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THE CHINESE
YEAR BOOK

P R E F A C E

AFTER the publication of the fifth issue of this YEAR BOOK the Pacific war finally came and made its effect felt even in the production of a new edition of this work. The blockade of the Burma route and the consequent preciousness of material and facilities in the hinterland of China have rendered it advisable to print the present volume in India. Whereas enemy efforts have failed to bring about a complete cessation of Allied supplies to Free China or to prevent her from making shifts, any adequate shipment must require the reoccupation of Burma. Events in the past months have made it difficult to resist the hope of printing the next edition again back in China as a result perhaps of the total collapse of the Axis aggressors or at least of the resumption of the Rangoon-Chungking traffic.

Six years of gallant and resolute struggle have at last borne fruit. However, not many, even today, can realize the tremendous sacrifices of a people who, virtually beleaguered, has been fighting on to preserve a cradle of civilization. The present volume as well as its predecessors, prepared from official sources by recognized authorities in their respective fields of endeavour and learning, may give some idea of the unity of purpose of the Chinese nation. It records her untiring efforts at social, political and economic reconstruction in the midst of armed resistance. Through the various means of communications, hydraulic work, health measures, etc. the vast interior of the country has been rapidly developed to augment the sinews of war. For the duration of hostilities, however, part of the military, economic and other information which appeared in the pre-war numbers has had and will have to be discontinued or abridged, not without regret.

The Council must acknowledge its indebtedness to the contributors for having written for the book in spite of heavy public duties. Especially it is grateful to Mr. Shao Yu-lin (邵 維 麟), former Director of the Information Department of the Waichiaopu, for having made valuable suggestions and obtained for the Council material from various sources. In the course of producing the volume, courtesy shown by Mr. Tsiang Chia-tung (蔣 家 棟), Chinese Consul at Bombay, and Messrs. C. Murphy, F. X. Gomes and E. S. Aaron of the Thackers Press is deeply appreciated.

CHI-HSIEN CHANG (張 啟 賢)

Director

Council of International Affairs

July 7, 1943

CONTENTS

	PAGE
PREFACE	I
PART I. GENERAL INFORMATION	
Geography , by Huan-yung Hu (胡煥庸)	3
Geological Structure	3
Orographical Divisions	5
Mountains	8
Rivers and Lakes	9
Deserts and Steppes	11
Astronomy , by Ching-sung Yu (俞青松)	13
Observation of Eclipse of 1941	13
Solar Terms	14
Phases of the Moon	15
Eclipses for 1943	15
Astronomical Phenomena for 1943	16
Time of Sunrise and Sunset for 1943	21
Climate , by John Lee (呂炯)	23
Temperature	26
Wind	27
Humidity, Fog and Frost	29
Rainfall	30
Population , by L. K. Tao (陶孟和)	41
Statistics of Population	41
Non-Chinese-Speaking Peoples in China	44
Language , by Fang-kuei Li (李方桂)	48
Indo-Chinese Family	48
Austro-Asiatic Family	54
Altai Family	54
Religion , by Chi-hsien Chang (張啟賢)	57
Confucianism	57
Taoism	59
Buddhism	62
Lamaism	64

	PAGE
Islam	66
Catholicism	70
Protestantism, by W. Y. Chen (陳文淵)	77
History, by Lei Hai-tsung (雷海宗)	98
Feudal Age	99
The Empire	100
Sui and Tang Dynasties	102
Sung Dynasty	102
Yuan and Ming Dynasties	103
Manchu Dynasty	103
The Republic	105
The Chinese Entity, by Shuhsi Hsu (徐淑希)	109
Past Development	109
As First Seen by Occidentals	111
Mongolia and Tibet at Present	115
The Nine New Provinces	119
Chinese Oversea	122

PART II. THE JAPANESE WAR

Military Campaigns, 1940-1942, by Liu Fei (劉斐)	127
Offensive on Wuyuan	128
Battle of Southern Honan	128
Battle of Chungtiao Mountains	129
Guerrilla Activities in Shantung	131
Tsaoyang and Ichang Engagements	131
Fighting in Central Hupeh	133
Battle of Shangkao	134
Second Changsha Battle	136
Third Changsha Battle	137
Chekiang-Kiangsi Fighting	138
Battle of Tsingyun	141
Burma Campaign	141
Appendix: Enemy Air Strategy	145

PART III. WARTIME GOVERNMENT

Party and Politics, by Chen Chih-mai (陳之邁)	157
The Kuomintang	157
Relationships with Other Parties	162
People's Political Council	165
Preparation for the National Congress	168

	PAGE
National and Local Government, by Chi-hsien Chang (張啟賢)	171
Executive Yuan	171
Legislative Yuan	172
Judicial Yuan	181
Examination Yuan	188
Control Yuan	196
National Military Council	198
Local Government	199
Home Affairs, by Chou Chung-yu (周鍾經)	205
Civil Affairs	207
Census Administration	212
Police Administration	213
Ceremonies and Customs	218
Construction	219
Opium Suppression	220
Home Affairs: Mongolia and Tibet, by Wu Chung-hsin (吳忠信)	223
Administrative Organs	223
Commission on Mogolian and Tibetan Affairs	227
Wartime Work of the Commission	228
Mongolia and Tibet and the War	237
Growing Interest in Frontier Regions	238
Foreign Relations, by Shao Yu-lin (邵毓麟)	241
The Atlantic Charter	241
Joint Declaration by the United Nations	241
Sino-British Relations	242
Sino-American Relations	256
Sino-French Relations	268
Sino-Soviet Relations	269
Sino-Axis Relations	271
Exchange of Diplomatic Representatives	273
Recognition of New Governments	273
Abolition of Unequal Treaties	277
Conclusion of New Treaties	277
Overseas Chinese Affairs, by Chen Shu-jen (陳樹人)	314
Overseas Contributions	316
Overseas Technical Personnel Returning Home	318
Overseas Investment in Productive Work	318
National Salvation Organizations Abroad	319
Thrift and Savings Movement	320
Overseas Remittances	320
Overseas Education	322
Emergency War Relief	323

PART IV. FINANCE AND ECONOMY

PAGE

Public Finance , by Hsia Chin-hsiung (夏晉熊)	329
Public Treasury System	330
Local Finance	332
Taxation	334
National Monopoly of Daily Necessities	342
Loans	360
Appendix : Laws and Regulations	370
Banking and Currency , by C. Y. W. Meng (孟長漢)	384
Joint Administration Office of Four Government Banks	386
Provincial Banks	395
Hsien Banks	400
Private Banks and Trust Companies	403
Native Banks	410
Financial Network in the Southwest and Northwest	411
Control of Banking Business	421
Clearing Operation	423
Extension of Farm Loans	426
Promotion of Savings	438
Appendix : Laws and Regulations	444
Foreign Trade , by Tsou Lin (鄒琳)	460
Administrative Organization	461
Control of Export Trade	464
Control of Import Trade	469
Survey of Trade	471
Industry and Commodity Control , by Ping-chun Tseng	480
Economic Development on Eve of War	480
Economic Reconstruction in Free China	482
Electricity and Fuels	483
Iron, Steel and Machine Works	484
Chemical Industry	485
Cotton and Flour Mills	486
Commodity Control	490
Industrial Cooperatives , by Z. Y. Chow (周象賢)	496
Chinese Industrial Cooperatives at Present	497
Education and Welfare	499
Technical Improvement	500
Organization and Operation	501
International Interest	502
Prospects	503

VII

PAGE

Agriculture , by Shen Hung-lich (沈鴻烈)	505
Administrative Machinery	505
Improvement in Agricultural Production	507
Promotion of Fisheries and Animal Husbandry	509
Development of Forestry	510
Reclamation Work	510
Rural Economy	512
Increase of Food Production	512
Forestry , by D. Y. Lin (凌道揚)	515
Forest Policy and Administration	515
Forest, Soil and Water Conservation	516
Provincial Forestry Work	517
Forest Activities and Education	517
Forest Research	520
Forest Resources	521
Timber Industry and Secondary Forest Products	524
Water Conservancy , by Hsueh Tu-pi (薛鶴鵬)	530
Administrative Organization	530
Development of Irrigation Canals	531
Regulation of Rivers	538
Flood Prevention	543
Food Administration , by Hsu Kan (徐堪)	547
System of Control	549
Food Productivity and Increment	554
Collection of Land Tax in Kind	554
Purchasing at Fixed Prices	556
Supply of Military Food	558
Food Supply for Public Functionaries	560
Food Supply for Civilians and Consumption Markets	564
Food Transportation	564
Food Storage	567
Food Price and Control	567
Communications and Transportation , by Francis K. Pan (潘光迺)	572
Railways	573
Highways	579
State Transport	586
Telephone and Telegraph	587
Postal Service	591
Postal Savings and Remittance	596
Shipping	598
Commercial Aviation	601

VIII

PART V. CULTURAL AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS

PAGE

Social Administration , by Ku Cheng-kang (谷正綱)	607
Administrative Organization	607
Popular Organization and Training	607
Social Welfare	611
Labour Welfare	625
Cooperative Enterprises	626
Mobilization of Manpower	635
Statistics and Research	637
Social Legislation	638
Education , by Ku Yu-hsiu (顧維璣)	639
Higher Education	639
Secondary Education	642
People's Education	644
Social Education	644
Education for Frontier Districts	646
Education for Overseas Chinese	646
Medical Education	647
Physical Education	647
Musical Education	648
Comparative Statistics	649
Appendix : Academia Sinica	657
The Press , by Hsu Chao-yung (徐兆鏞)	665
Newspapers and News Agencies	666
Representative Press Organs	671
Newspapermen and Martyrs	674
Foreign Press	677
Wartime Press Censorship	680
News Transmissions	683
Press Association	684
Journalistic Education	687
Public Health , by P. Z. King (金寶善)	690
Promotion of State Medicine	690
System of Organizations	690
Expansion of Highway Health Service	701
Medical Relief	703
Epidemic Prevention and Control	705
Control of Medical Personnel and Supplies	711
Production of Drugs and Medical Equipment	713
Training of Public Health Personnel	716
Foreign Medical Aid	718

IX

PAGE

War Relief

National Relief Commission, by Hsu Shih-ying (許世英)	720
and Peng Shu-jen	733
National Red Cross Society of China, by C. T. Wang (王正廷)	740
World Red Swastika Society, by Peng Shu-jen (彭樹仁)	742
Friends of the Wounded Society, by J. L. Huang (黃仁霖)	746
Refugee Children Relief Association, by Vera Ai-chen Chang	750

Women in the War, by Vera Ai-chen Chang (張霞真)

Mobilization of Women	750
Participation in Productive Work	751
Services for Soldiers	752
Care and Education of Children	753

General Appendix

Charts of National and Local Administrative Systems	757
Directory of High-Ranking Officials of Central and Local Governments	793
Directory of Higher Officials of Kuomintang Central Headquarters	817
Members of People's Political Council	821
List of Institutions of Higher Education and University Presidents	825
List of Educational and Cultural Organizations	831
Chinese Diplomatic and Consular Service Abroad	835
Foreign Diplomatic and Consular Service in China	842
Foreign National Holidays	851
Passport Regulations	852
Weights and Measures	854

Index

859

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GEOGRAPHY

HUAN-YUNG HU¹ (胡煥庸)

CHINA, situated in Eastern Asia, occupies a total land mass of 11,412,190 sq. km., approximately one-twelfth of the land area of the world. Within her boundary, there is a great complex of physiographical units widely divergent in relief and structure. The following pages give a general sketch of the physical features of China under the headings of geological structure, topography, mountains, rivers, lakes and deserts.

GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

The physical evolution of China has been largely based on a framework that was already laid down in the pre-Cambrian times. The existing features confirm in their general arrangement with that ancient framework. As viewed from its present relief, the land mass of China, while bordering the Pacific on the east, half encircles the stupendous massif of Tibet, the "roof of the world," and forms a staircase stepping up towards the southwest. The staircase does not, however, exactly follow the semi-circular arrangement, but is warped, distorted and shattered. From the Tibetan plateau one descends the first step eastward to the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau. Turning north-

eastward the Taihang range bordering the Shansi plateau forms the second step. One step further brings one down to the Liao River plain.

These northeastward steps form a continuous wall of mountain ranges dividing the western highland from the central lowland of China. The central lowland is a belt of depression covering the Sungari-Liao River valley, the great plain of North China and the central Yangtze basin. East of the lowland are the elevated land masses of the Northeastern Provinces and Shantung, and the hills of the southeastern coastal belt including South Chekiang, Fukien and Northeast Kwangtung.

Across these stretches of elevated and depressed areas are, at intervals, mountain ranges or watershed that run approximately from west to east. Through these mighty west-east ranges, China is further divided into several latitudinal segments. They are, from north to south, the Tannu-Kental range, the Chinling range and the Nanling range. Besides, mountain arcs in the form of bow and arrow are seen in many places in China. They are carefully studied and named by Dr. J. S. Lee as the E type of shear

¹ Professor of Geography, National Central University.

PART I
GENERAL INFORMATION

part of Yin Shan stretches into the Gobi. South of eastern Yin Shan and east of the Alashan is the Ordos.

Northeast Plain.—The Great Khingan stretching southward and the Little Khingan stretching eastward embrace the Liao River-Sungari plain known as the Northeast China plain. The Sungari flows northeast to the Amur and the Liao River southward to the Gulf of Peichihli. The Northeast China plain forms a part of the Cathaysian geosyncline of thick deposits and fertile alluvial soil.

Southeastern Highlands of the Northeast.—The highlands are situated on the border of Korea with Changpo Shan as the international boundary. Their western margin is marked by a line connecting Harbin, Yungchih and Mukden. The Liaotung peninsula forms a part of the highlands.

Shantung Peninsula.—The Liaotung and Shantung peninsulas are a pair of pincers enclosing the Gulf of Peichihli. The Shantung peninsula faces the sea on the north, east and south and is bounded by the Wei Ho and Kiao Ho on the northwest.

North China Plain.—Drained by five rivers in the Peiping-Tientsin area and the Huang Ho and Huai Ho in the south, this plain of alluvial deposits is the largest piece of flat land in China. The Taihang and Jehol mountains on the northeast and the Tapiéh Shan-Huaiyang range on the southwest form its boundary.

Shansi Plateau.—West of the Taihang and east of the Luliang stands the Shansi plateau. The two border ranges meet at its northern frontier where the Wutai and Heng Shan rise high above. The plateau is traversed by the deep-cut valley of Fen Ho flowing southward to the Yellow

River. Several local basins are formed along the Fen Ho valley.

Shensi Basin.—West of the Shansi plateau is the Shensi basin, bounded on the west by the Alashan and its south extension Lun Shan. The northern part of the basin is deeply dissected while the southern part traversed by the Wei Ho. The basin is heavily covered by loess deposits.

Kansu Corridor.—West of Lun Shan, a narrow east-west zone of settlement is drained by snow water from the Nan Shan on its southern border. This narrow zone is called the Kansu corridor, the throughway between Central Asia and North China.

Lower Yangtze Valley.—The lower Yangtze valley is another rich alluvial plain. It is triangular shaped with Wuhu as its apex. The Changpaling running to the northeast and the Tienmu Shan to the southeast form two sides of the triangle. The Yangtze and many other intricate waterways and lakes afford the facility of communication and irrigation to this region.

Southeast Maritime Provinces.—South of the Hangchow Bay, the hilly uplands of the southeastern maritime provinces of Chekiang, Fukien and North Kwantung form another topographical division bounded on the west by the Wuyi Shan. The coasts are rocky and highly indented giving numerous sites for deep water harbours. Rivers in this region are most of them short and flow in rapids.

Central Yangtze Basin.—The central Yangtze basin is a well defined region. With Nanling on the south, the wall of the Kweichow plateau on the west, the Tapiéh Shan and Huaiyang ranges on the north and the Wuyi Shan on the east, the basin is

traversed by the mighty Yangtze from west to east. The Tungting and Poyang lakes act as reservoirs for the tributary rivers of Hsiang Kiang and Kan Kiang respectively. The Han Shui or Han River flows from the southern slope of Chinling to the Yangtze at Hankow. Around the upper part of the Han River located the Hangchung basin which is also included as a part of the great Yangtze basin.

