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Tattooed Faces and Stilt Houses: Who Were the Ancient Yue?

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TATTOOED FACES AND STILT HOUSES: WHO WERE THE ANCIENT YUE?

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I. Introduction

Recent archeological evidence excavated at Hemudu, a site in northern Zhejiang Province south of Shanghai (Zhejiang Provincial Museum 1978), suggests that were we to step back in time to the 5th millennium B.C. in southern China, we would find people cultivating wet rice, raising water buffalo and living in houses perched high on stilt posts. Culturally, these people differed radically from the millet growing pit dwellers found in the Yellow River Valley region; their discovery has raised new and important questions regarding the development of culture and civilization in southern China.

At long last Chinese archeologists have begun to reinterpret the developments of early civilization in southern China. In so doing they have emphasized the emergence of a southern cultural complex which they call "Yue". The Yue culture, as defined by Chinese archeologists, spans both the Neolithic and early state period.

As more and more archeological data are retrieved from southern China, Chinese archeologists are asking the question, who were the people who created this Yue culture? Were they ethnically different from the people who lived in northern China? What language(s) did they speak? One favorite theory at the moment is that the Yue people were ancestral to the various Tai speaking populations, i.e. the Tai Lue, Tai Neu, Tong, Shui, Bu Yi and the Zhuang, living today primarily in southwestern China.

II. The Yue: Who? What?

What exactly does "Yue" mean? It can designate a culture, a people, or a state. When the word initially appeared in historical documents it referred to an Eastern Zhou state which emerged in northern Zhejiang province from the 7th to the 4th centuries B.C. (Zuo Zhuan: Xuan 8: 301 & 302). Shortlived, the Yue state nonetheless had substantial impact on the historical events of the time as chronicled in the Zuo Zhuan.

The people living in this state were called "men from Yue" and, from the historical literature, we perceive that the men from the northern Central Plains regarded these Yue as less civilized than themselves. For example, ^{司馬遷}Sima Qian, ^{史記}author of the 1st century B.C. Shi Ji, noted disapprovingly that the Yue had short hair; they tattooed their bodies; clothed themselves with garments made from plant fibers; and lived in villages (Shi Ji ^{越王勾踐世家}"Yue Wang Gou Jian Shi Jia": 1739). In contrast, men from the Central Plains wore their hair long and bound it up "properly" with a hairpin; did not tattoo their bodies or faces; clothed themselves with luxurious fabrics made from silk; and preferred living in urban centers.

The concept of men from Yue, however, also incorporated a larger category of people than those who resided within the ancient Yue state. For example, the character used to write Yue is exactly the same as that used for the Viet in Vietnam. In modern Mandarin pronunciation, Vietnam is ^{越南}Yuenan, or the "Yue of the south". These men of Vietnam are just one group of people who figured into this broader notion of the Yue.

This wider perception of Yue also applied to the peoples broadly distributed throughout southern China during the Eastern Zhou period. For example, ^{楚悼王}Sima Qian recorded that the ^{吳起}Chu king Daowang (r. 328-298 B.C.) sent his minister Wu Qi south to pacify the ^{百越}"Bai Yue" (i.e. the Hundred Yue), clearly a reference to

troublesome groups living to the south of the Chu state centered in Hubei and northern Hunan (Shi Ji ^{孫子吳起列傳} "Sunzi Wu Qi Lie Zhuan": 2168). The same incident is also recorded in the Hou Han Shu ^{後漢書 南蠻西南夷列傳} ("Nan Man Xinan Yi Lie Zhuan": 2831), a 4th century A.D. text, except that the term Nan Yue (Southern Yue) is substituted for Hundred Yue. Sima Qian also recorded that when the Chu king ^威 Wei (r. 339-328 B.C.) defeated ^{無疆} Wu Jiang, King of Yue, the Yue people dispersed far and wide throughout the Jiangnan region (i.e. the region south of the Yangtze River) (Shi Ji, "Yue Wang Gou Jian Shi Jia": 1751). Some archeologists date the appearance of many Yue sub-groups first mentioned in Han texts, such as the Western Ou and Luo Yue, to this event and associate archeological remains excavated in southwestern China with them (Jiang Tingyu 1980; Jiang Tingyu and Wei Renyi 1978; Peng Hao 1984; Wu Mingsheng 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Zhang Chao 1984).

