rest during the deep sleep. All other times at least one sense is at work. Therefore, there is need to reach higher levels of consciousness and meditation would make it better.

Meditation prevents stress from entering persons system and the stress already the body is taken out by meditation process (Globus, Maxwell, & Savodnik, 2013). Meditation increases a person's consciousness and enables people to drop negative emotions. When consciousness is in such state, a person is strong enough to face the problems and challenges of life. The person would even know how to handle things that disappoint anger or disturb them in their lives. When one reaches the highest level of consciousness, then everything else becomes simple, but one must take steps to reach the top and meditation and Yoga are the best means of reaching the top.

Daydreaming and Consciousness

Consciousness is important to humans because it connects them to the external world. When one closes his eyes, he shuts out the external reality and experiences the internal reality. In some cases, a person may find himself daydreaming because they have lost touch with the external reality (Jaworski, 2011). Daydreaming is an alternative consciousness and could be so real that one may be confused to differentiate between reality and daydreaming.

Daydreaming is the easiest way to experience an alternative consciousness. Through it, one can move himself to any place he wishes to be anyway and anytime. When one stops, the imagination it never means that imagination was not real, but just that the image is no longer there. Daydreaming and relaxing may help a brain to reduce the enormous power taken by sensory perception (Bunge, & Ardila, 2007). When one sets his mind on the desire, he or she wishes to achieve, he can let himself wander away and with time the mind strengthens and bring the desired image to the daydreamer

Consciousness and Intentionality

Physicalism

Metaphysical doctrine explains that everything that exists is physical in some way. This paper discusses the doctrine both in reductive and non-reductive form. The reductive Physicalism explains that mental realm exists in physical form although it cannot be seen together with other physical aspects of the world (Bennett, 2007). The non-reductive Physicalism states that although the mind is physical, its full appeal cannot be captured by looking only at his physical properties. Through representationality, the intentionality is shown by accounting for the mind as being physical and then the consciousness function is accommodated into the physical framework.

Other group of psychologists, phenomenalist, commit to discussing the mind in the non-reductive form. They explain intentionality by basing their arguments on the consciousness functionality of the brain and not on the physical aspects. The doctrine of Physicalism has shown how intentionality and consciousness have physical aspects with them.

Representationalism

This doctrine views consciousness in terms of the intentional structure. The reductive Representationalism seeks to identify the phenomenal properties of objects and events. Humans while explaining their experiences always inspect the properties of the event or the object, which was experienced (Cavanna, & Nani, 2014). This therefore means that the human phenomenology is representational and looks at objects as having certain properties or being in particular way.

Phenomenalist

This doctrine explains that intentionality is ultimately rooted to consciousness. Phenomenalism is different from the Representationalism as it does not consider consciousness to exist on its own and does not accord much seriousness as the former (Dietrich, 2009). Another difference that exists between Phenomenalism and Representationalism is that the phenomenalist seeks to expand narrowness towards the realms of intentionality while the representationalists seek to expand externalism towards the realms of Phenomenalism.

To achieve the expansion of narrowness they have first the reductive view of intentionality cannot be considered as consciousness (Weber, & Weekes, 2009). They therefore believe that the problems associated with intentionality would never be associated or related to consciousness. The phenomenologists have therefore worked differently from the reductive representationalists and have instead supported the works of phenomenal intentionality.

Consciousness and Materialism

Knowledge Argument

The doctrine states that physical knowledge of something or somebody does not necessarily mean that a person has the knowledge of consciousness. The formulation done by Frank Jackson showed that the girl (Mary), who was brought up in a black and white room had the physical knowledge of what the red color is but since she had not experienced the red color, she did not know how red looks like or how it feels to experience the color (Irvine, 2012). The girl therefore had all the physical knowledge about red but had never experienced it so she was not conscious of the red color. It therefore means that not all facts about the red color are physical.

Conceivability argument and the zombies

Zombies are considered, as the duplicate of the normal conscious human beings. They are also physical and can be conceived but are not conscious. The general argument is that zombies can be conceived but are not conscious. Materialism states that only matter and its movement exist, but the existence and conceivability of the zombies proves that materialism is false.

Qualia and Materialism

Qualia is the term used to refer to the information and symbols that the brain uses to represent experiences according to how they perceive them. Qualia therefore form part of the processes that take place in the mind of a human being (In Sytsma, 2014). Feelings and experiences have non-physical qualities and are irreducibly subjective. Materialism therefore is once again said to be non-existent and false. The process discredits materialism and has been described by some scientists as the end of materialism in philosophy.

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Social Entrepreneurship Program by Goods for Good

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Abstract

“Goods for Good” is a social enterprise built on the premise that it is better to teach someone to fish than to give them a fish: the former creates empowerment, while the latter perpetuates a dependent condition. Founded by Melissa Kushner in 2006, “Goods for Good” works with desperately poor communities in Malawi, a small southern African country ravaged by poverty and the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The organization partners with community centers in Malawi, helping to provide care for orphans by founding and running microenterprises such as poultry farms. The philanthropic activities funded by Goods for Good include healthcare, education, and room and board for tens of thousands of Malawian orphans. Poultry farms are a good fit for Malawi because of a strong local demand, and because the organization has a very cost-effective model. The businesses become financially independent very quickly, within two years, and by the end of the third year they are operationally independent as well. The profits from the poultry farms are divided amongst the farms themselves and the philanthropic activities of Goods for Good. What Goods for Good has perfected is a model of social entrepreneurship in which they promote the empowerment of local economies even as they care for local orphans.

Introduction

Charity for the nations in the “developing world” has practically become a byword for compassion fatigue: the need seems endless and insoluble, an indelible characteristic of countries with exotic names, impoverished populations, and children dying of hunger and disease. In truth, many people in the developing world are laboring heroically to address and solve the needs of their impoverished societies, but are often hampered by a lack of resources. A charitable organization called Goods for Good is seeking to rectify this with a revolutionary new approach – to use charitable donations to found enterprises that will help local communities to combat poverty and provide care for orphans (Blatter, 2013). By combining the best features of

business and charity into an effective model of social enterprise, Goods for Good is providing some of the most impoverished and vulnerable communities in the world with very real, tangible means to solve their problems. Malawi is an African nation where Goods for Goods has made notable progress.

Background Information

The southern African nation of Malawi is hailed by a host of economic and societal ills, particularly extreme poverty, hunger, and an HIV/AIDS epidemic that has left one million children orphans out of a population of 14 million. For many denizens of high-income nations, it may sound like a familiar story of “Third World” poverty and misery, a seemingly intractable and interminable condition from which Malawi can scarcely hope to escape, but the reality is quite a bit more complex. A great number of Malawians have taken up the struggle to improve conditions in their stricken nation, providing care for the country’s large orphan population in village community centers, but they face the basic problem of a lack of resources (Kushner, 2013). However, this has begun to change, thanks to an organization that has taken an innovative approach to supporting the heroic efforts of the people of Malawi: Goods for Good.

Intervention through Social Entrepreneurship

“Goods for Good” is a social enterprise, a charity that operates like a business—or a business that operates for charitable ends. The organization was founded by Melissa Kushner from New Jersey, who traveled to Malawi in 2006 and spoke with local leaders who were working to offer care for the many children orphaned by HIV/AIDS, and to end the cycles of poverty that have kept Malawians deprived for so long (Kushner, 2012). The idea is elegantly simple: create businesses for the purposes of supporting charitable ends, such as caring for Malawi’s orphans and helping the communities to generate revenue. Unlike conventional businesses, which generate profit for their owners, the profits generated by Goods For Good are used to purchase school supplies, and the businesses themselves also serve the purpose of keeping adults employed (Goods For Good, 2014).

Engagement through Partnerships

Building partnerships has been very useful in promoting the success of Goods for Good though with some challenges despite being established to produce a bigger social impact. All the same, the role of these partnerships is very important to the activities. “Goods for Good” organization is endeavoring to realize innovative solutions to the problems of the Malawian society through these partnerships and by using under-utilized resources to address the needs of the orphans. The objectives are being met through joint work with the leaders and through other partnership forms (Blatter, 2013). Obviously, however, there are a number of challenges to being a social entrepreneur taking into account political and cultural traditions even though the step towards partnerships between the private, public and the third sectors can assist in creating a very supportive environment. Additionally, the organization has gathered resources and developed others by relocating the available ones and getting others from potential stakeholders in the community and other partnerships. This is important to supplement the

limited resources of the organization.

In any engagement particularly in an urban partnership of regeneration, the perceptions of the local community are sometimes important despite having little power in the operations. In a community of interests, a vital building block for trust and the chance of establishing and sustaining successful partnerships is the availability of social capital. All partnerships, both in the community and those engaging actors from outside the community have been very useful in creating, establishing and formalizing social capital. In essence, the various partnerships made by “Goods for Good” are an explicit effort of increasing and establishing cross-body social capital although with a motive of commercialization through some actors. This has been very significant in the establishment of these local communities (Kushner, 2012). They have been on the lead to provide entrepreneurial and innovative changes. Through such establishments, Goods for Good has been able to bridge both commercial and social objectives by building community co-operatives and businesses.

One partnership is with Buy- One- Give- One business TOMS. After several years of learning how to provide goods to those in need, she can confidently say that shoes, fabric, school materials as well as other necessities like eyeglasses can have a lasting impact, even after they wear out. Donations that have far-reaching benefits meet an immediate need as well as have a long term impact, based on actual, observed needs, work in partnership with the community, and support local initiatives. Goods for Goods have observed a 25 percent increase in school attendance when students and teachers were provided with re-purposed education supplies. When materials are provided in partnership with trusted community members, such as a teacher or local community group leader, that person knows best who to give the goods, and why they need them; they make sure that things don't go to waste. The Malawian government does provide the materials to these children in need. However, their impact falls short without complementary support. This is where Goods for Goods comes in. They help to enhance or fill in these shortages. “Goods for Goods” has applied this strategy to their partnership with TOMS, and the outcomes have been a success. School materials, TOMS and a uniform were the three main donations for a 14 year-old Assamu Danda to re-enroll in school. The excess of fabric helped Danda's guardian, Manesi Abel, to start her own tailoring business (GOOD Magazine, 2011). Also, the surplus administrative materials and tailoring inputs have allowed community leader Christopher Goma to increase the number of orphans his group supports.

These successful outcomes from the partnerships with TOMS, and local organizations in Malawi prove that when giving goods is done properly, buy-one-get-one products, donations, and other materials, can have a huge impact. “Goods for good” (GFG) has been able to promote successful development for many orphans and the vulnerable in the society. Collaboration with the organizations founded by the community with an objective of filling this resource gap has been useful in realizing this. Boosting the achievement of every child in the Malawian society has been the goal for GFG. Orphans are continually feeling the devastating effects of HIV/AIDS (Kushner, 2012). These bottom-up strategies as embraced through GFG and other organs including the government are important in producing long-lasting solutions towards sustainable change. The desired change has been felt both now and with a great potential of continuing in future. These are businesses and community enterprises aimed at building strong

community enterprise programs for the benefit of the many orphans who are vulnerable in the society.

The importance of partnership has indeed been felt tremendously. Melissa Kushner spends her time getting the coaching to become a better and a more reliable leader for the enhancement of Goods for Goods. Such partnerships that help enhance leaders like Melissa Kushner also play a big impact in carrying out a successful enterprise. Melissa Kushner is part of an organization called The Global Good Fund as one of the potential leaders. What this organization does is to accelerate the development of high potential young leaders to achieve out-sized social impact through entrepreneurship. The Global Good Fund puts together their aim through by strategically pairing the potential leaders with compatible coaches and investors (Rich, 2014). The Global Good Fund has invested in 5 fellows in 2012 and 14 in 2013 from the United States and abroad. The coaches are executive leaders and global through leaders in their respective industries. They are eager to share their skill set and expertise with the next generation of transformational change agents, such as Melissa Kushner (Rich, 2014). Through the collaborative process, the professional and personal benefits of the apprentice and the coach gains are exponential in terms of social impact. Just like the coaches, Global Good Funds also have investors that understand the importance of living a life of significance. Investors seek to empower the next generation of leaders by dedicating their time and resources to leadership enhancement. This type of partnership helps one enterprise to successfully carry out their main goals, and therefore benefit our society.

Objectives in Programs

The strategy by GFG is not to continuously stay at the ground to directly offer such kind of help. The work instead, includes empowering communities so that they can independently provide for the less fortunate and orphaned in their society. Suitability and appropriateness of the solutions has also been a defining factor. Therefore, a choice of community based organizations with a strong commitment towards the vulnerable children and the orphans have been the best option to deliver solutions that are suitable on cultural grounds (Goods for good, 2015). The challenges in such an environment require this kind of strategy and the results have been amazing. This thorough partner criterion of selecting a partner organization has been a huge plus in delivering the objectives of GFG. More than that, the organization's tool of establishing the viability of a business in a particular community has been very helpful. The effects have been realized with the building of a community enterprise and taking part in thorough training, tracking and assessment of projects to ensure that the business runs well and that the profits accrued are solely used to advance the lives of children who need GFG services. This way, GFG has continued to refine the programmatic strategy and the metrics thereby as the data set is continually on the increase.

Examples of Intervention Programs

Poultry farms are a kind of flagship enterprise for Goods for Good. Chickens thrive in Malawi, and their meat and eggs are already local staples (Goods for Good, 2014). They are resilient and very much in demand in the country, and Goods for Good use sustainable

technologies to raise them to market. Goods for Good provides startup capital and technical support to a local community center partners during the first year in which the business operates, and divides the profits between the center's own orphan care programs, operating support for the center, and staff salaries and center improvements (Goods for Good, 2014). Over the next couple of years Goods for Good continues to monitor the enterprise, but scales back its involvement and oversight as the local partner, the community center, becomes increasingly capable of operating the business and allocating the revenues. The ultimate outcome is for the community center to own the business outright, and use it to support ongoing efforts to care for orphans and build up the community (Goods for Good, 2014).

The effectiveness of the poultry farms encouraged Goods for Good to diversify their programs. In 2012, they founded a Tailor Training Program at their community centers, teaching older and vulnerable individuals to become certified tailors with donated fabrics. This course did not demand a lot. Tailor students just needed to sew uniforms for orphans that attended the center for support. These students graduated from the course with a certificate, which helped them to acquire jobs. "Normally, organizations move on donations, but we must have our own businesses and sources of income," says Christopher Goma, Executive Director of the Mchexi community center (Kushner, 2012). They created tight bonds with local children, which encouraged many of them to come back to volunteer for Goods for Good. This way, Goods for Good was able to expand supporters within Malawi as well, and not only from outside Malawi. These points bring us back to the main goals of Goods for Good: self-sufficiency and entrepreneurial spirit, which led to an inspiration to Goods for Good's latest program Community Enterprise. This program includes the flagship enterprise of Goods for Good: poultry farms. Melissa believes that the poultry farm will help sustain local orphan care programs, financial aspects for schools and material supports. She also believes that it will teach people in Malawi business skills, help create jobs and expand the power of social entrepreneurship and bring enterprise to communities in Malawi.

Sustainability of the Programs

Social enterprises can only be successful by producing long-term solutions. Therefore, the issue of sustainability has been of great concern to GFG. The profits accrued from the GFG enterprises have been split between them and fifteen local community centers and other 182 satellite centers in its network. Generally, GFG has been helping close to 76,000 children (Idealist, 2015). Since its founding in 2006, Goods for Good organization has been promoting successful care and life-enhancement programs for vulnerable children and the orphans in Malawi. Sustainability has been achieved with the transformation of orphan care by empowering the community based organizations (CBOs) economically, particularly those supporting vulnerable children and orphans within the region. The launching of small on-site businesses at each of the CBOs known as community enterprises have been very useful in generating continuous income and finance the care programs for the orphans and vulnerable members of the society.

"Goods for Good" has endeavored to establish programs that are sustainable and commits in working out modalities to reduce the dependency ratio of the Malawians. To

realize this, GFG couples its programs with other incentives to attain the objectives of each of its program and again create an environment where the people of Malawi take responsibility for the goals of the program and consequently run the initiated programs by themselves. In an effort to deal with long-term imbalances that have been experienced in national demand and supply that culminated into expanded external deficits slowing down the growth of the Malawian economy, GFG has worked out some structural adjustment through economic reform strategies as prioritized in the policy agenda of not only Malawi, but also by several other sub-Saharan African nations for over three decades now.

National macroeconomic policies and GFG involvement in government programs rather than replacing them are exemplified efforts of producing a sustainable change (Kushner, 2011). GFG seeks to make every solution easier and cost-effective and most importantly creating free market conditions for the economy. Further, the efforts by GFG have been found to reconcile the expectations and the needs of the poor and the vulnerable and most notable, what the nation of Malawi can really afford to ease the process of containing the challenges.

There are indeed social enterprises already established in Malawi that share similar characteristics with Goods for Goods, but there are definitely differences as well. One other social enterprise in Malawi includes SEED. In Malawi, particularly micro enterprises make up a large proportion of economic activities and employment. The combined size, knowledge of local environmental conditions, and ties with the communities in which they operate out of small, micro, medium enterprises represent a huge potential for sustainable development (Agster, Zurker, 2014). In Malawi, SEED aims to enhance this potential in two ways. First, it supports the development of individual eco-enterprises by offering financial and business development support to the Winners of the SEED Awards. Secondly, SEED is promoting an enabling environment for social and environmental entrepreneurship in Malawi through the greening of Business Development Services (BDS) (Agster, Zurker, 2014).

SEED believes in the set-up of a stable base for social and environmental entrepreneurship in developing countries as a key pillar of their work. The greening of Business Development Services (BDS) is in charge of this. Both conventional and social and environmental start-ups often require external support to turn their ideas into successful business cases. BDS acts as the educational background and the distinguished experience and knowledge of its founders and its staff members. Service providers, from government agencies to universities and private consultancies, have emerged to serve the particular requirements of start-ups.

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The Marshall Plan and the Rebuilding of Europe (1948-1951)

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Abstract

Following the end of WWII was the Marshall Plan and the Rebuilding of Europe that took place between 1948 and 1951. Europe was ravaged by war and the United States was afraid of the spread of communism in that region. The Marshall plan was carried out by the U.S. who funded the Western Europe economies with a total of \$13 billion. This was officially known as the European Recovery Program following its approval through Congress in the April, 1948 Act of Economic Cooperation. This paper looks deep into what the Marshall plan was all about and why the United States was concerned with the affairs of Western Europe. Apparently, the influence of the Soviet Union in Europe was a looming threat to the U.S. with communist parties growing by the day including Italy, Czechoslovakia and France. George Marshall rolled out a plan that involved countries such as Belgium, Greece, Iceland, France, Turkey, the UK, Ireland, West Germany, Sweden and Norway among several others. It was a process of reconstruction that saw influence on economic growth through increased agricultural production and pushing communism away. This led to an economic divide between the rich and the poor, an insufficiency of foreign currency thus leading to more imports. The legacy left behind was an integration of Europe as Western Europe relaxed their austerity measures. The recovery of the European economies cannot be solely indebted to the Marshall plan. However, the Marshall plan formed a significant part of the reform process. Western Europe and Greece continued in a rebuilding process as countries like Turkey started to modernize. Ultimately, it led to an economic integration of the countries to that of the US.

From 1948-1951, the United States provided approximately \$13 billion to a variety of European countries, including occupied Germany, to combat the spread of communism. From the very start, the Marshall Plan was conceived as a key part of U.S. Cold War strategy: it would be an example of American leadership by means of peaceful nation-building and institution-building (Granata & Koos, 2008). The central idea of the Marshall Plan was that the United

States would bankroll European recovery, helping countries stricken by the horrors of World War II to recover and develop themselves. The success of the Marshall Plan in curtailing the spread of Soviet-back communism and securing a freer Europe represents a profound legacy of American leadership on the part of the policymakers who were responsible for it.

The origins of the Marshall Plan lie in the aftermath of the Second World War, and the ongoing economic distress that characterized those tumultuous early post-war years. Most European countries, from Britain and France to the Soviet Union, had been heavily scarred by the war. The case of the defeated Germany was particularly troublesome: after the defeat of the Third Reich, Germany had been partitioned into four zones at Potsdam, to be managed by the United States, France, the United Kingdom, and the Soviet Union (Hitchcock, 2010). The United States and the United Kingdom combined their zones and attempted to allow German industry to recover, while France and the Soviet Union sought to hobble their occupied zones. The fundamental contradiction between these policies was severely impeding German recovery, with ramifications for both the rest of Europe and the United States. German recovery was of considerable importance to the efforts to revivify the economies of Europe overall, given the importance of German coal, steel, manufacturing, and trade (Hitchcock, 2010).

At the same time, the slow progress of recovery in Europe created conditions ripe for communist activities. Overall, Europe was suffering from a shortage of coal and a shortage of foodstuffs, and the combined efforts of both the United States and the United Kingdom to provide Europe with aid had not proven sufficient to create sustainable recovery in Europe (Hitchcock, 2010; Schroder, 2000). In both France and Italy, communist organizers responded to the economic distress with a wave of strikes and protests, their goal being the overthrow of centrist governments in both of those countries. In Greece, the government faced a full-blown armed insurrection by communist partisans (Hitchcock, 2010).

Fundamental interests of the United States were at stake in Europe, leading to a policy climate ripe for proposals for change (Arkes, 1972; Bailey, 1977). Secretary of State George Marshall stepped into the role of providing insight and leadership, making the case for a new policy designed to promote economic recovery in Europe (Hitchcock, 2010; Gimbel, 1976). Marshall believed the United States needed to intervene economically in Europe, providing troubled European governments with funds to rebuild their economies and take care of their people. Marshall laid out his vision in a now-historic June 5, 1947 commencement speech at Harvard. Without specifically mentioning Germany, Marshall made the case for reviving the economies of Europe, and the world more generally (Hitchcock, 2010).

It is important to be clear that even in Germany, the Marshall Plan did not restart economic growth. In the American- and British-occupied zones of Germany, industry began to recover rather sharply after the war, although it was still a shadow of what it had been in the prewar days in 1948 (Dobbins et al., 2003). Nonetheless, Marshall Plan aid was profoundly helpful to many European countries, enabling them to more efficiently and capably continue down a path of economic recovery they had already embarked upon (Hitchcock, 2010; Tweraser, 2000). Marshall Plan aid contributed to ongoing recovery, and particularly in the first year it addressed emergency needs of some European countries, like food and raw materials (OECD, 2008).