Red Basin of Szechuen.—West of the Yangtze Gorges is the Szechuen Basin. It is generally called the Red Basin owing to the presence of red sand-stones and shales of the Jurassic and Cretaceous age. Strata in the centre of the basin are mostly lying horizontal, while on its eastern part they are folded to form parallel ranges running northeast. The Yangtze flows eastward along the southern border of the basin, taking three big tributaries from the north. They are the Min Kiang, Fu Kiang and the Kialing Kiang. The basin is enclosed on all sides by high mountains: the Chinling and Tapa Shan on the north, the Fu Shan or the Gorge mountains on the east, the Talu Shan, Chihyo Shan, Taliang Shan and Hsiaoliang Shan on the south, and the Tahsiangling and the Sikang plateau on the west.

Kweichow Plateau.—The Kweichow plateau including eastern Yunnan is comparable with the Shansi plateau both in height and tectonic structure. It is marked by the Nanling on the southeast and by the southwestern highlands on the southwest. The plateau receives heavy rainfall and is deeply dissected, with cultivation and settlement concentrating in valleys and local basins.

Southern Maritime Province.—South of Nanling and Tayuling, the maritime

province of Kwantung is drained by Si Kiang or the West River and its tributaries. With the exception of the Pearl River delta, this region is an undulating hilly lowland. The landscape shows a tropical character due to its southern location.

Kwangsi Platform.—The province of Kwangsi is dissected by the upper Si Kiang west of Wuchow and its tributaries, the Kwei Kiang, Liu Kiang and Red River. The political boundary of the province coincides roughly with the physiographical unit.

Southwestern Highlands.—The region includes largely the province of Yunnan. Its western cordillera, being the south extension of the Sikang ranges, runs in parallel ridges in a north-south direction with gorges of the upper Salween and the Lantsang Kiang between them. The western part of the highlands has an average altitude of 1,500 meters. Because of its high altitude, the province as a whole enjoys a congenial climate.

Sikang Ranges.—From Tachienlu westward to Patang and Litang, one has to cross several high ranges of which the Tahsueh Shan or the Great Snowy Mountain is the most eminent, rising at its highest at the Minya Gongkar 7,500 meters above the sea level.

The above mentioned physiographical units, though widely divergent and complicating, are however drawn together by a unified culture to make China a single geographical entity. The route of cultural intercourse between the north and the south is through the Cathaysian geosynclines, while from the west to the east the Kansu corridor and the Yangtze valley act as highways.

forms. Thus, as can be seen from the above, the land mass of China is constructed by a combination of three sets of tectonic lines: (1) the northeast to southwest geosynclines and geanticlines, (2) the east to west fold zones, and (3) the geotectonic shear forms.

Northeast to Southwest Geosynclines and Geanticlines.—

The continuous depression of the Liao River-Sungari valley, the North China plain and the central Yangtze basin form a synclinorium since late Mesozoic times. It is called the Cathaysian geosyncline bordered on the west by the Great Khingan-Shansi-Kweichow anticlinorium and on the east by the Liaotung-Shangtung highlands and the upland of Southeast China. These regional belts were folded and refolded into a series of parallel synclines and anticlines forming a complex structure of a grand scale with their general axes striking northeast. A detailed study of tectonic evidence leads one to believe that these Cathaysian trends are a group of compressive features due to a pressure coming from the northwest and a powerful resistance on the southeast.

East to West Fold Zones.—The Cathaysian geosynclines and anticlines are interrupted at regular intervals by another group of features which run from east to west. They are: (1) the Tannu Kentai range along 49° - 50° N. Lat. forming the northern margin of the Mongolia block, (2) the Yin Shan range between 41° - 42° N. dividing the Mongolia block from the North China block, (3) the Chinling zone at 33° - 34° N. separating the North China block from the Central China block and (4) the Nanling zone at 25° - 26° N. forming the natural divide between the Central China block and the South China block. It is these ranges, to-

gether with the Tibetan plateau standing on the west, that have forced all the mighty rivers of China to flow from the west to the east. They, especially the Chinling, have also sharpened the climatic contrast and regional differences in other geographical features.

Geotectonic Shear Forms.—Of all the shear forms developed in China, the E type is the most important. It consists of a group of folds in the form of a bow and arrow (backbone). The more distinguished ones are:

1. *The Tainanlung System*: with Nan Shan, Luliang, and Taihang as arcs and the Alashan range as backbone.

2. *The Huaiyin-Huaiyang System*: with Tapieh Shan and Huaiyang ranges as arcs and the Huaiyin hills as backbone.

3. *The Pakang System*: with the Sikang range, the edge of Kweichow plateau, the eastern Szechuen border mountains and the Tapa Shan as arcs and Minya Gongka and Omei as backbone.

4. *The Hsiangnan System*: with Tapangling, Kupo Shan and Kitien Shan forming an arc and Mengchuling and Tayi Shan as backbone.

5. *The Kwangsi System*: with Taming Shan, Lin Shan, Chulu range as arc and Yao Shan as backbone.

6. *The Amur System*: developed at the east end of the Tannu Kentai zone with the Little Khingan and Shikotan Akin mountains as arc.

All the E shear forms are developed at the east end of the east-west fold ranges.

The interference of the east-west fold zones with the Cathaysian geosynclines and geanticlines and the existence of shear forms to the east of the fold zones require an explanation as

suggested by Dr. J. S. Lee that since the late Paleozoic times, the Asiatic mass sheared southward against the Pacific floor accompanied by a differential westward movement.

Among the most striking changes that have taken place in China during recent geologic times are the regional uplifting and subsidence that have been recognized in different areas. At Tientsin, marine sands and clays have been found in an artificial exposure. Boreholes made in the same city show the presence of sands and clays with fresh water shells down to a depth of more than 354 meters. This is undoubtedly due to recent subsidence. On the other hand, signs of recent elevation are seen along the foot of the western hills of Peiping. In the mountainous region of West China, nearly all observers agree that rapid uplifting has been going on. River divides and water gaps are seen situated several hundred meters above the present bed. Lakes situated in those elevated north-south valleys are all of a comparable height about 2,300 meters in altitude. Depret estimated an elevation of 2,000 meters in that area since the Pleistocene time, an estimation taken by many as no exaggeration.

China has thus been undergoing a considerable uplifting movement in the mountainous southwest and a subsidence in the lowland since at nearest the glacial ages. The Tibetan plateau with its lofty heights already attained is probably still rising.

OROGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS

Owing to the complexity of topographical features, China can be divided into 19 orographic provinces as suggested by Dr. J. S. Lee. The name of the provinces and a brief dis-

cription of each are given as the following:

Tibetan Plateau.—Surrounded by highly folded mountains on all sides, the Tibetan plateau is itself traversed by long rows of mountains having their peaks falling eastward. They are all more or less 5,000 meters above the sea level. The plateau is bounded by the Himalaya on the south and the Kuenlun on the north. On the east is marked by the Sikang ranges. Standing on its west is the Hindu Kush which runs eastward as the Karakorum and further east into parallel ranges of the Trans-Himalaya. On the northern side the Kokoshili mountain runs eastward into the Bayen Kara acting as water divide of the Yangtze and Huang Ho.

Zongor and Tarim Basins.—To the north of the Kuenlun and Altyn Tagh, there are two large basins divided by the Tien Shan, the Zongor on the north and the Tarim on the south. The Zongor basin is bounded on the north by the Altai mountain and its eastern extension. Eastern Sinkiang is occupied by the desert of Takla Makan. Pastoral and populated areas with limited agriculture are located in the western part of the basin especially on the north side of the Kashgar River. The Turfan basin sinking below the sea level is a basin within a basin.

Mongolian Steppe.—Desert and semi-desert conditions of Sinkiang province eastward over a vast territory known as Mongolia. The central and south-eastern part of Mongolia is the great Gobi desert. In other part of the plateau, steppe conditions prevail. The Mongolian steppe is bordered by the Sayan and Tannu-Kentai ranges on the north and by the Great Khingan on the east. To the south of the steppe is the Yin Shan range. The western

length, and joins the Min Kiang at Suifu. Above Suifu, the river has an average slope of 1.8 meters per km. and is unnavigable except the last 200 km. up to Pingshan. Large steamers are passable from Ichang 1,700 km. down to the sea. Ten-thousand-ton ocean steamships can reach Hankow during the summer high-water season when the depth of the water is nowhere less than 12 meters or 40 feet.

Numerous tributaries join the Yangtze, among them being the Hsiang and Yuan rivers in Hunan flowing to the Tungting Lake and the Kan River in Kiangsi flowing to the Poyang Lake. The Han River reaches the Yangtze at Hankow and is probably the most important branch. The Kialing Kiang, Fu Kiang, and Min Kiang in Szechuen are partly navigable for small steam boat and native craft.

Between Shanghai and Canton, three rivers of importance break through the mountains to the sea, each with a delta city at its mouth. Hangchow has the Chientang, Foochow has the Min and Swatow has the Han. Craft navigation on these streams is laboriously tried, carrying considerable traffic.

The Canton delta is the focal point of three river systems. They are Tung Kiang, Pei Kiang and Si Kiang. Only the last is easily navigable with steamers reaching Wuchow on the border of Kwangsi and beyond.

The province of Yunnan in the far southwest is drained by the upper course of the Red River, the Mekong and the Salween, each of which reaches the sea outside Chinese territory, and in its course through China flows through deep gorges. The Tarim is an inland waterway which flows through the Takla Makan desert in

Sinkiang into the salt lake of Lop Nor.

On the Yangtze plain, there is an intricate network of canals used as transport routes and as artificial irrigation ditches. Their length in the southern part of the Yangtze delta alone is estimated at 4,200 kilometers. On some part of the delta, there are canals every 300 meters apart.

The following table shows the total length and navigable length of important rivers in China:

TOTAL LENGTH AND NAVIGABLE CONDITIONS OF IMPORTANT CHINESE RIVERS

Name of Rivers	Total Length (in Km.)	Navigable Conditions
Heilung Kiang	4,700	A part for steamers and almost the whole length for junks. Navigable below Kirin.
Sungari	1,728	—
Ussuri	1,325	For crafts only.
Yalu	800	For crafts.
Liao Ho	1,440	In Kansu and Suiyuan, 1,250 km. for rafts and 275 km. from Tungkwan to Loyang for boats.
Huang Ho	4,350	240 km. 55 km.
Wei Ho	864	Navigable from Tung-hsien to Tientsin 245 km., from Ling-chin to Yangchow 616 km. and from Chinkiang to Hangchow 574 km.
Fen Ho	690	760 km.
Grand Canal	2,074	For steamers 2,542 km. from Woosung to Suifu.
Huai Ho	—	398 km.
Yangtze	5,500	400 km.
Min Kiang	670	380 km.
Tatu Ho	1,200	1,000 km.
Tu Kiang	550	348 km.
Yalung	1,324	690 km.
Kialing	1,250	547 km.
Wu Kiang	920	Almost the whole length navigable.
Yuan	864	1,250 km.
Tze	750	498 km.
Hsiang	584	465 km.
Han	1,340	800 km.
Kan	850	500 km.
Chientang	380	450 km.
Min River	576	800 km.
Si Kiang	3,000	Unnavigable.
Lin	518	Unnavigable.
Kwei	—	Unnavigable.
Red River	1,300	—
Lantsang	2,000	—
Upper Salween	2,000	—
Irawaddy	288	—
Ili	524	—
Tarim	2,000	—

China has few structural lakes. Most large ones are seen along the great rivers, acting as reservoirs such as the Tungting and Poyang along the Yangtze, Tai Hu along the Grand Canal, and the Hungtseh and Kaoyu along Huai Ho.

LOCATION AND AREA OF IMPORTANT LAKES IN CHINA

Name of Lakes	Location	Surface Area (in Sq. Km.)	Altitude of Lake Level (in Meters)
Tungting	N. Hunan	3,750	400
Poyang	N. Kiangsi	2,780	400
Tai Hu	S. Kiangsu	3,600	400
Hungtseh	N. Kiangsu	—	400
Tien Chih	E. Yunnan	—	1,910
Erh Hai	W. Yunnan	—	1,970
Koro Nor	Chinghai	4,220	3,180
Lop Nor	E. Sinkiang	swamp	3,205
Tengri	Tibet	2,480	5,000
Tangla	Tibet	1,400	4,000
Chiring	Tibet	1,860	3,000
Tsairing	Chinghai	570	4,000
Oring	Chinghai	650	4,000

DESERTS AND STEPPES

In the outer provinces in Northwest China there is a vast region of arid deserts and semi-steppes. Owing to the great distance from the sea, the region receives scanty rainfall and for the most part lies bare and desolate. The Mongolia and Sinkiang deserts and steppes on the north consist of flat, featureless plains floored with rocks and covered with a thin veneer of sands and pebbles, known to the Mongolians as Gobi. This steppe and desert land is surrounded by high mountains such as Nan Shan, Altyn Tagh, Altai and Kuenlun, all of which keep out moist wind from the distant oceans.

The chief deserts are the Gobi, the Ordos, and the Alashan. Extending westward is the Takla Makan desert in Sinkiang. The latter, being the largest of all Chinese deserts, occupies

the eastern half of Sinkiang south of Tien Shan and is considered as a huge obstacle to communication between North China and Central Asia. That part bordering the salt encrusted basin of Lop Nor is particularly desolate.

On the margin of the deserts are the steppe lands largely in southern and eastern Mongolia and in the north-western portions of the Tarim Basin. There the rainfall is sufficient for a sparse growth of drought-resisting grasses, capable of supporting a small number of sheep and cattle. On the oases fed by mountain streams, agriculture is practised and permanent habitation found. Most cities and monasteries in Sinkiang are located on these oases.

Southeast of the Mongolian steppe land is the loess highlands of Kansu, Shensi and Shansi. They are formed by the deposition of aeolian dust and silt blown from the western deserts. Steppe conditions also prevail on the loess hills, dissected by rivers into deep valleys where alone cultivation is fruitful.

To the south of the Mongolian desert is the Tibetan plateau, a desert of a different kind. Its barrenness and desolation are due to its rocky height and cold climate. The average height of Tibet is 5,000 meters above the sea level. The mountain alp is devoted to rough pasturing while limited settlement and cultivation is seen only in and along the valleys. Another disadvantage of the Tibetan plateau is the difficulty of communication, which is comparatively easy on the Mongolia plateau. The high ranges and deep gorges block the region from any significant contact with the outside world.

The rocky appearance and barrenness of the land are again due to the ever increasing soil erosion which is to

MOUNTAINS

China is a mountainous country. As estimated by Dr. W. H. Wong, regions 1,000 meters above the sea level occupies more than 68% of the total area of China. Hilly land between 500 and 1,000 meters in altitude 18%, and level land below 500 meters only 14%. In other words, more than three quarters of Chinese territory is

mountainous. The Chinese are, as a whole, farmers living on the cultivable plain. Wherever terrace farming is possible, mountain slopes are also devoted to agriculture.