^志 By the Han period (206 B.C.- A.D. 220) historical texts such as the Han Shu ^{漢書 地理志} ("Dili Zhi": 1669) reported that the "Hundred Yue were dispersed for 7-8,000 li from Jiaozhi to Guai, with each group having their own surnames". This distribution covered an area in southern China which included the modern provinces of Zhejiang, Fujian and Guangdong in the east, extending through Jiangxi and Hunan to Guangxi, Guizhou and Yunnan in the west. What are we to make of this vast distribution - is it even meaningful to talk of a single ethnic group occupying this area? And, why do Chinese archeologists project the label "Hundred Yue" back onto the people living in this region during the prehistoric period?

III. Chinese Concept of Ethnicity

Part of the answer to these questions lies in how the Chinese perceive culture and ethnicity - both traditionally and today. The Chinese have long been interested in the problem of ethnicity, in part because of their conviction that Chinese

civilization and rule is somehow unique and distinctive. Historical materials and travelers' accounts from the Yuan, Ming and Qing periods (for example, Zhou 周 達觀 真腊風土記, Daguan's Zhenla Fengtu Ji [Records of the Customs of Cambodia, 1296-97], Qian 錢 古訓 百夷傳, Guxin's Bai Yi Zhuan [Chronicles of the Bai Yi Peoples, late 14th century A.D.], Wang 汪 大淵 島夷志略, Wang Dayuan's Dao Yi Zhi Lue [Records of the Island Barbarians, mid 14th century], Ma 馬 歡 瀛 涯 勝 覽, Ma Huan's Ying Yai Sheng Lan [Descriptions of the Coasts of Oceans, 1425-1432?], or Huang 黃 省 曾 西 洋 朝 貢 興 錄, Huang Shenzeng's Xi Yang Zhao Gong Dian Lu [Records of the Tributary Nations of the West, 1520]) reveal a deep fascination on the part of their Chinese authors with people different from themselves, people whose cultures reflected alternative choices to the "Chinese way".

In a broad sense, the Chinese approach to ethnicity is thus one of "us versus them". The "them" is defined in a cultural sense, i.e. people who did not share the Chinese language, dress, family structure, ritual system, etc. This contrast can also be expressed in terms of nei (inside) and wai (outside). In the view of the classical Zhou people (ca. 1100-221 B.C.), the world consisted of nine concentric circles surrounding a central zone known as the king's domain (Zhou li 周禮, from Cushman 1970: 20-30). According to this schema, the six zones closest to the king's domain were considered "nei fu" 內服, i.e. inside and hence part of "Zhongguo" (the central state). The three outer circles were "wai fu" 外服, i.e. outside. They did not belong to the Chinese world and were inhabited by "barbarians".

The Er Ya 爾雅 (Han period -- 206 B.C. - A.D. 220) offered a second, more complex view of the world. In this view the Chinese world is surrounded by four seas of barbarians -- each sea or group is associated with one of the four directions: the northern di 狄, the eastern yi 夷, the southern man 蠻, and the western rong 戎. Each of the respective seas can be further divided into nei and wai. The nei groups can be even further subdivided into sheng 生 (raw), i.e. uncivilized and hence potentially

dangerous, and ^熟shu (cooked or ripe), i.e. civilized in the sense that they have been "tamed" by the influence of Chinese civilization (summarized in Cushman 1970: 25).

As the early Chinese state expanded its boundaries and brought greater numbers of non-Chinese groups into its political sphere, Chinese bureaucrat-officials became even more concerned with identifying and classifying non-Chinese groups in order better to rule and control them. This practical application of the ethnographic descriptions found in the historical materials is further emphasized in the later Ming (1368-1644) and Qing periods (1644-1911) when some of the information was incorporated into actual handbooks designed for the officials who administered in the frontier regions peopled by mostly non-Han groups (Cushman 1970: 31).