The Marshall Plan cannot be appreciated in full without a consideration of the Truman Doctrine, a policy platform that was in many ways its counterpart. The Truman Doctrine was a very specific policy platform of targeted military aid to two specific countries on the frontlines of the emergent global Cold War rivalry: Greece and Turkey. The two cases were quite different from each other, but President Truman saw important U.S. interests at stake in both (Bostdorff, 2008). Greece had been ravaged by World War II, particularly the horrors of a Nazi occupation, and was fighting a Communist insurgency that posed an existential threat to the political survival of its threadbare government. Turkey had been spared the ravages of World War II, but sought U.S. aid to further its program of modernization. Turkey was pro-Western rather than pro-Soviet, thanks in no small part to the historic Ottoman-Russian rivalry, and it occupied a strategic position in the Middle East (Bostdorff, 2008).

For different reasons, then, Greece and Turkey were of profound strategic importance to the United States in its campaign to contain the spread of Communism. Speaking before Congress, President Truman explained Greece's predicament: the country had been profoundly ravaged by the occupation, and the government lacked the necessary resources to wage an effective campaign against the communist insurgents. Greece needed military aid if its government was to survive, and only the U.S. was in a position to provide it (Bostdorff, 2008; Paterson, Clifford, Maddock, Kisatsky, & Hagan, 2010). Turkey, on the other hand, had not been touched by the war, but was seeking aid to modernize its military. As a next-door neighbor of the Soviet Union and a relatively strong, stable country in the Middle East, Turkey was a logical candidate for U.S. military aid (Bostdorff, 2008).

The Marshall Plan was the logical counterpart to the Truman Doctrine. It was not enough, Truman and Marshall realized, to provide military aid to countries on the front line of the global geopolitical rivalry between Communism and democracy: what the war-ravaged nations of Western Europe needed was the kind of assistance that would help them to foster economic growth. The same was true for embattled Greece and modernizing Turkey. Truman himself referred to the Marshall Plan and the Truman Doctrine as two halves of the same walnut (Bostdorff, 2008). In order to work out the details of the Marshall Plan, the United States met with sixteen nations in the Committee on European Economic Cooperation (CEEC) in Paris in 1947. The main purpose of the meeting was to work out the amount of aid to be given to each of the countries targeted for help (Bruch, Wolfarth, & Michalcik, 2012; Leffler, 2010).

In all, the Marshall Plan provided aid to Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom and West Germany—the sixteen nations who met at the CEEC, with the addition of West Germany (Bruch et al., 2012; Schroder, 2000; Sorenson, 2001). The CEEC would prove tremendously influential in the organization of the Marshall Plan, with lasting consequences down to the present. In fact, the CEEC outlasted the Marshall Plan, ultimately becoming the OECD, a testament to the organizational legacy of this remarkable collaboration.

Unsurprisingly, the Soviet Union blocked the participation of Eastern Europe, and as a result the Marshall Plan played a role in solidifying the lines drawn across Europe, dividing East from West. From the Kremlin's perspective, the United States was turning Western Europe

into a kind of forty-ninth state (Combs, 2015; Pechatnov, 2010). The Soviets feared that through economic assistance and integration, the Americans were establishing a forward base against Soviet positions in Europe. Stalin responded to the Marshall Plan by sending Soviet general Andrei Zhdanov to convene a meeting of nine of Europe's Communist parties at Szklarska Poreba in southwestern Poland. Here the Kremlin asserted Soviet hegemony over not only Eastern Europe, but the Communist parties of Europe in general (Behrman, 2007).

In April of 1948, the U.S. and its allies began the process of implementing the Marshall Plan assistance, officially known as the European Recovery Program (ERP). Greece and Turkey, of course, were already receiving some aid under the Truman Doctrine. Assistance for the first year comprised around 5% of the national incomes of all ERP nations put together (Behrman, 2007; Leffler, 2010). Although the ERP funds did not comprise a large percentage of GDP, their impact was far-reaching. In many cases ERP funds allowed for the purchases of the equipment and labor needed to establish entire factories, companies, and even industries.

Because the funds were used to purchase assets, which could then be used to create further productivity, they had a multiplier effect. The basic principle in question is the idea that essential items, such as the factor inputs needed in production, have an aggregate value that greatly exceeds their cost (Behrman, 2007; Tweraser, 2000). Paul Hoffman, director of the Economic Cooperation Authority (ECA) set up to administer the Marshall Plan, gave a now-classic example of this process, that of a few hundred dollars' worth of metal being used to make a car of much greater value. Without the initial few hundred dollars' worth of metal it would not have been possible to make the car, and this was precisely the situation in which the nations of Europe found themselves (Behrman, 2007).

Perhaps the most innovative feature of the Marshall Plan, however, had to do with the fact that it was not a simple "giveaway" program. Instead, the Plan utilized an ingenious and original system of counterpart funds. Under this system, Western Europeans, whether as individuals or as corporate organizations, purchased American goods in their own currencies. The money used to buy American goods and services was deposited in the national banks of ERP countries, while the U.S. government paid the American companies who provided the goods and services in dollars. This kept ERP countries from draining their reserves (Behrman, 2007).

The Marshall Plan also addressed agriculture and food supplies. The Paris Peace Conference of 1947, held in order to negotiate on the subjects like monetary reparations, territorial adjustments, and political commitments intended to promote democracy and peace, ultimately came up with a plan that totaled \$22 billion. This included foodstuffs, fuel, cotton, agricultural and mining machinery, transportation equipment, iron and steel manufacturing equipment, and tobacco. Out of the total funds provided, 75 percent consisted of food, fuel, cotton and tobacco products, and that amount of fund would be prearranged to buy products from specifically American farmers. It was especially profitable for U.S. because U.S. farmers had the maximum harvested crop in 1947 in history. General Marshall succeeded in convincing the American public that the increasing stability in Europe would benefit America. By the spring of 1948, food and fuel began pouring across the Atlantic soon after, which gained America \$11.8 billion in aid and \$1.56 billion as a loan for Europe. Once again, the American farmer was

feeding the world (Ganzel, n.d.). Although the attempt to reconstruct Europe started with aiding food supplies, in the latter years, United States Congress increased the amount of rebuilding the militaries of Western Europe along with the outbreak of the Korean War (Hogan, 1987).

The companies were required to compensate for the amount of loan they had to the government in order to be lent to another enterprise again. This type of procedure stayed until today with the name of KfW bank (Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau) that belonged to the government. On the other hand Special Fund, one of counterpart funds, were used to pay down the debt, stabilize currency, and invest in non-industrial projects. France used the counterpart funds most efficiently by using them to reduce the budget deficit (Hogan, 1987; Esposito, 1994).

Another pillar of the Marshall Plan was the Technical Assistance Program (TAP), designed to promote efficiency in the European nations receiving aid. The TAP drew on the work of Jean Monnet, the first postwar head of France's Commissariat du Plan, who in 1946 began a French governmental project to undertake a comparative study of French and American productivity. The TAP also built on the studies conducted by Lazlo Rostas, of the British Board of Trade, between 1943 and 1946 (Ostry, 1997).

The star role in the TAP was held by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), which offered sophisticated statistical technical assistance to boost the efficiency and labor productivity of Western European enterprises (Wasser & Dolfman, 2005). Drawing on the work of Rostas in particular, the BLS evaluated the productivity of a variety of industries in the UK. They soon found tremendous differences in productivity: mass production in American and British firms was profoundly different at practically every level. Even British branches of American companies were no more efficient than British companies. The work of the BLS highlighted a particularly salient find: these branch plants were using American mass production techniques from the 1920s. Other European countries faced a similar if not an even greater gap. Where the war had devastated Europe, it had provided for the recovery and advancement of the American industrial sector, making the U.S. the foremost industrial economy in the world (Ostry, 1997).

In 1948 the first Productivity Teams were founded in both the United Kingdom and in France, inaugurating the TAP. In these countries and all other Marshall Plan countries, government, business, and labor were all involved in the process of the TAP. Commissions of government, business, and labor representatives oversaw National Productivity Agencies in each of the countries. The main instrument of the TAP was the study tour to the U.S., designed to teach Europeans the skills and techniques of American mass production (Ostry, 1997).

TAP study tours lasted four to six weeks, and they had an impact that was both far-reaching and profound. The tours included involvement from American firms, trade and labor organizations, technical experts, and publishers of both technical and industrial journals (Ostry, 1997). With the input of these experts, technical reports were produced by each team, and then disseminated widely in each participating country through conferences, seminars, and visits to industrial plants. An extensive literature drove home and further propagated the lessons Europeans were learning from American production, with widespread circulation of technical digests, abstracts and bibliographies. Training and consultation also played a key role in the diffusion of these skills (Ostry, 1997).

In many ways the Technical Assistance Program was one of the most influential and important, if not the most important, economic aspect of the Marshall Plan (Ostry, 1997). Almost 19,000 Europeans went to the United States for productivity study tours between 1949 and 1957. They came back with new knowledge, knowledge they could use to improve industrial conditions and escalate productivity in their own countries. This knowledge was in turn disseminated through the aforementioned channels, producing a cascade, a veritable domino effect, of improved economic growth. While the American government made the whole program possible, the knowledge came overwhelmingly from American business. Not only did American companies want a revitalized Europe, a Europe capable of buying more American products, they also seem to have been acting in accord with a particularly American philosophy: the desire to teach others the secret of one's own success (Ostry, 1997).

Although The Marshall Plan was originally scheduled to end in 1953, the growing cost of the Korean War and rearmament put an end to it in 1951. American Republicans who were initially against to the plan also gained seats in the 1950 Congressional elections, and conservative opposition to the plan was revived. Even after the end of Marshall Plan in 1951, various other forms of American aid to Europe continued (Grogin, 2001; Kindleberger, 1987).

Following the Marshall Plan, there was a rapid growth in various ways in Europe during the years between 1948 and 1952. Industrial production increased by 35% while agricultural production substantially surpassed pre-war levels (Grogin, 2001). Poverty and starvation during the postwar years decreased significantly, and standards of living in Western Europe embarked upon an unprecedented two decades increased dramatically. The effects of Americanization were both beneficial and profound (De Long & Eichengreen, 1991).

The political effects of the Marshall Plan were just as important as the economic ones. Marshall Plan aid allowed the nations of Western Europe to relax austerity measures and rationing, reducing discontent and eventually brought political stability. As America had hoped, communist influence on Western Europe was greatly reduced. Additionally, the trade relations fostered by the Marshall Plan helped to establish the North Atlantic alliance that would persist throughout the Cold War (De Long & Eichengreen, 1991).

Furthermore, Marshall Plan helped to encourage European integration by bringing European leaders to feel that European integration was necessary to secure the peace and prosperity of Europe and setting up guidelines to foster that integration. Although it is believed that in some ways this effort failed, as the OEEC never succeeded in having greater influence, the OEEC served as both a testing and training ground for the structures that would later be used by the European Economic Community. The Marshall Plan, linked into the Bretton Woods system, also mandated free trade throughout the region (De Long & Eichengreen, 1991).

There has been some debate among historians over the success of Marshall Plan. Some reject the idea that it alone miraculously revived Europe, as evidence shows that a general recovery was already underway. Others believe that the Marshall Plan sped this recovery, but did not initiate it. Many argue that the structural adjustments that it forced were of great importance, as Economic historians J. Bradford DeLong and Barry Eichengreen call it "history's most successful structural adjustment program" (De Long & Eichengreen, 1991).

The collective impact of the various parts of the Marshall Plan was considerable. The Marshall Plan played a key role in the economic recovery of Western Europe. As seen, the initial aid helped many European nations to rebuild their economies by providing them with essential goods and services, necessary for the recovery effort (Behrman, 2007; Fossedal, 1993). Economic growth in some Western European countries reached 15-25% in some years, and agriculture made an impressive recovery. Marshall Aid did not restart economic growth, but it did greatly facilitate the recovery. In particular, the counterpart funds helped Western European nations to maintain their currency reserves. West Germany in particular benefited from a currency reform facilitated by the Marshall Plan. The Marshall Plan was also responsible for KfW Bank, today one of Germany's ten biggest banks (Behrman, 2007; Hitchcock, 2010).

Although Marshall Plan cannot claim sole credit for the European economic recovery, the Marshall Plan was nonetheless a significant agent in restoring economies ravaged by war. Thanks in part to the Marshall Plan, the Western European nations and Greece rebuilt after World War II, and Turkey continued its path of modernization (Kindleberger, 1987). The organizational ties fostered by the Marshall Plan also left a lasting legacy in the OECD. More broadly, the Marshall Plan promoted strong ties between Western Europe, Greece and Turkey on the one hand, and the United States on the other. The result was more economic integration between these countries and the U.S. (Fossedal, 1993).

The Marshall Plan also played a role, though perhaps not so decisive a role as has been believed, in helping to roll back the political advances made by European communist parties (Carew, 1987). While the precipitous economic improvements facilitated by the Marshall Plan helped to make communist parties a less appealing option for many European publics, it is also true that the communists were facing a great schism within the political left. Within the first few years of the end of World War II, communist and socialist parties drew apart from each other. The reasons for this were somewhat complex. It is very clear that the Marshall Plan played an important role in furthering the schism, as the communists were under strict orders from Moscow to reject it, but the schism was already underway even before the Marshall Plan was implemented (Carew, 1987).

Other impacts were cultural and social. Even as the Marshall Plan drew America and Europe closer together economically and politically, so too it drew Americans and Europeans together culturally (Hitchcock, 2010). European artists and scholars found willing American audiences. Americans acquired a new interest in learning European languages, and many came to enjoy European cuisine and wines. Nor was the flow of talent and technology unidirectional, as Europeans also contributed tremendously to the American car industry in particular. In fact, most postwar inventions in this industry, particularly the disc-brake, are European in origin. Still, American influences dominated. Translations of books from English to other languages outstripped translations from any other language. Americans also made many contributions to high Western culture, leaving a much wider mark on the Western world than they had before (Hitchcock, 2010).

In the final analysis, the Marshall Plan was an important part of a broader postwar transformation of the relationship between the United States and Europe. Before the Second World War, the United States had the option of limiting its engagement with European affairs to

a significant degree (Crafts, 2013). After the war, the Marshall Plan provided for the creation and maintenance of powerful economic, political, and military ties between the U.S. and Europe, ties which continue to determine the character of the U.S.-European Union relationship to the present. In an atmosphere of friendship between the U.S. and Europe, closer social and cultural ties were free to develop as well (Yunker, 2014).

The legacy of the Marshall Plan has proved far-reaching indeed, profoundly shaping the current state of Europe and the status of U.S.-European relations. By facilitating the economic recovery of war-stricken European economies, the Marshall Plan secured the gratitude of the countries themselves and facilitated a rollback of communist influence. The result was a freer, more prosperous, and more U.S.-friendly Europe than might otherwise have developed, particularly within the same time frame. Today Europe and the U.S. remain generally close, with many economic, political, military, and cultural ties. America's contributions to the rebuilding of Europe proved to be the seeds of a particularly fruitful relationship, one that continues to the present.

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Quest for Peace: A Game Theory Approach to Malaysia's Foreign Policy

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Introduction

Modern-day Malaysia, originally Malaya, took shape as a relatively small, militarily weak country with formidable ethnic cleavages and substantial underdevelopment. A succession of Malayan/Malaysian leaders have responded to these challenges with two main foreign policy platforms: alignment with the West from 1957-1970, and non-alignment and neutralism from about 1970 to the present. During the first period, a newly-independent Malaya relied on the former colonial power, the United Kingdom, to provide for its defense. From about 1970 on, however, the withdrawal of British and American forces from the region, coupled with the impact of the 1969 race riots, forced Malaysian leaders to craft new foreign policies of non-alignment and neutralism. Since 1970, Malaysian foreign policy has emphasized strong diplomatic and economic ties with many countries in the region and beyond, notably China.

The Historical Roots of Malaysia and its Foreign Policy, 1403-1957

Malaysia's historical roots lie with the Malacca Sultanate founded in the early 15th century in what is now Peninsular Malaysia. The foreign policy of the Malacca Sultanate was oriented toward its far larger neighbor Ming China from the very start (Kuik, 2013). From 1403-1433, the first three sultans established a productive vassal-suzerain relationship with China. Strategically located on the strait that bears its name, Malacca was of tremendous importance for trade between the Indian Ocean to the west and the South China Sea to the east. By entering into a friendly vassal relationship with China, Malacca sought to gain trade benefits and secure Chinese support against its regional rivals Siam (modern-day Thailand), and Java (now part of Indonesia) (Kuik, 2013).

During the period from the early 15th century to the early 16th, Malacca profited from its strategic location athwart the trade routes connecting China and India. However, this selfsame

strategic advantage made it a tempting target for a new imperial power in the Indian Ocean in the early sixteenth century: Portugal. In 1511, the Portuguese captured Malacca, making it an important part of their budding Indian Ocean dominions (Kuik, 2013). Malacca's strategic location with respect to major trade routes between India and China drove the Dutch to oust the Portuguese in 1641, and the British to oust the Dutch in 1795 (Kuik, 2013).

The period of British rule in particular profoundly affected the culture, institutions, and demographic composition of what would become Malaysia. Before the arrival of the British the two main groups were the Malays themselves and the marginalized Orang Asli, a disparate and heterogeneous category comprising various indigenous peoples of Borneo and the Malay Peninsula. Under British rule, Malaya specifically was subject to massive immigration from both China and British-ruled India during the 19th and 20th centuries. The British brought in Chinese workers to develop the tin mines and Indian workers as agricultural laborers in the plantations. By the time of independence, the Federation of Malaya had 2.3 million Chinese inhabitants, 700,000 Indian inhabitants, and 3.1 million Malay inhabitants (Dhillon, *xyza*).

The British managed these disparate colonial subjects with an ethnic separation policy, one that has left a lasting imprint on Malaysian society. Under British rule, the Malays generally remained in rural areas as subsistence peasants (Dhillon, *xyza*). The traditional Malay feudal aristocracy was coopted by the British into the civil service, from which the two main immigrant groups, the Chinese and the Indians, were excluded. The Indians generally remained in the plantations, which were kept quite separate from rural Malay peasant society, and the Chinese stayed near the mining areas, which grew into urban and commercial centers (Dhillon, *xyza*).

In League With the West: Malayan and Malaysian Foreign Policy 1957-1970

After more than four hundred years of European rule in the key city of Malacca, the Federation of Malaya, modern-day Peninsular Malaysia, gained independence from the United Kingdom in 1957 (Kuik, 2013). This long-lasting colonial legacy left a deep imprint on post-colonial Malaysia's foreign policy and strategic priorities. From the very start, Malaya adopted a pro-Western foreign policy, relying on the United Kingdom to provide for its military security. The two nations signed the Anglo-Malayan Defense Agreement (AMDA) in 1957, promising mutual aid in the event of any armed attack against either Malaya or remaining British possessions in the Far East, i.e. Sarawak, North Borneo, Brunei, and Singapore (Saravanamuttu, 2010).

The AMDA underscored the dependence of Malaya on the United Kingdom. Upon independence the Malayan government did not possess so much as a complete army division, only several battalions of the Malay Royal Regiment (Saravanamuttu, 2010). Malaya had neither a proper army nor a proper navy. For Malaya, maintaining strong ties with Britain was an imperative if the country was to preserve its sovereignty and be able to pursue a path of economic development and prosperity. British support was particularly valuable against Malaya's own domestic communist insurgency, that of the Malayan Communist Party (MCP), which had been waging an armed struggle to gain control of Malaya since 1948 (Harun, 2015; Kuik, 2013; Saravanamuttu, 2010).

The 1963 merger of Singapore, Sabah, and Sarawak with Malaya to form Malaysia brought the newly-expanded nation into conflict with Sukarno's Indonesia (Weiss, 2010). Denouncing the merger as an imperialist, neo-colonial plot, Sukarno deployed a policy of *Konfrontasi*, low-level, undeclared war and brinkmanship. Sukarno was backed by the Soviet Union, and maintained friendly ties with Beijing and Hanoi. *Konfrontasi* ended with Sukarno's ouster in 1966, and relations between the two countries have improved tremendously since (Weiss, 2010).

Cold War rivalries, then, defined early Malayan and (from 1963 on) Malaysian foreign policy. During this period Malaya/Malaysia was one of a number of states in Southeast Asia allied with the West against the advance of communism in the region. In 1958, Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman made his first official overseas visit to South Vietnam, pledging solidarity with President Ngo Dinh Diem. In Malaya itself, the MCP were receiving support from the People's Republic of China (PRC) under Mao, leading Tunku and other Malayan leaders to denounce China as the foremost threat to their country. They even refused China's offer to recognize Malaya's independence in 1957, concerned that a Chinese embassy in the heart of Kuala Lumpur would become the center of a network of communist propaganda and subversion (Harun, 2015; Kuik, 2013; Saravanamuttu, 2010).

During this period, then, Malaya's foreign policy was one of pure balancing against the forces of communism (Kuik, 2013). From a game theory standpoint, Malaya/Malaysia had much to gain by siding with the West. Malayan elites had inherited and preserved a particular social and political order handed down to them from the departing British, one that vested Muslim Malay elites with political power. Unlike in North Vietnam and Indonesia, Malaya's post-colonial elites had not fought an anti-colonial war to wrest their independence from their former colonial master.

Therefore, in the bipolar world order of the Cold War, Malaya took the side of the West against the communists, particularly China and the various communist states and active movements in Southeast Asia. Malaya sharply criticized China for suppressing the revolt of the Tibetans in 1959. In 1962, Malaya responded to the India-China border war by again criticizing China and launching a Save Democracy Fund on India's behalf. The Malayan government also took great lengths to sever links between its own large Chinese community and their mother country. Malaya banned publications from China, imposed travel restrictions, and closed all branches of the Bank of China in Malaya (Harun, 2015; Kuik, 2013).

Strategic Shocks and Domestic Tensions, 1967-1970

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, however, the strategic landscape in the region changed entirely. The first major strategic upset came from Malaysia's own long-time security guarantor, Britain. In 1967, the United Kingdom announced its intentions to withdraw all British forces east of the Suez Canal, especially those stationed in Malaysia and Singapore, by the middle of the next decade (Kuik, 2013). In 1968 financial pressures forced Britain to move up the timetable to March of 1971. The United Kingdom did away with the AMDA, and replaced it with the Five Power Defense Arrangements between itself, Malaysia, Singapore, Australia, and New Zealand. While the Five Power Defense Arrangements involved more countries, they were

much weaker. In the event of any external aggression against Malaysia or Singapore, all five powers were to consult with each other. However, none would be obliged to act (Kuik, 2013; Harun, 2015).