The following table shows the areal extent, percentage to the total area and the mean altitude of various topographical units in China:

Topographical Units	Areal Extent (in Sq. Km.)	Percentage to Total Area	Mean Altitude (in Meters)
PLATEAUS			
Tibet	3,370,000	29.5	—
Mongolia	850,000	7.4	4,000—6,000
Loess Plateau	1,719,000	15.1	400—2,000
Yunnan-Kweichow Plateau	324,000	2.9	1,000—2,000
	477,000	4.1	400—2,000
MOUNTAINS			
Tien Shan	2,726,250	23.8	—
Altai	207,000	1.8	2,000—4,000
Tannu Ola	105,750	1.0	2,000—3,000
North Mongolia	105,750	1.0	2,000—3,000
Changpo Shan	418,500	3.6	1,000—2,000
Kuenlun	225,000	2.0	400—1,000
Altyn Tach and Nan Shan	488,250	4.3	4,000—6,000
Yin Shan and Lupan Shan	146,250	1.3	3,000—5,000
Mts. of Shansi and W. Hopei	81,000	0.7	2,000—3,000
Chinling	173,250	1.5	400—2,000
Tapa Shan	198,000	1.7	1,000—5,000
Huaiyang	83,250	0.7	1,000—2,000
Tangla and Kailas	58,500	0.5	400—1,000
Himalaya	198,000	1.7	5,000—6,000
	237,750	2.0	5,000—6,000
HILLY LANDS			
Khingian Hills	1,223,190	10.7	—
Southeastern Hills	405,000	3.5	400—2,000
Shantung Blocks	725,940	6.4	400—1,000
	92,250	0.8	200—1,000
GORGES			
Southwestern Gorges	823,500	7.2	—
Heilungkiang Gorges	715,500	6.3	1,000—5,000
Indus-Bramaputra Gorges	33,750	0.3	0—400
	74,250	0.6	1,000—5,000
BASINS			
Kobdo	1,985,500	17.3	—
Zongor	231,750	2.0	1,000—2,000
Turfan	321,750	2.8	200—2,000
Tarim	148,500	1.3	285—2,000
Tsaidam	653,500	5.8	400—3,000
Koko Nor	171,000	1.5	2,000—3,000
Lanchow	33,750	0.3	3,000—5,000
Wei Ho-Fen Ho	83,250	0.7	1,000—3,000
Pei Shui	51,750	0.4	200—1,000
Han Shui	29,250	0.2	0—400
Szechuen	9,000	0.1	200—1,000
Ill	229,500	2.0	200—2,000
	22,500	0.2	400—2,000
PLAINS			
Sungari-Liao Ho	1,283,650	11.3	—
North China	517,500	4.5	0—400
Great Lake	409,500	3.6	0—200
Lower Yangtze	234,750	2.0	0—1,000
Lower Si Kiang	78,000	0.7	0—200
	54,000	0.5	0—200

The following table gives heights in meters of important mountain peaks in China:

Name of Mountains	Peak Height (in Meters)
Himalaya	8,840 (Everest)
Kuenlun	7,724
Minya Gongkar	7,500
Burokhoru	7,200 (Tengri)
Kailas	7,073
Karakorum	6,500
Nan Shan	5,928
Tien Shan	5,400
Chinling	4,000
Oncl	3,200
Tannu Ola	3,046
Wutai	3,040
Tapa	3,000
Changpo Shan	2,741
Huang Shan	1,910
Tai Shan	1,545
Tienmu Shan	1,520
Lu Shan	1,480
Heng Shan	1,340

RIVERS AND LAKES

Rivers have always played a large role in the life of China. The length of the entire river system together with the innumerable canals aggregates more than 100,000 miles and a considerable portion of this total is used for navigation. Rivers and canals are not only arteries of communication but they also serve as source of irrigation for agricultural lands. Nearly all large commercial cities in China are situated either on a river, or at its mouth, or at the junction of rivers and their tributaries.

In the far north, the Heilung Kiang or Amur River together with its tributary the Ussuri in the east and the Argun in the west forms the boundary of Northeastern China for 2,300 km. Almost all the course is navigable. The Sungari is suitable for steamers beyond Harbin and for small boats to the city of Kirin. Liaoning Province is drained by two rivers, the Liao Ho in the centre and the Yalu along the border of Korea. Both are navigable for crafts only.

Between the mouth of the Liao Ho and that of the Huang Ho, two im-

portant streams enter the Gulf of Peichihli, namely, the Luan Ho which drains Jehol and the Hai Ho on which lies the port of Tientsin.

The Grand Canal joins the Hai Ho at Tientsin and is a canalized waterway draining from the northern plain southward across the Huai Ho to join the Yangtze and Chientang. Only the southern and northern portion of the canal is now navigable.

The longest river of North China is the Huang Ho, 4,350 km. in length. In the provinces of Kansu and Suiyuan, the river is navigable for rafts for a distance of 1,250 km. Rapids and waterfalls prohibit navigation along most of the northern course between Shansi and Shensi. Below Tungkwan where the river turns eastward, native boats can be used for 275 km. to Loyang. Along the last 850 km. of its course where the river crosses its delta plain, the Huang Ho does not receive a single tributary and is choked by sand and silt in its way to the sea. Flood occurs frequently and navigation difficult.

The principal stream between the Huang Ho and Yangtze is the Huai Ho. Prior to 1852, its lower course is usurped and barred by the Yellow River. At present, the Huai Ho empties its water into the Hungtseh Lake and other nearby lakes and finds its way therefrom through the Grand Canal to the Yangtze.

China's greatest river is the Yangtze Kiang about 5,500 kilometers in length, the sixth longest river in the world. It flows through nine provinces and drains an area of 1,959,000 square kilometers. Its upper course, running through Chinghai, Sikang and Yunnan, is known as the Kinsha Kiang or the river of golden sands. The Kingsha Kiang has a length of 2,670 km., constituting about a half of the total

GEOGRAPHY

Chinese agriculture a great menace. This is especially true in the regions of drought and high mountains. Deserts are steadily encroaching upon the nearby steppe lands due to severe destruction of soil by deforestation in high mountains and over-grazing and improper cultivation on dry plateaus.

Most dry agricultural land in China are irrigated wherever water is available. The following table shows the irrigated areas in China by provinces:

Province	Irrigated Areas (in Mou)	Projected Irrigation Areas Under Construc- tion (in Mou)	Projected Irrigation Areas (in Mou)
Kansu ...	103,470	322,000	260,000
Shensi ...	1,250,380	1,860,000	5,000
Honan ...	79,500	269,000	355,000
Szechuen ...	436,800	239,570	345,000
Sikang ...	2,800	—	1,900
Kweichow ...	11,900	39,630	93,000
Kwangsi ...	56,400	154,300	123,400
Kiangsi ...	60,190	511,150	—
Yunnan ...	—	93,760	74,000
Kwangtung ...	—	20,000	20,000
Anhui ...	—	68,930	—
Hupeh ...	—	35,000	—

ASTRONOMY

CHING-SUNG YU¹ (余青松)

DURING the past few years, progress in the study of astronomy in China has been slow. For this inactivity the war is chiefly responsible. The only astronomical event in this period worth noting is, perhaps, the total solar eclipse of September 21, 1941. It is true, in spite of the long period of preparation for its observation, the results obtained are few and scanty. Nevertheless, the observations as recorded are undoubtedly valuable, since they are probably among the very few that are available for this eclipse.

In this issue, as usual, tables of astronomical interest are listed. They are, solar terms for 1943, phases of the moon, eclipses, astronomical phenomena, and times of sunrise and sunset for 1943. Four eclipses will occur in this year, two of the sun and two of the moon. Of the former, one is total and the other annular. Of the latter, both are partial. The total solar eclipse on February 5, 1943 is visible only in a portion of the Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. This eclipse will be seen as partial along the coastal regions, with the exception of southwestern Kwangtung and Hainan Island, where it will not be visible. In the central and western part of the country, the eclipse is likewise invisible. The other eclipses listed in Table 3 are invisible in China, except the partial lunar one of August 16, which can be seen throughout the country.

OBSERVATIONS OF THE ECLIPSE
OF SEPTEMBER 21, 1941

As already noted, owing to wartime conditions, preparation to observe the

total solar eclipse of September 21, 1941 was greatly curtailed. Consequently the Commission for the Observation of Total Solar Eclipse was able to send only two expeditions, one to the Northwest, and one to the Southeast, to observe this eclipse. The northwest party, composed of members from the Institute of Astronomy, Academia Sinica, University of Nanking, the Central University, and West China University, went to Lintao, Kansu Province. The southeast party, participated by the Institute of Physics, Academia Sinica, the Sun Yat-sen University, the National Geodetic Survey, and the Chinese Astronomical Society, chose Chungan, Fukien Province, as their station. The northwest party experienced excellent weather, whereas the southeast expedition was not so fortunate. For at Chungan during the day of the eclipse, the sky was thickly overcast and at times rainy.

Limited by instrumental facilities, the observation program of the northwest expedition was a rather simple one. Aside from the routine observation of the contact times, the chief result of this expedition is the photographing of the corona by Dr. Hen Li of West China University, assisted by Mr. S. M. Kung of the Institute of Astronomy. Three photographs were obtained with the 160-mm Zeiss U.V. Triplet, arranged as a horizontal camera, to which the light was fed by a coelostat. Of the three pictures, one was taken in direct sun light. Filters, one yellow and one red, was used in the other two. The shape of the corona

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of this eclipse shows the intermediate type. Several prominences were visible.

Although the southeast party met bad weather as mentioned above, the expedition was by no means a total failure. Of course, in cloudy weather optical observations were out of the question. But magnetic observations under such conditions remain unaffected. Thus the magnetic section of the party, headed by Mr. Parker C. Chen of the Institute of Physics, was able to obtain some valuable information about the behaviour of the ionospheres before, during, and after the eclipse.

They found that the deviations of the magnetic elements observed during the time of eclipse are a drop of the Horizontal Intensity (H), an increase of the Vertical Intensity (Z), and an increase of the West Declination (D). The drop of H and the increase of Z may be interpreted as the same feature of their respective diminution and growth for night time in solar diurnal

variation of a normal day. The abrupt increase of D which reaches a maximum deflection near the mid-eclipse, instead of the normal continuous decrease as in the quiet day, appeared to be caused by a north-end attracting pole moving along with the belt of totality and in the same direction as the moon's shadow.

The vector diagram in the horizontal plane for the day of the eclipse is quite different from that of the normal day. The vector difference for the hours of eclipse has a direction more or less opposite to that of the magnetic field produced by the equivalent electric current system in ionosphere representing the exterior part of magnetic solar diurnal variation on quiet days. From the above evidence it may be inferred that the momentary magnetic disturbances was directly caused by the simultaneous screening off of the sun's light, most probably the ultra-violet light, as it has the greatest ionizing power.

TABLE 1. SOLAR TERMS FOR 1943 (LONGITUDE 105° E.)

Solar Terms	Dates
	d h m
Hsiao Han (Moderate Cold)...	Jan. 6 11 55
Ta Han (Severe Cold) ...	21 05 19
Li Ch'un (Spring Commences) ...	Feb. 4 23 41
Yu Shui (Spring Showers) ...	19 19 41
Ching Chih (Insects Waken) ...	Mar. 6 17 59
Ch'un Fen (Vernal Equinox) ...	21 19 03
Ch'ing Ming (Clear and Bright) ...	April 5 23 12
Ku Yü (Corn Rain) ...	21 06 32
Li Hsia (Summer Commences) ...	May 6 16 54
Hsiao Man (Corn Forms) ...	22 06 03
Mang Chung (Core in Ear) ...	June 6 21 19
Hsia Chih (Summer Solstice) ...	22 14 13
Hsiao Shu (Moderate Heat) ...	July 8 07 39
Ta Shu (Great Heat) ...	24 01 05
Li Ch'iu (Autumn Commences) ...	Aug. 8 17 19
Ch'u Shu (Heat Breaks Up)...	24 07 55

Pai Lu (White Dew) ...	Sept. 8 19 56
Ch'u Fen (Autumnal Equinox) ...	24 05 12
Han Lu (Cold Dew) ...	Oct. 9 11 11
Shuang Chiang (Frost) ...	24 14 09
Li Tung (Winter Commences) ...	Nov. 8 13 59
Hsiao Hsieh (Light Snow) ...	23 11 22
Ta Hsieh (Heavy Snow) ...	Dec. 8 06 33
Tung Chih (Winter Solstice) ...	23 00 30

NOTE: The 24 solar terms represent the 24 periods into which the year is divided in China. The interval between any two consecutive terms is the time the sun takes to move exactly 15 degrees among the stars. The meaning of the terms should not be taken too literally, especially in the case of those pertaining to meteorological prognostications.

TABLE 2. PHASES OF THE MOON FOR 1943 (LONGITUDE 105° E. CIVIL TIME)

	d h m	d h m
New Moon ...	January 6 19 37	July 2 19 44
First Quarter ...	13 14 48	10 23 29
Full Moon ...	21 17 48	17 19 21
Last Quarter ...	29 15 13	24 11 38
New Moon ...	February 5 06 29	August 1 11 06
First Quarter ...	12 07 40	9 10 36
Full Moon ...	20 12 45	16 02 34
Last Quarter ...	28 01 22	23 23 04
New Moon ...	March 6 17 34	September 31 02 59
First Quarter ...	14 02 30	7 19 33
Full Moon ...	22 05 08	14 10 40
Last Quarter ...	29 08 52	21 14 06
New Moon ...	April 5 04 53	October 29 18 29
First Quarter ...	12 22 04	7 03 10
Full Moon ...	20 18 11	13 20 23
Last Quarter ...	27 14 51	21 08 42
New Moon ...	May 4 16 43	November 29 08 59
First Quarter ...	12 16 52	5 10 22
Full Moon ...	20 04 13	12 08 26
Last Quarter ...	26 20 33	20 05 43
New Moon ...	June 3 05 33	December 27 22 23
First Quarter ...	11 09 35	4 18 03
Full Moon ...	18 12 14	11 23 24
Last Quarter ...	25 03 08	20 03 08
New Moon ...	—	27 10 50

TABLE 3. ECLIPSES FOR 1943

No.	Date	Eclipse	Sun or Moon	Visible or Invisible in China
1	February 5 ...	Total	Sun	Visible in par of Kirin and Helling-kang. Partial only along the coast. Invisible otherwise.
2	February 20 ...	Partial	Moon	Invisible.
3	August 1 ...	Annular	Sun	Invisible.
4	August 16 ...	Partial	Moon	Visible.

NOTE: The partial lunar eclipse of August 16 begins on August 15, 23h 58m. 0, and ends on August 16, 4h 58m. 3. Magnitude of the eclipse 0.876 (Moon's Diameter = 1).