In theory, the definition of ethnicity applied by modern 20th century Chinese ethnographers and archeologists stems from 19th-century European evolutionary models. It was transmitted to China via Stalin whose view derived from the 19th-century thinking of Marx and Engels. However, as Mosely points out (1966: 15) "there was a high degree of compatibility between the traditional Chinese attitude toward China's non-Han peoples and the Marxist-Leninist theory on the national question. For "non-Han" could be substituted "feudal" or "prefeudal," while for "Han" could be substituted "capitalist" or "modern."

Yet, regardless of the similarity of attitudes, the Marxist-Leninist view of nationalities does differ from the traditional in several ways. Ethnicity, or the question of nationalities, in Marxist-Leninist theory, is an important political issue. According to the Marxist view, the modern nation (each peopled by a dominant nationality) forms during the capitalist stage, the nation is fully realized during the socialist stage, and withers away during the communist stage (Hsieh Jiann 1986: 4). In the course of political evolution, nations must form in order for them to wither.

Hence, the Soviet socialist system encouraged the formation of socialist republics consisting of nationalities linked under that broader political umbrella of the Soviet Union of Socialist Republics.

As part of the program for resolving the "nationalities question" in newly socialist China, party policy required loyal cadres to go out and do revolutionary work among the nationalities in order to raise their class consciousness. To carry out this policy, cadres faced two initial tasks. The first was to identify who in fact were the nationalities. The second was to classify their level of political development so that the correct political education could be applied (Mosely 1966: 18). The party recognized that it was essential to dispel the struggles among the nationalities that characterized the past. The nationalities must then be united in the universal struggle against the imperialist feudal and capitalistic oppressors.

After the new Chinese socialist government acknowledged the importance of identifying nationalities, the next question was how to accomplish this task? In 1950 the Chinese Communist Party held a congress in order to discuss the criteria for identifying nationalities (or ethnic groups). Fei Xiaotong and Yang Kun were the only anthropologists to attend the meeting; the rest were party bureaucrats. Despite disagreement voiced by Fei and Yang, the Congress voted to adopt the criteria proposed by Stalin for identifying nationalities. A nation, he said, is "a historically constituted, stable community of people, formed on the basis of common language, territory, economic life, and psychological makeup manifested in a common culture." (J. Stalin, Marxism and the National and Colonial Question, London: Wishart, 1947, p.8, quoted in Moseley 1966: 34, fn.3). As the Chinese Communist Party saw it, these criteria could be restated so that each distinct ethnic group must demonstrate:

1. a common language,
2. a common residency (i.e. territory),
3. common cultural traditions and customs,
4. common religious traditions.

Essentially then, an ethnic group was perceived as a recognizable, bounded group with shared language, territory and cultural traits distinguishable from other groups. As stated above, this "one language -- one people -- one culture" approach corresponds to that of late 19th - early 20th century anthropologists and ethnographers. Using these criteria, Chinese anthropologists proceeded to analyze rigorously the various peoples who claimed status as ethnic groups to determine whether or not they indeed constituted distinct nationalities.

IV. The Yue Archeologically Speaking

What bearing does this concept of ethnicity have on archeology? It will play a role in how the archeologist defines and classifies prehistoric and early historic cultures.

We may now ask ourselves just how do Chinese archeologists justify collapsing the large geographical area outlined in section II into one Yue mega-culture? We must begin the answer to this question by first providing a broad definition of culture. Essentially culture "is the abstract values, beliefs and perceptions of the world that lie behind people's behavior, and which that behavior reflects. These are shared by members of a society, and when acted upon they produce behavior considered acceptable within that society. Cultures are learned, through the medium of language, rather than inherited biologically...." (Haviland 1983: 29). An important corollary to this definition is that we cannot assume cultures and ethnic groups are equivalent.

Although archeologists may share this definition of culture, their work is complicated by the fact that they study the cultures of past peoples whose behavior can no longer be observed and analyzed. Archeologists, therefore, define their cultural groups by classifying the artifacts left behind by past peoples. The archeologist assumes that these artifacts reflect the values and beliefs of the people who created them. Sites yielding similar artifacts are presumed to reflect shared values and beliefs and can thus be classified as belonging to the same culture, albeit an "archeological culture".