The second strategic shock came in July of 1969. While on a visit to Guam, the American President Richard Nixon announced a departure in U.S. strategy. The U.S. would continue to honor its treaty commitments, Nixon stated, but in cases in which the United States did not perceive a crucial security issue for itself it would expect any nation threatened by outside aggression to be primarily responsible for defending itself. There could be little room for ambiguity regarding Nixon's meaning, given the extent to which the United States was militarily engaged in the Vietnam War. Following the new Guam Doctrine, the U.S. began to reduce the numbers of its ground troops in mainland Southeast Asia that very same year (Koon, 2015; Harun, 2015; Kuik, 2013; Weichong, xyza).

At the same time, domestic tensions were also pushing Malaysia in a new direction. Thanks to the profound demographic and cultural legacies of British colonial rule, Malaya and, after 1963, Malaysia, took shape as a nation ruled by Muslim Malays, but with a very large and economically successful Chinese community. Indeed, Chinese Malaysians have generally enjoyed a much higher standard of living than the more numerous and politically dominant Malays. Tensions and animosity between ethnic groups, particularly the Malays and the Chinese, led to massacres of the latter during the Japanese occupation and to Chinese support for armed communist movements (Dhillon, xyza). This history has long complicated relations with majority Chinese Singapore, expelled from Malaysia in 1965 in order to constrain the numbers and political influence of the Chinese in Malaysia (Nathan, 2010).

Racialized tensions between the Chinese and the Malays reached a breaking point in 1969, when the dominant coalition of the Alliance Party was threatened by a rising political opposition led by two new parties, the Democratic Action Party (DAP) and the Parti Gerakan (Dhillon, xyza). These parties were dominated by ethnic Chinese, who were turning from the more moderate Malayan Chinese Association (MCA). At the same time, many Malays were turning from the United Malays National Organization (UMNO) to the Islamic Party of Malaysia (PAS). On the 10 May election, the Alliance government lost the two-thirds majority it had enjoyed. Both the Malay and Chinese opposition parties held victory rallies, leading to the infamous 13 May race riots, in which hundreds were killed and several thousands, mostly Chinese, left homeless (Dhillon, xyza).

The government responded to the riots with a massive crackdown on the rioting and on the political opposition, followed by a bevy of political and economic reforms. The Alliance retained its hold on power, amending the constitution but also adding ten new parties and turning itself into The National Front. The National Front coopted the Malay Muslim PAS, Gerakan, a Chinese party, and the People's Progressive Party (PPP), a majority Chinese party with a history of Indian leadership (Dhillon, xyza). Recognizing that the considerable economic disparities between the Malays and both Chinese and Indians played a key role in fueling the animosity that drove the riots, the government also implemented a wide range of economic and social reforms, notably a very strong program of affirmative action, aimed at increasing Malays' share of the economy (Dhillon, xyza).

New Directions in Malaysian Foreign Policy, 1970-Present

Since about 1970, Malaysia has pursued a very different direction in foreign policy. Abandoning the country's long-standing pro-Western stance, Malaysian leaders and policymakers adopted a foreign policy of non-alignment and regional neutralization. In the year 1970, permanent secretary of the foreign ministry Ghazali Shafie called for neutralization in the broader region of Southeast Asia, and for the People's Republic of China, the Soviet Union and the United States to collectively guarantee that the region remained free from interference by external powers. A founding member and prominent participant in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), Malaysia also advocated for all members of ASEAN to acknowledge and accommodate any legitimate interests of the major powers, but stressed the importance of maintaining 'equidistance' with all of them (Kuik, 2013).

Malaysian foreign policy since 1970 has been characterized by independence, neutralism, and generally peaceful, positive-sum games with its neighbors and with other powers. Malaysian relations with China have seen the most dramatic improvement, as Malaysia has sought closer ties with China even as the latter has gained greater power in the region and on the world stage (Chang, 2014; Kuik, 2013). Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad (1981-2003) in particular sought closer economic and political ties with China, often commenting on the so-called "eastern values" he believed the two countries shared. China is now Malaysia's largest trading partner, and their bilateral trade is worth about \$60 billion. While economic factors have been crucial to this relationship, particularly as both countries pursued development policies in the 1980s, better relations between the two countries have also helped to improve Malaysia's own internal tensions with regard to Malaysia's large Chinese community (Chang, 2014; Kuik, 2013).

From a security standpoint, Malaysia's overall foreign policy since 1970 has emphasized peace and cooperation above all else. Malaysia has maintained a commitment to peace and stability, and shown an aversion to brinkmanship and rivalry. A strategic plan for 2009-2015 released by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2009) emphasized close diplomatic and economic ties across the world stage as essential for helping the nation to achieve its goals of economic development. Relations with Singapore have been complicated by ethnic tensions to some degree, but are generally positive (Nathan, 2010). Relations with Indonesia include some disputes over seaways, but are generally very positive (Weiss, 2010). With its "Prosper thy neighbor" policy, Malaysia seeks strong bilateral relations with a variety of its Southeast Asian neighbors, notably Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, and Vietnam, and the East Asian economic titans, China and Japan (Chang, 2014).

Conclusion

Malaysian foreign policy originally took shape to protect the small, militarily weak, developing nation of Malaya from its foes. During the Cold War, Malaysian foreign policy evolved from a pro-Western stance to a neutralist, non-aligned stance. From a game theory perspective, from about 1970 on, Malaysian leaders such as Mahathir have emphasized positive-sum productive diplomatic and economic ties with other countries in the region and beyond, notably China, to help Malaysia develop and keep it secure.

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Role of Institutions in Economics

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Role of Institutions in the Economics

One of the most perplexing questions in social science is in regards to the causes of economic growth and development in different countries (Scott, 2013). Social scientists are still trying to explain why some countries are poorer than others. Further, they try to understand why some countries achieve economic growth and others stagnate. The question is what can be done to induce economic growth and therefore, improve the living standards of a society. However, it should be noted that institutions play a fundamental role in causing the economic growth and development of different countries.

Institutions are constraints which are devised by humans and shape human interaction. These are the rules of any society, and humans have to follow them in order to be part of the community. Institutions are supposed to be a major determinant of incentives. Therefore, it is expected that the latter should have a great effect on economic outcomes including growth, poverty and development. Institutions often differ among societies owing to the approaches to collective decision making used (Lewis, 2013). There are two of them that are typically used when making collective decisions: dictatorship and democracy. Secondly, they can differ due to the economic institutions available in that country. The latter include entry barriers and a set of contracts which are available to business people (Chang, 2011). Further, there could be a difference when some formal institutions perform their functions in a different way. For instance, sometimes, the distribution of political power lies with various individuals or social classes because in different societies, democracy is viewed in other ways.

Economic institutions are of particular importance to economic outcomes due to the presence and perfection of markets and the structure of property rights. Economic institutions are imperative since they have a great effect on the structure of incentives of an economic nature in society (Perkins et al., 2013). Without property rights, individuals lack the incentive to invest in human or physical capital or even adopt new technologies. Economic institutions

help in the allocation of resources (Konzelmann, 2014). Further, economic institutions play a huge role in determining who will get the residual rights of control, revenues and profits. When markets are ignored or they go missing, as was the case in the Soviet Union for instance, resources are misallocated and gains from trade start to go missing (Boschma & Frenken, 2011). Societies which have economic institutions which encourage and facilitate efficient allocation of resources, factor accumulation and innovation will end up prospering as opposed to those that do not.

Central to political economy is the idea that institutions, and specifically economic ones, are endogenous (Pejovich, 2012). This means that they are determined by the society or at least a small part of it. Therefore, the question pertaining why some societies are poorer than others can also be answered by why some countries have worse economic institutions than others. However, there does not exist guarantee that all groups and individuals will have the same preference on a similar set of economic institutions. The reason is that different economic institutions will often result in different distribution of resources. There will usually be a conflict of interests among various individuals and groups over the selection of economic institutions (Spolaore & Wacziarg, 2012). They are chosen depending on the political power of the groups involved. Sometimes, the efficiency of one economic institution in comparison with another may play a huge role. However, most times, political power ends up being the ultimate arbiter. The group that has more political power is more likely to secure the economic institutions that it prefers.

The notion that political power is the determinant factor of economic institutions has often detrimental effects. This notion leads to conflicting interests in regards to the distribution of resources and, therefore, in regards to the economic institutions (Michalopoulos & Papaioannou, 2013). However, another question is why the groups which have conflicting interests usually do not agree on the economic institutions which maximize aggregate growth.

It is imperative to note that political power involves more than political institutions. A certain group of individuals may wield political power even without political institutions (Inglehart, 2015). These individuals can revolt, hire mercenaries, use economically costly but peaceful protests or co-opt with the military so as to impose their wishes on the society. This kind of political power is called *de facto* and it has two sources. The first one depends on the ability of the group in question to make sure that people act in unity even when some individuals may enjoy free rides. Secondly, the power of a *de facto* depends on the economic resources that the group can access. This determines the ability of the group to use the existing political institutions and the force that they can use against rival groups.

Further, political institutions are also endogenous though this is slowly changing. Often, societies will transition from dictatorships to democracies and change these institutions so as to modify the constraints of those who hold power (Oatley, 2012). The distribution of political power is a key determinant of the evolution. This usually creates a tendency for persistence whereby political institutions allocate *de jure* political power and will maintain political institutions which gave them the power. Sometimes, *de facto* political power will create changes in political institutions. These changes are often discontinuous. For instance, when an imbalance of power can possibly lead to a revolution or when the threat of an imminent revolution leads to

reforms in political institutions. These aspects usually influence the manner in which political institutions function, for instance, whether rules laid down in an institutions are respected in functioning democracies or in democracies that have failed, the rules are ignored like in Zimbabwe today.

Economic institutions matter since they shape the incentives of the key actors of the economy. In particular, economic institutions influence investments both in human and physical capital, technology and the organization of production. It is important to note that geographical and cultural factors also matter in regards to economic performance, but differences in economic institutions are the greatest source of cross-country differences in regard to economic prosperity and growth. Economic institutions control the economic growth potential of the economy and other economic outcomes such as the distribution of resources in future. The latter include human capital, physical capital or wealth. In other words, not only do the economic institutions influence the size of the pie but also how it shall be divided among different individuals and groups in the society.

The Effect of Institutions

There are differences in regard to how the political and economic life is organized (Besley & Persson, 2011). There is a lot of literature that goes in depth into the differences of economic institutions across the countries. It shows a correlation between political institutions and economic performance. Different studies use various measures to look into the issue of institutions. Some of them have used the reinforcement of property rights, others have employed corruption or entry barriers. All these are indicators of economic performance and can be used to determine the economic climate of a country.

The Development of Property Rights in Europe in the Middle Ages

It is necessary to give examples so as to clarify on a few issues which may come up in the context of the story. There is no doubt that lacking property rights of the owners of land, proto-industrialists and merchants had a negative effect on economic growth during this period (Esping-Andersen, 2013). Since political institutions, the kings and various kinds of hereditary monarchies, were responsible for political power, these rights were usually given by the monarchs. However, in terms of economic growth, monarchs had every incentive to protect their own rights, but they typically did not enforce the property rights of other individuals within the country. They used their power to impose arbitrary taxation, expropriate producers, allocate the productive resources of society and renege on debts. The result of this is that economic institutions in the Middle Ages provide little investment in regard to land, human or physical capital and technology, and ultimately failed to foster the much needed economic growth (Mayer, 2012). These economic institutions also ensured that monarchs controlled a huge fraction of economic resources in the society, therefore, solidifying the political power and ensuring the existing political regime continued.

In the seventeenth century, major changes in the political and economic institutions paved way for the development of the rights of property and limited the power of the monarchs especially after the Civil War of 1642 (Dunleavy, 2014). In the Netherlands, this happened after

the Dutch Revolution. England possessed a great amount of de facto political power until the 16th century thereby leaving aside civil wars which were related to royal succession. At the time, there did not exist any other social group which could amass enough de facto power to actually challenge the king. Changes in the land market of England and the expanded Atlantic trade in the 17th centuries increased economic fortunes and eventually the de facto power held by merchants and land owners. These groups were diverse, but they contained essential elements which perceived themselves as having interests that conflicted with the king's ones. The English kings were more interested in preying against the members of the society so as to increase the incomes made from tax. The merchants and the gentry were more interested in strengthening the rights of property.

By the 17th century, the growing prosperity of the gentry and the merchants based both on local and international trade particularly the Atlantic one (Baylis et al., 2013). This enabled them to field military forces which were capable of ensuring that the king was defeated. This de facto power was able to overcome the Stuart monarchs as they were fighting the Glorious Revolution and the Civil War. This led to a change in political institutions which stripped the king of a lot of his previous powers in regards to policy. These changes affected the economic institutions therefore strengthening the property rights of both capital and land owners and spurred a great process of commercial and financial expansion. The consequence was economic growth which later culminated in the Industrial Revolution.

Political Institutions

Other than economic institutions, there are other kinds of institutions such as political ones (Hayek, 2012). They are responsible for placing a check on those that hold political power. For instance, this can be done through the creation of a balance of power in the society so they are particularly useful for proper economic situations. The result is that without checking political power, those with power are more likely to choose economic institutions which are only beneficial for them and in the long run will be detrimental to the society. Thus, the property rights of a wide selection of people will arise. Secondly, good economic institutions are likely to arise when political power is in the hands of a broad group with major investment opportunities. The reason for this is that when all other factors are constant, power holders will benefit themselves from property rights.

Conclusion

Institutions persist for a long time and have consequences that are unintended most of the time (Auerbach et al., 2013). Different choices reflect different outcomes in political institutions and distribution of political power. Understanding implies getting to know why different countries get stuck in political equilibria which result in negative economic situations (Gwartney et al., 2014). Solving the great problem of development involves getting the knowledge of the instruments that can be utilized to push the society from the current bad political equilibrium to a good one. For instance, for African countries, promoting accountability, democracy, and checks and balances will definitely lead to better economic institutions and policies.

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How will the future of social entrepreneurship impact economy and human rights?

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Introduction

Social entrepreneurship is the process that aims at creating social change through sustainable exploitation and discovery of opportunities (Martin & Osberg, 2007). Social entrepreneurship has a significant impact on a country's economy, as well as human rights. Social entrepreneurs strive to solve social problems. They also transform industries; hence sustaining the economy. Business entrepreneurs are not much different from the social entrepreneurs. It is noted that they transform industries by creating agents that seize opportunities and improve systems in the organizations. The same case applies to social entrepreneurs who create social value by advancing sustainable solutions and disseminating the new approaches. If all these activities are conducted in the present day, the future of social entrepreneurship will reflect a world that is free from social problems as well as improved economy (Short, Moss & Lumpkin, 2009).

Background Information

Who are social entrepreneurs?

For a period of decades now, the business sector has continued to flourish with many citizens learning the advantages of new methods of innovative solutions to the existing social problems. A new idea in the midst of first-class entrepreneurs is very important. In this, social entrepreneurs are noted to be individuals who encompass solutions to the pressing problems of the society, on top of being innovative (Zimmer, 1986).

What is the connection between social entrepreneurship and the economy?

Social entrepreneurs contribute to the economy of a country because they do not leave the societal needs to the business sectors or the government. They search for the things that are not working in the society and provide solutions to them. For instance, many social entrepreneurs have been noted to spread solutions, change the systems that create the problems, and persuade the entire society in moving in the diverse directions which are beneficial. In this, they contribute to a stable economy by eliminating problems within the society (Zimmer, 1986).

Social entrepreneurs strive to change the economy by committing their lives to the directions of their field which seem to be changing, getting possessed by their ideas, and becoming visionaries. Above all, social entrepreneurs are concerned with their practical implementation. They present understandable user-friendly and ethical ideas that engage support which is widespread in maximizing the number of citizens who can seize their idea, stand up, and implement it. Social entrepreneurs excel when they become local change makers and mass recruiters, in which they channel their ideas into action. Their role models depict that they have the potential to do almost anything in efforts to bring positive change into an organization.

Achieving successful entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurs help to achieve a stable organization due to the many activities that relate with organizational change. For instance, the normal business entrepreneurs change the face of the business. On top of this aspect, social entrepreneurs act as the agents of change, seize opportunities, invent new approaches, improve systems within the seized activities, and create solutions which result in the change. New industries could be created by a business entrepreneur but a social entrepreneur implements the social problems and develops them on a large scale through the use of innovative solutions.

All social entrepreneurs aim at achieving success within their organizations. However, many find it difficult to go through the process in order to become successful. This means that the process needs persistence for being difficult. In other words, success cannot be achieved by a business-startup through bestowed success on a small business. Similar characteristics must be shared by the successful social entrepreneurs since they follow comparable patterns. The secret of success in a business is not found within the hundreds of published books and the online articles. However, specific characteristics must be available for success to be achieved. This points us to the issue of successful entrepreneur. An entrepreneur, as noted by many, should have perseverance, passion, and encompass positive attitudes. The lack of these aspects tends to tear the entrepreneurs apart. Therefore, some elements must be considered for a social entrepreneur to develop a smart enterprise.

What are some of the entrepreneurial characteristics?

The future of social entrepreneurs can be bright if the social entrepreneurs love what they do. This means that they should have passion, as noted in the above context. It is one of the aspects used to form a moving strategy. The drive to succeed can be chipped away by

half-heartedness. Anything over a time can be guaranteed through perseverance. This can be applied to a job, a person, or an entire company. Many people, who have succeeded in the recent past, like Abraham Lincoln, showed perseverance and never gave up even when things became hard for them.

Success in an enterprise is not a straight path. Baby steps need to be taken for it to be achieved. Stories of people who have invested their time on entrepreneurship have always been told. Some are noted to obtain success after a period of years or months. The risks in these stories are analyzed and need to be acknowledged before one can begin a business. The losses can be absorbed at first, after which the entrepreneur understands the ways of evading the losses. The losses also provide productive and essential lessons to the social entrepreneur.

Many people have thrived into the area of entrepreneurship. Why not learn from them? It is always advisable to learn from others when things seem to follow the other path. The successful entrepreneurs are noted to work for others before striking into a field of their own. If one spends a few years in the industry, success will be inevitable. The years need to spend under a mentor who can help to provide a launching pad which is sustainable. The brainstorm and mistakes of the predecessors also help to teach a good reason before one can begin a social enterprise. Some people are willing to teach and can help one to start a business elsewhere.

A social entrepreneur should have the knowledge to self-promote. An individual who encompasses confidence as well as good elevator skills can reach the next level after going through pitches. The founder depicts the marketing experiences of any business. Therefore, a social entrepreneur should spend time learning how to create a vision and should not be afraid to ask for anything. This is due to the fact that the client will focus on the salesy of the organization (Zahra et al., 2009).

Taking action is the work of social entrepreneurs. They are believed to be movers and shakers. Even though they cannot afford to get anywhere or analyze every detail, they will use every chance to move to the next level. During their first months, entrepreneurs will work for 24/7, without sick-days and vacations. They try to create an assessment at every step regardless of their current conditions. Successful businesses, as noted, help to develop the works of social entrepreneurs. These people make a plan after going through the stories. Some personalities such as Steve Jobs are among the leading sources of knowledge for beginners. Even though everything cannot be included in the articles, a successful plan must not be encompasses in a book (Short, Moss & Lumpkin, 2009).

Any enterprise must have a reputation for it to succeed. A business must maintain a blog, website, or its time in order to direct readers about its skills. This can help to build trust and expertise. A social entrepreneur knows that it is never too late. The many successful entrepreneurs began their brands during the course of their lives. A unique outlook for one's business can be created through a unique experience. The nature and the depth of the most educated adults can be brought by their life experiences. With this knowledge, it is simpler to build ones team. This is the foundation for a huge and famous organization that can be reflected in the future. Folks from across the country can help to build the team. Creating a marketing chain can also help to sell the organization to greater depths (Weerawardena & Mort, 2006).

While building a social enterprise, it is important to be mindful of one's attitude. A bad attitude could ruin the business even in its earlier stages. A suitable tone for the business is required to reduce the effects of laziness, negativity, and a waste of time. All these could build a bad reputation for the business. Success will always depend on the acceptable blame and the mistakes which are involved in the stride. The personal life of the owner of the business can be ruined when starting a business. In short, people should take care of their physical and mental life, which is imperative. During this period, sleep, exercise and diet are equally important. All these help to drive motivation, attitude, and relationships (Waddock & Post, 1991).

The Manner in Which Social Entrepreneurs Can Demonstrate Courage

Social entrepreneurs demonstrate courage through a number of ways. The process of innovation is amongst the ways in which these people can stare at failure and bear the burden of risk in a square manner. Social entrepreneurs are entitled to formulate ways in which they can reduce risks and avoid things that are undoable and those which make them look unwise. For instance, the case of Smith is an example of a social entrepreneur who convinced himself that he had to sense to build a gigantic airport and acquire a fleet of jets in Memphis. He did all this in efforts to provide the next-day delivery for his organization. During this period, all of his competitors used local fleets of trucks which could carry out the functions of delivery and pickup. In short, the competitors did not maintain or run huge numbers of aircraft. This pointed an innovative idea since Smith's technology was not available during the period when he invented the aircraft (Van Praag, 2005).

Social entrepreneurs can also demonstrate courage when they possess the fortitude to drive their creative solutions. Some of these aspects can be witnessed through market adoption and fruition. All ventures of entrepreneurs are faced with unexpected turns and setbacks. Therefore, social entrepreneurs can demonstrate bravery if they find creative ways around the challenges and the barriers that arise from their entrepreneurial ventures. In this, Smith figured out how he could keep the confidence of his investors in a manner that could not be afforded by the competitors during that time. Smith also invented ways in which he could achieve the requisite scale in efforts to pay for the huge fixed infrastructure of planes, trucks, airports, and IT systems that were required for the model that he was creating. His competitors such survived millions of dollars before they could reach a cash-flow. At some points, the companies were liquidated and found it difficult to reach a positive state (Solomon, Duffy & Tarabishy, 2002).