TABLE 4. ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA FOR 1943
(UNIVERSAL TIME OR GREENWICH CIVIL TIME)

Planetary Configurations				
	d h m			° '
January	2 05 —	♄	in Perihelion.	
	4 01 —	♄	in Aphelion.	
	4 10 06	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —5 06
	4 14 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	7 10 58	♄ ♄ ☾		♀ —3 39
	7 22 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —2 47
	8 21 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Elongation E.	19 08
	11 07 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in ☾	
	12 10 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	15 10 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +5 10
	16 08 06	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +2 43
	16 11 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 22
	16 19 23	♄ ♄ ☾	in Perihelion.	
	17 01 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 24
	20 12 19	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 24
February	24 19 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Inferior.	
	26 11 01	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 54
	26 14 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.	
	27 07 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.	
	2 07 09	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —4 33
	3 15 25	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +0 21
	4 — —	♄ ♄ ☾	Total Eclipse.	
	5 09 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	6 09 37	♄ ♄ ☾		♀ —0 23
	6 17 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	8 02 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	12 14 24	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +5 15
	13 01 17	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 35
	16 12 57	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 41
	18 10 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Elongation W.	26 24
March	19 18 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in ☿.	
	20 — —	♄ ♄ ☾	Partial Eclipse.	
	20 04 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 51
	22 15 47	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 51
	25 10 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 51
	2 00 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in Aphelion.	
	3 03 25	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —3 25
	4 19 21	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —2 08
	8 08 16	♄ ♄ ☾		♀ +3 25
	11 23 33	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +5 12
	12 02 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	12 11 21	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 37
	15 18 28	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 43
	21 12 03	♄ ♄ ☾	enters ♄, Equinox.	
	21 21 22	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 45

	d h m			° '
March	22 05 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.	
	22 08 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in ☾.	
	23 21 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 50
	31 22 27	♄ ♄ ☾	Superior.	
	4 08 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 50
April	4 20 32	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 14
	6 22 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +6 03
	7 10 54	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +5 02
	8 10 38	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 30
	9 00 36	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 30
	10 09 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in ☾.	
	12 05 28	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 26
	15 00 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in Perihelion.	
	18 04 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +1 27
	18 04 21	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 45
	25 04 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 05
	25 06 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.	
	26 09 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in Perihelion.	
	29 16 33	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —0 01
	30 21 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Elongation E.	20 45
May	5 18 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +2 41
	5 22 01	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +4 53
	5 22 11	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +7 33
	6 15 10	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 19
	7 18 24	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +6 14
	9 20 32	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +2 59
	12 16 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	15 12 17	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —1 55
	18 09 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.	
	18 15 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +0 08
	18 17 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in ☿.	
	23 15 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Inferior.	
	26 19 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +1 42
	28 10 26	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +1 42
	28 12 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.	
June	28 23 —	♄ ♄ ☾	in Aphelion.	
	1 17 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +2 03
	1 18 55	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +1 30
	2 08 27	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +4 49
	3 05 30	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +3 10
	4 19 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	6 13 49	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +2 24
	6 23 38	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +4 00
	7 15 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ +4 00
	11 10 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	11 20 19	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —2 09
	18 06 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Elongation W.	23 01
	18 07 —	♄ ♄ ☾	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.	
	20 09 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —3 08
	21 14 —	♄ ♄ ☾		♂ —3 08

ASTRONOMY

	d	h	m						
June	22	07	13	○	enters ☿, Solstice.				
	22	12	—	♂	In Perihelion.				
	26	04	40	♂	...	♂	+2	59	
	28	01	—	♂	Greatest Elongation E.				
	29	17	33	♂	...	♂	+4	50	
July	30	05	—	♂	...	♂	—0	06	
	30	18	54	♂	...	♂	+3	03	
	30	20	58	♂	...	♂	+3	02	
	4	07	58	♂	...	♂	+1	51	
	4	10	—	⊕	In Aphelion.				
	6	16	04	♂	...	♀	—0	27	
	7	08	—	♂	In ☿.				
	9	03	53	♂	...	♂	—2	23	
	11	23	—	♂	In Perihelion.				
	13	10	—	♀	In ☿.				
August	18	03	—	♂	Superior.				
	22	05	—	♂	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.				
	22	20	—	♂	...	♂	+1	20	
	24	22	58	♂	...	♂	+3	37	
	27	01	42	♂	...	♂	+4	53	
	28	07	11	♂	...	♂	+2	57	
	30	13	—	♂	...	♂	+2	57	
	31	17	—	♀	Greatest Brilliancy.				
	1	—	—	○	Annular Eclipse.				
	1	02	19	♂	...	♂	+1	21	
September	2	15	19	♂	...	♂	+0	34	
	4	08	26	♂	...	♀	—6	32	
	5	11	02	♂	...	♂	—2	30	
	13	09	—	♀	Stationary in R. A.				
	14	16	—	♂	In ☿.				
	15	—	—	○	Partial Eclipse.				
	16	20	—	♂	In Aphelion.				
	17	07	—	♂	...	♂	+6	04	
	22	15	37	♂	...	♂	+3	41	
	23	09	37	♂	...	♂	+4	51	
October	24	02	—	□	♂	...			
	24	18	29	♂	...	♂	+2	47	
	24	23	—	♂	In Aphelion.				
	28	20	34	♂	...	♂	+0	50	
	29	05	—	♂	Greatest Elongation E.				
	29	10	—	♂	...	♂	—3	58	
	31	06	—	♂	...	♀	—11	28	
	1	18	24	♂	...	♂	—2	32	
	1	23	33	♂	...	♂	—7	16	
	2	03	—	□	♂	...			
November	6	00	—	♂	Inferior.				
	8	07	—	♀	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.				
	9	12	—	♂	...	♂	—1	10	
	11	08	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	14	07	—	♂	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.				
December	14	23	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	19	17	51	♂	...	♂	+4	44	
	20	03	—	♂	...	♂	+3	35	
	20	03	08	♂	...	♂	+2	32	
	21	04	47	♂	...	♂	—5	12	
	21	23	—	♂	...	♂	—5	12	
	23	22	12	♂	enters ♄, Equinox.				
	24	17	—	♂	Inferior.				
	25	13	—	♀	Stationary in R. A.				
	25	14	23	♂	...	♂	+0	18	
January	25	18	—	♂	...	♀	—8	22	
	26	16	15	♂	...	♂	—5	15	
	28	14	50	♂	...	♂	—2	34	
	29	02	41	♂	...	♂	—2	34	
	3	01	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	3	07	—	♂	In ☿.				
	7	22	—	♂	In Perihelion.				
	9	19	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	10	07	—	♂	Greatest Elongation W.				
	13	04	—	♀	Greatest Brilliancy.				
February	13	18	—	♂	...	♂	+0	37	
	17	02	13	♂	...	♂	+4	32	
	18	03	41	♂	...	♂	+3	48	
	18	05	—	♂	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.				
	18	13	42	♂	...	♂	+2	16	
	22	19	—	♂	In ☿.				
	23	07	01	♂	...	♂	—0	14	
	25	02	50	♂	...	♀	—4	15	
	26	12	11	♂	...	♂	—2	41	
	28	01	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
March	28	06	25	♂	...	♂	—3	35	
	3	14	—	♀	In ☿.				
	10	12	—	♂	Superior.				
	10	15	—	♂	In ☿.				
	13	09	51	♂	...	♂	+4	27	
	13	12	—	♂	...	♀	—0	22	
	14	09	50	♂	...	♂	+4	57	
	14	20	36	♂	...	♂	+2	07	
	16	16	—	♀	Greatest Elongation W.				
	19	08	—	□	♂	...			
April	19	21	03	♂	...	♂	—0	41	
	20	22	—	♂	In Aphelion.				
	22	22	15	♂	...	♂	—2	55	
	23	18	18	♂	...	♀	—2	58	
	28	08	32	♂	...	♂	—5	54	
	28	13	—	♂	nearest ☉.				
	29	22	—	♂	...	♂	—1	10	
	5	18	—	♂	...	♂	—1	10	
	7	08	—	♀	In Perihelion.				
	10	15	51	♂	...	♂	+4	30	

ASTRONOMY

	d	h	m						
September	14	23	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	19	17	51	♂	...	♂	+4	44	
	20	03	—	♂	...	♂	+3	35	
	20	03	08	♂	...	♂	+2	32	
	21	04	47	♂	...	♂	—5	12	
October	21	23	—	♂	...	♂	—5	12	
	23	22	12	♂	enters ♄, Equinox.				
	24	17	—	♂	Inferior.				
	25	13	—	♀	Stationary in R. A.				
	25	14	23	♂	...	♂	+0	18	
	25	18	—	♂	...	♀	—8	22	
	26	16	15	♂	...	♂	—5	15	
	28	14	50	♂	...	♂	—2	34	
	29	02	41	♂	...	♂	—2	34	
	3	01	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
November	3	07	—	♂	In ☿.				
	7	22	—	♂	In Perihelion.				
	9	19	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	10	07	—	♂	Greatest Elongation W.				
	13	04	—	♀	Greatest Brilliancy.				
	13	18	—	♂	...	♂	+0	37	
	17	02	13	♂	...	♂	+4	32	
	18	03	41	♂	...	♂	+3	48	
	18	05	—	♂	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.				
	18	13	42	♂	...	♂	+2	16	
December	22	19	—	♂	In ☿.				
	23	07	01	♂	...	♂	—0	14	
	25	02	50	♂	...	♀	—4	15	
	26	12	11	♂	...	♂	—2	41	
	28	01	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.				
	28	06	25	♂	...	♂	—3	35	
	3	14	—	♀	In ☿.				
	10	12	—	♂	Superior.				
	10	15	—	♂	In ☿.				
	13	09	51	♂	...	♂	+4	27	
January	13	12	—	♂	...	♀	—0	22	
	14	09	50	♂	...	♂	+4	57	
	14	20	36	♂	...	♂	+2	07	
	16	16	—	♀	Greatest Elongation W.				
	19	08	—	□	♂	...			
	19	21	03	♂	...	♂	—0	41	
	20	22	—	♂	In Aphelion.				
	22	22	15	♂	...	♂	—2	55	
	23	18	18	♂	...	♀	—2	58	
	28	08	32	♂	...	♂	—5	54	
February	28	13	—	♂	nearest ☉.				
	29	22	—	♂	...	♂	—1	10	
	5	18	—	♂	...	♂	—1	10	
	7	08	—	♀	In Perihelion.				
	10	15	51	♂	...	♂	+4	30	

ASTRONOMY

		d h m				° ' "	
December ...	10 23 43	♂	♂	...	...	♂	+6 41
	11 06 —		♂	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.	...		
	12 01 07	♂	♂	...	...	b	+2 11
	14 11 —		♂	Stationary in R. A.	...		
	16 00 —	♂	♂		...		
	17 06 44	♂	♂	...	...	♂	—0 53
	20 07 41	♂	♂	...	...	♂	—3 10
	22 17 30		♂	enters ♉, Solstice.	...		
	23 02 —		♂	Greatest Elongation E.	...		
	23 18 46	♂	♂	...	...	♂	20 02
26 21 —		♂	...	...		—2 43	
26 22 —	♂	♂		...			
28 12 43	♂	♂	...	...	♂	+2 46	
29 02 —		♂	...	...		—1 37	
30 07 —		♂	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.	...			
30 12 —		♂	in ♈.	...			
			Stationary in R. A.	...			

NOTE : The table contains configurations of the sun, moon and planets, expressed in symbols as follows :

☉	Sun	☾	Moon	☿	Mercury	♀	Venus	♁	Earth
♂	Mars	♃	Jupiter	♄	Saturn	♅	Uranus	♆	Neptune

- ♌ Conjunction, having the same Longitude or Right Ascension
- ☐ Quadrature, differing 90° in Longitude or Right Ascension
- ♐ Opposition, differing 180° in Longitude or Right Ascension
- ♊ Ascending Node
- ♋ Descending Node

The predicted times of the conjunctions, quadratures, and oppositions of the planets with respect to the sun are, respectively, the instants when the longitude of each planet differs from that of the sun by 0° , $\pm 90^\circ$, or 180° . For the conjunction of the planets with the moon and with each other, the predicted times are the instants when the two bodies have the same right ascension. In the case of conjunction, the degrees and minutes to the right indicate the differences of declination. In the Thus, $\odot \text{ } \mathfrak{C} \text{ } . . . \text{ } \mathfrak{J} - 4^\circ 22'$ would be read "Conjunction of Mars with the Moon, Mars, $4^\circ 22'$ to the south."

The table contains also the times of the periphelia and aphelia of the planets including the earth; of the passage of the planets through the nodes of their orbits; of the greatest heliocentric latitudes of the planets; of the planets becoming stationary in right ascension; of the greatest elongations of Mercury and Venus; of the greatest brilliancy of Venus; of the nearest approach of Mars to the earth; and of the solar eclipses.

ASTRONOMY

TABLE 5. TIMES OF SUNRISE AND SUNSET FOR 1943

Date	Latitude +20°		Latitude +30°		Latitude +40°		Latitude +50°	
	Sunrise	Sunset	Sunrise	Sunset	Sunrise	Sunset	Sunrise	Sunset
	h m	h m	h m	h m	h m	h m	h m	h m
Jan.								
1	6 35	17 32	6 56	17 11	7 22	16 45	7 59	16 8
6	6 36	17 35	6 57	17 14	7 22	16 49	7 58	16 13
11	6 38	17 38	6 57	17 18	7 22	16 54	7 56	16 20
16	6 38	17 41	6 57	17 23	7 20	16 59	7 53	16 27
21	6 38	17 45	6 56	17 27	7 18	17 05	7 48	16 34
Feb.								
26	6 37	17 48	6 54	17 31	7 15	17 11	7 43	16 43
31	6 36	17 51	6 52	17 36	7 11	17 17	7 37	16 51
5	6 35	17 54	6 49	17 40	7 06	17 23	7 30	17 00
10	6 32	17 56	6 45	17 44	7 00	17 29	7 22	17 08
15	6 30	17 59	6 41	17 48	6 54	17 35	7 13	17 17
20	6 27	18 01	6 36	17 52	6 48	17 41	7 04	17 25
25	6 24	18 03	6 32	17 56	6 41	17 46	6 54	17 34
March								
2	6 20	18 05	6 26	17 50	6 34	17 52	6 44	17 42
7	6 16	18 07	6 21	18 03	6 26	17 57	6 33	17 50
12	6 12	18 08	6 15	18 06	6 18	18 02	6 23	17 58
17	6 08	18 10	6 09	18 09	6 10	18 08	6 12	18 06
22	6 03	18 11	6 03	18 12	6 02	18 13	6 01	18 14
April								
27	5 59	18 13	5 57	18 15	5 54	18 13	5 50	18 22
1	5 55	18 14	5 51	18 18	5 46	18 28	5 39	18 30
6	5 50	18 15	5 45	18 21	5 38	18 28	5 28	18 36
11	5 46	18 17	5 39	18 24	5 30	18 33	5 18	18 48
16	5 42	18 18	5 33	18 27	5 22	18 38	5 08	18 54
May								
21	5 38	18 20	5 28	18 30	5 15	18 43	4 57	19 01
26	5 35	18 21	5 23	18 33	5 08	18 48	4 48	19 09
1	5 32	18 23	5 18	18 37	5 02	18 53	4 38	19 17
6	5 28	18 25	5 14	18 40	4 55	18 58	4 30	19 24
11	5 26	18 27	5 10	18 43	4 50	19 03	4 22	19 32
June								
16	5 24	18 29	5 07	18 46	4 45	19 08	4 14	19 39
21	5 22	18 31	5 04	18 49	4 40	19 13	4 08	19 46
26	5 21	18 33	5 01	18 52	4 37	19 17	4 02	19 52
31	5 20	18 35	5 00	18 55	4 34	19 21	3 57	19 58
5	5 20	18 37	4 59	18 58	4 32	19 24	3 54	20 03
July								
10	5 20	18 38	4 58	19 00	4 31	19 28	3 51	20 07
15	5 20	18 40	4 58	19 02	4 30	19 30	3 50	20 10
20	5 21	18 41	4 59	19 04	4 31	19 32	3 50	20 12
25	5 22	18 42	5 00	19 04	4 32	19 32	3 51	20 13
30	5 23	18 43	5 01	19 05	4 34	19 33	3 53	20 13
Aug.								
5	5 25	18 43	5 03	19 05	4 36	19 32	3 57	20 11
10	5 27	18 43	5 06	19 04	4 39	19 31	4 01	20 09
15	5 28	18 43	5 08	19 03	4 43	19 28	4 06	20 05
20	5 30	18 42	5 11	19 01	4 46	19 25	4 12	20 00
25	5 32	18 40	5 14	18 58	4 51	19 21	4 18	19 54
Sept.								
30	5 34	18 38	5 17	18 55	4 55	19 17	4 25	19 47
4	5 36	18 36	5 20	18 52	5 00	19 12	4 32	19 40
9	5 38	18 33	5 23	18 48	5 05	19 06	4 39	19 31
14	5 39	18 30	5 26	18 43	5 09	19 00	4 46	19 22
19	5 41	18 26	5 29	18 38	5 14	18 53	4 54	19 13
Oct.								
24	5 42	18 23	5 32	18 33	5 19	18 46	5 01	19 03
29	5 43	18 18	5 34	18 27	5 24	18 38	5 08	18 53
3	5 44	18 14	5 37	18 21	5 28	18 30	5 16	18 42
8	5 46	18 10	5 40	18 15	5 33	18 22	5 24	18 31
13	5 47	18 05	5 43	18 09	5 38	18 14	5 31	18 21
Nov.								
18	5 48	18 01	5 46	18 08	5 43	18 06	5 38	18 10
23	5 49	17 56	5 48	17 57	5 47	17 57	5 46	17 58
28	5 50	17 52	5 51	17 50	5 52	17 49	5 54	17 47

Oct.	3	5 51	17 47	5 54	17 44	5 57	17 41	6 01	17 36
	8	5 52	17 43	5 57	17 38	6 02	17 33	6 00	17 28
	13	5 54	17 39	6 00	17 33	6 07	17 25	6 17	17 15
	18	5 56	17 35	6 03	17 27	6 12	17 18	6 25	17 05
	23	5 57	17 32	6 06	17 22	6 18	17 11	6 33	16 56
Nov.	28	5 59	17 28	6 10	17 17	6 23	17 04	6 41	16 46
	2	6 02	17 26	6 14	17 13	6 29	16 58	6 50	16 37
	7	6 04	17 23	6 18	17 09	6 35	16 52	6 58	16 29
	12	6 06	17 21	6 22	17 06	6 40	16 47	7 06	16 21
	17	6 10	17 20	6 26	17 04	6 46	16 43	7 14	16 15
Dec.	22	6 13	17 19	6 30	17 02	6 52	16 40	7 22	16 09
	27	6 16	17 19	6 34	17 00	6 57	16 37	7 30	16 05
	2	6 19	17 20	6 38	17 00	7 03	16 36	7 37	16 01
	7	6 22	17 20	6 42	17 00	7 08	16 35	7 43	15 59
	12	6 25	17 22	6 46	17 01	7 12	16 35	7 48	15 58
	17	6 28	17 24	6 49	17 02	7 16	16 36	7 53	15 59
	22	6 31	17 26	6 52	17 05	7 18	16 38	7 56	16 00
	27	6 33	17 29	6 54	17 07	7 21	16 41	7 58	16 04

CLIMATE

CO-CHING CHU¹ (竺可桢) AND JOHN LEE² (呂炯)

I. INTRODUCTION

THE meteorological work in China, like many other constructive activities, has suffered severely from the Japanese invasion. In the areas of fighting, the making of meteorological observations and climatological records have been rendered practically impossible. Just before the war, it may be noted, a new meteorological observatory was established at Ting-hai, Chekiang, with the object of forewarning coastal fishermen against adverse weather conditions. This station, however, has at present ceased to function. Although not exactly the same fate has befallen the two first-rate new observatories set up at Sian and Wuhan for studying the hydrography of the Yellow and Yangtze rivers respectively, the work has nevertheless been seriously retarded. On the other hand, it has been successful to remove a good deal of the observatory equipments and instruments into the interior provinces such as Kansu, Chinghai, Sikang and Yunnan, where invaluable work has been carried on in the face of considerable inconveniences and hardships.