Using this approach, we can see that the size of an archeological culture can be manipulated by the archeologist's assessment of what constitutes significant, or diagnostic, features for defining a culture. Certain archeologists have been classified as "lumpers". They require fewer diagnostic criteria to define their groups which results in fewer but larger archeological cultures. Others are "splitters" who define cultures using more diagnostic traits. Their approach leads to smaller but greater numbers of archeological groups. When it comes to defining the Yue culture, Chinese archeologists are clearly "lumpers".

Another important factor which affects the archeological definition of culture is the nature of what is or is not preserved in the archeological record. Often the kinds of artifacts used to distinguish cultures are very limited, and therefore misleading. In the hotter and more humid regions of south China, for example, organic materials such as textiles, baskets, wood materials, are less well preserved than in cooler, drier climates.

Within the past twenty years western archeologists have made great strides in obtaining and analyzing other kinds of data such as settlement patterns which can provide better information on behavior (for ex. see Binford and Binford 1968, K.C. Chang 1968, Hodder, Isaac & Hammond 1981), yet, the tendency is still for

archeologists to focus their analysis on pottery, stone and metal artifacts. Consequently, due to the limitations of their materials, the cultures delineated by archeologists probably do not correspond to actual culture groups alive at any given time.

We can now understand that Chinese archeologists classify most of China south of the Yangtze river as belonging to one cultural tradition because the sites excavated there exhibit a broad similarity of artifact types. For the Neolithic period, from ca. the 5th to the 2nd millennium B.C., archeologists report finding a widespread distribution of stamped geometric pottery, shouldered stone axes and stepped adzes (Li Kunsheng 1983; Rong Guanqiong 1956; Guangdong Provincial Museum 1959; Fujian Cultural Committee 1961; Mou Yongkang 1981; Lin Huixiang 1954; Wu Mingsheng 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Peng Hao 1984; Shang Chao 1984; Yan Yaolin & Xu Huanglin 1985; Zhang Zeng Qi 1982). These site reports come from Zhejiang, Fujian, Jiangxi, Hunan, Guangdong, Guangxi, Yunnan, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. Stamped, geometric potsherds, similar to ones found in Guangdong, Jiangxi and Fujian, are reported even from the Xishuangbanna region of southern Yunnan Province (Daizu Jian Shi, editorial committee, 1985: 32-33; Jiang Yingliang 1983: 21). Only one site, Hemudu, the northern Zhejiang site mentioned above (Zhejiang Provincial Museum 1978) provided more substantial data about settlement patterns, domestication of plants and animals, and some bone and wooden implements. Ironically, the Hemudu site did not yield geometric pottery or shouldered adzes.

During the early historic period (the 2nd - 1st millennium B.C., called the Bronze Age by Chinese archeologists), which corresponds to the period of early state formation in northern China, archeologists report finding a distribution of sites within the same region which contain hard, proto-stoneware, stamped geometric pottery, glazed pottery, together with boot-shaped bronze axes and trapezoid-shaped

bronze axes, and sometimes a unique basin-shaped ding tripod with tall, spindly legs (Feng Yuhui 1984; Fu Juyou 1982; Gao Zhixi 1980; Jin Zegong 1984; KG 1973.1; KG 1979.6; Mo Zhi and Li Shiwen 1963; Mo Zhi 1963; Mou Yongkang 1984; Peng Hao 1984; Tan Guangrong 1984; Wenwu Cultural Committee 1979: 325-330; Wu Mingsheng 1982, 1983a; Yang Hao 1961; Yang Yaolin and Xu Huanglin 1985).

In an archeological sense, it is legitimate to classify this region as a single cultural tradition with broadly shared characteristics. To designate this cultural area specifically as Yue, however, has farther-reaching implications.