Entrepreneurial Outcome and How This Can Impact the Economy and Human Rights

Social entrepreneurs play an important role in developing the economy and human rights. In this, a unique role is evident in order to provide social change. Social entrepreneurs can be distinguished from other leaders of the world because of their long term success which is focused on creating a systemic level that leads to wide-scale change. The change by social entrepreneurs is difficult to measure, as affirmed by most business entrepreneurs. The world's leading instruments have the potential to measure the easily-quantifiable figures such as programmatic outputs and financial ratios. However, the measures lack the most meaningful and important product of the work of a social entrepreneur. This means that the work of social

entrepreneurs often bring social change within a short period of time; hence difficult to measure (Sharir & Lerner, 2006).

Social entrepreneurs aim at bringing social change, as noted in the above context. However, these people support investments and connect the global community. The fellowships of social entrepreneurs consist of more than 1600 entrepreneurs and are evident in more than 60 countries. All these people also work towards fulfilling the need of every human need. Social entrepreneurs not only target the business sector but also the needs of education and health to the environment and the civil justice. Social entrepreneurs ensure that they prevent religious boundaries and receive funding from volunteer chapters, individuals, business entrepreneurs, and foundations (Sarason, Dean, & Dillard, 2006).

Traditional Entrepreneurship and the Modern Social Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship has a number of faces as reflected in the considerable aspects of traditional entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship. The modern definitions of social entrepreneurship make the issue a complicated one. Social entrepreneurship is driven by a phenomenon. During the past decades, entrepreneurship lacked consensus in defining the parameters and definitions. In this, entrepreneurship was the rare topic even though it attracted specialists from diverse disciplines (Reynolds, Storey, & Westhead, 1994). During the traditional times, entrepreneurship was described by few economists. The economists pointed that production required physical capital, labor, and land. In the areas of the modern social entrepreneurship, these requirements are not mandatory. Social entrepreneurs need to be creative in order to move at the same pace with technology. The issue of production requires managerial skills and the willingness to take risks. This points out that the technical knowhow and human power are important parts of the modern social entrepreneurship (Portes, 2000).

Traditional entrepreneurship was noted to contain some parts such as opportunity recognition, concept development, resource determination and acquisition, launch and venture growth, and harvest of the venture (Martin & Osberg, 2007). In all these areas, it is apparent that the traditional entrepreneurship has a connection with the modern social entrepreneurship. The above aspects relate with the concepts of social entrepreneurship, in that, each of them aims at developing the economy through technical means. Social entrepreneurship, as noted, requires creativity which can bring about opportunities in the business sector. Various concepts are developed during social entrepreneurship. Valuable ventures can only emerge from opportunities. Even though traditional entrepreneurship was profit-oriented, social entrepreneurship uses the profits to build human rights and to develop the economy (Nicholls, 2006).

In other words, social problems affecting the society and the economy can be addressed by social entrepreneurship methods. The social problems cannot be prevented without creative techniques. The economy is also developed when the social problems are worked on to provide resources, capacities, ideas, and social arrangements. Therefore, the social entrepreneurs strive to realize the different opportunities within the society in order to drive social change for social benefit (Abu-Saifan, 2012).

Research questions

In order to depict how the future of social entrepreneurship can impact the economy and human rights, the following research questions need to be considered.

1. What is the future of social entrepreneurship?
2. How can entrepreneurship relate with the economy and human rights?
3. Is the future of social entrepreneurship beneficial to the economy?
4. What significant impact can social entrepreneurship have on human rights?
5. Are there classic examples of social entrepreneurship?

The Future of Social Entrepreneurship

For decades now, social entrepreneurship has aimed at providing social change. Social entrepreneurs, as noted, provide aid when the society is stuck. The problem is solved when the issue is recognized. Social entrepreneurship is likely to transform the coming days of the economy and human rights. The rights of humans are fulfilled when employment is created by social entrepreneurs (Short, Moss & Lumpkin, 2009). The economy will gain stability when numerous persons gain the knowledge of entrepreneurship and begin business activities. In short, new pathways for the disadvantaged are opened when social entrepreneurship is instilled. The full potential of the society will also be unlocked in the future as affirmed by Alvord, Brown & Letts, (2004).

Social entrepreneurship and the economy

Weerawardena & Mort, 2006, notes that social entrepreneurship has a direct impact on the economy of a country. A country that wishes to obtain successful entrepreneurship must work on its entrepreneurial concepts first. The social entrepreneurs ought to identify opportunities. It is through this issue that an organization can survive in the market. Innovative ideas, concepts, and values are required in order to meet the diverse social needs of the economy. Once these activities are met, social change will be obligatory. Activities of For-profit and non-profit entrepreneurs can help to provide social ventures (Murphy & Coombes, 2009).

Social Entrepreneurship and Impact on Human Rights

As noted in the above context, social entrepreneurship has a significant impact on human rights. Among the reasons is the fact that the policy solves social problems. The human rights are dealt with when individuals lack the pressures of the economy. Many people in the modern world are faced by the problem of financial independence, which often leads to theft. Social entrepreneurship instills the aspects of openness and innovation, enabling organizations and individuals to build a strong culture of entrepreneurship. Donations from the government also help to propose social value. The non-profit activities value human life and enable people to achieve self-sufficiency (Nicholls, 2006).

Classic examples of social entrepreneurs

Social entrepreneurs aim at identifying the social problems within the business community. Some social problems have been identified and left unaddressed. Some of these are identified by the government, the community or other businesses. Some of the classic examples of social entrepreneurs include people like Jane Adams and Vinoba Bhave. For instance, Jane Adams created a settlement house in Chicago in efforts to improve the life of immigrants during the 1880s. The Land Gift movement was initiated by Vinoba Bhave in 1951 in order to redistribute land to the poor families of the Indians (Malecki, 1997).

Literature review

Social entrepreneurship has diverse characteristics. These depend on whether the issue is profit-oriented or mission-oriented. However, each of these has important features that need to be figured.

Characteristics of entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship falls differently from the commonly known characteristics of entrepreneurship. According to literature by business management, entrepreneurship involves a set of activities which are performed by individuals who aim at making profit. In short, entrepreneurship and success are closely tied. The entrepreneurial activities originate from exceptional minds of individuals who create the needs and satisfy them as affirmed by Abu-Saifan, (2012).

Nevertheless, many individuals have social entrepreneurs in various characteristics. For instance, Thompson defines a social entrepreneur as a person who realizes opportunities and works to achieve them. Social entrepreneurs can be profit-oriented or mission driven as noted by many. However, the different definitions provide the need to realize the opportunities that need to be satisfied (Thompson, 2002). Profit-oriented social entrepreneurs have a powerful new idea that connects their real world and the visionary one. In this, they are able to solve social problems through innovative measures. These provide the chance to be possessed with the vision for change. Therefore, profit-oriented social entrepreneurs are emotionally charged and create social value through additional profits. The profits are used to drive the society and to solve the social problems encompassed in the real world (Low & MacMillan, 1988).

Alternatively, mission driven social entrepreneurs are change agents, dedicated, highly accountable, and socially alert. These social entrepreneurs utilize every chance to build the economy. They also ensure that the society realizes their presence through change. Mission-driven social entrepreneurs adopt a mission to sustain and create social value. They also recognize and relentlessly pursue the new opportunities in efforts to serve their mission. Mission-driven social entrepreneurs engage in a process of continuous adaptation, innovation, and learning (Littunen, 2000). In addition, these types of entrepreneurs act boldly and are not limited by the current resources which they possess.

In short, profit-oriented social entrepreneurs have some unique characteristics from the mission-driven social entrepreneurs. The profit-oriented social entrepreneur is a risk bearer, high achiever, strategic tinker, and an organizer, as well as a value creator. The mission-driven social entrepreneur is an innovator, initiative taker, dedicated an opportunity alert, persistent, leader, and committed (Hood & Young, 1993). All these characteristics enable each of the above-mentioned social entrepreneurs to achieve their goals depending on their target area.

Business strategies of social entrepreneurs

Social entrepreneurs apply various business strategies during their activities. For instance, non-profit entrepreneurs use income strategies while For-profit entrepreneurs use mission-driven strategies in their activities. Non-profit organizations require revenues in order to operate their activities. These entrepreneurs generate income through commercial means. Some of the income-generating activities are integrated into the activities of the business. Even though little income could be generated from the activities, the aim of the entrepreneurs is achieved since the little is used to tackle a social problem within the society. Non-profit social entrepreneurs also generate income from traditional fundraising contributions as well as the overall budget (Dacin, Dacin& Tracey, 2011).

For-profit social entrepreneurs encompass mission-driven strategies. Traditionally, the idea of mission-driven strategies was kept for non-governmental organizations and the non-profit sector. Currently, things have changed and mission-driven strategies are used by both the non-profit and for-profit entrepreneurs. In the for-profit organizations, the mission-driven strategies are used as a foundation the initiatives of the corporation. Missions in social Entrepreneurship are created to measure the performance of the enterprise in terms of return for shareholders and profit (Dees & Anderson, 2006). Some of the missions aim at bringing the society to normal by addressing the most challenging environmental problems.

Business in social entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurs do business in a way that is unique from other business entrepreneurs. It is noted that social entrepreneurs strive to relieve social problems and to prevent them. They serve the society by adopting measures that help the society to tackle social problems. As noted in the above context, social entrepreneurs focus on activities that relate with the economy and human rights. The above-mentioned examples of classic social entrepreneurs provided shelter to the poor, among other types of aid. Therefore, the social entrepreneurs perform activities that contribute to the economy and enhance the livelihood of the society members (Obschonka, Silbereisen, & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2015). In this, social entrepreneurship can be linked with the economy because the entrepreneurs work hard to develop the economy. The social entrepreneurs ought to identify opportunities. It is through this issue that an organization can survive in the market. Innovative ideas, concepts, and values are required in order to meet the diverse social needs of the economy. Once these activities are met, social change will be obligatory (Bosma, Van Praag& De Wit, 2000).

Activities that for-profit and non-profit can help to provide social ventures are found through entrepreneurship activities. Social entrepreneurs also work for the benefit of the society. Therefore, they are required to obtain funds through commercial means in order to provide excellent services to the society (Mair & Marti, 2006). Social problems prevent the society from obtaining success. The issue is conquered when social entrepreneurs meet the needs of the society. For instance, the helpless and the poor also develop the economy when they acquire jobs, thus contributing to the economy.

Social entrepreneurship and effect on human rights and the economy

Social entrepreneurship receives funding through engagement in commercial activities. Presently, social entrepreneurship aims at dealing with social problems. However, the issue of social entrepreneurship is challenging since funds are required to drive the economy to the next level (Piazza-Georgi, 2002). However, the few activities that social entrepreneurs perform enable some of the challenges to be prevented. In this the future of social entrepreneurship will be a stable one because many entrepreneurs will have realized the effects of social entrepreneurship. When the society becomes active in terms of business, some practices are unlikely to happen. For example, very few cases of robbery and theft could be evident if the economy is developed through entrepreneurial means. Social entrepreneurship requires all individuals to be of significant aid to the society. The poor as well as the less fortunate can grasp entrepreneurial concepts which help to develop the society (Birkinshaw, 1997). Therefore, social entrepreneurship is an important concept that every individual can obtain. Questions that relate to entrepreneurship can help to preach entrepreneurial concepts and to educate many on the importance of the issues. When questions about the economy are dealt with, human rights are dealt with partly. This is due to the fact that improved economy has various advantages to the citizens (Nijkamp, 2003).

Conclusion

Social entrepreneurship helps to develop the economy. It also infringes human rights in ways that are diverse. Social entrepreneurship is believed to gain stability in the future when the society's full potential is unlocked through entrepreneurial ways. For-profit and non-profit concepts help to fund social entrepreneurs. In this, the social entrepreneurs are able to meet the needs of the society. As noted in the above context, the class examples of social entrepreneurs depict that the individuals performed activities that aimed at providing aid to the less fortunate persons in the society. Therefore, social entrepreneurship is about relieving societal burdens and providing a bright future to the poor. Social entrepreneurship has a direct link with the economy. Many countries have obtained a stable equilibrium through social entrepreneurship. Rendering services to the economy and the people is the goal of social entrepreneurship.

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The Debate of the Century: Is a single large habitat better or several small habitats better for the ecosystem (SLOSS?)

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Abstract

The “Is a single large habitat better or several small habitats better for the ecosystem (SLOSS)?” Debate sought for a definite answer. However, various analysts view the topic otherwise, providing different answers but with certain definitions. The first tenet of reserve design supports the view that, a single large reserve conserves a lot of species. However, the reliance on general rules is not fully supported and instead employing a unique strategy for the different cases is believed to have a definite answer to this big debate. It is important to note that the issue of size is relative. For example, plant diversity conservationists would go for several reserves based on geological regime, diversity of habitats and soil types when determine (determining) which would be the best habit for them. The case may be different for forest birds that may require a single but large habitat. To a wider extent, the debate was apparently thought to have missed the main thing concerning where reserves are usually put. Some opponents will argue from the point reiterating that reserves are put where communities or species are found and need to be taken care of. Based on that, they can be made as large as possible or as it may be required to protect the elements of what people are concerned about. Therefore, the choice of optimization as included in the debate may be overruled. All the same, the search for a definite answer would look at a possible outcome about fewer and bigger reserves as being ideal for increased species overlap between reserves, increased growth in species population with reserve area increase, increased minimum-required area, spatial aggregation and uneven loads of species. There are very many factors that come into play and a compromise has to be reached to have one point of view that covers a majority of needs in managing a well-balanced ecosystem. Therefore, a generalized approach of one large area may overlook important details hence ruining the ecosystem. Several small reserves may just be the perfect choice for proper management of the ecosystem.

Introduction

Genetics has been a major topic of discussion, particularly on the subject of conservation biology. Conservation biology was either about genetics or the theory of island biogeography in designing nature reserves or in disputing its utility. This has over the years led to the most contested topic dubbed the “SLOSS” debate. Here is an analogy of how the debate goes about – given money to buy 20,000 hectares of land with all management issues taken care of but with a mandate of taking care of the spatial configuration of the land, what would be better? - having a “single large reserve or several small reserves?” What would be the best option to go for? - One large piece of twenty thousand hectares or twenty equal portions amounting to the same land size? The early proponents of the island biogeography theory use stated that a single large reserve is usually better able to support and preserve much more and bigger populations than an equal piece of land that is divided into various small reserves. This was founded on the following claims:

1. Neighboring areas are in a better position to preserve communities of intact independent species.
2. Adjacent regions are better capable of sustaining viable species’ populations that take place at low population densities, particularly the large vertebrates (Saunders, Hobbs & Margules, 1991).

There are at least two major issues with such arguments. The idea of “large” can only be conceived by the person on the ground. Again, it depends on the species that need to be conserved. For yearly plants, for vegetative perennials and again for small, sedentary animals a small portion of the land could include the entire suitable habitat. Conservationists who are concerned with the protection of plant diversity, therefore, are possibly better off purchasing several reserves of a small number of hectares in habitats’ diversity, geological regimes and soil types instead of buying one large reserve covering hundreds of hectares. Any conservationist interest in forest birds’ species may however not benefit from small reserves of few hectares particularly to support the nesting populations.

Various critics were very fast to state that the island biogeography theory does not require species living on small islands to be part of those living in large islands. Actually, in a stern interpretation of the theory of equilibrium, they cannot be expected to be subsets. On another view, conservationists believed that they could actually save much more species in a system of small reserves than the case would be in a single large reserve although with a less number of species in each of the reserves. Additionally, there were more important criticisms of the strategy since there is not much evidence that the differences in the species diversity on the islands is what is known as a colonization-extinction equilibrium. To be specific, there is not much evidence on the turnover for species to credit the theory of large islands versus small islands. To a much larger extent, on the contrary, the entire debate appears to have missed the point. After all, reserves are put in places where communities or species need to be saved. The reservations can be made as large as possible, or as big as there is need to protect the elements of concern. In this SLOSS debate, there is no optimization choice made. The debate seeks for a definite answer but in case where choices are provided, the choices could describe how small a

region can be in protecting species and the most important parcels in the whole issue.

The SLOSS debate sometimes looks like a dead end. However, there are a number of important facts to note:

1. The notion that a single large reserve was a better option came from a respectable and legitimate organ of ecological understanding. In the same way evolutionists and ecologists have from time-to-time gone after blind alleys, conservationists still can do that. Actually, if people don't often make mistakes, then chances are that they are evading difficult issues.
2. Reserve designs should serve an intended purpose. Reserves meant to protect the diversity of plants could be totally different mainly in character from the ones designed to preserve the diversity of vertebrates. Reserves created to conserve exemplary natural communities will definitely have a different focus from those meant for protecting endangered species.
3. Reserve designs are occasionally dictated by the position of the elements of concern more than through a priori theories concerning the best preserves configuration. A little application of common sense, some fundamental ecological and biological awareness, and a little information concerning a region allows a conservationist to make an informed decision concerning where to draw boundaries of the preserve. All the same, it is important to remember the manner in which the little information affects the initial decisions and jump at the opportunity to change them as new facts emerge.
4. Networks, nodes and MUMs –this is an approach of designing reserve systems to develop the usefulness of the ensemble. A node in this sense is an area with an abnormally high conservation value whereas a network is a corridors' system that permit movement among nodes because the nodes will rarely be big enough to permit persistence of the low-density organisms. Multiple Use Modules (MUMs) on the other hand is a central core that is well-protected and surrounded through areas of increasingly bigger human impact.

In a nutshell, the process involves highlighting the elements of concern, where they are found, how large should the preserve be to achieve the intended purpose effectively, the features of the preserve to be managed and protected to permit the elements to remain in the area and how large a buffer zone is needed to reverse and prevent the degradation of the basic habitat. Another important fact is that the reserve design can never be fixed. It is important for it to be kept open for improvement and amendment as new facts emerge. Extra threats to the basic habitat could need larger or more rigorously prescribed buffer zones. Unexpectedly vigorous populace recoveries in the target species could lessen the need for interventionist monitoring and management.

Although decisions concerning the boundaries for the reserve usually appear arbitrary and unreliable, the results are founded on such basic properties of soil types and their distribution, hydrological and geological features together with the geographical location of already known populations of the basic species of interest. Forests are pointed out as reserves, normally in the places with the highest species' diversity. In such a case, the question of reserve

size will always arise. Land should be protected as much as possible but the question of keeping a single large habitat or several small ones has continued to be the main subject of discussion in biology for over two decades now. Some of the areas of debate have been on the possession of larger populations by the one big reserve compared to the small one. However, those against such a proposition state that such a big reserve could be prone to devastation with a single catastrophic event such as a disease, flood or fire. The proponents of small separate reserves see it as a way of reducing such risks.

Various many reserves have been a desirable option to mitigate the risks involved but it is still not considered as the most appropriate option. This is in the view that it diminishes the species population size and exposes them to a high chance of getting extinct. Additionally, a small reserve may experience a decay of the system leading to a loss of various species. Still on the same, small reserves are specifically affected by the attack of strange species. For instance, domestic mammals will move into a rainforest about five kilometers, introducing both disease and alien plant seeds while eating eggs, ruining nests and destroying seedlings. Consequently, many species will need a specific threshold-population size or scope to exist without difficulties (Van Horne, 1983).

In this debate, important facts can be laid out – large reserves protect a bigger area with a variety of habitats such as forest edges, eco-tones, swamps, ridges and interior clearings. This implies that there will certainly be more niches that translate into greater diversity. It is therefore imperative to preserve zones like these that provide and at the same time produce biodiversity. A number of studies from the time the debate began have shown the effects from a decreased reserve size taking into account great projects in some parts of Latin America such as Panama and the Amazon basin in Brazil touching on the feasibility of saving forest fragments.

Barro Colorado Island in Panama was for a time a forested hilltop in a very magnificent tropical rainforest. The construction of the Panama Canal and the damming of the Chagres River caused floods that left the hilltop as an island of forests, about 6 sq. miles. The Barro Colorado became a biological reserve back in 1923 and has over the years continued to be a center of rigorous research and for all these years, there have been a lot of animal population changes. The first to go were big predators such as the puma, jaguar and the harpy eagle. Without big predators, mammals such as agoutis, pacas, peccaries and other populations increased to higher populations by more than 200%. On the other hand, about 45 species of birds disappeared by 1970 as a result of an increased omnivore population, the harm to some niches such as forest edges and meadows and again due to the loss of sufficient area. The trend has continued to increase with more than 65 bird species getting lost from the time the island was formed. Therefore, the size of the reserve made some contribution to the state of affairs experienced by the species population.

In an effort to mitigate the effects of such conflicts and lessen the issues of the reserve size, biologists came up with a suggestion of compromise that involves the creation of various small reserves linked through forest corridors. This establishment would permit the migration between the series of the sections, as they assist in the protection against a huge die-off resulting from one particular occurrence. Corridors are particularly significant in the event that global warming would take place because the species should be in a position to move to other places

with changes in climate. However, a lot more research is needed to establish the optimal size of a reserve and the plan needed to sustain the most biodiversity.

Island Biogeography and Nature Reserve Design

The concept of island biogeography has been taken as the first conservation biology law. The reason has been as a result of human actions making natural habitats increasingly isolated that look like islands. As a result, the number of species on the remaining regions could change with a decline in immigration and with an increasing extinction. Again, through the identification of potential mechanisms defining the species diversity loss, this island biogeography concept could help in suggesting modalities by which nature reserves can be designed to maximize the said ability of containing diversity.

Some of the recommendations made in the pasts reiterate that a large reserve had an upper hand compared to a small reserve. Well, a single large reserve has its own benefits, allowing growth and development of species. However, in a case where it should be divided, it should be done equally in terms of spacing from one another and not linearly. Linear reserves should be linked with corridors. Essentially, corridors are a significant factor to consider in such developments. In the event that a reserve is isolated and small, it must be circular and not out rightly linear. The application of this island biogeography concept has not been without controversy. The battle lies in the comparison between one large reserve and various small reserves of the same size in terms of protecting biodiversity. The Island biogeography concept only highlights the richness of species for single regions. Again, it does not predict anything concerning biodiversity across various sites, or the manner in which that diversity will be put into comparison to other species' areas.