In 1941 a new National Weather Bureau was established at Sha Ping Pa, Chungking, under the direction of the Executive Yuan. The bureau takes charge of the weather service and the meteorological administration of the country, leaving the Institute of Meteorology of the Academia Sinica to concentrate its effort at research activities.

In area, China is greater than the continent of Europe. It stretches from the region well within the tropic of Cancer in the south to the border of Siberia in the north, from Pacific coastal land in the east to the Pamir Plateau in the west. In Tibet we have one of the highest inhabited areas in the world, while parts of the oasis of Turfan in Chinese Turkestan are more than 200 meters below sea level. In a country so vast in its extent and so varied in its topography, the climate must necessarily be very diversified. In temperature it ranges from arctic rigor in Northeast China to torrid heat in the coral islands, such as the Paracels, in the South China Sea. As regards precipitation, the mean annual amount varies from less than 5 mm. in the Tarim basin to over 7,900 mm. at Omei Shan in Szechuen. The major factors which control the climate of China are three in number: (1) distribution of land and water, (2) mountain barriers and altitudes, and (3) cyclonic storms.

A. Latitude.—China is located between latitude 18° and 53° N. The extent of the Chinese territory is widest at about latitude 40° N., but narrows down considerably in the south, so that only 2.4% of its area lies within the tropics. China occupies, therefore, the same belt as Western Europe and Africa, from Morocco in the south to England in the north. The climate of China, however, is vastly different from that of the

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TABLE 3. NUMBER OF TYPHOONS DURING THE PERIOD 1904-34

Location	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Landed N. of Wenchow ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	12	5	—	—	—	21
Landed S. of Wenchow ...	—	—	—	—	—	6	40	35	30	5	1	—	117
TOTAL ...	—	—	—	—	—	6	44	47	35	5	1	—	138

II. TEMPERATURE

As stated in the previous section, China has a continental climate—that is, extremes in climate, great heat in summer and extreme cold in winter. In order to visualize how extreme is the climate of China, it is necessary to compare the temperature of different places in China with the mean temperature of all places in the northern hemisphere located approximately on the same latitude. It is understood that these mean temperatures are sea-level temperatures; mean temperatures of places at high altitude have to be reduced to make them comparable. With the year taken as a whole, places in China are too cold for their latitudes. This is due to the fact that the excess of cold in winter far exceeds the excess of heat in summer. The deficiency of warmth in winter amounts to 17° C. at Aigun in Northeast China, but gradually diminishes southward until at Kiungchow on Hainan Island, it is only one quarter of that amount. In autumn the temperature departure is also minus. The excess of heat in summer decreases likewise from north to south. As a consequence of extreme cold in winter and excessive heat in summer, the mean annual temperature

range, i.e., the difference between the mean temperature of the hottest month and that of the coldest month, is inordinately large. The hot summers, though rather uncomfortable to live in, are not without their beneficial attributes, for the size of the rice crop depends much on temperature. In winter the biting winds are very invigorating, as anyone who has passed a winter north of Yangtze Valley can testify.

Mr. P. K. Chang, of the National Research Institute of Meteorology, has made a study on the length of the four seasons in China. He defines winter as the period when mean temperature goes down below 10° C. and summer as the period when it is over 22° C., while spring and autumn are the intervals when mean temperature lies between these two limits. In case of mean temperature of each five-day period, he found that there is no winter in South China south of Wenchow, while the summer there is about eight months long; on the other hand, he found no summer in Northeast China north of Harbin, while winter there is also eight months in length. Places like Kunming, etc., on the Yunnan Plateau, have no summer, but spring or autumn lasts eight months.¹

¹ Pao-kun Chang, "The Duration of Four Seasons in China," *Journal of the Geographical Society of China*, Vol. I, No. 1, Nanking, 1934.

TABLE 4. DISTRIBUTION OF FOUR SEASONS IN CHINA
(in Unit of Months)

Regions	Winter	Spring	Autumn	Summer
South China ...	0.0	4.0-7.0	(Spring and Autumn)	5.0-8.0
Yunnan Plateau ...	2.0-3.0	9.0-10.0	" "	0.0
Upper Yangtze Valley ...	2.5-3.0	2.5-3.0	2.5-3.0	3.5-5.0
Central Yangtze Valley...	3.5	2.0-2.5	2.0-2.5	4.0-4.5
Lower Yangtze Valley ...	3.5-4.5	2.0-2.5	2.0	3.5-4.0
North China ...	5.0-6.0	2.0-3.0	2.0	2.0-3.0
Steppe Region (NW. China) ...	5.5-6.5	2.0-3.0	1.5-2.5	1.0-3.0
Chinese Turkestan ...	5.0-6.0	2.0-3.0	2.0	2.0
Liaoning ...	6.0-7.0	2.0-2.5	2.0	1.0-2.5
Heilungkiang ...	8.0	4.0	(Spring and Autumn)	0.0

To the average person mean annual temperature does not convey much, and yet it is the single item that can sum up the thermometric tendencies of the place. A glance at Table 7 will show that mean annual temperatures vary greatly in different parts of China. Generally speaking, the mean annual temperature in South China is between 20°—25° C.; in the Yangtze Valley 15°—20°; in North China 10°—15°; in Liaoning, Southern Tibet, and Chinese Turkestan 5°—10°; in Heilungkiang, North Mongolia, and the greater part of Tibet 5°. The difference in temperature between north and south is much reduced in summer but is greatly accentuated in winter. As one travels from Manchouli, in Northeast China, to Hongkong in January, there is an increase of temperature of 1.6° C. per 1° of latitude southward, and one has to experience every variety of climate from the arctic rigor to the balmy sunshine, the difference in temperature being some 45°C. During the summer months, as, for instance, in July, the difference in temperature between these two points is less than 10° C.

In West China, as well as in Tibet, Mongolia, and Chinese Turkestan, the temperature of a place much depends upon altitude and topography. One fact stands out strikingly, however, i.e., the surprising mildness of southern Tibet.

In the winter half-year cold waves from Siberia form a regular feature in the weather of other parts of the Chinese Republic.

The lowest temperature ever recorded in China so far known is —50.1° C., recorded at Mandukui in Northeast China (Lat. 49° 06' N., Long. 120° 03' E., Alt. 705 m.) on January 16, 1922, while the highest is 46° C. registered at Turfan, Chinese Turkestan, on July 21, 1930.

III. PRESSURE AND WIND

A. Atmospheric Pressure.—As befits a continental climate, sea-level atmospheric pressure in China is highest in December or January and lowest in June or July. The mean annual range amounts to 12—18 mm. in South China and the Yangtze estuary but increases to 19—21 mm. in the central Yangtze Valley and North China.

In conformity with the pressure

Mediterranean region or Western Europe. This difference arises mainly from the fact that China is situated on the eastern side of the Eurasian Continent, where the influence of the ocean is rather little felt, while the Atlantic border of Europe is on the western side of the same continent, where the ocean current can exert its full force.

The proximity of the vast Pacific Ocean on the one hand and the massive Eurasian Continent on the other, also brought about the unique wind system of Eastern Asia. In winter, due to extreme coolness and aridity of the interior of Asia, pressure becomes very high, forming what is known as the Siberian or Mongolian anticyclone. Over the Pacific the temperature is comparatively high, and hence low pressure prevails at this time of the year with its centre over the Aleutian Islands. In summer, on the other hand, the land becomes warmer than the ocean, and the low-pressure system is now over the continent with its centre in Northwest India, while the high-pressure system shifts to the mid-Pacific. Since wind always blow from the region of high pressure to the region of low pressure, this seesawing of pressure systems over Asia and the Pacific causes the wind to change direction every half year. It blows from land to ocean in winter, and from ocean to land in summer.

These monsoonal winds affect the climate of China in two ways. First, since wind comes from the arid interior in winter and the damp, tropical ocean in summer, the rainfall régimes all

over China have pronounced periodicity, with a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. And, secondly, since everywhere in China winter winds blow prevailing from the north, the coldest quarter, and summer winds come mainly from the south, the warmest quarter, the seasonal temperature contrast is very much exaggerated.

B. Topography.—Topographically considered, China is a very rugged country. With the exception of the combined delta of the Yangtze and Yellow rivers, and several other minor basins, mountains dominate the land forms. The effects of mountains are twofold: first, they act as barriers to the rain-bearing winds from the south in summer, and to the piercing ice-cold winds from the north in winter; secondly, with the increase of altitude the temperature decreases at the approximate rate of 6° C. per 1,000 meters, while precipitation increases until a certain level is reached.

C. Cyclones.—In temperate zones the extratropical cyclonic storms are oftentimes the sole arbiter of weather changes, and this is true to a certain extent in China, especially in winter and spring. In summer the air temperature over the whole of China is quite uniform, and the number of cyclones decreases greatly. According to Mr. Shio-wang Sung, of the National Research Institute of Meteorology,¹ 841 extratropical cyclones occurred over China during the period 1921-1930 or 84.1 cyclones per year. The seasonal distribution of these cyclones is shown in the following table:

TABLE 1. MEAN MONTHLY FREQUENCY OF CYCLONES IN CHINA

Period	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
1921-1930	7.3	8.1	9.3	10.5	9.9	7.8	5.1	2.5	3.4	6.2	7.4	6.6	84.1

¹ Shio-wang Sung, "The Extratropical Cyclones of Eastern China," *Memoir*, No. 3, National Research Institute of Meteorology, 1931, p. 34.

The above table shows that the months of April, May, and June are the most stormy, while July, August, and September have the least number of storms.

The extratropical cyclones travel over China generally from west to east, but turn toward the northeast on reaching the coast. The tracks of

storms vary from season to season. South of latitude 25° N. very few cyclones occur. In winter and spring cyclones are most numerous in the middle and lower Yangtze Valley, while in July and August the number of storms in North China far exceeds that experienced in Central or South China as shown in the following table:

TABLE 2. FREQUENCY OF CYCLONES OCCURRED BETWEEN LONGITUDE 100°-125° E. DURING THE PERIOD 1921-30

Latitude	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
20-25	2	0	1	0	4	5	1	0	0	1	0	1
25-30	40	42	51	59	63	36	14	5	5	10	22	34
30-35	21	17	15	26	19	22	6	6	9	19	18	15
35-40	3	8	30	17	17	24	27	9	5	2	13	9
40-45	23	28	33	49	49	41	29	9	18	23	18	14

Besides extratropical cyclones, typhoons also play a prominent part in the climatic control of China, especially during late summer and early autumn. They usually originate somewhere in the region of the Ladrone Islands or the Caroline Islands, and travel northwestward. These tropical storms occupy a small area and progress more slowly than the extratropical cyclones, but they usually yield more rainfall, and are often accompanied by wind of devastating force. Along the entire Chinese coast, but especially in the south, they are dreaded by the seamen and farmers alike. In the Chinese annals, records abound which testify to the destructiveness of the typhoons. The most noteworthy of these was probably that of July 17, 1281, when 3,500 ships, carrying 100,000 soldiers sent by Kublai Khan to conquer Japan were

all wrecked and sunk by a typhoon. During recent years the most memorable one has been the Swatow typhoon of August 2, 1922, which caused a loss of 70,000 lives and \$70,000,000 worth of property.

Spectacular though they be, as a climatic factor typhoons are not so important as the extratropical storms, for typhoons do not occur so frequently as the latter and are not so wide in their range. As a rule there are from 20 to 30 typhoons in a year and among these only four or five will strike the Chinese coast.

Though typhoons make their appearance in the Pacific all through the year, they are most numerous during the months from July to October. And it is during these months, when the typhoon season is at its height, that they occur on the Chinese coast as shown in the following table:

gradient of the season and the deflective force of earth rotation, the winds shape their courses. Local topography also exerts a commanding influence in a mountainous region. Winds in China, taken as a whole, are predominantly offshore in winter and onshore in summer; these are commonly known as winter and summer monsoons. The months of March, April, and May in spring and September in autumn are transitional months. The winter monsoon comes much more suddenly and blows with much greater strength than the summer monsoon. The monsoonal winds are not so constant as one would or imagine; when cyclones pass over Mongolia, Northeast China, North China or the Yangtze Valley, winds from every point of the compass may last for a time, and cyclones are quite frequent in China. It is only from monthly statistics that it is possible to get an idea from which direction winds blow most frequently.

B. Wind Directions.—Over Peiping the wind comes prevailing from the north in January and from the south in July, and over Nanking mainly from the east in July. Thus the monsoonal character of the wind at these places is quite apparent. Yet along the coast of South China, it is still more pronounced. Over Canton more than 80% of the wind comes from the N. or NE. in January, and more than 40% from the S. or SW. in July, the winter monsoon being much strengthened by the northeast trade wind, which usually prevails at the latitude of South China. The rotation of the earth has a tendency to deflect the wind towards the right in the northern hemisphere; hence in winter the northwest wind in North China, as it pursues its course,

will change to the northeast when it reaches Central China. Similarly, in summer the southeast wind in Central China will become a southerly or southwesterly wind when it reaches North China. In Northeast China the wind is prevailing from the southwest all the year round. The prevalence of a southwesterly wind in South China in summer owes its origin also to deflection of earth rotation. South China being on the southern side of the continent of Asia, the onshore wind should be from the south but is deviated to the right to become southwesterly.

The seasonal shifting of wind, onshore in summer and offshore in winter, is limited only to the lower strata of the atmosphere. Pilot balloon soundings at Hongkong, Nanking, and Peiping have shown beyond any doubt that above 3,000 meters altitude westerly winds predominate.