Why did Chinese archeologists select the term Yue to name this mega-culture spanning a time depth of more than 5,000 years? As we saw above, the term Yue is drawn from historical texts dating to the Eastern Zhou and Han periods where it is used not only for the Yue state and its inhabitants, but also more generally for non-Han groups living in southern China during the early historical period. By extending the label Yue to include both the historic and prehistoric peoples and cultures, Chinese scholars are assuming a genetic connection between the historically defined Yue groups cited in the texts, and the peoples which preceded them in the archeological record. In this regard they are using a method similar to Julian Steward's "direct historical approach" (Steward 1942). This is a recognized and legitimate approach, the main difference being that Steward began with living ethnic groups whose history was then pushed backwards in time using historical materials to that point where it overlapped with prehistory.

V. A Closer Look at Ethnicity

There are several problems with the reasoning of the Chinese archeologists. First, they are confusing archeological cultures with ethnicity. They have taken a historical term which implies ethnicity and have applied it to what is basically an

archeologically defined cultural tradition. This large archeological mega-culture undoubtedly masks a sizable number of ethnic groups. Second, we do not even know for certain whether the various types of historical Yue described in the texts were, anthropologically speaking, sub-divisions within one ethnic group.

Third, the Chinese approach to ethnicity, i.e. the one language – one culture – one people concept is fundamentally problematic. Widespread similar, or shared, cultural traits need not necessarily mark ethnicity and can easily mask a plethora of diverse ethnic groups and cultures. Some overlapping traits may simply express an ecological response to a shared environment. For example, the Tai, the Akha and the Yao are ethnically distinct groups living side by side in southern Yunnan and northern Thailand, but all live in raised or stilt houses.

Recent work on the concept of ethnicity by western anthropologists further challenges the conventional conception that ethnic groups are bounded units of people who share a common culture, speak a common language and belong to a common society (Keyes 1979: 3). Ethnicity is viewed as having no existence apart from interethnic relations (Cohen 1978: 389), meaning that people constantly define themselves in relationship to other groups. F.K. Lehman (1967: 105) has pointed out, "social and cultural systems are reference systems, that is, cognitive models at varying levels of awareness." He further suggests that "when people identify themselves as members of some ethnic category... they are taking positions in culturally defined systems of inter-group relations" (Lehman 1967: 106).

Thus, it has become apparent that people can sustain parallel but separate ethnic identities within one social setting and that they can select the appropriate identity depending on the situation. For example, are Chinese living in Thailand Thai or Chinese? Many individuals easily assume both identities, identifying with Chinese society in one context and Thai in another. Charles Keyes (1979: 4) also calls our

attention to villagers in northeastern Thailand with whom he carried out research. He points out that some of the villagers in this area maintain a "Lao" identity when talking with officials from central Thailand, a "Thai" identity when they visit friends in present-day Laos, and even an Isan (a term referring to the northeast region of Thailand) identity when they wish to express identification with the particular local culture which has developed in that region over the years.

What do these new approaches to ethnicity mean for the archaeologist? First, we now recognize that ethnicity is far more complex than previously assumed. In doing so, we must again re-emphasize the limitations imposed on the archeologist by the nature of his data. This recent work on the nature of ethnicity has evolved from research carried out on living groups, and the degree of subtlety and sophistication the analysis achieves is lost in the archeological record. Consequently, this new theoretical work serves as a strong warning to archeologists to treat our own use of the word "ethnic group" with care, and as a reminder that the archeologically defined "culture group" is a heuristic device created by the archeologist. It should not be equated with an "ethnic group".

VI. Perceived Links Between the Ancient Yue and Today's Tai

Unaware of these problems, recent articles both reporting and discussing the new sites associated with the Bronze Age Yue culture in southern China have linked this early culture with today's Tai speaking ethnic groups (Feng Yuhui 1984; Fu Juyou 1982; Huang Huikun 1986; Jiang Tingyu 1980, 1982; Jiang Yingliang 1980, 1983; Li Kanfen 1985; Li Kunsheng 1983; Research Committee for the Bai Yue Ethnic Group 1985). This association of the ancient Yue with the Tai is not a new idea. Jiang Yingliang, one of China's foremost scholars on Tai culture and history, argued for this connection as early as the 1950's (Jiang Yingliang 1950).