In essence, research has proven that one large area will almost have a lot more diversity in most cases when compared to single equal-sized areas adding up to the same size of the one single habitat scenario. There are various factors that account for this, including greater isolation existing between areas that permit trophic equivalency. However, there has been an argument that while this could be factual, a lot of species of conservation significance will not thrive on small reserve areas because of the increased rates of extinction. Actually, only "weeds" have been believed to thrive on these small islands. At the same time, various invertebrate and plant population accounting for about 90% of the universal biodiversity require very small areas of habitats to thrive, several square feet in particular. Therefore, small is relative for these species and will be somewhat different from what a cougar would require.

The issue about corridors is all in their ability to protect biodiversity. Can they be a good resource for conservation investment measures? Those who value corridors reiterate that unless the said reserves are linked in a certain way, a lot of the species with big homes such as the cougar, the bear and wolves will encounter increased rates of extinction since the existing reserves could not be big enough to offer support to them. Again, they believe that the migration between these reserves is significant in maintaining the populations' genetic health. On the contrary, critics have had their say – there is no much evidence that shows how corridors are used for the target species. The data that is available suggests that various species will not actually use them. For example, a research in Minnesota demonstrated that wolves will just use the road-

less corridors that are more than six miles wide (Hamaide & Sheerin, 2011).

Corridors could be applied by non-target species with somewhat better dispersal capabilities. Through the connection of reserves, corridors could decrease the evident isolation and enhance the chance of weeds, disease or exotic pests from invading the sites. Corridors are usually expensive to buy. Provided the absence of data that supports the advantages of corridors, would money resources be used well in protecting other, more useful species of the universe? Additionally, it is also crucial to note that various smaller designed reserves that are not optimized could be helpful in protecting most of the biodiversity contained in them. Remnant steppes in Wisconsin as well as in Iowa along rail roads are linear and small. At the same time, they offer support to a lot more diversity of butterfly communities than most of the work done by some of the bigger reserves.

One Michael McCarthy on his research about the uncertainty paradox of the heated SLOSS debate in conservation biology noted that it has stayed without an amicable solution for many years (Fahrig, 2003). The conservation of species has since then been through a somewhat unclear procedure. Additional research has found out that this relies on the species' extinction risks, with various small reserves optimizing the situation when the rate or extinction risk is not high. On the other side, single reserves become very much useful with an increased extinction rate. The only problem has been establishing the estimates of these extinction risks. With these facts, there is a chance of thinking that the uncertainty would obscure the process of choosing an optimal nature reserve design. All the same, if the issue is re-cast and the search for a reserve system that is most appropriate to uncertainty in the extinction risk starts all over again, a single reserve is found to be optimal while having several small ones presented as risky. This appears complex but accounting for uncertainty in one of the major parameters actually seems to assist in finding a solution to this debate.

The number of reserves that can increase the species' extinction risk in a reserve system is determined by various factors such as the relationship between a single patch versus the entire patch area. Therefore, the optimal number of these reserves is determined by a given target for a certain extinction risk as sought by a manager instead of the dynamics of the given species. Actually, the real extinction risk and again the description of the uncertainty in this kind of risk do not impact the consequence absolutely.

One of the important things that need to be addressed is the question of whether we really need these nature reserves to conserve species. The discussions concerning the feasibility, purpose and nature reserve designs have been for some time a major debate. Looking at the theories that formed the basis of the arguments, it can be resolved that the SLOSS debate is something that has been in existence earlier than the time believed to have been started (Wu, 2008). Publications made earlier often concur with the belief that a man should live with the nature on condition that it does not jeopardize life sources and that a reserve or a park makes preservation of the scenic beauty of nature in order to protect life and for people's enjoyment.

The concepts that have been attached on the establishment of a nature reserve started from the establishment of an ecology subdivision known as island biogeography. Most importantly, these postulated theories regard reserves as insular refugia normally usually surrounded all around by inhospitable landscape or what are called islands. It all starts with

the provisional rules needed in the design and establishment of these wildlife reserves. While conservation strategies have been opposed based on reserve size, large reserves are seen as most appropriate compared to small reserves mainly due to their ability to contain a variety of viable species populations. The SLOSS debate has stretched over to issues related with the shape of the reserve together with debates concerning the manner in which the reserves are arrayed. The normal perception is for reserves to be close to one another for the purposes of allowing the migration amongst them (Tjorve, 2010).

Just like in any other discussion, there usually are merits and demerits to both sides of the proximity debate. What has drawn a lot of attention in an effort to come up with a solution to the SLOSS debate are the issues of corridors and buffers. All the same, with each of the emerging proposals, there appears to be an upcoming host of demands that come to light. So, how much habitat is sufficient? Which type of habitats need protection? It doesn't end there, the species that need to be saved should be identified such as the keystone species, certain trophic degrees, some taxa, species prone to extinction, communities, populations, ecosystems or should it be all kinds of species?

Answering the SLOSS debate will require a concise look into the number of individuals that should be protected. Coming up with a good way of measuring the richness of the species is also very much needed. There should be some knowledge on whether classic theories can be applied in a realistic manner. New developments in the area have laid an emphasis on the identification of areas of high interest in conservation much more and above the manner in which these areas are preserved after their identification. The selection algorithms of reserves, GIS, gap analysis together with other computerized strategies are now commonplace in the planning of conservation (Sutherland et al., 2009).

It is no doubt that the SLOSS debate needs redress. It requires measures that are highly effective in order to preserve what would otherwise have been destroyed. The protection and conservation of species provide opportunities of learning and enjoyment for all and they offer study places with regards to the environment. Therefore, reserves are very much needed to control and manage the growth and development of species. So, the SLOSS debate has over the years been a great question that has great potential of developing conservation measures needed to safeguard the environment (Soule et al., 2005).

Species conservation is one of the ways of using land and has over the years continued to compete with other sectors such as agriculture, urban settlements and development as well as outdoor recreation for an increasingly limited land supply. Therefore, conservations must make decisions concerning priority and the idea of which reserve size allocation is needed for conservation to obtain optimum results – one big reserve unit or several smaller ones? The scale of the units needed for species conservation will be different based on the various habitats and with each of the species that need conservation. Therefore, the consideration being made is possibly in terms of a thousand hectares or so while in the developed world, the areas could be only some few hectares (Sunstein & Nussbaum, 2004).

The issue of how best to make use of limited resources is very critical both to starters in conservation measures based on reserves' shopping lists and financial resources and the national organizations. Bigger organizations like the Nature Conservancy Council in the UK have a

big capacity to support agreements through management even with an insufficient budget. So, should such inadequate resources be committed to the conservation of a small number of large sites or to about 2 or 3 times as many other smaller units? In reality, the proportional overlap of these species is an important factor with an inclination towards several small reserves having a high volume of species compared to one big reserve (McCarthy et al., 2011).

Policy evaluation on Species protection

The issue of determining the size of any nature reserve requires robust policy to ensure sustainable conservation plans. Nature reserves' expansion is a very significant strategy of public policy needed for the protection of biodiversity. Usually, there are biological constraints in the form of the area needs of species, economic constraints in terms of opportunity costs of making a conversion of the smaller districts of administration into nature reserves and finally, spatial constraints in terms of the much needed connectivity among the given areas in site selection (Shaffer, 1981).

Ideally, policy provides direction and fundamental principles needed for monitoring and assessing the species protection implementation, recovery and activities of management. The protection of species is built on the premise that they could be at risk of extinction should their normal growth and development be interfered with through external factors. For instance, the Species at Risk Act in Canada has been on the fore front to prevent the disappearance of species in the region (Arthur et al., 2004)

Policy on conservation involves monitoring, which is primarily the habit of gathering, planning and tracking information related to development towards the attainment of the objectives of population together with distribution for the recovery plan of species, their habitat and any looming threats. This involves a management plan for all species and any other information related to the progress in the establishment of identified actions in the plan of recovering, the action strategy or plan of management (Schonewald-Cox & Bayless, 1986). An evaluation of such policies is needed to assess the importance of progress that can be tracked through evaluation based on objectives, goals and actions. This must be done prior to reporting and rendering public the outcomes.

As the SLOSS debate continues, the underlying elements are the issues of evaluation, protection, recovery strategies, establishment, tracking and evaluation. Conservation policy is built on the premise of establishing an adaptive management strategy with a good monitoring and assessment plan. This is needed for progress towards the attainment of the much needed degree of protection and the performance of the stated management objectives on a continual basis. The outcomes should then be used to make decisions and act at each of the various cycle stages. Whether in a large single reserve or several small reserves, the focus must be on the contribution being made to abate threats and enhance species' status for the purposes of identifying where more action could be required (Lomolino & Channell, 1998).

The work of government institutions in the tracking and assessment procedures for species should therefore be guided through predetermined overarching principles such as the promotion of lasting monitoring. The commitment of the government towards monitoring and assessment should reflect the desire for high-quality, lasting data to evaluate species' responses

to recover actions and the abatement of threats (Lomolino, 1994).

Most importantly, evaluations by the policy makers should be based on the results of each of two options in the SLOSS debate with specifics on factors that can be measured, bound by time and such as are connected to recovery objectives. Again, the conservation policies should aim at enhancing cooperation and collaboration amongst the set jurisdictions for further development of efficient and effective monitoring and assessment programs and create a common understanding and activities' co-ordination. Transparency is very important for the public to understand how such developments are of use to them and in what ways has the government managed the resources. Without a clear exposition on such issues related to good policy, the SLOSS debate will just be around even for many years to come (Luck, 2007).

Controversy on the SLOSS debate

The SLOSS debate has been noted to be one of the most heated controversies in the history of conservation. In this debate, two different approaches, which stand for several small and single large are established. The approaches aim at protecting biodiversity in a specified region. The contiguous land reserve and the sizeable approaches are favored by the single large (Laurance, 2008). The multiple smaller reserves are noted to equal the large reserve and are favored by the several small approaches. In each of these approaches, area determination is based on the species that is involved or the type of habitat.

Jared Diamond, in 1975, proposed that the single large reserve was more beneficial compared with the several small reserves. The benefit was based in terms of diversity and richness. The proposal was believed to be a landmark idea by other scholars. The American scientist based his assertions on the theory of island biogeography, as noted earlier. Even though this assertion was challenged by other ecologists such as Daniel Simberloff, some students noted that several smaller reserves would be contained in the unique species. In this the smaller reserves would be harbored by the single large reserves. It is through this assertion that other scientists such as Dennis L. Murphy and Bruce A. Wilcox argued about the threat to global biodiversity that was posed by environmental changes and human activity. In this, the two scientists were responding to an article by Simberloff that had been figured in the American Naturalist journal (Kingsland, 2002).

The SLOSS debate is not only beneficial to interdependent species but also to the majority of the communities, especially regions where large vertebrates and support populations of species are evident. Following the studies of the habitats, the researchers asserted that many communities living in the contiguous areas benefit from the issue. It is also apparent that support species require connected or sufficient food and mates in order to form developments. Aquatic or terrestrial habitat is fragmented by logging, roads, human developments, and dams. This leads to fragmentation or loss of the habitat, making it difficult for migratory species to feed or rest along the migration routes. The competition for the resources increases when the mobile species become crowded into the smaller reserves as a result of the habitat fragmentation. In this, it is likely for diseases to be transmitted (Lindholm & Auster, 2002). Therefore, this forms the basis that the SLOSS debate is not very beneficial since the species cannot migrate with ease when they are crowded, leading to death and termination of some species.

The edge effect could have a solution to the SLOSS debate. It is through this assertion that the total area of the available habitat could be decreased or interrupted, leading to fragmentation. The edge effect results from the increase of the edge to the interior. In this, the area of the habitats increases, providing room for magnification. The ratio of the edge to the interior points that the species could be more vulnerable to disturbance and predation. In this, it is clear that the edge effect impacts the species in a negative manner as they are adapted to interior habitats (Ewers & Didham, 2006).

Following the above controversy, it is noteworthy that the SLOSS debate may not come to a solution in the near future. This is due to the fact that the debate has spurred aggressive research by various scientists and ecologists. The effects of habitat fragmentation have been felt in numerous areas, especially in cases where each of the above-mentioned approaches depends of significant circumstances such as the viability or the leading conclusions. For the small reserves to be beneficial, the extinction risk must be low for the indigenous species. When the extinction risk is high, the single large reserves may be preferred. The uncertainties in the extinction risks have led to the lack of a suitable answer to the SLOSS debate (Simberloff, 1992). In this, scientists are unable to estimate the risks, especially in cases where a single larger reserve is established. The security and habitat integrity have generalized the extinction risks; hence confusing the most preferable manner for the scientists. Alternatively, the reality check, as pointed by a number of ecologists covers the whole debate. The ecologists affirm that the SLOSS debate must have been missed the point by estimating the number of species that should be kept in a single reserve (Groeneveld, 2005). Some ecologists depict that individuals place species in reserves where they want to save without making them bigger when the numbers grow. With large reserves, the elements are protected without the optimization choice. The choices that people make should thus be enough for the critical parcels in order to find a lasting solution to the debate.

Factors that endanger species

Adhering to the SLOSS debate means that some of the species may be endangered. The endangered species is that which is in danger of extinction through a significant portion of its existence. A threatened species may become endangered in the near future. To prevent extinction from occurring, factors such as modification, destruction, or restriction of habitat need to be considered. These factors result from urban development, agriculture, deforestation, mining, and pollution. Human exploitation is yet another factor that results when a species is exploited for recreational, commercial, educational, and scientific purposes (Connor & McCoy, 2001). This could diminish the species in huge numbers. The competition for the invasive species has led to displacement. Predation and diseases have also endangered huge numbers of certain species.

The above factors endanger species at a rate that is not recommended by many conservation organizations. Species that are kept in the small reserves may lead to extinction if the above-mentioned factors are applied. Regions and countries around the world have higher risk extinction to species in the coming years. Species that have the greatest need are likely to disappear if they are not protected. The endangered species act affirms that the species may go

extinct due to reasons which are primary as affirmed by Brook, Zint & De Young, (2003).

Will the SLOSS debate exist if the species are endangered? Several small habitats create room for endangering more species. Habitat destruction is common in the several small habitats as human activities destroy the planet and more wild habitats. In this, the natural landscape is polluted. Even though the actions kill some species, it is apparent that others destroy them in order to obtain shelter and food. These means of survival are considered some of the factors that affect some animals, preventing them from survival. The species population is likely to decline when species are endangered in a small reserve where it is not difficult to kill (Groom et al., 2006).

A single large habitat could be better compared to the small habitat. In areas where the species is left on its own, it would be somewhat difficult to end its chain of survival. Conservatives of these species urge for the existence of a single habitat which is large in order to create room for survival (Shogren et al., 1999). A small reserve poses numerous challenges to the species, leading to death. In addition, the surviving species is in most cases introduced to an exotic species. For instance, an insect or plant could be transplanted, introduced or taken to a natural place which is competitive or predatory. The biological environment for the species is a bit safe compared to the new one because the species have adapted to the environment for centuries. However, introducing new species may not work well for the native ones due to the competition for food and hunting. In this, the species could be destroyed in the course of the competition, leading to extinction (Shaffer & Samson, 1985).

The concept of biodiversity

The SLOSS debate can be settled with the knowledge of the biodiversity concept. This entails conservation from the traditional forests to the conservation of biology. In this, it does not matter whether the species is derived from a single large habitat or several small habitats. Therefore, answering the SLOSS debate can be a difficult task with the existence of the above-mentioned factors that endanger species. In short, the concept of biodiversity, as noted, brings the relationship between activism and conservation biology. In addition, the objective of the subject, which is to conserve the available species, is upheld with concerns from the fields of conservation (Burkey, 1989).

Prior research on species conservation has depicted that the several small habitats destroy numerous species leading to extinction. Therefore, research on the single large habitats should be initiated to obtain a solution to the SLOSS debate. Research on ecology, taxonomy, behavior, evolution, and distribution of species has allied with other concerns on the conservation of the endangered species. Species extinction and habitat destruction are common in the modern world. However, people establish reasons that lack reasonable basis in efforts to kill species. Energy conservatives have understood the concept of biodiversity and have struggled to prevent species extinction (Pickett & Thompson, 1978).

The debate will continue if a lasting solution is not established. Poachers intend to diminish the well-known species while conservation biology and ecologists intend to preserve them. The debate on species conservation must be understood for the species to be distributed. The single large reserves provide room for generating more species. The small reserves endanger

the species in the ways that have been analyzed earlier. Therefore, the diversity of life forms is noted to be the most effective method of conserving species. The species should be identified while their life forms should not be intertwined. This would help to retain the original species (Foin et al., 1998). Biological diversity enables ecologists and scientists to preserve the original species without destroying the environment.

Conclusion

The SLOSS debate will remain unchanged if the concepts analyzed in the above context are not considered. The species, which have been endangered for long, need to be preserved in order to prevent extinction and destruction of habitats. A single large reserve is noted to conserve a lot of species compared with the several small reserves which are a pathway for destroying species. Therefore, the debate can come to a halt if habitats are kept in single large habitats where factors such as competition and predation are monitored. The controversial side of the debate is that the species in the single large reserve and the several small reserves compete for resources, proving high chances of predation and destruction. In other words, the species can be protected through the diversity of life forms, a condition which is known as the concept of biodiversity.

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Japan's Postwar Foreign Policy: From Free-Riding to Self- Determination

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Introduction

Since the end of World War II, Japan has pursued a remarkably pacifistic foreign policy. After the devastation of the war, Japan sought to benefit from its enforced disarmament by free-riding on U.S. security guarantees. However, the waning and end of the Cold War ushered in a changed security landscape, and the U.S. has steadily pressured Japan to assume more responsibility for its own defense. From a game theory perspective, Japan's long-standing positive-sum game of relying on U.S. military protection is giving way to a more complex game, one in which Japan is beginning to assume responsibility for its own security.

Free-Riding on Defense: The Yoshida Doctrine

Since 1945, Japan's foreign policy has largely been defined in terms of its relationship with the United States. World War II left Japan a vanquished and shattered nation, and the Japanese people became, by and large, profoundly pacifistic as a result. For its part, the United States was determined to ensure that Japanese militarism never returned. Americans wrote a new constitution for Japan, which the Japanese signed in 1947. Under Article 9 of this constitution, "The Japanese people forever renounce war as a sovereign right of the nation and the threat or use of force as a means of settling international disputes" (Mizokami, 2012). Accordingly, Japan is forbidden a military, although it does maintain the so-called Self-Defense Force (SDF). By law, the budget for the SDF cannot exceed one percent of GDP (Cooney, 2015).

Since Japan was not allowed to have a military, the United States had to be prepared to defend it. Japanese Prime Minister Shigeru Yoshida soon discovered that this could be turned to Japan's favor. The fact that Japan could not defend itself meant that the United States was tasked with the burden of defending it—which meant that Japan did not have to defend itself, which meant Japan could spare itself the cost of doing so. Free of any obligation to spend on a costly military, Japan could focus its efforts on recovering from the ravages of World War II,

again aided substantially by America (Cooney, 2015). Intriguingly, it has even been suggested that Article 9 is of Japanese origins, and reflects an authentic desire on the part of Japanese policymakers to renounce war. In essence, Japan could free-ride on American military power, in return for allowing the United States access to Japanese soil, territorial waters, and airspace. Since the United States did not want a resurgent Japan in any case, the aims of the two countries were rather neatly aligned (Cooney, 2015).

Following this so-called Yoshida Doctrine, Japan signed the United States-Japan Security Treaty in 1952, and later revised it in 1960. To this day, the United States-Japan Security Treaty is Japan's only formal military alliance (Cooney, 2015). The two versions are very different: under the 1952 version, the United States was granted *carte blanche* military access to Japan, in exchange for the responsibility of defending Japan, chiefly from communists. The 1960 version is more balanced, and requires consultation between the two nations. While the two versions of the treaty are very different, as a whole the treaty is unique among all bilateral treaties in that it assigns very different responsibilities to each signatory. Under the terms of the treaty, Japan's responsibilities consist chiefly of providing the U.S. with access to its territory, so that the U.S. can provide for "maintenance of the peace and security of the Far East" (Mizokami, 2012). The United States is obligated to defend Japan, but Japan is not obligated to defend the U.S. or any of its possessions (Mizokami, 2012).

In the Pacific Rim, the United States-Japan Security Treaty has a significance arguably comparable to NATO. By design, the Treaty functions to alleviate fears that Japan will rearm itself. Many of the countries in the surrounding area, including South Korea, China, Taiwan, and much of Southeast Asia, were at least partially occupied by Japan during or even before World War II, and the specter of Japanese militarism and imperialism in the Asia-Pacific region has cast a very long shadow (Cooney, 2015). Of course, as seen, the experience of World War II also made Japan an extremely pacifistic nation, averse to militarism and imperialism.

No discussion of the postwar U.S.-Japan relationship would be complete without some consideration of the profoundly important economic angle. While Japan had modernized to a considerable degree since the Meiji Restoration of 1868, World War II devastated the Japanese economy. The United States played an important role in facilitating Japanese recovery, cultivating bilateral economic relationships and reconstruction by allowing Japan access to its markets (Hook, Gilson, Hughes, & Dobson, 2005).

While the U.S. never intended for Japan to be anything more than a second-rate economic power, the goal was to make it a bulwark against communism. The United States absorbed Japanese exports, facilitating a precipitous economic recovery (Hook et al., 2005). Over time this would lead to a tremendous trade surplus for Japan, which in 2003 totaled \$7 billion. Thanks to the economic interdependence promoted by this relationship, a number of Japanese corporations joined the American business landscape. This relationship has been such an economic success that it has turned Japan into something of a competitor with the United States, leading to periodic strains in the U.S.-Japan relationship (Hook et al., 2005).

From a game theory standpoint, then, Japan under the Yoshida Doctrine played a positive-sum game with the United States—at least up to a point. By adopting a bandwagon strategy with regard to the American occupation, Japan was able to take advantage of the United

States' willingness to guarantee its security. This was a positive-sum game because it also gave the United States access to Japanese territory, allowing it to anchor itself to the far side of the Pacific and preserve a vital gateway to Asia. The U.S. could, and did, use its military access to Japan as a forward base of operations during both the Korean and Vietnam wars. The Japanese willingness to allow the U.S. to utilize Japan as a springboard gave the U.S. offensive capabilities it would probably not have had otherwise (Ahr, 2014; Mizokami, 2012).