C. Wind Velocity.—Wind velocity is greatest during the months of March and April. The ancient Chinese knew this by experience, and from time immemorial kites were flown in the greater part of China only in the spring months, for kites will not rise unless wind velocity exceeds three or four feet per second. The summer months are usually the calmest, except in the lower Yangtze Valley, where wind velocity for the month of July is as great as, or greater than, that of March or April. Generally speaking, wind velocity in China decreases from the coast to inland. Places along the Fukien channel are the stormiest in the country due to the tube effect of the winds.¹ In summer or early autumn, gales often accompany the coming of a typhoon and may blow from any direction. But in winter and

spring, wind of great force usually comes from the northwest quadrant and heralds the arrival of a cold wave.

IV. HUMIDITY, CLOUDINESS, FOG, AND FROST

A. Humidity.—As a rule the absolute humidity of a place should be greatest in summer and least in winter, while the reverse is apt to be the case with the relative humidity. In China, however, since winds are onshore in summer and offshore in winter, the summer is usually damp, while the autumn and winter are dry. The mean annual relative humidity of Northeast and North China varies between 60% and 65%, and that of Central and South China between 70% and 80%. The dampness of Szechuen is well known, and this is verified by the high percentage of Chungking and Omei Shan. Kunming, on the Yunnan Plateau, on the other hand, has a low humidity. In Chinese Turkestan and Tibet, humidity goes still lower.

B. Cloudiness.—As the amount of cloud at a given place depends on the relative humidity, the regional variation of cloudiness in China follows closely the variation of humidity. The mean annual cloudiness in China decreases from 7 in South to 4 in North China; Chinese Turkestan and Manchuria have the least cloudiness, with a mean cloudiness of 3.6, while Omei Shan is the gloomiest spot so far known in China with a mean nebulosity of 8.1. In seasonal distribution, cloudiness varies greatly in different regions. In Northeast and North China as well as in West China, winter is the season of blue sky, while summer brings more cloud than any other season. In South China and in the lower Yangtze Valley, winter is the most gloomy period, while summer and autumn are comparatively sunny.

C. Fog.—In view of recent advance in commercial and military aviation in China, fog has become a topic of paramount importance. Both radiation fogs and advection fogs are to be met with in China; the latter occurs near the coast and on island stations and the former on the mainland.

For all of the mainland stations, with the exception of that at Tsingtao located on the seacoast, fogs occur most frequently in winter. For the island stations, from Hongkong to the Yangtze estuary, spring is the most foggy season; further north, along the coast of Shantung, fogs are most prevalent in the month of July. In Mongolia and Chinese Turkestan, because of the extreme dryness of the climate, fog is quite rare but the sky is covered with haze most of the time. At Kucha in the year 1931, there were 178 days with haze but only one day with fog.

D. Frost.—Frost occurs practically everywhere in China on the mainland. Occasionally the mercury may drop to freezing point, even in Hongkong, during a severe cold wave from Siberia in winter. The regular yearly visitation of frost, however, does not begin until about latitude 28° N. along the coast, while inland the occurrence of frost depends much upon the altitude and topography. In Canton frost occurs two years out of seven, while Amoy was free from frost during eight years (1929-1936) of observation. Frost may form when the shade temperature reaches a minimum of from one to three degrees above zero centigrade, provided other conditions are favourable. But in the interior of China, where the altitude is great, frost often appears when shade temperature is remarkably high.

If we assume the growing season to be limited to the period between the

¹ John Lee, "Dynamical Effect of Eastern Chinese Coastal Winds and Its Influence Upon the Temperature," *Memoir*, Vol. XII, No. 1, National Research Institute of Meteorology, 1938. p. 16.

mean date of the last frost in spring and the mean date of the first frost in autumn, then it will be seen that the season varies in length from 12 months in South China, eight to nine months in the Yangtze Valley, seven months in the Yellow River Basin, six months in Hopei and Shansi, and five months in Northeast China, to four months in Lhasa and Tsaidam. One anomalous fact stands out clearly, i.e., the region around the Shantung Peninsula and the Gulf of Peichihli has a longer growing season than does the Huai River Basin to its south.

V. PRECIPITATION

As the seasonal fluctuation of pressure systems in Eastern Asia and Western Pacific determines the monsoonal wind system of China, so does the wind system determine the Chinese rainfall régimes. Onshore winds, pregnant with moisture, bring the wet season; while offshore winds usher in the dry period. The main characteristic of rainfall régimes over all of China,

consists therefore of a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. If we examine the seasonal distribution of different sections in China, we will find plenty of minor modifications and irregularities, however. Generally speaking, cyclones, typhoons, and thunderstorms exert a tremendous influence over the seasonal rainfall distribution in China. The term "monsoonal rainfall" or "*pluies de la mousson*," as employed by some writers on Chinese rainfall, is a misnomer, and should be used with caution. The writer believes that precipitation in China is either orographic or cyclonic, which latter may be due to continental depressions, typhoons, or heat thunderstorms; and that there is no monsoonal rainfall, as such, in China. So far from being a rainy wind, the southeast and southwest monsoons in summer have the least rainfall probability among winds of all directions in Hongkong, Nanking, Tsinan, and Peiping as shown in the following table:

TABLE 5. RAINFALL PROBABILITY OF VARIOUS WINDS IN SUMMER IN PERCENTAGES

Place	N.	NE.	E.	SE.	S.	SW.	W.	NW.	Calm	Period
Hongkong ...	47.7	29.3	21.3	25.9	17.1	13.2	13.3	26.1	9.4	1929-32
Nanking ...	15.6	15.5	7.3	4.8	5.3	5.3	8.7	10.9	20.7	1920-33
Tsinan ...	11.5	16.6	10.8	4.8	5.5	5.6	8.6	12.5	3.7	1932-34
Peiping ...	17.9	16.3	9.2	6.2	2.6	4.6	7.3	16.1	10.2	1933-34

During the last 60 years of observation in Shanghai, the wettest summers were always the ones with the least southeasterly winds, while in a severe drought the southeasterly winds always had the lion's share in the percentage distribution. Indeed the ancient Chinese always took the fresh, steady southeast monsoon as an

omen for drought. Weather proverbs are full of references to it, and the famous poet of the Sung dynasty, Su Tung-po, wrote a poem in praise of the southeast monsoon as a welcome sign of the cessation of the gloomy rainy season, known in the lower Yangtze Valley as the *mei yü* or plum rains.

Of course, there is no denying the

fact that the southerly monsoons are the moisture-bearing winds in China. But, though pregnant with moisture, they are impotent to deliver it to the thirsty land below until it is released by some mechanism. This mechanism may be dynamical, thermal, or orographical, it may take the form of a cyclone, either tropical or extratropical, a heat thunderstorm, or a high mountain range. In other words, the southerly monsoons need to be lifted up before they can yield any precipitation, and this lifting may be brought about by a polar front, the intense solar radiation, or a mountain slope.

The maximum rainfall comes mostly in May in northern Kwangtung, mostly in June in the Yangtze Valley, and practically always in July in North China, in unison with the shifting of the belt of most frequented storm tracks, which may be taken as the line of discontinuity. Wherever the storm tracks of summer are concentrated, there lies the area of abundant rainfall in China.

A general idea of the relative importance of typhoons, heat thunderstorms, and continental depressions in causing precipitation in eastern part of China can be gained from the following table:

TABLE 6. PERCENTAGE OF PRECIPITATION CAUSED BY VARIOUS AGENCIES IN CHINA

Place	Season	Depressions	Typhoons	Thunderstorms	Period
Hongkong ...	Spring	88.9	2.2	8.9	1929-32
	Summer	46.8	34.7	18.5	1929-32
Canton ...	Spring	82.5	6.8	10.7	1930-33
	Summer	53.6	31.2	15.2	1930-33
Shanghai ...	Spring	61.5	25.1	13.4	1926-30
	Summer	65.7	27.8	6.5	1921-25
Nanking ...	Spring	83.8	0.9	15.3	1929-33
	Summer	81.6	8.1	10.3	1929-33
Tsinling ...	Spring	94.8	0.0	5.2	1930-33
	Summer	69.3	19.9	10.8	1930-33

Precipitation due to continental depressions occupies more than 80% of the total in spring and more than 50% (except Hongkong) in summer. Typhoon rains decrease in importance from south to north and from coast to

inland, but even in Hongkong in summer the amount attains only one third of the total. The proportion of thunderstorm rains is smaller than that of typhoon rains in summer, but greater than that of typhoon rains in

spring, except at Nanking, where, owing to the inland position, the proportion of thunderstorm rains exceeds that of typhoon rains, even in summer.

In eastern China, where relief is low, orographical rain plays only a secondary role. In western China orographical rain assumes a place of paramount importance. Nothing can explain the excessive precipitation of the mountainous regions of Szechuen and Kweichow save the fact that these mountains are standing right in the way of moisture-bearing southeast, south, or even southwest air currents. The same air mass which brings torrid heat and continuous drought to eastern China, as it did to the Yangtze Valley in the summer of 1934, can be easily turned into drenching downpours after climbing 2,000 or 3,000 meters upward. Here is an outstanding fact, i.e., in the Red Basin of Szechuen there is practically no cyclones all the year round, such as stated by the Japanese meteorologist T. Okada¹. So far as we experienced during the past few years, its precipitation derives from the cold waves in the winter half year and thunderstorms in the summer half.

South of the Yangtze Valley, rainfall is plentiful practically everywhere in China, the amount generally exceeds 1,000 mm. and varies much with

altitude and topography. North of the valley, precipitation decreases rapidly towards the north and southwest. In Mongolia and Chinese Turkestan as well as in northwest China the utility of land solely depends upon the amount of rainfall. Cultivation is to be found in the foothills of high mountains where the melting snow and orographical rainfall make the raising of crops possible. Farmers in the neighbourhood of Suchow, Kansu, welcome sunshine, for they depend upon the melting snow from Nan Shan for irrigation. Besides the scanty rainfall, North China is handicapped by the great variability of the amount of rainfall from year to year. Places like Peiping and Kaifeng have a mean variability of over 30%. The frequent occurrence of droughts and famines in this region is due to this extreme variability of rainfall amount.

Snowfall is not heavy in China, as the winter season is a dry one; it occurs over the whole of China, though very rarely in the South. In the Yangtze Valley the first snow of the winter usually occurs in December and the last fall occurs at the beginning of March; in North China snow may occur from November to April, and in Northeast China from October to the end of April.

¹ W. G. Kendrew, *The Climate of the Continents*, Oxford, 1937, 3rd edition, p. 164.

TABLE 7. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE IN CENTIGRADE

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Lamko	17.6	17.8	19.5	23.6	27.6	23.9	28.8	28.5	27.4	25.2	22.7	19.8	23.9	1924-1936
Klingshan	17.8	18.6	21.0	25.1	28.4	28.4	28.9	28.6	27.7	25.1	22.8	19.8	24.4	1924-1936
Pakhoi	14.0	15.1	18.2	23.1	27.8	28.7	29.0	28.8	28.0	24.5	21.3	17.3	21.1	1924-1936
Hongkong	15.4	15.0	17.3	21.3	25.0	27.2	27.8	27.6	27.0	24.5	20.8	17.1	22.2	1884-1936
Lungchow	14.3	15.3	18.7	23.2	27.8	28.7	29.0	28.9	27.8	23.8	20.6	17.1	22.9	1924-1936
Chiliang Point	14.4	14.0	16.0	20.0	24.7	26.8	27.7	27.6	27.2	24.3	20.7	17.1	21.7	1924-1936
Breaker Point	14.0	13.5	15.5	19.3	24.1	26.1	26.9	26.9	26.7	23.7	20.2	16.6	21.1	1924-1936
Samahul	12.1	13.1	16.4	21.2	25.9	27.6	28.7	28.9	27.4	23.0	19.0	15.1	21.5	1924-1936
Canton	13.1	13.9	17.1	21.6	26.2	27.7	28.6	28.8	27.6	23.8	20.0	16.1	22.0	1924-1936
Lanocka	13.3	12.5	14.5	19.7	23.4	25.7	26.8	26.9	26.5	23.3	19.9	16.2	20.6	1924-1936
Swatow	13.6	13.6	15.7	19.8	24.6	27.0	28.2	28.4	27.1	23.3	19.5	16.2	21.4	1924-1936
Tsangwa	12.3	13.3	16.4	21.1	26.0	27.4	28.6	28.6	27.4	23.1	19.2	15.4	21.6	1924-1936
Chapel Island	12.0	11.3	13.2	17.1	22.2	25.5	27.3	27.5	26.6	22.8	19.1	15.2	20.0	1924-1936
Amoy	13.8	13.2	15.4	19.1	24.1	26.9	29.0	29.1	28.0	24.6	20.5	16.8	21.7	1924-1936
Tengchung	8.6	9.7	13.9	16.0	18.2	19.8	20.4	20.3	29.7	17.1	12.7	9.5	15.4	1924-1936
Ocktau	11.1	10.3	12.3	16.3	21.2	24.8	27.1	27.4	26.2	22.5	18.7	14.6	19.4	1924-1936
Kunming	9.2	10.9	14.2	17.5	19.3	19.4	20.0	19.9	18.1	15.8	12.7	9.9	15.6	1929-1936
Turnabout	10.4	9.6	11.5	15.7	20.6	24.5	27.1	27.2	25.7	21.9	18.1	13.9	18.9	1924-1936
Middle Dog	9.7	9.0	11.2	15.5	20.3	24.0	26.6	26.9	25.5	21.5	17.6	13.4	18.4	1924-1936
Pagoda Anchorage	10.6	10.3	13.1	17.7	22.6	25.8	28.6	28.7	26.1	22.0	17.9	13.8	19.8	1924-1936
Tungyung	9.0	8.6	10.8	14.9	19.8	23.8	26.9	27.2	25.3	21.2	17.2	12.7	18.1	1924-1936
Kweiyang	4.0	6.3	11.5	16.4	20.5	22.8	24.6	24.1	20.6	16.6	11.3	7.2	15.4	1921-1938
Hengyang	3.6	6.9	11.3	16.6	23.1	26.2	29.6	29.3	25.6	19.0	13.3	7.5	17.7	1932-1936
Pichieh	3.4	4.6	7.9	11.9	17.5	19.3	21.6	21.5	18.6	15.0	9.3	6.5	13.1	1938-1940
Shiang	11.0	13.6	16.0	16.9	19.9	20.4	23.2	22.3	19.6	17.7	13.7	11.4	17.1	1940-1941

CLIMATE

TABLE 7. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE IN CENTIGRADE—(Contd.)