What is it that prompts Chinese archeologists and ethnologists to forge a direct historical connection between the ancient Yue and the modern Tai? Using the criteria outlined by Stalin for defining an ethnic group, they make a comparative analysis between the archaeologically defined Yue culture and the modern Tai cultures.

First, they posit a common language for both the ancient Yue and the Tai. Unfortunately, the analysis of this issue is far from satisfactory. Spoken languages leave no trace in the archeological record, and most of the artifacts from Yue sites do not contain examples of written language. The exceptions are artifacts from the Yue state where inscriptions are found on bronze vessels and weapons. Unfortunately, the inscriptions are written using Chinese characters, making it difficult to assess a precise pronunciation of the ancient Yue language, if it is in fact ancient Yue written on the bronzes.

Some distorted evidence of the pronunciation of the ancient Yue language does appear in a few Han period texts. For example, Liu Xiang's ^{劉向說苑} Shuo Yuan uses Chinese characters to record examples of Yue vocabulary as well as some Yue folk songs in Yue. The characters are used not ideographically, but phonetically. Jiang Yingliang (1983: 5) feels that of the fifty-four characters in one song, more than ten are precisely the same as words found in the Zhuang language today. Jiang (1983: 76) further calls our attention to Yang Xiong's ^{楊雄方言} Fang Yan which also recorded the pronunciation of different Wu-Yue words, transliterating them using Chinese characters. For example:

da (大 in Chinese meaning "big" or "large") -- the Jing, Wu Yang and Ou say zhuo 濯

xin (信 in Chinese meaning "true" or "to believe") -- the Western Ou say mu 穆

fu (輔 in Chinese meaning "to assist" or "complement") - the Wu and Yue
say xu 胥

shou (受 in Chinese meaning "receive" or "accept") -- the Yang Yue say na 龕

si (死 in Chinese meaning "death") -- the Yue people call death zha 劓

According to Jiang's linguistic analysis, many of these words are Proto-Tai (1983: 77-80). Jiang's analysis, however, only uses Chinese characters to indicate these old Wu-Yue words. Without a reconstruction of the pronunciation of Han period Chinese which should be compared with reconstructed Proto-Tai, the analysis is meaningless.

Other linguists (Norman and Mei 1976) have argued for the presence of Austroasiatic speakers along the shores of the middle Yangtze and parts of the southeast coast during the first millenium B.C. Although Norman and Mei's definition of Austroasiatic is somewhat controversial (it includes Austronesian languages as well), they are, in fact, suggesting the presence of several non-Chinese language groups, not simply Proto-Tai -- a far more complex and more realistic scenario.

In addition, in their zeal to link the Hundred Yue with Proto-Tai, Chinese scholars have ignored another school of scholarship (Chamberlain 1972, 1975; Gedney 1965; Mote 1964; Terweil 1978; Wyatt 1982) which places the Proto-Tai homeland in the Tonkin region of the northern Vietnam - Laos border area, not in the region just south of the Yangtze. This conclusion is reached because of the great diversity of dialects around the eastern Guangxi-North Vietnam border as compared to the homogeneity of dialects further west in Thailand, Burma and Laos (Gedney 1965: 112). According to this model, the Tai speakers found today in Guangxi and Yunnan would represent later northwestern migrations, not southwestern. Thus,

there would not have been Proto-Tai speakers present in all the areas associated with the Neolithic and Bronze Age Yue cultures. Furthermore, these linguists estimate the age of Proto-Tai at not older than 2000 years (Gedney unpublished; Chamberlain 1975) making it impossible to link the neolithic Yue with Proto-Tai speakers.