Contesting Yoshida: American Pressure and Japanese Rearmament

The positive-sum game between the United States and Japan was, for a time, a signal feat of postwar diplomacy. The United States and the world did not want a rearmed Japan; Japan offered them a pacifistic Japan. In return, Japan gained the freedom to rebuild itself with minimal investment in its own defense. However, the asymmetry of this relationship between the U.S. and Japan gradually created tensions that have grown over the course of decades, tensions that are more relevant than ever before for making sense of the contemporary relationship between the two countries.

Ironically, the United States, post-war occupier and guarantor of Japan's security during the Cold War, also drove Japan to undertake limited, but still significant, rearmament during the Cold War. As the worldwide rivalry with the Soviet Union and its many proxies continued to impose an increasing strain on the resources of the United States, American policymakers expected Japan to shoulder more of the burden of defending itself. There is even a term for this phenomenon, *gaiatsu*, meaning "pressure from the outside" (Cooney, 2015). By 1990, Japan had the world's third-largest defense budget, coming in behind only the Soviet Union and of course the United States. While the country was still bound by law to spend no more than one percent of GDP on defense, the combination of precipitous economic growth and *gaiatsu* meant that Japan had a great deal of money to spend on its SDF, and—thanks to outside, American pressure—the incentives to do so (Cooney, 2015).

Japan's first major post-Cold War security test was the Gulf War of 1990-1991, a conflict for which Japan was ill-prepared. Japan was not able to react in time with a credible response, either financial or military. Overall, Japan ended up contributing \$1.4 billion in financial assistance to the war effort, but this contribution was little recognized or appreciated by the other nations engaged in the Gulf War (Togo, 2010). The result was a profound sense of bitterness and defeat in Japan. Indeed, in Japan the war is still seen as a Japanese defeat.

As a result of the events of 1991, in 1992-1993 reformist politicians broke with the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) to create new parties, notably the Japan New Party, the Sakigake (Harbinger) Party, and the Japan Renewal Party (Togo, 2010). The LDP briefly lost power from 1993-1994, only reclaiming power by forming a coalition with the Japan Socialist Party under new Prime Minister Tomiichi Murayama. Over the course of the 1990s, these electoral shifts helped to trigger the creation of a new approach toward security, one in which Japan would play a more active role in its own security. But while traditional passive pacifism was losing ground, Japan was still pacifist enough for these proposals to include a strong emphasis on multilateral cooperation (Togo, 2010).

Overall progress has been slow, however. While the 1990s saw a revisiting of the Japan-U.S. security relationship, with a larger role recognized for the SDF, there is a wide-ranging consensus that contemporary Japan needs to assume more responsibility for its own defense. The argument has been made that the United States-Japan Security Treaty has had the effect of capping Japan's political maturation by separating the domain of its responsibilities from its interests (Mizokami, 2012). In essence, Japan is still not truly responsible for its own defense. While it finances many of the American forces based on its soil, Japan can still rely on the U.S. as the guarantor and architect of its security (Mizokami, 2012).

In December of 2013, Japan took a significant step forward in the direction of assuming more responsibility for its own security, with the passage of a wide-ranging package of defense and security reforms (Miller, 2014). Japan now has its own National Defense Program Guidelines (NDPG), a national security council built on U.S. lines, and more progress on defining the role of the SDF in Japanese security. The ramifications for Japan's neighbors vary, but some of their reactions point to continued tensions in the Asia-Pacific region. More broadly, however, the new directions in Japanese foreign policy signal a new phase in Japan's long post-Cold War turn toward greater engagement with its Asian neighbors.

Japan's Turn Toward Asia

Japan is geographically a part of East Asia, of course, but the fact that consists of a series of islands at a significant distance from the mainland has long served as something of a buffer from developments elsewhere in the region. Indeed, a grand theme in Japanese history would seem to be periods of greater isolation and divergence punctuated with periods of closer cultural contacts with foreign powers and civilizations. Much of the Cold War arguably constitutes such a period, as Japan had very limited contacts with its near neighbors in Northeast Asia, namely the People's Republic of China, the Soviet Union, and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) (Grimes, 2004). Unlike previous such periods, Japan was relying on profound and deepening contacts with the United States.

Late in the Cold War, however, the tide began to turn. Japan once more engaged with its East Asian neighbors. Taiwan, the Republic of China, and the Republic of Korea, South Korea, were key early economic partners. Japan was not an important exporter of capital during the 1950s and 1960s, but the growth of the Japanese economy in the 1970s and 1980s led to a rise in foreign direct investment (FDI), and Taiwan and South Korea were significant early recipients. Like Japan, Taiwan and South Korea also underwent impressive economic booms in the context of strong diplomatic, security, and economic ties with the United States, ultimately graduating from the ranks of countries receiving Japanese aid (Grimes, 2004).

The 1980s also saw the rise of China, and a new phase in Japan-China relations. As in Taiwan and South Korea, Japan began to establish productive economic and diplomatic ties with China, providing foreign direct investment (Grimes, 2004). By this time, Japanese aid was focused on investment in a variety of economically productive projects, including harbors, power plants, telecommunications infrastructure, and the like. The relationship has not been without friction: Japan's own policies of protecting its exports have led it to block many imports from China, except for those coming from local branches of Japanese companies. Still,

despite the long-standing animosity between Japan and China, their economies have become increasingly interdependent. China is now the single biggest recipient of Japanese development aid (Grimes, 2004).

At the same time, the rise of China has posed security challenges for Japan as well, and Tokyo's own efforts to establish an independent security policy have exacerbated frictions with Beijing. Japanese security and strategy planners are already criticizing China for its hawkishness in a variety of disputes over small islands and reefs in the East and South China Seas. Japan and China contest possession of the Senkaku/Diaoyu Islands in the East China Sea, and China is locked in a number of disputes over other island groups with the Philippines, Vietnam, and other countries. The Senkaku Islands are now held by Japan, but China has displayed a willingness to engage in provocative brinkmanship (Miller, 2014; Smith, 2015).

Japanese engagement with Southeast Asia has followed somewhat similar lines to the earlier pattern of engagement with South Korea and Taiwan. After the war, Japan paid out reparations to a number of the Southeast Asian nations it had devastated, disbursing \$1,152 million (Sudo, 2002). This in turn became something of a beachhead for Japan to establish economic involvement in the region. Even the reparations payments themselves are widely agreed to have benefited Japan much more than they benefited the recipient nations, because most of them came in the form of commodity and service grants. This allowed Japan to develop strong export markets even as it technically made amends in the region. Japan also granted \$737 million in loans, and extended special quasi-reparations, economic and technical cooperation, to countries who had waived their right to demand reparations (Sudo, 2002).

Since the end of the Vietnam War, Japan's foreign policy in Southeast Asia has centered on engaging the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), particularly the six key members Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand (Sudo, 2002). Japan played an important role in multilateral initiatives to reconstruct Cambodia after the devastating 1978-1991 conflict. In 1992, Tokyo hosted an international conference on Cambodian reconstruction, which raised \$880 million and established an official committee to coordinate the reconstruction efforts. Later that year, the SDF was deployed to Cambodia as part of the UN peace process, the first time Japanese forces had participated in such an action since the end of World War II (Sudo, 2002).

Conclusion

Japan is beginning to assume responsibility for its own security once more, after decades of relying on the United States to protect it. The world in which the United States-Japan Security Treaty was signed no longer exists. The menace of communism is no more, and the U.S. has long pressured Japan to assume more responsibility for its own defense. Japan's long decades of free-riding on U.S. protection are waning. From a game theory standpoint, Japan is playing a more complex game, arming and preparing itself against brinkmanship with China even as it confronts a far more complex and ambiguous strategic landscape in the 21st century.

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Islamic Fundamentalist Group Boko Haram in Nigeria

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Abstract

The Islamic fundamentalist group, Jama'atuAhlus-SunnahLidda'AwatiWal Jihad, known to many around the world as Boko Haram, is an extremist group that has wreaked havoc in the northern region of the country of Nigeria and in the capital city, Abuja. The actions they have committed which range from violent attacks on government offices and the United Nations to kidnapping young children threaten the peace and stability of the country. Due to the lack of information to be found in this isolated region of the world, a wide range of conflicting narratives of what exactly Boko Haram is. This report will focus on the truth of Boko Haram, and will explain its creation to its place in the world today.

Keywords: Boko Haram, Nigeria, Islamic, Terrorist, Fundamentalist

Introduction

Islamic Fundamentalist Group Boko Haram in Nigeria has now achieved a level of notoriety that rivals that of Al-Qaeda. Boko Haram's main goal is to overthrow the government of Nigeria, which is based on western ideals due to its colonial ties with Great Britain, and replace it with an Islamic-based sate (Chothia, 2015). The official Arabic name, when translated means "People Committed to the Propagation of the Prophet's Teachings and Jihad". To follow suit with their original name, the term "Boko Haram" means that the western education is not allowed with "boko" as used in colonial English simply referring to a "book". The group of Islamists has undergone various changes since the 1990s, particularly towards the end. It was adversely affected in July 2009 when a big number of its members were killed by the government forces. Their leader, Muhammad Yusuf was also killed in these attacks. Despite these trials and tribulations that they have faced, Boko Haram has successfully rebuilt itself and is reengaging itself in attack on the region.

The Boko Haram militia group conducts armed operations and has been linked with the killing of many thousands of people in the northeastern Nigeria. Their targets have been worship centers especially churches. However, Muslims have also been found victims of such attacks. Despite being founded in 2002, its violent campaigns started in 2009, particularly in Maiduguri, the main capital of the Borno state. Their war is against the government but the civilians have fallen prey of their inhuman actions (Weate, 2014). Two years after its founding, Boko Haram went to Kanamma, Yobe State in 2004 near the Nigeria-Niger border where a base named “Afghanistan” was set up by the militia group. This saw various attacks on adjacent police outposts.

The group promotes a version of Islam that forbids Muslims to be involved in any social or political activity linked with the western culture and society. This includes, though not limited to, voting during elections, putting on trousers and shirts, and getting secular education (Al Jazeera, 2015). Boko Haram claimed that non-believers governed Nigeria even at a time when it had a Muslim president. Just like any other terrorist group, Boko Haram has continued to instill fear and paralyze operations in the targeted areas. As Boko Haram’s operations continue, the severity of their attacks and actions increases as they vie for full control over the region in Nigeria.

Study Objectives

This study is important because it will help to enhance the experience and knowledge of the Nigerian government in the deterrence and prevention of terrorism and violent conflicts. The causes of the issues in the study are based on intertribal clashes and religion. Politics is also another cause of the issues, as well as the fight for modernism. It is apparent that the Muslim community wanted to get rid of western education. The knowledge of Islamic education, according to Boko Haram, would help to reduce the moral and ethical effects of western education. The effects of terrorism in Nigeria have led to the lack of education in the affected areas. The study is important at this time and in the future because it will lead to the protection of human life and freedom of families across the globe.

Operations by Boko Haram

Boko Haram’s center of operations is located in this northern eastern Nigeria, an impoverished region that has long been neglected by the capital city and government. How exactly Boko Haram was able to successfully come into power is subject to dispute. Some believe that the weak military presence in the region resulted in a power vacuum that Boko Haram filled. Civilian militia fighters withdrew from the region following orders from the government army and saw “people being slaughtered like insects”, according to an interview by the Associated Press. (Umar, 2015) Others believe that due to a lack of organization and hardship within the state, many civilians looked towards Boko Haram and supported it initially order and stability. Following the precipitous drying of Lake Chad, fishing and farming livelihoods were effectively ruined, leaving residents no choice but to follow Boko Haram’s demands in order to survive (Magnowski, 2015). Regardless, the main reason why these cracks in Baga appeared was as a result of government neglect. In both cases, had aid arrived, whether in the form of reinforcements in troops or in food and water, Boko Haram would likely not have been able

to come into power in Baga. Even basic facts are difficult to confirm as a result of government neglect in this area. Nigeria's governance problems have essentially paved the road for Boko Haram to rise to the level of success that we see today. As the government continues to deny its negligence on this matter and to accuse critics for exaggerating the amount of damage taking place, Nigeria turns a blind eye toward terrorism.

Only adding to the problem is the fact that Nigeria's Lake Chad has recently dried out, ruining one of the key resources that Nigerians relied upon. As Aljazeera states, "Once counted as the largest water reservoirs in Africa, Nigeria's Lake Chad is rapidly shrinking due to excessive use and climate change" (Al Jazeera {Nigeria's vital}, 2013). Lake Chad has been essentially left out to dry by the Nigerian government, as inefficient damming and irrigation practices have led to shrinkage of the lake (Africa's, 2012). Unfortunately, a staggering negative impact has come as a result of the drying lake. Tensions among various communities around Lake Chad are at an all-time high as nationals of differing nations attempt to take control of what's left. As a result, a huge conflict between Cameroonians and Nigerians has erupted, and Boko Haram is at the forefront of the violence. As the drought continues to rage on in this region, the warfare, strength, and control of Boko Haram continue to grow.

However, Boko Haram is not the first group to lead an Islamist rebellion among the Kanuri people in the northeastern region of Nigeria. In 1979, Mohammed Marwa, more commonly referred to as Maitatsine ("The one who damns"), was the first to lead a Muslim uprising against the ruling elite at Kano. The death toll, in only a fraction of the time of the terror of Boko Haram (12 days), reached over 5,000 (Naijarchives, 2015).

Boko Haram's Objectives and Focus

Boko Haram was founded by Mohammed Yusuf in 2002. The aim of the group was to abolish western education and create an Islamic state in which Muslims would take part in any social or political activity that would be associated with the western society. "Haram", as the name suggested, meant that something was forbidden. Some of the things that they forbade were wearing trousers and shirts, voting in elections, and receiving secular education. In short, the aim of this group was to form a recruiting ground for jihadists as well as an Islamic state (Pratt, 2010). These are some of the group's goals even though there are a complex set of economic, political, and social factors that drive the movement. Boko Haram, which is a Muslim group, holds that western education is forbidden. In the areas where the group is highly recognized such as northern Nigeria, the effects of inadequate investments and unemployment have largely been felt. The inhabitants of this northern region of Nigeria have for long felt neglected, isolated, and disrespected as a result of the rules set aside by the Boko Haram group (Chothia, 2015).

Education is the key to development, as said by many educationists. The northern region has faced harsh conditions due to lack of western education as demanded by the Islamic group. Other factors, such as corruption have also led to the widespread disillusionment of the region. The government of Nigeria has, therefore, compared the Islamic group to the colonial government since many areas have not been able to receive education due to the pressures that come from the group. Boko Haram has pointed that western education is a corrupting

influence to the Islamic states in Nigeria. The group also depicts that the state has been unable to provide the basic services to the Muslims (Nesser, 2014). In this, it holds that the knowledge of Islamic education would help to reduce the moral and ethical effects of western education. It is through the above issues that Yusuf embraced the strain of Islam by Saudi Arabia and called upon Muslims to overthrow the Nigerian government and replace it with an Islamic state.

Mohammed Yusuf had a vast knowledge of the Islamic book, “Quran” and it is through this that he obtained a huge number of followers. He was a preacher and found no difficulties in convincing his fellow Muslims to join his group, ‘Boko Haram.’ He was able to gather strong minded Muslims to be his followers as affirmed by Chothia, (2015). He also set up a school and a mosque for the Muslims in efforts to end western education. In these areas, Yusuf was able to train and recruit children, who later became part of the Boko Haram group. He also distributed jobs and welfare to those who were outside the local patronage network. Since the number of Muslim followers had grown, these individuals decided not to send their children to study western education. In this, they did not believe that education was a priority and did every little thing to end western education. They believed that western education was the cause of corruption and the numerous inadequacies in the government. They also believed that an Islamic government would change the way of life of many people.

While creating the Muslim and the school, Yusuf began the construction as a religious house. Many thought that, being a preacher, he wanted to spread the Muslim word. Nevertheless, Yusuf’s buildings became complex when they enrolled children to be part of the group. The poor Muslim families across Nigeria enrolled their children to the school. In this, they obtained help from Yusuf. The Boko Haram group was not interested in education and worked to achieve its goal of ending western education and achieving an Islamic government. Through the establishment of the school and the mosque, the group formed the basis of conducting its activities, where the followers were trained on the aspects of war.

As time went by, the Boko Haram became violent and attacked government buildings and police stations. It carried a spate of attacks in 2009. In this, shoot-outs were evident in the streets of Maiduguri. Numerous supporters of the group were killed while others fled to the city. The security forces of Nigeria finally seized the headquarters of the group and killed some fighters and Yusuf, the leader of the group. Boko Haram was declared finished when the body of Yusuf was shown on state television by the security forces (Chothia, 2015).

Boko Haram After Mohammed Yusuf

Since this incident, Boko Haram has continued its attacks on other parts of Nigeria that they deem as not Islamic enough, and in parts of neighboring countries as well. Boko Haram continued to clash with the JTF (Joint Military Task Force), and the battles between them have led citizens to fear both book haram and the JTF under the government (HRW). As violence between the two groups continued, more and more casualties were suffered (with around an estimate 2800 since 2009), and the conflict continues to escalate, as Boko Haram has now begun to resort to bombing across northern Nigeria, forcing President Goodluck Jonathon to enact a state of emergency.

Boko Haram's new commander, Abubakar Shekau, took over after Yusuf's death in July 2009, but after this pivotal moment, the organization has gone underground which has led to speculations on the composition of the organization. The leadership has always been in question, along with other factors such as structure, sponsors, and links with foreign groups, such as Al Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM). While some believe that Boko Haram has now been based around various factions performing the more general goals of the group autonomously, others believe that the organization still remains united under Shekau. Adding even more confusion into the already secretive nature of Boko Haram, many gangs and thugs in the northern region of Nigeria have begun performing crimes under the guise of being members of Boko Haram (HRW). In spite of Boko Haram's clandestine nature, the largely consistent pattern of attacks documented throughout the more modern attacks of Boko Haram suggests at least some degree of organization under Boko Haram's new leader.

Boko Haram's next terrorist attack was on an agricultural college that resulted in a killing spree which led to the deaths of 110 Nigerians. About 30 men stormed the Agricultural College campus located in Gujba, Yobe state (World Watch Monitor, 2013). Many buildings were burnt down and Boko Haram intended to wreck as much havoc as possible to incite the most fear during this time. This attack on those that Boko Haram had originally considered as fellow Muslims clearly indicates a shift in their actions. The new found sophistication in their attacks coupled with the fact that their attacks have found more violence revolving around them is a clear indication that Boko Haram has lost its original goal.

Boko Haram has continued to cause harm to thousands and to destroy expensive material. A bus station was bombed in April of 2014 in the capital of Nigeria. The Boko Haram group was the first suspect following the incident because they had caused other attacks in Nigeria. During this blast, more than 70 people were killed as the bus they were about to board was overcrowded. The blast depicted that the Islamic group was dedicated to expand its areas of operation. Before the blast, the Nigerian government had told people that the attacks were confined to the north-eastern areas of Nigeria. Therefore, it is apparent that many people were caught unprepared, in that; they could not avoid crowded areas (Umar & Torchia, 2015).

Eyewitnesses said that more than 40 people had died within a short moment. Body parts were gathered by the police and other rescue workers. It is clear that Boko Haram had been responsible for the attack. An explosive had been used to kill the many people who died after the blast. The explosive had been hidden in a vehicle after which a hole that was 4ft deep was dug from the ground. Apart from the hundreds of people who died after the blast, more than 30 vehicles also perished. Secondary explosions were also caused by the blast as fuel tanks burnt.

Zenn depicts that the Islamic group kidnapped 276 school girls from Chibok in Borno state. Ever since, many girls have stopped attending school and a handful have escaped the attacks (2014). The girls were taken to the forest. The buildings of the school stood a blaze since the rest of the parents feared that their children would also be abducted. The fight between the Nigerian government and Boko Haram has affected the lives of thousands of children. The school was closed after the kidnappings. In addition, many children live as refugees in foreign countries following the kidnappings of Boko Haram. Children across the state of Borno have

been forced to leave their homes. More than 800,000 children, according to a children agency, UNICEF, live as refugees in the neighboring countries (Davis, 2012). The Islamic group targets children and teachers. The Boko Haram attacks have led to the closure of more than 300 schools in the Borno State.

Current State of Affairs on the Boko Haram Issue

The war between Nigeria and Boko Haram is ongoing. The government has not been successful in the fight. The group, which has continued to kill thousands, is believed to have infiltrated the government of Nigeria. It is through this that many Nigerians think that their government is weak. Even though Nigeria is thought to have a habit of playing politics, the affairs of Boko Haram do not have a way into the government. The government of Goodluck Jonathan was faced with terrorism while some politicians could be involved in the management of the Boko Haram affairs (Taylor & Horgan, 2006).

The war between Boko Haram and Nigeria will continue because many citizens of Nigeria condemn the Islamic group. In addition, some Nigerian armies support the group and its views. It is noted that these people provide the terrorists with information on military movements and operations. Through this, the efforts of the faithful ones are sabotaged. Corruption is the driving force to the problems of Nigeria. New weapons and lots of finances are spent on salaries and training of military personnel as affirmed by Magnowski, (2014). The issue becomes worse when the money that is allocated to train military personnel is used on other areas that do not fight terrorism.

The government of Nigeria is facing a hard time due to the rumors that concern the Boko Haram group. There is news that some people sponsor all kinds of wars, unrest, and crises in efforts to benefit from the issues. The war between the Nigerian government and the Islamic group will continue unless the government is provided with financial back-up. This is among the reasons why the government has been unable to hunt for the terrorists and arrest the terrorism sponsors. The Boko Haram group has strong supporters who are noted to be powerful. The supporters face opposition from the sponsors of the terrorists. Clunan, 2006, notes that others lack adequate knowledge to advise those in government in fighting the Islamic group.

Boko Haram will continue to terrorize the government of Nigeria because of the leaked strategies, information, and plans, as noted in the above context. The military of Nigeria does not keep secrets as far as the terrorist issues are concerned. The military group is noted to have been publicizing almost everything as well as discussing them. There is evidence that the international terrorist formations also support the Boko Haram. In this, they are trained and provided with weapons by groups such as Al-Shabaab and Al-Qaeda. The groups also meet for intelligence gatherings and financial support (AlySergie & Johnson, 2015).