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Yungtia	7.4	8.2	11.6	16.6	21.3	25.1	29.0	29.1	25.6	20.7	15.9	11.0	18.5	1924-1936
Tungze	5.1	6.5	10.0	14.5	19.9	22.0	24.0	24.4	20.7	17.0	11.0	8.1	15.3	1938-1940
Changsha	4.4	6.1	11.3	17.2	23.0	26.3	30.1	30.0	25.4	19.3	13.6	7.1	17.8	1924-1936
Poyushan	6.1	6.2	9.0	13.2	18.3	22.4	26.6	27.2	24.3	19.9	15.3	10.1	16.6	1932-1936
Changteh	2.8	6.2	10.1	15.4	22.0	25.8	29.5	28.9	24.4	17.7	11.9	6.3	16.8	1924-1936
Yoyang	3.3	5.4	10.6	16.3	21.8	25.4	28.7	28.4	23.8	17.9	12.2	6.0	16.7	1924-1936
Chungking	7.8	9.7	14.2	18.9	22.7	25.1	28.8	29.2	24.1	18.9	14.3	10.2	18.7	1924-1936
Kiukiang	3.3	5.5	10.5	16.3	22.3	26.0	29.7	29.6	24.7	18.5	12.4	6.4	17.1	1924-1936
Yachow	8.6	9.9	12.6	17.0	21.7	24.9	26.5	26.3	22.1	19.2	13.1	10.2	17.7	1939-1941
Kangting	0.8	2.3	4.8	6.6	11.6	13.0	16.3	16.4	12.4	9.3	4.1	1.3	8.2	1939-1941
Chinghai	4.2	5.0	8.9	14.2	19.4	23.6	28.1	28.1	23.9	18.6	13.3	7.7	16.3	1924-1936
Steep Island	5.9	5.7	8.7	12.9	17.6	22.0	26.1	27.4	24.5	20.3	15.2	9.7	16.3	1924-1936
Hanchow	4.0	5.3	9.7	15.3	20.5	24.7	28.3	28.0	23.8	17.7	12.1	7.0	16.4	1919-1936
Hankow	3.9	5.4	10.5	16.4	22.1	25.9	28.8	28.8	24.1	18.5	12.2	6.0	16.9	1906-1936
North Saddle	3.5	4.9	10.1	15.5	22.3	26.2	30.5	30.0	24.6	18.9	12.4	5.3	17.0	1932-1936
Hwaining	4.2	8.8	12.1	17.0	21.6	24.8	26.7	36.2	22.4	17.2	12.0	7.6	16.7	1932-1936
Chengtu	4.5	6.6	12.0	17.5	22.7	26.2	28.9	28.8	24.4	18.9	13.3	7.0	17.6	1924-1936
Ichang	4.4	4.6	7.8	12.4	17.2	21.6	25.8	27.0	23.8	19.4	14.0	8.1	15.5	1924-1936
Gutzlaff	5.4	5.3	8.3	12.6	17.2	21.6	25.8	26.9	23.6	19.3	14.4	9.1	15.8	1924-1936
Shanghai	3.2	4.1	8.0	13.5	18.7	23.1	27.1	27.0	22.8	17.4	11.3	5.7	15.2	1873-1936
Soochow	2.3	4.3	8.9	14.0	19.9	24.5	29.4	28.5	23.3	17.8	11.9	6.3	15.9	1930-1936
Wuhu	2.3	4.3	9.3	15.1	21.2	25.0	28.4	28.6	23.8	17.8	11.5	5.2	16.0	1924-1936
Woosung	3.9	4.3	8.4	13.6	19.1	23.3	27.7	27.4	23.4	18.0	12.4	7.1	15.7	1924-1936
Shawleshan	4.1	4.2	7.4	12.1	17.4	21.9	26.5	27.4	23.7	19.2	13.6	7.7	15.4	1924-1936
Wushu	1.9	3.6	8.1	13.5	19.6	24.3	28.9	28.1	22.8	17.1	11.4	5.7	15.4	1931-1936

CLIMATE

Changshu	1.7	3.8	8.2	13.2	19.1	23.6	27.7	27.6	22.9	17.8	11.9	6.0	15.3	1930-1936
Nantung	1.6	3.0	7.4	13.0	18.7	22.8	26.9	26.9	22.4	17.3	11.2	5.0	14.7	1917-1936
Nanking	2.2	3.7	8.6	14.4	20.3	24.4	27.7	27.5	22.8	17.2	10.6	4.6	15.3	1905-1936
Chinkiang	2.2	3.8	8.8	14.8	20.8	24.9	28.4	28.2	23.6	17.6	11.5	5.1	15.8	1924-1936
Tungai	0.8	2.4	6.7	12.9	18.9	22.7	27.4	27.1	22.3	16.1	9.8	3.8	14.2	1924-1936
Tungshan	0.9	1.6	7.7	13.7	20.2	25.7	28.2	26.8	22.0	15.7	8.2	2.0	14.2	1926-1936
Sian	0.8	2.3	8.6	14.6	20.6	26.5	28.1	26.0	20.8	14.5	7.3	1.2	14.1	1922-1936
Tienhui	3.3	1.8	5.9	13.0	18.0	21.0	22.3	21.9	17.0	12.6	4.6	1.0	11.1	1935-1937
Kafeng	1.4	2.1	7.9	14.5	21.1	26.0	28.0	25.9	21.6	15.7	8.6	2.3	14.4	1932-1936
Lauchow	7.5	1.1	5.4	12.1	17.1	20.9	22.5	20.6	16.4	8.8	1.1	4.0	9.4	1933-1936
Tsingtao	1.4	0.0	4.2	10.0	15.5	19.8	23.6	25.1	21.3	15.8	8.4	1.3	12.0	1900-1936
Taishan	11.1	7.3	3.1	4.5	11.6	15.4	18.2	17.0	13.0	7.1	0.7	6.4	4.9	1932-1936
Sining	6.8	2.6	2.5	7.2	13.2	15.3	18.2	18.1	12.7	7.8	0.9	4.9	6.6	1937-1941
Tsinan	1.7	1.5	8.3	15.8	22.6	27.0	28.2	26.4	22.2	16.2	7.6	1.0	14.6	1919-1936
Southeast Promontory	1.3	0.8	2.9	8.2	13.6	18.2	21.9	24.3	21.3	15.7	9.0	2.0	11.3	1924-1936
Northeast Promontory	1.4	0.8	2.7	7.9	13.3	18.0	21.0	24.1	21.4	15.7	9.0	1.9	11.1	1924-1936
Chefoo	2.0	0.9	4.0	11.4	17.8	22.4	25.5	25.5	21.6	15.4	8.1	1.2	12.5	1924-1936
Yangku	7.7	3.0	4.1	11.8	18.8	22.9	25.2	23.1	17.7	10.4	2.4	4.8	10.1	1916-1936
Hokki	2.4	1.8	2.2	8.6	14.7	19.3	22.7	23.8	21.3	15.4	7.9	0.8	11.0	1924-1936
Tsingyuan	5.7	1.4	5.6	13.9	20.4	25.8	26.9	25.2	20.2	13.2	4.2	2.9	12.1	1913-1936
Tangku	4.4	2.0	4.0	12.2	19.0	23.8	26.6	25.9	21.5	14.2	5.2	2.1	12.0	1924-1936
Great Northern Port	4.2	2.6	3.2	10.8	17.3	22.4	26.6	25.7	22.1	14.4	6.1	0.2	11.8	1931-1935
Chichuan	9.4	3.9	2.1	9.6	16.5	20.9	23.8	21.7	15.9	10.0	0.8	7.9	8.2	1935-1939
Peiping	4.6	1.5	5.0	13.6	20.1	24.4	26.1	24.9	20.1	12.7	3.9	2.6	11.8	1841-1936
Chinwangtao	6.3	4.2	1.4	9.3	16.0	20.7	24.4	24.4	19.9	12.7	4.0	3.5	9.9	1924-1936
Kungchuling	15.6	11.0	1.4	9.4	17.1	22.6	25.3	24.2	18.4	10.1	1.7	11.3	7.2	1915-1936
Tunhuang	6.1	1.2	5.9	12.8	19.8	23.5	27.1	24.8	18.5	12.2	2.3	2.3	11.3	1938-1941
Kucha	14.0	4.5	6.6	13.2	18.6	22.0	23.9	22.2	17.1	9.0	0.4	8.3	8.8	1930-1931
Thwa	10.3	11.0	1.3	7.6	16.9	22.5	23.9	20.8	14.3	6.9	2.0	13.3	5.5	1930
Dalren	5.0	3.5	1.9	9.3	15.2	20.3	23.5	24.6	19.8	13.6	5.2	2.2	10.2	1905-1929

CLIMATE

TABLE 7. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE IN CENTIGRADE—(Contd.)

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Antung	...	-9.6	-6.9	2.2	9.0	15.3	20.6	23.9	24.9	18.8	11.3	1.8	-5.6	8.9 1928-1931
Newchwang	...	-8.8	-7.3	1.5	9.5	16.4	22.3	25.2	24.7	19.4	11.0	1.7	-6.5	9.1 1928-1931
Mukden	...	-13.0	-9.2	1.0	8.6	15.8	21.7	24.7	23.6	16.7	9.0	-1.2	-10.2	7.1 1906-1929
Yenchu	...	-14.0	-12.1	-3.6	6.2	13.0	18.4	22.7	22.2	14.9	7.0	-3.1	-11.7	5.1 1914-1928
Changchun	...	-17.2	-12.7	-4.3	6.5	14.3	20.0	23.4	21.8	14.7	6.4	-4.4	-14.2	4.5 1909-1929
Jaomen	...	-19.0	-14.1	-4.8	6.2	14.1	20.4	23.7	21.7	14.6	6.0	-5.7	-15.0	4.0 1915-1928
Taipei	...	-18.7	-14.5	-7.6	3.4	10.7	16.0	19.9	19.2	12.1	4.2	-7.0	-16.2	1.8 1909-1928
Moutankiang	...	-20.5	-16.0	-6.6	5.2	12.6	18.1	22.0	20.8	13.2	4.7	-7.0	-17.4	2.4 1909-1928
Imienpo	...	-19.0	-14.4	-5.8	5.7	13.1	18.7	22.3	20.9	13.5	5.5	-6.2	-16.1	3.2 1909-1928
Harbin	...	-20.4	-15.7	-6.5	5.7	13.8	19.7	23.2	21.6	14.2	5.3	-7.2	-17.4	3.0 1909-1928
Sansing	...	-21.1	-15.6	-7.2	4.5	12.5	19.0	22.9	21.1	14.0	4.8	-7.7	-17.1	2.5 1916-1928
Anda	...	-22.0	-16.7	-6.8	5.0	13.4	20.1	23.7	21.3	13.8	4.5	-8.6	-18.2	2.5 1914-1928
Tsitsihar	...	-20.8	-15.4	-6.8	5.0	13.4	19.9	23.2	21.5	13.8	4.4	-8.6	-18.0	2.6 1909-1928
Chelandan	...	-18.9	-14.3	-6.8	4.3	12.7	18.3	21.8	19.5	12.0	3.4	-8.7	-17.0	2.2 1909-1928
Bokedu	...	-22.6	-18.9	-11.0	0.5	9.3	15.3	19.1	16.3	9.0	0.6	-11.6	-20.1	-1.2 1914-1928
Mandoho	...	-27.7	-24.0	-15.4	0.3	9.2	15.5	19.4	16.6	8.5	-0.7	-14.2	-24.7	-3.2 1909-1928
Khallar	...	-28.3	-24.3	-15.2	0.6	10.4	17.1	21.0	18.1	9.8	0.0	-14.2	-25.6	-2.6 1909-1928
Manchouli	...	-26.0	-22.3	-13.7	0.6	10.4	17.5	21.0	18.0	9.8	-0.1	-13.9	-23.6	-1.9 1909-1928
Aigun	...	-25.0	-22.2	-7.7	2.6	11.7	17.9	22.5	20.4	12.2	3.2	-10.6	-22.5	0.2 1928-1931

TABLE 8. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL PRECIPITATION IN MM.

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Lanko	13.6	19.6	27.8	47.3	83.4	123.2	216.9	231.3	230.1	131.8	50.8	25.5	1201.3	1912-1936
Klungshan	24.4	32.8	49.8	97.9	154.3	197.7	211.3	182.2	256.1	177.0	81.6	45.7	1510.8	1912-1936
Pakhoi	44.3	38.9	71.7	103.0	174.5	286.5	500.9	465.9	260.1	93.3	49.2	46.0	2134.3	1885-1936
Hongkong	27.0	39.1	74.5	130.5	231.0	396.0	391.7	370.0	291.9	125.9	37.5	26.3	2201.4	1854-1936
Lungchow	20.5	36.7	46.5	79.0	179.1	220.7	233.5	239.4	140.6	63.2	32.6	24.6	1316.4	1896-1936
Chilang Point	28.1	52.4	76.6	112.0	145.8	224.2	277.6	230.8	157.4	50.3	33.9	30.6	1419.7	1911-1936
Breaker Point	25.9	44.7	64.6	116.1	191.2	260.6	228.7	251.3	157.8	78.7	34.5	29.7	1483.8	1892-1936
Samahui	41.4	61.8	111.4	175.9	292.8	259.9	237.9	245.1	151.0	73.5	44.3	42.2	1737.2	1900-1936
Canton	44.1	69.9	91.6	150.2	256.1	272.5	256.3	243.9	135.3	59.4	40.8	35.8	1655.9	1907-1936
Lamoeks	26.9	37.0	58.1	100.9	115.5	166.3	182.2	151.5	118.8	70.5	25.1	22.3	1075.1	1892-1936
Swatow	34.3	57.9	83.7	147.4	214.1	258.0	215.7	220.1	132.4	62.2	41.5	35.7	1503.0	1880-1936
Tsangwu	31.8	55.4	91.5	155.0	203.4	196.9	157.9	173.9	84.6	43.7	38.8	40.3	1301.5	1898-1936
Chapel Island	32.9	60.9	90.6	125.0	132.8	135.4	125.9	111.0	90.9	39.1	29.7	27.9	1002.1	1880-1936
Amoy	33.5	70.5	93.2	130.8	174.3	173.8	126.7	161.7	110.9	36.8	32.1	34.2	1177.6	1880-1936
Tengchung	12.0	36.9	37.7	64.3	126.9	240.4	318.7	277.6	151.9	162.3	41.8	15.3	1485.8	1911-1936
Ockseu	30.8	57.9	88.6	105.4	131.5	158.2	100.9	96.4	75.3	27.2	20.5	23.9	916.6	1886-1936
Kunming	5.0	20.5	23.1	33.1	111.0	207.5	261.4	246.9	158.3	75.6	41.2	7.2	1190.8	1929-1936
Turnabout	39.8	80.8	104.2	126.6	156.1	180.8	95.8	97.1	86.8	43.0	37.7	43.2	1001.9	1885-1936
Middle Dog	42.6	91.1	128.0	135.4	145.2	182.6	120.7	109.3	131.9	46.2	35.1	40.4	1208.5	1892-1936
Pagoda Anchorage	45.4	92.4	118.6	129.7	150.7	197.1	168.5	200.9	204.8	46.6	41.2	47.6	1443.5	1880-1936
Tungtung	20.9	57.3	74.4	77.2	107.9	116.3	54.0	80.8	77.1	33.8	22.9	19.3	742.0	1905-1936
Hengyang	60.8	130.7	95.9	193.8	214.8	262.2	67.2	108.1	79.1	67.3	108.6	67.4	1455.9	1933-1936
Kwelyang	20.0	29.3	34.5	84.6	201.0	213.4	201.3	125.6	130.9	101.6	49.9	25.2	1217.3	1921-1940
Piehieh	8.6	14.2	30.7	38.2	104.5	162.3	146.6	104.6	61.2	64.8	17.2	6.4	759.3	1938-1940
Sichang	0.0	12.3	12.4	30.3	101.6	220.6	180.7	159.3	158.8	55.7	10.6	10.6	950.9	1939-1941

CLIMATE

CLIMATE

TABLE 8. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL PRECIPITATION IN MM.—(Contd.)