As for the criteria of a common territory, Jiang (1950, 1983) and others simply assign the Yue homeland to southern China. The modern Tai speakers still live dispersed in this region today, and although they have been displaced in many areas by Han Chinese, this area is assumed to illustrate the concept of a common residency. As seen above, this southern Chinese homeland is not agreed upon by all. The linguistic evidence strongly points to Tonkin region in northern Vietnam as the nuclear area of Proto-Tai. In addition, as Chamberlain (1975: 60) notes, "one of the gaps in Southeast Asian history has been the failure of scholars to research thoroughly the many indigenous histories of the Tai groups. Instead, the tendency has been to lean heavily on the Chinese records...." Histories and historical legends associated with such groups such as the Tai Lue, the Black Tai and the Lao suggest a westward migration and not a southern, for example, the legend of the golden deer, popular among the Tai Lue of the Sipsong Panna (part of which falls within today's Xishuangbanna Dai Autonomous Province). According to the story, Phya Wulu, ruler of the Tai, shot and wounded a golden deer while hunting. The deer led him on a long chase over mountains and valleys, finally arriving in the region of today's Xishuangbanna. Because the region was beautiful and fertile, he brought his people there to settle and prosper. In some versions, Pya Wulu was the ruler of Meung Lao, today's Laos (Jiang 1983: 150 - 151). Thus, it is not certain that the distribution of Bronze Age Yue culture, which broadly corresponds with the distribution of today's Tai populations living in China, correlates with the earliest centers of Tai culture.

The strongest connections between the ancient Yue and the modern Tai groups, however, argues Jiang and others, lies in the series of culture traits seen as diagnostic of both. For example, both the ancient Yue and the modern Tai practice the custom of tattooing the body. There is abundant evidence in early historical texts documenting the presence of this practice. For example, in the Zhuangzi it says: "a man of Sung who sold ceremonial hats made a trip to Yueh, but the Yueh people cut their hair short and tattoo their bodies and had no use for such things..." (from The Complete Works of Chuang Tzu, translated by B. Watson 1968: 34). Sima Qian recorded that "Gou Jian, the king of Yue, was the descendant of Yu and the grandson of Shao Kang of the Xia. He was enfeoffed at Guiji and made his ancestral sacrifices to Yu. (The Yue) tattooed their bodies and cut their hair short..." (Shi Ji: 1739).

Some possible archeological confirmation of this custom is gleaned from mortuary items excavated from tombs belonging to the elite of the Eastern Zhou period state of Chu centered in Hubei and Hunan. Chu tombs frequently included clothed or painted male and female wooden figurines. A few of these figurines had faces marked with dots which may represent tattooing. Because the Chu state incorporated the Yue region during the late Zhanguo period (476-221 B.C.), these figures may represent members of the Yue population (Peters 1983).

It is true that tattooing is still a common custom among many Tai speaking groups today. Both Tai Neu (from the Dehong Autonomous Region in Yunnan) and Tai Lue males, for example, might cover their bodies from the chest down to their thighs, including their backs, with elaborate tattoos. These tattoos serve as a marker of the individual's transition to adult malehood. In addition to being considered decorative, certain kinds are believed to protect the individual from bodily harm during warfare or other dangerous situations. The tattoos consist of passages from Buddhist sutras, magic spells, as well as certain protective symbols

such as nagas (serpent spirits). A fourteenth century Chinese text reported that untattooed Tai males in the Dehong-Shan States region were not only treated with mockery by other people in their village, but that they were also compared with females (see Qian Guxun's Bai Yi Zhuan, p.90).

However, we should point out that Tai speakers are not the only people to practice tattooing -- for example, the Dulong, a Tibeto-Burman speaking group living today in northwestern Yunnan, and the Nagas, another Tibeto-Burman speaking group found today in northwest India. The practice was also widespread among Malayo-Polynesian speakers -- the Maori of New Zealand being a noteworthy example as well as the Ainu of Hokkaido. Furthermore, Terweil (1978: 244) points out, one simply cannot take the practice of tattooing itself as significant. Deeper analysis must be made as to the kind of tattooing, for example, where it is placed on the body and whether it is restricted to men or to women.

Attention has also been given to the pile dwellings (houses built on stilts) associated with both the ancient Yue and modern Tai speakers today. Some later textual evidence for this house type is found in Zhang Hua's Bo Wu Zhi (a Six Dynasties text) which recorded the Southern Yue as living in "nests", i.e. houses raised in the air. The author of the Huai Nanzi (Western Han) also noted that the ancient Yue did not live in walled houses; they lived in houses shaped like birds' nests.