US Policy to Counter Boko Haram

Numerous attacks have been conducted in Nigeria by the Islamic group, Boko Haram. The group has increasingly held bold attacks in many parts of Nigeria as affirmed by Akpotor & Oromareghake, (2013). The recent kidnappings of the three hundred female students threatened the security of the country. The terrorist group also threatened to fuel the Muslim-Christian violence. In this, the group was also said to destabilize West Africa. It aimed at becoming a leading concern across the world. It is through the female attack that was witnessed in April that the US established a policy to end Boko Haram (Walker, 2012). The US ambassador to Nigeria compiled a special report that targeted the Center for Preventive Action (CPA).

Even though the US Ambassador to Nigeria categorized the Islamic group to be primarily local, the US policymakers would not resist characterizing Boko Haram as another foe in the terrorism war. The ambassador noted that the insurgency of Boko Haram was as a result of the poor governance by the state and federal governments of Nigeria as well as the marginalization of politics in Northeastern Nigeria (Solomon, 2012). The ambassador also depicted that the Nigerian government and the US would work together in efforts to redress the Muslims of Nigeria.

A short term strategy that would press Abuja would need to be followed in order to end the abuses of human rights. The strategy, which should be conducted by Washington, according to the US ambassador, would also be aimed at meeting the immediate needs of the children who have been refugees ever since the conflicts began. Other people who have been displaced internally would be covered by the strategy. In efforts to curb terrorism in Nigeria, the US government has promised to revive plans by opening a consulate in the northern part of the country. The region, which has a huge population of Muslims, is expected to improve. A longer term strategy is also expected from the US government in order to preserve the national unity and to address the roots of the disillusionment from the northern part. The US policy will ensure that Nigeria is restored towards the rule of law and democracy (Ploch, 2012).

The recommendations by the US ambassador to Nigeria, John Campbell, depict that the US will continue to support Nigeria towards democracy and fulfilling human rights. The US visa held by Nigerians will be revoked to promote religious and ethnic violence and the committed financial crimes (Pham, 2012). The ambassador also notes that the US will encourage Abuja to revamp the culture of its police and military.

The world is aware that some of the girls who had been abducted by the Islamic group reunited with their families. However, the rest remain in captivity as the group continues to seize the region. The US, through President Obama has affirmed that the nation will assist the government of Nigeria in obtaining the huge numbers who have been held by the Islamic group. As noted earlier, Boko Haram has also abducted hundreds of women, men, girls, and boys. The group has also killed more than 3,000 people in Nigeria; a situation that prompted the US president to do everything it can to help the Nigerian government (Obi, 2006). This would also enable the country find and free the girls who had been abducted by the Islamic group. It would combat the group with aid from the Nigerian neighbors, allies, and other willing nations. In all these efforts, the US government would strive to dismantle the murderous group.

The efforts of the US government to return the kidnapped girls to their families have continued to flourish through the efforts of a multidisciplinary team. In May, a multidisciplinary team was dispatched from the US to Abuja in efforts to advise the Nigerians on ways of securing the kidnapped girls from the hands of the terrorist group. The US advised the Nigerians by establishing a capacity to respond to terrorists in an effective. When the Boko Haram group began, it had few numbers. The Nigerian government should have dealt with the group before it expanded its boundaries. The US government also encouraged a comprehensive approach in efforts to address the issue of insecurity in Nigeria (Onuoha, 2010). In this, the officials of the government would be required to conduct a comprehensive response in order to protect the civilian populations. It would also fight for human rights while at the same time dealing with the violent attacks of Boko Haram.

The US has been a super power for a number of decades now. The state is noted to provide one of the worlds tools that can curb the operations of terrorists. The country's efforts to end the Boko Haram group have been felt in the northern part of Nigeria, where the Nigerian military personnel and other advisors have participated. The US has also dispatched humanitarian and civilian experts to Abuja. Investigators have also been sent from the US to Nigeria in order to hold strategic communications and hostage negotiations (Copson, 2005). The team has continued to coordinate and to facilitate information sharing between families and survivors. Others provide assistance to the survivors of the attacks, as well as providing intelligence to the Nigerian citizens.

The biggest issue with the Nigerian government is the cause of the missing girls and whether they will be released from the hands of terrorists. The US has aided this concern by expanding intelligence sharing to Nigeria. The US government has provided surveillance, intelligence, and reconnaissance to assist in locating the missing girls. The US has also helped to isolate the terrorist group through the creation of sanctions. The two governments have helped each other to leverage their authorities and designate Boko Haram as an illegal group. Other united nations have also been included in the designation.

Comparison of Boko Haram with other Terrorist Groups

The philosophy behind Boko Haram operations compares with other terrorist groups such as Al-Qaeda. Therefore, Boko Haram is not a peculiar case. The only difference is that the Islamic group operates at a local region compared with Al-Qaeda which operates at an international level (Crenshaw, 2006). However, the strategies and techniques used by the two groups are similar. For instance, the two groups have conducted bombings and kidnappings. This shows common techniques and strategies among the two. The two groups have both used suicide and car bombs in their arson attacks and the targeted assassinations (Elden, 2014). The operations of the two groups, have in most cases, been attributed by suicide or car attacks.

The first terrorist attack by Al-Qaeda was attempted in World Trade Center in 1993. The attack was conducted through a car bomb attack. Ever since the attack, the group undermined the efforts of the US in Iraq by claiming responsibility of the car bomb attacks and other several attacks that were evident in the years that went by. The same case happened to Boko Haram which also used car bombings in the August 2011 attack (Crenshaw, 2010). The attack which

was targeted in a UN compound in Abuja was achieved through car bombings. The November 2012 attack at the protestant church in St. Andrew military in Kaduna state also encompassed the use of car bombings. Boko Haram used suicide bombings, the same manner in which Al-Qaeda used to hit Afghanistan, Europe, and Iraq. The Nigerian churches and checkpoints have experienced unleashed security through the string of suicide bombings.

Boko Haram is not different from other terrorist groups due to the use of kidnappings. The Al-Qaeda group was also familiar with the technique. The two groups carried out kidnappings in demand for ransoms. In the case of Boko Haram, the group claimed political policy shift. In Pakistan, Al-Qaeda had turned to kidnapping in efforts to offset its cash reserves. Tourists and diplomats had been kidnapped by the group, a situation that helped to gather an estimate of \$80 million (Danjibo, 2009). Boko Haram also expressed its concern for ransoms when it kidnapped French citizens. In a case where Boko Haram had kidnapped a French family of seven, the group was noted to obtain \$3m before it could release them. It is through military operations that the group was able to release the French family.

From the above, it is apparent that the Islamic group of Nigeria has had some linkages with other terrorist groups such as AL-Qaeda. The uniformity in the operations depicts some connections in their way of operation. The two groups have emerged as the mostly prominent community. Assistance from other countries can be used to combat the terrorist activities and groups. Religious leaders have been assassinated by the Boko Haram group. The death of Mahmoud Adam in 2007 is a living testimony that the war on terrorism is still ongoing (Bamidele, 2013).

Conclusion

The Boko Haram and Nigerian war will continue because it is not possible to win terror in a single day. Countries such as Pakistan, Egypt, Iraq, and Iran, among others battle with terrorism even though they have a strong military base. Nigeria will continue to face opposition from Boko Haram because of the low morale. The junior offices should support the civilians and the government in fighting the Islamic group. Those who offer support to the terrorist group should be dealt with. The government should also have a plan for military. This will help to prevent them from disclosing information concerning the military plans. The financial bodies should also help to monitor the local and foreign money by ensuring that the transfer operations are tracked. In this, they can also provide information regarding the suspicious operations and help to detect their hiding places. In order to end the adverse effects of the Islamic group, lots of efforts by the law enforcement agencies will be required. The millions of illegal immigrants and the unregistered vehicles should be dealt with in order to end the effects of terrorism.

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Legitimacy to Media's Report on Ethnic and Racial Identities of Terrorist Suspects

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Abstract

Civilization has gone through multiple waves as it constantly evolved into the next phase of history (Toffler, 1981). According to Alvin Toffler, a prominent futurologist and journalist, civilization was caught up in three major transitions up until now. Those are: the agricultural age, the industrial age, and the post-industrial society, known as the 'Information Age'. Furthermore, Toffler suggests that currently, humanity is transitioning into the Fourth Wave, with a whole new concept of information delivery and communication. In concordance to the wave theory's insight, the contemporary society faces a different chapter of information processing. The way people communicate today is not the same as the way people have communicated in the past.

Such change largely lies in the recent boom of Social Media. The definition of media does not simply curb to the release of verified information, but also harbors the trafficking of rumors or unsubstantiated data. Now, all of a sudden, everyone – everyone – is on the World Wide Web, exchanging his or her hearsay and knowledge through Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. In addition, ubiquity of smart phones made it much easier for media to control what people read and know. People are on their phones accessing social media updates, news blasts, and exchanging information in real time everywhere they go – subway, work, restaurants, bus, and even on the streets as they are walking. Such accessibility empowered media with such a strong voice — to an extent which practically everything people ever talk about originates from what the media decides to report. In the current society, where media is the most powerful, and dominating voice of the public that dictates the thoughts of the people, it is debatable whether or not such excelling power should be regulated by the government for the “greater good”. This research studies the contemporary media's expanding power over what we call facts, and assesses its social and moral roles, as well as its limits in effectiveness.

Definition / Explanation of Key Terms

Media-released profile

The profile released by the media is not necessarily relevant to that of authorized information of the authorities' investigation. In the status quo, the media can release their independent profile based on bits of information reporters studied. The information released by the media may or may not be verified by the authorities.

Ethnic and Racial Identity

The ethnicity and race are two of the most recognizable and identifiable features of a person. The ethnic and racial identity includes name, skin color, cultural heritage, homeland, and even strong religious appearances.

Terrorist Suspect

Terrorist suspect is a possible terrorist who is not yet convicted of terrorism, but is being suspected of guilt. Suspects cannot be treated as criminals. (Refer to the next term definition for more explanation)

Presumption of Innocence

The concept 'presumption of innocence' is the very fundamental idea of a democratic judicial system, which demonstrates that everyone, whether a suspect or not, is innocent until proven guilty. The concept was originally settled for the purpose of protecting suspects from false accusations and hasty stereotypes. The structure of the judiciary stands firmly to grant a chance for everyone to build up a case of his own.

Right to Know

The citizens' right to know is probably one of the most common rights that directly conflicts against the state's decisions. This particular right does not simply stay fixed in the boundary of knowledge of the citizens, but rather extends its meaning into the concept of security. The right to know is unequivocally relevant to the individual right to survival, because knowledge of certain information can visualize the otherwise veiled threat to the citizens. Yet, the state's national security or public welfare (commonly referred to 'the greater good') can compromise the taxpayers' right to know. The degree of compromise has been a heated debate all along.

Background Information

One fall afternoon of 2001, the United States of America was forever changed. As the planes crashed into the symbolic twin towers of New York, people seethed in rage and sorrow. Ever since, the US has been locked in an unbroken debate between rights and terrorism, President Clinton's declaring War Against Terrorism marking its start. Racial profiling, full disclosure of the terrorist suspects' profile, adoption of investigative torture, and more emerged to the surface of debate as years passed (Siggins). Today, the debates continue; yet the one

revolving the citizens' right to know has grown exponentially as the society faces the tide of social media and its unprecedented influence. Does media's report on such features simply trigger racism and discrimination? Or does the public need to know those identities as its right? Granting media with the legitimacy to report terrorist suspects' racial and ethnic identity can certainly be viral; such right may provoke hostile, anti-certain-race atmosphere within a society. Yet at the same time, it can also serve as the means of ensuring security and rights of the people.

In the status quo, releasing of ethnic and racial profile of terrorist suspects is allowed by law. The U.S. government epitomizes such practice in respect to freedom of speech of the media and the right to know of the citizens. Yet, the question continues to be pondered upon, for many people feel uncomfortable with the fact that race and ethnicity, the two core definitions of the nature of a person, are dealt publicly with an unknown possibility to exacerbate racism. In addition, there are many concerns regarding "witch-hunting" suspects. The US judicial system firmly states that every suspect is innocent until proven guilty, also known as presumption of innocence. Yet, by fully disclosing the identities of suspects, the suspects get convicted on an illegitimate basis. The jury is not at the public; it is at the courtroom. The ground of justification to define them as terrorists stays nebulous.

However, there is a considerable amount of arguments that the other side comes up with. Most importantly, the US is the biggest target of terrorism in the world. Its growth into the world's super power inevitably led for the country to be a prime mark. With its heightened vigilance the US government applies since 2001, there was a growth in the side that claims certain rights should be sacrificed in the name of the greater good. In matters of imminent national security, the taxpayers and the citizens of the United States have the very basic right to know who might be the person who imposes great threat to their homes. After all, people are put in more chaos when they cannot see the threat. Such right to know is more than just knowledge to the people; it is their own set of defense. Without the media's blast, the public's eyes and ears are pretty much covered up.

Case Studies

The September 11th Terrorist Attack

Perhaps the most agonizing incident the U.S. has suffered from is the notorious 9/11 attack. The United Airlines Flight #175 and the American Airlines Flight #11 crashed into the New York City and the Washington, D.C., and people were left to helplessly watch the Twin Towers of the World Trade Center, along with a section of the Pentagon collapse down.

Around 2,800 to 3,500 casualties occurred at the collapse of the World Trade Center. The terrorist group responsible for such gruesome attack was the infamous Al-Qaeda, The country was consumed in grief. Consequently, in order to prevent any further aggressions, former President George W. Bush declared the "War against Terrorism" in every means necessary.

Post 9/11 days were hectic for the country under attack. With the President declaring an official war against terrorism, the country harbored a strong anti-sentiment against Muslims, the reason being that Al Qaeda was an Islamic terrorist organization. The War against Terrorism paved way for racial profiling to be prevalent in ways of spotting terrorism; however, such attempt later on led to an exacerbation of the situation by engendering more anti-American perspectives among the terrorists (Lee). In addition, racial profiling reached the point where even the citizens snapped out of the ignorance and hastiness. The government's frantic search for a person responsible for the next national disaster veiled the country from determining where the real threat was coming from; because of racial profiling, the U.S. government was unable to escape any further from the ethnic boundaries they had set up for themselves to limit the suspect pool (Lee).

The Boston Marathon Bombing

On April 15, 2013, the United States of America was struck with yet another terrifying terrorist attack. The Boston Marathon Bombing, which killed three people, injured over 264 people and cornered the citizens with fear and sense of insecurity. Despite the heightened caution and 'war against terrorism' that have been going on for a long time since the 9.11 attack, the fact that the U.S. being the biggest target of terrorism has not changed.

Yet, there is another light to review in the Boston Marathon Bombing. Shortly after the bombing incident, accusations were voiced up that the "Saudi nationals" were the suspects for the terrorism (Terkel, 2013). Without having anything to do with the investigative profile of the authorities, media attempted to build up their own profile that violated many innocent people, along with millions included in their race and ethnicity. The most respected media were not chary to report the so-called "suspects" on their front covers; The Cable News Network (CNN) described the suspect to be "dark-skinned male", and the New York Post even printed photographs of two "Bag Men", one being a 17-year-old Moroccan American boy named Salah Barhoum (Starbird, 2014). The New York Post introduced the two as persons of interest, which was a piece of information that was not verified by the authorities to begin with.

Anti-Muslim atmosphere formed because of such accusations, and constant assaults and hate crimes were reported afterwards (Terkle). The catch in this, however, is that the actual terrorist turned out to be a white male. Although the NY Post soon recanted its hasty report on the "Bag Men" with a formal apology, the deleterious impact media and the misleading information they released had on the societal level was glaring (Terkle).

The New York Police Department (NYPD) Feel-Good Hashtag (#) Campaign

The NYPD's Feel-Good Campaign does not necessarily correspond with any terrorist movements; yet, it lucidly manifests how much control media have over the people's lives. (Starbird, 2014) The Feel-Good Campaign was the NYPD's attempt to use its twitter account to encourage people to post online the photos of the NYPD officers offering services within the community. Such attempt was so as to compensate for the downfall in the police force's image and trust.

However, the Feel-Good Campaign did not serve justice to its initial cause. Instead of people's trying to post photographs of the "friendly" NYPD, people posted pictures of the "naughty" police officers. While the NYPD was expecting photographs of NYPD officers' rescuing a neighbor's helpless cat from the tree, pictures of officers' smoking and violently arresting were uploaded online. So much for image making, the NYPD was defeated by the power of media (Starbird, 2014).

The statistics representing the inclination towards certain race when police officers pull over cars on the roads was also revisited as the Feel-Good Campaign took off. The prevalence of black or African American drivers getting pulled over and taken to the precinct was almost triple the rate of Caucasian drivers taken into custody after getting screened (Harris, 1999). Regardless of the validity of the information — after all, the cause and effect link is arguable in this study; just because the statistics incline towards one race over the other, does not mean race was the reason those people were pulled over and taken to the precinct for further investigation — people were outraged and started to reject the campaign to reward officers.

This case is relevant to the agenda, for the Feel-Good Campaign epitomized the media drive of the status quo – Social Networking Sites (SNS). Online users and viewers from all over the world formed a wave of unison in a split second, an incident which has never been so pervasive until today. The Feel-Good Hashtag Campaign that went terribly wrong is being evaluated as to be adverse; when such novel form of media is used in aspects of terrorism and racial/ethnic identities, the impact cannot be easily measured.

Major Clashes in the Debate

There are three focal points that one must understand and ponder upon before he or she takes side in the agenda. The first question is about the cost of racial and ethnic profiling. Many people are concerned that by introducing such sensitive and possibly offensive features out in the public, it may trigger intense hatred and social racism that target a specific ethnicity group or race. According to Katheryn Russell-Brown, the author of *The Color of Crime*, the media is so powerful in influencing racial imagery, that it is "awash in a cornucopia of racial images" (Russell-Brown, 22). With media holding so much dominance in determining people's viewpoint in certain "types" of people, it is not a huge leap for some people to worry about social racism caused by media's report. They also worry that since the media is not obligated to release information corresponding to those of the authorities', information on air might be misleading. Chief Deputy Attorney General for Legal Affairs Peter Siggins analyzes in his study (associated with Santa Clara University) *Racial Profiling in Age of Terrorism*, that Sunil Tripathi from Brown University was reported to be a terrorist suspect based on his race, and was found dead after the actual manhunt for criminals ended, leaving behind the lately revealed truth of which he is not the guilty one (Siggins). The question is, do we really build up a suspect profile based on race and ethnicity, not conduct? There is a difference between profiling a suspect, and profiling a suspect out of a certain race. The latter case is without a doubt strictly banned by

law, for it is a racist act conducted by the authorities. However, when we profile a suspect who happens to be of certain race, how can that be racism? If this matter is introduced to a different light, the opposition's argument that 'because the society is extremely sensitive about racial matters, it is possible that the media's report on criminal suspects of certain race especially stands out. That does not necessarily mean that the media is liable to what they have reported, since the interpretation of the public is what is revealing the shortcomings of the society.' Along with this very sharp argument, many accuse the very act of casting doubt itself is a counter-discrimination. In addition, if people truly wish to combat racism and discrimination, releasing factual information that is not biased may ease stereotype than stimulate. Katheryn Russell-Brown further mentions in her book, that as much as the media has an undeniable immeasurable dominance over the formation of the public's perspective, the media can be used to straighten up wrong impressions (Russell-Brown, 53). The book carries on the statement by clarifying the "hysterical blindness" that the public may be suffering from, an idea which suggest that the people observing the factual reports can apply their distorted or biased viewpoint to alter the mere facts (54). When racial profile that is released is not racist, what can be the harm of such report?

Let us say that the government rules out racial and ethnic identity to be released. We would have to ask what is left of the identification. If the media is not permitted to release the information of a terrorist suspect regarding their names, skin colors, religious appearances, or accents, how would the media report the accurate information to the public? How would the people know to whom to be alerted of? Even the top identifications on the police, FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation), CIA (Central Intelligence Agency), and Homeland Security profile list are names and race. Lee, Jain, and Jin note that the FBI suspect identification may use a wide range of signatures from fingerprints to tattoos and scars, but the primary identification source would be the obvious: names and facial match (1). Are these the appropriate opportunity costs we should be willing to pay in order to ease up the opposition's concerns, and vice versa? The whole point in releasing the terrorist suspects' profile is to ensure the people's right to know, a right which expands its meaning to the right to security, especially in this era of knowledge and information. However, if the information released is compromised to not reveal the suspects' name, race, ethnicity, and religious affiliations, the report does not seem to do much to do its justice. In a realistic standpoint, the opposition's argument that the exemption of those identities is pretty much taking away the whole point of 'ensuring the right to know'.

Another aspect of this debate revolves around the rights. As briefly mentioned, the US government currently legalizes media's independent report on terrorist suspects' profile. The concern from the side that believes media's report should be banned is about the basic principle of democracy. Every suspect is innocent until proven guilty. (a.k.a. Presumption of Innocence) The presumption of innocence protects the suspects from being treated like a convicted criminal, since the judiciary cannot be biased and hasty to make judgments caused by other than physical evidence. If the media keeps on releasing sensitive information such as the racial and ethnic identity of terrorist "suspects", such information can majorly infringe the suspect's right to defend him/herself. Salah Barhoum, the 17-year-old Moroccan boy criminalized by

the New York Post (Terkel, 2013), said that “The only thing they look at is my skin color and since I’m Moroccan, I’m kind of dark,” Barhoum further mentioned in his interview, “Last night I couldn’t sleep. Just thinking about the consequences. What are people going to say and what the result is going to be [?]” (Terkel, 2013). The opposite side of the debate disagrees. Unless the information is a threat to the public security or social structure, the media should have the freedom of speech to release their tips. Media are the eyes and ears of the public. Without a guarantee that the media can be free from oppression on stories they deal with, the public is severely interfered with its right to know. How do we know the information on report is not misleading? Even though the aforementioned definition of the ‘media-released profile’ does not necessarily coincide with the authorities’ investigative profile, media reporters collect the tips and information from the authorities and their investigations. Thus, the issue on presumption of innocence vs. freedom of speech should be weighed carefully as well.