There is some archeological evidence for stilt houses in southern China. For example, the people who lived at Hemudu nearly 7,000 years ago lived in raised houses. More significant for Chinese archeologists, however, are the raised houses depicted on the bronze drums excavated from the late Eastern Zhou - early Western Han period site of Shizhai Shan (Wen Wu Press 1959). Some Yunnan archeologists

call this archeological culture the Dian Yue culture (Li Kunsheng 1983; Jiang Yingliang 1983) and link it with modern Tai speakers in Yunnan today.

However, as argued above, raised dwellings appear to be a response to specific environmental conditions and are constructed by many different ethnic groups living in southwestern China, Southeast Asia, and Polynesia today. As a trait, they serve better to distinguish northern Han Chinese houses from Southeast Asian. It is well known that in traditional Southeast Asian villages today, Chinese merchants usually live in ground level houses, often made of poured concrete, whereas the local people prefer raised houses constructed from wood and bamboo.

Another cultural trait frequently cited as diagnostic of both Yue and Tai culture is skill in metallurgy, especially illustrated in the production of bronze, mushroom-shaped drums. Ethnographically, however, these drums are associated today with not only Tai speakers, but Miao (Miao-Yao, a branch of Sino-Tibetan), Karens (a branch of Sino-Tibetan) and others. The distribution of these drums is very wide - they are found in Yunnan, Guizhou, Guangxi, Guangdong, Vietnam, northern Burma, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia and even out into the Malayo-Ponesian archipelago (Smith and Watson 1979, Appendix: 495-507). Historically, the drums span the mid-first millennium B.C. up to the 14th century A.D. As a marker of Tai ethnicity, they are, at best, problematic.

Finally, Jiang and Li suggest characteristics such as wet rice agriculture and a highly developed water technology (a common saying among Chinese is that Tai love water and build their villages along river banks). This statement is so generalized as to be practically meaningless.

In the end, when we review the nature of the suggested Tai cultural characteristics which are supposed to link them with the Hundred Yue, it would appear that they serve more as markers distinguishing Southeast Asian cultures

from Han Chinese, and more specifically, lowland Southeast Asian cultures -- cultures which would include not only Tai speaking groups, but Mon and Austronesian speakers as well.

VII. Conclusions

In conclusion, the attempt to link the archeologically defined "Yue culture" which occupied southern China during the Neolithic through Han periods with the Tai-speaking groups currently living in southwestern China today is far from conclusive. First, it is questionable whether or not we can assume that the Yue people cited in the historical sources are in fact one ethnic group. Second, the methodology applied by Chinese archeologists and ethnographers to this issue raises many problems. For example, the arguments they use imply that ethnicity is a bounded, defined unit which can be identified through recognizable criteria. As noted above, current thinking on the concept of ethnicity rejects this notion. To reiterate, ethnicity is better understood as consisting of fluid categories where membership in one group is not mutually exclusive with membership in others.

Third, during the twelfth to fourteenth century A.D., historical sources, both Chinese and Tai, clearly establish the existence of Theravada Buddhist, Tai speaking states in the region of today's Xishuangbanna, Dehong, the Shan states in Burma, northern Thailand and northern Laos with characteristically Tai political, social and cultural systems. It is not so clear, however, that these groups had their origin in the Yangtze region and spread south. The theory currently supported by linguists locates the earliest Proto-Tai speaking groups about 2000 years ago in the Tonkin Valley region on the border of north Vietnam and Laos.

Finally, the various cultural traits cited by archeologists as ones linking the ancient Yue with the Tai are better understood as markers of a broad Southeast

Asian culture area which can be contrasted with the Han or Sinitic cultures based in northern China.

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Abbreviations

JHKG	<u>Jiangnan Kaogu</u>	江汉考古
KG	<u>Kaogu</u>	考古
KGXB	<u>Kaogu Xuebao</u>	考古学报
W W	<u>Wenwu</u>	文物

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