The last point to ponder upon is the nature of terrorism. Why is this specifically about ‘terrorist’ suspects? The US has been the biggest target of terrorism ever since it has played the role of the world police. According to a well-known physician and a blogger Wm. Robert Johnston’s study of anthrax attacks in the United States, the country struggled from over 71 terrorist attacks just in the years of 2000’s, over half of them being secondary damages of the initial strikes. Terrorism feeds not mainly on the crime itself, but the fear and panic it causes to the public (Johnston, 2015). Because terrorists are the assaulters with political intentions, their main goal is to create as much panic as possible in order to send out their message as loudly and clearly as they possibly can. Such turmoil is usually the reason further damage is done. Terrorism always comes with the initial strike, and creates ripple effect to damage further perimeters. It is a major threat to the national security, and this has always been a conflict with the public’s right to know. In matters of terrorism, should the public not be able to visualize the threat? After all, if there is a spider crawling on the wall at one point, and it disappears at another that is when people start panicking about the ‘presence’ of the spider.

The fine line between granting media the rights and freedoms, and compromising them for the sake of the greater good is a question that cannot be answered without casting great controversy. Neither side holds the dominant higher ground in the debate, thus this topic requires a great deal of in-depth analysis before voicing up personal opinions. One side might constantly fight for the ‘justice’ in the racial community, in an attempt to eliminate hate crimes and aggravated discriminations. However, when it comes to the media, it holds enough power to correct the wrong of the society. After all, information is objective; it is the people that judge the information. When we take away the legitimacy to report the terrorists’ identity from the media, are we not taking away the information, rather than the bias itself? It would take more than a handful of stubborn oppositions to talk justice into that.

References I - Countries and Institutions

Canada

Canada is one of the nations that best represents the government's direct interference in the media, especially when it comes down to the media's report on independent ethnic/racial profile of a suspect. Under the broad terms of The Broadcasting Act of 1991¹, Canada has remained as an important nation in this issue.

The Great Britain

While on the superficial level the nation gives the impression of a strict, regulated media policy (ex., Broadcasting Act of 1990, 1996, etc.), The Great Britain is notorious for its biased racial profiling by the media. It is particularly stereotyped against gypsies in the nation, along with other "ethnicity/groups", an attitude which inevitably keeps the government under a possibly uncomfortable spotlight regarding the matter or media's ethnic and racial profiling (Crystal, 2015).

Muslims Against Global Oppression (MAGO)

A group that is known as a radical terrorist group based on the argument of racial profiling around the world. The organization is not clear; however, it is evident that the group initiate radical terrorist movements (Muslims Against Global Oppression).

The National Terrorism Advisory System (NTAS)

A system created to alert the public as quickly as possible of terrorist attacks. The objective of this system is to give detailed information of suspects to the public, which inevitably spurs racial profiling most of the time (Homeland Security).

References II - Notable Timeline

1996	US vs. Armstrong: Supreme Court ruled racial profiling as constitutional - "in the absence of data that "similarly situated" defendants of another race were disparately treated" (US v. Arm-strong, 1996)
2001	Creation of web-based "Racial Profiling Data Collection Resource Center"- Website now used as a central database for racial profiling data regarding terrorist suspects for police/government force and journalists. (Siggins)
2001 (&2011)	The U.S.A. Patriot Act of 2001(& PATRIOT Sunsets Extension Act of 2011):a treaty made in response 9/11; it significantly weakened restrictions on law enforcement agencies' gathering of intelligence within the United States which inevitably spurred racial profiling in terrorist investigation (Siggins)
2013	Boston Marathon Bombings: Racial profiling used to falsely accuse many, including Salah Barhoum, a 17-year-old Moroccan American high school athlete. (Starbird, 2014)

¹ *The Broadcasting Act of 1991- Establishes a fully Canadian broadcasting procedure. The government to some extent has influence over racial matters (Dewing, 2014).*

In 1996, the US Supreme Court ruled in favor of racial profiling, contradicting its constitution in protecting the rights and freedom of all citizens regardless of race, gender, ethnicity, political affiliation, and more. Its justification was that in matters of imminent threat and lack of data, racial information can provide breakthrough in the investigation (Hamdi v. Rumsfeld, 2004). However, the absence of certain data does not prove the legitimacy of another. In 2001, not only does the media start to play a significant role in racial profiling, but also the passing of the Patriot Act of 2001 in response to 9/11 terrorist attack gives gravity to racial profiling. With the act renewed in 2011, it was brought into question in 2013, as the 17-year-old suspect of Boston Marathon Bombing, Salah Barhoum, was wrongfully accused as some people argue because of his race.

References III - Personal Interviews

Just having a quick look around can do enough to prove that today's world is not a bland society with one nationality living in each region. Within such multicultural globe, one cannot possibly stress enough the role of the media that contributes majorly into globalization. "We're talking about written media, we're talking about broadcast media, and now, more than ever, we're talking about social media. And that's really something that as PR professionals, we don't have control over," says Stacey Creely, the Head of Public Relations and Newspaper at the Linsly School in West Virginia.

However, despite their dominance, the role of media can be put into a rather succinct sentence. "In general, media sets the agenda for what we think about on our daily basis," Creely says, "When we get up in the morning, we watch the today's shows and the top line that they choose is probably what people are going to go to work and school to talk about. Now we have more control as a society over that than ever because of social media," elaborates Creely.

Yet what is more intriguing is the peak into the actual lives of minority groups in America. For sure, media played a big role in illustrating the image of certain race – Bruce Lee for Asians, Hip-hop and snapback hats for the Black, religious extremists as Muslims. Mina Kim, Korean, who is a high school senior in the States tells her story guardedly. "Honking cars and calling names. But I thought maybe living in America, they were the kinds of stuff that I had to get over with," says Kim. "I still get offended, but I got used to them."

Her high school TALC (International students support curriculum) teacher, Catherine Haning seems to have some insights she picked up in her teaching career regarding such matters involving minority groups.

"I guess as far as any racial stereotypes and things that I see during my class are [such as] 'what do you do with these students in this class?'" Haning further points out the most common "model minority" myth Asian students are applied to. "There is a misunderstanding that all of the Asian students are ridiculously smart, and they don't need help. So [a lot of the students think] why should we support them?" Haning speaks justice here. One of the most common

stereotypes Asian students experience in their academic lives, turn out to be the assumption and peer pressure regarding grades. What is more, such stereotypes become ridiculously real to certain students that they get berated for not achieving the “racial standard” set for them. “It’s seen as, if you get anything less than an A, then it’s not okay.” Haning takes another step to analyze the common pressure international students are bound to. “I think there’s a standard that they need to achieve higher than anybody else, and if they don’t, they’re bringing shame to their whole family, even the entire race.”

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A Game Theory Approach to China's Quest for Influence in the South China Sea

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The rise of China is one of the most important stories of the late Cold War and post-Cold War worlds, and the South China Sea has emerged as one of the most important proving grounds for the rising world power. A zone of tremendous global economic importance, the South China Sea is also an arena for competing territorial claims. The People's Republic of China and five other nations—Malaysia, Brunei, Vietnam, Taiwan, and the Philippines—all claim various small islands and reefs in the South China Sea, and have backed up these various claims to a greater or lesser degree. The islands are mostly inconsequential in and of themselves, except for the strategic value of the South China Sea for world trade—and the large proven reserves of oil and natural gas. The key question, then, is the likely character of the relationship between China and the U.S. and other claimants: will China go to war to assert itself, or will its extensive commercial ties with the U.S. and other parts of the world prohibit this? A game theory analysis indicates that war is unlikely in a mature capitalist world, where financial and intellectual capital matter more than occupying physical territory. However, China does stand to gain important security and strategic considerations by aggressively asserting itself in the South China Sea.

The Nature and Origins of the South China Sea Disputes

Geopolitically speaking, the People's Republic of China dominates the northern shores of the sea, from the border with the Socialist Republic of Vietnam to the Taiwan Strait. Indeed, about half of China's entire seaboard is oriented toward the South China Sea, and the Chinese littoral encompasses the demographically and economically important province of Guangdong and the city of Guangzhou (Canton) in particular. Hainan Island, largest of China's special economic zones, is poised to dominate the nearby energy-rich Gulf of Tonkin (Kaplan, 2014).

The western littoral of the South China Sea is dominated by the long, snake-like coastline of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam. Not unlike China, Vietnam has embarked on a path of

successful capitalist development. Historically dominated by China for much of its history, Vietnam is wary of its vastly larger neighbor, and has sought closer ties to Washington even as it has asserted its own claims in the South China Sea (Kaplan, 2014). To the south lie Singapore and Malaysia, with their respective versions of the city-cum-trading-state model. Farther south lies Indonesia, another demographic behemoth, and one that may be poised to develop a stable democracy and rapid economic growth. To the east lies the Philippines, another island nation and a longtime client of the U.S. (Ahr, 2014; Wu & Zou, 2009).

Economically the South China Sea is the meeting place of vast networks of exchange between the Western Pacific and the Indian Ocean, what Kaplan (2014) calls the “throat” of the two oceans. The importance of the South China Sea to world trade is immense: every year, over half of the entire world’s merchant fleet tonnage passes through the straits that rim the South China Sea, including the Sunda, Malacca, Lombok, and Makassar straits. A third of the world’s entire maritime traffic also passes through these waters (Ahr, 2014; Kaplan, 2014).

Energy security is another fundamental aspect of the South China Sea’s economic and strategic importance. China and its other East Asian neighbors import oil from the Indian Ocean by way of the Malacca Strait, three times the amount that passes through Egypt’s Suez Canal and fifteen times the amount sent through the Panama Canal. China itself imports 80 percent of its crude oil through the sea. The Republic of Korea (South Korea) imports about two thirds of its energy supplies through the South China Sea, and both Japan and the Republic of China (Taiwan) import nearly 60 percent of their energy supplies through the sea as well (Caceres, 2014; Kaplan, 2014).

In addition to being essential for the transit of energy supplies to a number of the region’s states, the South China Sea is also important as a source of hydrocarbons. The South China Sea has proven oil reserves of some seven billion barrels, and there are estimates indicating that it may have 900 trillion cubic feet of natural gas (Kaplan, 2014). China itself has published some admittedly dubious estimates that the sea contains 130 billion barrels of oil. While these estimates are considered questionable, if they prove true the South China Sea will be second only to Saudi Arabia as a source of oil (Kaplan, 2014).

It is in this context that the territorial disputes over the various submerged reefs, islets, and miniscule islands of the South China Sea should be seen. The islands in question, notably the tiny Spratly Islands, were overwhelmingly uninhabited until various East and Southeast Asian governments began asserting claims to them in the post-World War II era (Valencia, Van Dyke, & Ludwig, 1997). China is the rising titan in the South China Sea, and its claims on the various reefs and islets studding the South China Sea have gained the most attention precisely because of its status as an economic behemoth and rising world power. However, five other governments, those of Vietnam, Taiwan, the Philippines, Malaysia, and Brunei, claim either the whole of the Spratly Islands or some part of them. The claims of China, Taiwan, and Vietnam are the most expansive, extending to the whole of the features of the archipelago above water. The Philippines claims a somewhat more limited area, referred to as Kalayaan (“Freedomland”) (Valencia et al., 1997). Not all of the claims made by these governments are for features above water, however, as China, Taiwan, and the Philippines have all asserted claims to submerged reefs and other features in the area. Malaysia’s continental shelf boundary includes seven

features in the southern part of the Spratlys, which it claims. Brunei's exclusive economic zone, the delimitation of its territorial waters, includes a feature called Rifleman Bank and a small portion of the Philippine-claimed Kalayaan (Valencia et al., 1997; Kivimaki, 2002).

The modern Chinese claim to the South China Sea islands goes back to 1958, when People's Liberation Army (PLA) forces began shelling the Nationalists on the small islands of Jinmen and Mazu, both quite close to the Chinese mainland (Hayton, 2014). Eleven days after the shelling commenced, the People's Republic of China asserted a claim to these islands, to Taiwan and all surrounding islands, to the Paracel Islands east of what was then South Vietnam, to Macclesfield Bank and to the Spratlys. This "Declaration on the Territorial Sea" was picked up by the North Vietnamese authorities, who printed it in their official newspaper *Nhan Dan* as a gesture of solidarity. The letter neither affirmed nor denied China's claims. Still, China has stuck to the line it drew in the Declaration, and to the North Vietnamese reprinting of the letter (Hayton, 2014).

Claiming an uninhabited rock or submerged reef in the South China Sea is one thing; asserting such a claim through physical occupation is another. China has 8 or 9 Spratly features. Vietnam, however, is the leading occupier in the Spratlys, with 21 to 24 Spratly features. Taiwan has 1 feature, the Philippines has 8, and Malaysia has 3 to 6 (Valencia et al., 1997). Possession of the various tiny islets and reefs has been asserted by the claimants in a variety of ways. In some cases claimants have used military force; in others, they have resorted to more mild displays of their flags. Claimants have fortified features, built structures or erected markers, founded scientific research stations, even allowed tourists and journalists to visit their islands. China's own claims to the Spratlys rely on ancient sources, though it is not clear whether the sources are actually referencing these islands, which were uninhabited and trivially unimportant at the time (Hayton, 2014; Valencia et al., 1997).

In addition to its claims in the Spratlys, China has asserted its claim to the western part of the Paracel Islands east of Vietnam. Unlike the Spratlys, the Paracels are "proper" islands, fully capable of accommodating human habitation. The Paracels were uninhabited after World War II, and France made an effort to occupy them in 1946 in order to preempt the Nationalists of the Republic of China from doing the same thing. However, the Vietnam War broke out, and Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist troops established a presence on one of the Paracel Islands (Hayton, 2014; Kivimaki, 2002).

While the Chinese Nationalists would later leave the Paracels after losing the Chinese mainland and retreating to Taiwan, the fact that they briefly occupied one of the islands later provided the People's Republic of China, their great adversary, with a justification for occupying them (Hayton, 2014). The Republic of Vietnam (RVN), better known as South Vietnam, made some efforts to assert its claims in the Paracels, following on the French efforts from early in the Vietnam War era. However, in 1974, with the regime in Saigon tottering on its last legs, the People's Republic of China sent in troops and occupied the western part of the Paracel Islands. They remain Chinese to this day, despite a continued Vietnamese counter-claim (Hayton, 2014).

While the U.S. has no territorial claims in the South China Sea, it still plays an outsize role as the current hegemon, both regionally within the sea and globally. China is on the rise, but its People's Liberation Army Navy (PLAN) cannot yet meet the powerful U.S. Navy head-on

(The Economist, 2015; Lai To, 1999; Wu & Zou, 2009). With China's increasing assertiveness in the South China Sea and the attendant tensions with the U.S. and with other countries around the South China Sea, notably the Philippines and Vietnam, the chances of military conflict are particularly of interest in any survey of this topic (Lo, 1989). In order to ascertain the likelihood of military conflict, however, it is imperative to consider China's strategic options and choices in light of game theory.

Applying Game Theory to Chinese Strategy

In applying game theory analysis to China's strategy, it is necessary to ascertain China's strategy and analyze the costs and benefits to China of pursuing one option over another. Whether or not it makes sense for China to go to war to secure its claims depends on the ratio of costs to benefits, as well as the political will of China's leaders (Ghoneim & Reda, 2008). On the other hand, there are costs and benefits associated with peaceful policies as well. What China is trying to accomplish will have much to do with whether or not it will deem a particular cost-benefit calculation worthwhile (Luttwak, 2012; Dodge, 2012).

China's economic growth is a fundamental part of its strategy since the reforms of Deng Xiaoping, beginning in 1978. Since the start of the open door policy in that year, China has had phenomenal economic growth on an export-driven model. For the past three decades China's economic growth has averaged 9.7 percent per year (Saw & Wong, 2009). After Mao's calamitous economic policies, Deng Xiaoping and other leaders were ready to try a system in which prices could be sensitive to changes in labor productivity and the connection between supply and demand. In short, the leaders of this ostensibly socialist country were ready to try capitalism. The transition was gradual and incremental, using a dual-track pricing system in which both centrally planned and market-determined prices were represented. Finally, in 1994 the planned prices were phased out (Lu et al., 2008).

China's embrace of the market is fundamental to its strategy in every way. The increased strategic importance of the South China Sea is a direct consequence of China's decision to open itself up to the outside world (Saw & Wong, 2009). The model favored by China's leaders is that of input-driven growth and strong currency depreciation. By channeling people and capital into manufacturing, China has created new jobs and turned itself into the workhouse of the world (Lin, Cai, & Li, 2003). At the same time, by keeping its currency, the Renminbi (RMB), artificially depreciated, China has worked to make sure that it will continue to supply a great deal of exports to wealthier nations like the United States, Japan, and many Western European countries. Because the RMB is kept artificially below the value it would realize against the dollar in particular if it was allowed to "float", American and other high-income consumers maintain high purchasing power vis-à-vis the RMB. The result is a continued strong demand for Chinese goods (Saw & Wong, 2009; Lu et al., 2008; Ghoneim & Reda, 2008).

Observations such as this have been used to make the case that extensive trade renders war less likely, since both parties have far more to gain from each other by peaceful trade than they do by fighting. This is the so-called "capitalist peace", along with the "democratic peace" one of the two types of "liberal peace" (Gartzke, 2007; Friedman, 2007; Friedman, 2012). The democratic peace argument is that liberal democracies do not go to war with each other, or at

least seldom do. The capitalist peace, on the other hand, is a peace secured by market policies incentivizing two or more countries to stay peaceful rather than harm their own economies by going to war with their trading partners (Friedman, 2007; Friedman, 2012).

While China is not a liberal democracy like the U.S. and the nations of Western Europe, the logic of the so-called “capitalist peace” may still apply to it if it is cheaper and more beneficial for China’s leaders to make peace and pursue continued trade relations rather than war (Gartzke, 2007). Territorial expansion has historically been motivated by the drive to acquire more wealth in the form of land, conquered populations, mobile wealth such as livestock, and natural resources. However, mature, modern capitalist economies offer much more cost-effective ways to acquire wealth than military campaigns and occupation. In particular, in contemporary capitalist economies intellectual and financial capital are of great and still increasing importance, even more than political control of a particular piece of land (Gartzke, 2007).

For China to war with any other power in the South China Sea would be to war with the U.S., and there can be no doubt that China enjoys a very strong economic relationship with the U.S. That said, the relationship is not a symmetrical one, in that the U.S. and China benefit from it or are disadvantaged by it in very different ways. The relationship is very good at delivering cheap Chinese goods to American consumers, but one cost of this for the U.S. has been a trade merchandise deficit with China since 1984. In 2005, the U.S. imported \$243.4 billion worth of Chinese goods (Ghoneim& Reda, 2008).

Since a devalued RMB is the lynchpin of this arrangement, it is in China’s interest to keep the RMB devalued so American consumers will keep buying its products, enabling it to keep large sections of its people employed (Ghoneim& Reda, 2008). On the other hand, the U.S. has used the threat of steep tariffs to incentivize China to allow the RMB to appreciate so that the U.S. can reduce its trade deficit. An appreciated RMB also decreases the purchasing power of the dollar, making American-made goods more competitive in the U.S., where Chinese goods become more expensive, and in China, where American goods become cheaper (Ghoneim& Reda, 2008).

China also famously buys American Treasury securities, which has led to some rather unfounded concerns that the Chinese government will simply pull the plug at some point (Shepherdson, 2013). In fact, China continues to buy Treasury securities because they are a good investment and China has relatively few other options if it wishes to continue to pursue its export-led model. The starting point for this is China’s enormous trade surplus. American importers need to pay for their Chinese goods in renminbi, so they spend dollars to buy renminbi to buy goods. The dollars are taken by the People’s Bank of China, the only net supplier of Chinese currency. Of China’s \$3.7 trillion in foreign reserves, over half is in the form of dollars (Shepherdson, 2013).

China could, in theory, simply sit on a mountain of dollars, but that would not be profitable. Instead, China invests them—by buying U.S. Treasury securities (Shepherdson, 2013). In principle, China could use its dollars to buy another currency, say the euro. However, China already has an enormous trade surplus against the Eurozone, and the Eurozone is much less stable than the U.S. Dollars are a much better investment. This means buying U.S. securities,

because they are safe, liquid, and available in the necessary quantities (Shepherdson, 2013).

By the logic of the capitalist peace, war between China and the U.S. seems unthinkable. Even in a scenario in which China possessed superior military capabilities in the South China Sea, perhaps in the not-too-distant future, war would damage China's reputation in the international community and disrupt trade. Granted, war would also be damaging for the U.S., particularly if the U.S. was the aggressor.

While China might not benefit from war with the U.S. or any of its neighbors thanks to the "capitalist peace", as a rising world power it has sufficient cause to view the U.S. as a strategic rival (Cordesman, 2014). As an emerging world power, it is in China's political and strategic interests to seek to project power in the regions where it has a security presence, including the South China Sea (Zhang, 2015). As Kaplan (2014) noted, China's increasing assertiveness and efforts to dominate the South China Sea are evocative of the efforts of the U.S. to dominate the Caribbean in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, efforts that included the Spanish-American War of 1898 and the construction of the Panama Canal from 1904-1914. However, the Caribbean in this period was nowhere near as important for world trade as the South China Sea is for world trade in contemporary times.

If the capitalist peace makes an outright war unlikely if not prohibitive, the fact that China is an emerging world power has equipped it with the abilities and the incentives to assert its interests in other ways. Without resorting to outright war, China has asserted its claims in the South China Sea, sometimes with a military presence (Khanna, 2008; Zheng & Zhang, 2012). It has also told the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) that territorial disputes in the sea should be resolved through bilateral rather than multilateral negotiations. Given China's outsize economic and military power vis-à-vis ASEAN, such a demand carries a great deal of clout. As a rising world power, China demonstrates that the strategic and security interests of a world power often generate their own momentum, motivating it to further assertive acts. As China seeks to assert its hegemony in the region, it is finding that an aggressive form of diplomacy serves its interests very well indeed (Khanna, 2008; Chiou, 2008).

Conclusion

As the rising hegemon in East Asia, China has a vested interest in asserting itself in the South China Sea at the expense of rival claimants and the current hegemon, the United States. By asserting itself in the region, China ensures its security, notably energy security, and status as a great power. Thus, there are important material, security, and political benefits to be gained by an assertive stance in the South China Sea. However, China's commercial ties with the U.S. and with the rest of the world are vast, and the continued functioning and wellbeing of China's economy is dependent upon these ties continuing. The logic of the capitalist peace is that China has far more to gain by remaining peaceful with all of its neighbors than it does by going to war with them, particularly since war would involve the United States. As an arena of geopolitical great games and the proving ground for a rising world power, the South China Sea is likely to remain tense for the foreseeable future, but a full-scale military conflict seems unlikely in the extreme.

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