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Pairen	12.9	8.2	18.3	24.2	44.1	45.4	162.3	130.3	102.3	27.9	24.4	12.0	612.3	1905-1929
Antung	14.2	9.2	27.0	36.2	83.6	55.9	266.4	261.4	128.5	58.7	44.2	22.1	1007.5	1928-1931
Newchwang	6.2	5.3	14.1	18.9	32.8	45.5	168.1	144.8	47.1	37.2	14.8	11.9	546.7	1928-1931
Mukden	5.3	7.3	18.7	26.6	58.8	87.8	162.5	151.4	77.7	38.7	23.9	9.1	667.7	1906-1929
Etsingol	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.5	3.0	10.5	0.0	1.3	0.5	25.7	1928-1929
Yenching	5.0	5.0	14.0	15.0	49.0	74.0	96.0	111.0	93.0	39.0	14.0	6.0	522.0	1914-1928
Changchun	7.1	6.5	16.5	19.5	52.0	104.6	182.9	133.8	62.0	38.4	16.3	7.3	646.7	1908-1929
Jeonien	5.0	5.0	10.0	20.0	41.0	78.0	159.0	120.0	63.0	37.0	12.0	5.0	552.0	1915-1928
Taipinling	4.0	4.0	10.0	26.0	56.0	92.0	119.0	99.0	87.0	35.0	20.0	6.0	539.0	1909-1928
Moutankiang	3.0	4.0	10.0	25.0	52.0	87.0	116.0	108.0	69.0	33.0	16.0	5.0	528.0	1909-1928
Imienpo	8.0	9.0	16.0	27.0	55.0	117.0	184.0	133.0	72.0	47.0	27.0	11.0	706.0	1909-1928
Harbin	4.0	6.0	10.0	22.0	42.0	109.0	148.0	107.0	55.0	30.0	11.0	5.0	544.0	1909-1928
Sansing	3.0	6.0	7.0	19.0	53.0	79.0	125.0	125.0	71.0	36.0	7.0	7.0	537.0	1916-1928
Anda	1.0	2.0	4.0	10.0	35.0	61.0	117.0	120.0	56.0	12.0	5.0	2.0	425.0	1914-1928
Taitshar	2.0	2.0	5.0	10.0	29.0	68.0	101.0	77.0	40.0	11.0	6.0	2.0	354.0	1909-1928
Chelandan	3.0	3.0	5.0	17.0	34.0	73.0	116.0	106.0	70.0	17.0	8.0	2.0	454.0	1909-1928
Bokedu	2.0	2.0	2.0	10.0	28.0	85.0	107.0	89.0	56.0	9.0	5.0	2.0	397.0	1914-1928
Mandoho	4.0	5.0	4.0	10.0	25.0	64.0	73.0	81.0	63.0	12.0	6.0	5.0	330.0	1909-1928
Khalar	4.0	4.0	4.0	10.0	20.0	48.0	79.0	66.0	45.0	10.0	6.0	4.0	298.0	1909-1928
Manchouli	2.0	2.0	3.0	5.0	16.0	45.0	71.0	61.0	34.0	7.0	5.0	3.0	234.0	1909-1928
Algun	3.4	4.5	5.8	6.5	25.9	124.2	143.1	142.8	101.5	23.7	15.5	3.5	600.4	1928-1931

POPULATION

L. K. TAO¹ (陶孟和)

In view of the present war, which caused many local administrations to suspend their statistical work and publication of population returns, a

revision of the figures in the following tables has to be deferred to a future date.

TABLE 1. STATISTICS OF CHINESE POPULATION, TAKEN FROM THE 17TH TO THE 24TH YEAR OF THE REPUBLIC, 1928-35

Localities	Population	Density of Population per Sq. Km.	Date of Census
Province of Kiangsu	31,455,565	299.69	1931
Province of Chekiang	20,208,429	199.96	—
Various Hsien	19,723,387	195.59	1928
Municipality of Hangchow	485,042	2,194.76	1932
Province of Anhwei...	22,020,591	153.51	1933
Province of Kiangsi	15,724,412	93.47	—
Various Hsien	15,518,034	92.27	1928-29
Municipality of Nanchang	206,378	3,275.84	1928-29
Province of Fukien	9,741,794	80.48	—
Various Hsien	9,131,457	—	1929
City of Foochow	390,363	—	Nov., 1934
Municipality of Amoy	219,974	—	—
Province of Kwangtung	31,406,057	140.30	—
Various Hsien	29,761,674	134.12	1928-36
Municipality of Canton	1,145,285	16,130.77	—
Municipality of Swatow	193,923	32,320.50	1935
Kowloon	93,905	103.13	1931
Kwangchow Wan	206,270	229.19	1931

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CLIMATE

TABLE 8. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL PRECIPITATION IN MM.—(Contd.)

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Yungku	49.1	89.2	129.3	146.5	187.4	282.2	203.9	254.1	210.4	89.7	55.9	43.9	1721.6	1883-1936
Tungze	4.6	17.4	21.6	63.6	101.3	150.3	220.6	140.3	101.1	70.3	52.6	18.5	982.2	1938-1940
Changsha	46.9	97.2	138.2	154.7	208.5	229.7	118.4	112.7	73.6	74.7	72.8	47.8	1371.2	1909-1936
Pelyushan	49.7	82.7	108.3	113.9	125.2	156.1	71.8	103.7	169.4	59.5	55.4	35.2	1150.9	1904-1936
Changteh	33.2	105.2	76.9	218.2	169.2	339.3	163.5	100.7	39.5	111.5	97.7	47.9	1502.8	1933-1936
Yoyang	37.0	75.0	126.5	161.1	192.3	194.6	119.1	107.0	82.6	83.8	98.5	43.9	1421.4	1909-1936
Chungking	18.0	19.9	37.7	98.2	143.9	183.9	137.9	124.3	145.2	110.1	49.2	20.9	1089.2	1891-1936
Kiukiang	60.5	82.2	139.5	176.3	171.7	220.1	142.0	121.2	88.6	86.3	64.0	45.6	1398.8	1885-1936
Yachow	9.9	38.8	54.4	105.7	110.2	106.4	461.6	335.2	168.9	99.3	38.7	17.5	1546.3	1939-1941
Kangting	3.6	25.3	36.7	87.6	103.3	165.1	131.7	72.3	115.9	55.1	10.9	6.5	814.0	1939-1941
Chinghai	70.0	85.0	105.2	114.1	112.8	182.3	117.5	164.2	190.6	97.3	63.7	53.0	1355.7	1886-1936
Steep Island	44.7	54.5	84.2	92.1	98.1	145.3	66.2	54.3	83.1	59.8	46.0	32.5	800.8	1886-1936
Hanchow	72.0	91.6	117.3	133.3	137.1	226.8	134.9	194.0	162.2	80.8	71.6	58.9	1480.5	1904-1936
Hankow	45.0	49.7	92.6	149.9	171.4	231.0	181.3	106.3	76.0	74.6	48.6	30.9	1257.3	1880-1936
Hwaining	26.6	73.6	146.9	179.1	126.8	184.9	100.4	79.5	73.4	57.0	61.4	69.2	1178.8	1834-1936
Chengtu	14.8	18.7	35.8	58.3	99.6	161.5	273.4	438.0	167.0	54.2	19.5	11.9	1352.7	1934-1936
Inchang	21.6	30.5	52.0	101.2	125.6	137.0	224.4	179.4	104.0	73.7	34.5	17.4	1121.3	1882-1936
Gutzliff	46.2	57.3	84.8	90.8	82.1	140.3	87.7	66.4	109.5	58.8	50.7	39.4	914.0	1886-1936
North Saddle	35.2	45.2	70.7	83.1	87.9	135.0	73.1	63.8	85.9	55.8	49.0	37.9	822.6	1886-1936
Shanghai	49.0	59.0	83.3	92.8	92.8	177.1	146.8	143.2	127.8	70.7	50.8	36.6	1129.9	1873-1936
Soochow	47.4	54.4	55.9	69.6	94.7	144.0	124.4	121.9	89.6	30.2	40.2	42.3	914.6	1921-1936
Wuhu	50.6	56.0	95.8	125.2	124.8	200.5	154.2	121.6	81.8	70.0	57.4	37.5	1175.4	1880-1936
Woosung	38.4	48.6	68.0	83.7	78.9	166.5	142.1	123.3	127.5	48.6	52.3	37.8	1015.7	1904-1936
Shawleshan	39.7	49.4	27.7	76.5	80.8	138.9	101.8	102.2	113.7	58.7	47.9	33.9	916.2	1886-1936
Wush	37.0	45.9	55.8	98.7	101.7	131.6	72.9	99.2	120.2	45.8	46.2	50.7	905.4	1932-1936

CLIMATE

Changshu	35.4	52.2	45.0	94.5	84.9	145.7	105.9	110.1	120.2	43.3	49.7	46.6	993.5	1930-1936
Nantong	28.2	37.4	50.3	66.7	64.1	150.0	174.3	131.3	123.9	25.3	39.8	38.8	930.1	1917-1936
Nanking	37.9	46.3	61.9	96.9	78.6	156.4	182.6	111.3	53.1	45.2	41.1	36.3	977.6	1905-1936
Chinkiang	40.2	44.0	68.7	90.1	87.4	165.4	182.6	121.9	95.3	45.6	45.2	31.6	1018.0	1886-1936
Tungtsai	32.2	31.1	44.8	56.3	68.0	123.3	157.6	180.0	93.0	44.4	29.6	49.7	910.0	1924-1936
Tungshan	12.3	17.9	20.8	60.0	47.1	112.7	127.6	135.9	81.7	25.8	19.3	32.3	693.4	1920-1936
Sian	3.8	6.7	17.4	41.3	52.5	55.9	83.7	103.8	82.8	52.1	14.5	7.0	521.5	1922-1936
Tientsui	3.7	5.2	13.5	31.8	69.5	140.1	118.5	121.6	97.2	19.3	5.5	5.8	631.7	1936-1938
Kaifeng	11.7	8.0	20.3	24.2	58.4	44.4	216.5	63.5	71.4	12.5	32.4	17.6	580.9	1934-1936
Lanchow	0.9	4.8	4.9	10.9	25.3	20.6	76.0	133.4	62.3	16.1	0.5	4.9	361.6	1933-1936
Taiungao	11.2	7.9	19.1	30.9	43.1	82.5	143.4	147.1	94.4	38.7	22.2	17.6	646.1	1898-1936
Taihsan	7.7	5.1	15.2	22.3	43.7	137.5	350.7	172.0	86.7	27.0	30.8	23.5	922.2	1933-1936
Sulu	0.8	2.5	4.2	14.0	27.7	50.4	71.6	90.4	35.1	20.8	6.3	0.5	374.3	1937-1941
Taiwan	8.4	7.5	10.3	20.1	33.6	74.5	203.6	175.3	57.6	19.1	16.4	12.9	639.3	1916-1936
Southeast Promontory	8.3	9.2	18.9	38.3	46.0	76.4	166.4	149.4	85.1	29.6	30.2	18.2	676.0	1886-1936
Northeast Promontory	8.9	5.8	14.7	29.5	35.2	65.2	133.0	127.8	67.7	30.3	25.0	14.6	537.7	1886-1936
Chefoo	14.2	9.8	15.9	25.2	45.2	57.9	167.8	155.3	62.8	28.1	27.4	20.4	630.0	1886-1936
Yangki	5.1	4.8	13.1	15.3	26.7	44.7	98.6	96.3	49.4	16.0	7.8	4.8	382.6	1916-1936
Howki	4.3	6.8	8.4	20.4	33.2	54.7	138.2	103.4	52.3	21.2	16.9	5.5	465.3	1880-1936
Charklik	0.2	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.6	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5	1927-1929
Taiyngian	4.0	3.2	5.6	9.5	20.9	67.5	148.0	133.8	31.7	8.0	10.9	5.6	448.7	1913-1936
Tangku	4.1	3.3	7.5	11.2	27.0	61.2	182.0	132.8	39.6	12.9	12.9	3.1	498.5	1909-1936
Great Northern Port	13.1	6.2	7.9	10.8	71.8	77.4	176.4	166.0	38.1	10.3	10.2	5.8	604.0	1931-1935
Chichuan	0.7	1.9	0.9	4.6	3.9	11.4	15.8	31.3	5.8	0.3	2.3	2.0	80.9	1935-1939
Feipang	3.9	4.5	8.7	15.6	33.0	92.9	249.5	146.1	58.0	17.1	8.8	2.3	630.4	1841-1936
Chinwangtao	2.8	2.9	13.4	16.7	62.3	71.2	182.1	192.7	75.6	18.8	13.4	4.3	656.2	1908-1936
Kungchuling	5.1	4.8	11.5	19.0	53.4	99.5	173.3	139.7	50.8	38.4	13.9	4.4	622.8	1915-1936
Tunhuang	0.9	1.8	0.5	5.8	3.6	8.7	3.7	4.2	1.4	0.1	0.0	0.1	30.8	1938-1941
Kucha	1.6	1.8	4.3	3.3	1.3	34.1	18.4	8.5	5.3	0.0	0.3	6.4	85.3	1930-1931
Tiwa	4.0	36.9	0.0	40.4	75.7	9.8	23.3	64.8	16.6	46.8	8.5	18.3	345.0	1930

POPULATION

TABLE 1. STATISTICS OF CHINESE POPULATION, TAKEN FROM THE 17TH TO THE 24TH YEAR OF THE REPUBLIC, 1928-35 (Continued)

Localities	Population	Density of Population per Sq. Km.	Date of Census
Province of Kwangsi	13,385,215	60.88	1934
Province of Yunnan (Including Municipality of Kunming)	11,795,486	29.59	1932
Province of Kweichow	7,022,804	39.79	—
Various Hsien	6,906,206	—	1931
Municipality of Kweiyang	110,598	—	1935
Province of Hunan	28,335,031	131.51	—
Various Hsien	28,023,439	130.07	1929
Municipality of Changsha	311,592	34,021.33	1929
Province of Hupeh	20,551,264	144.52	—
Various Hsien (including Municipality of Wuchang)...	25,746,738	140.24	1933
Municipality of Hankow	804,526	6,188.66	—
Province of Szechuen	46,823,665	116.01	—
Various Hsien	46,084,973	—	1933-35
Municipality of Chengtu... ..	440,988	—	1934(?)
Municipality of Chungking	297,704	—	1934
Province of Sikang	1,048,091	2.22	1935(?)
Province of Hopei	20,740,391	191.39	1929
Province of Honan	32,623,930	192.15	1933
Province of Shantung	34,536,907	226.48	—
Various Hsien	34,064,628	223.91	1931
Municipality of Tsinan	472,279	1,311.89	1935
Province of Shansi	10,881,090	67.24	1934
Province of Shensi	10,112,230	51.84	1935(?)
Province of Kansu	6,080,559	15.97	—
Various Hsien	5,977,871	15.70	1931
Municipality of Lanchow	102,688	—	1934
Province of Chinghai	1,195,054	1.64	1935(?)
Province of Ninghsia	666,890	2.20	—

POPULATION

TABLE 1. STATISTICS OF CHINESE POPULATION, TAKEN FROM THE 17TH TO THE 24TH YEAR OF THE REPUBLIC, 1928-35 (Continued)

Localities	Population	Density of Population per Sq. Km.	Date of Census
Various Hsien	649,440	—	1935
Etsingol Torgot Banner	450	—	?
Alashan Hoshot Banner	17,000	—	?
Province of Suiyuan	2,156,529	7.09	—
Various Hsien	1,915,148	—	April, 1935
Ulan Chap League	58,100	—	1933
Yegho League	111,286	—	1933
Suiyuan Tumet	60,436	—	1930
Chahar Right Wing Four Banners	11,559	—	1929
Province of Chahar	1,782,913	6.89	—
Various Hsien	1,711,618	—	1933
Chahar Left Wing Four Banners	10,990	—	1929
Silingol League	36,800	—	(?)
Four Herdsman Banners	23,505	—	1929
Provinces of Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang & Jehol ...	33,868,299	26.36	—
Province of Sinkiang	2,453,393	1.49	1928
Municipality of Nanking	732,082	6,365.93	1934
Municipality of Shanghai	3,703,430	7,014.07	—
Municipality of Peiping	1,561,027	2,174.13	—
Municipality of Tientsin	1,209,696	13,293.36	—
Municipality of Tsingtao	524,415	950.03	1935
Municipality of Siking (Sian)	188,329	12,555.27	1935(?)
Administrative Area of Weihaiwei	182,459	275.20	1931
Outer Mongolia	939,300	0.58	1928-30
Tibet	750,000	0.83	—
GRAND TOTAL	438,407,927	39.24	

POPULATION

TABLE 2. STATISTICS OF NON-CHI.

<i>Tribes</i>	<i>Hulun Buir</i>	<i>Heilung- kuang</i>	<i>Kirin</i>	<i>Liaoning</i>
Paleo Asiatics ...	—	—	—	—
Gillak... ..	—	—	5,000	—
Tungus ...	—	—	—	—
Manchu ...	—	58,400	—	—
Sibo ...	—	4,400	—	—
Solon ...	8,000	3,900	—	—
Orochon ...	625	2,300	—	—
Goldi ...	—	—	1,180	—
Mongol ...	—	—	—	—
Old Bora or Chipchin ...	13,200	4,600	—	—
New Barga ...	5,400	—	—	—
Daghor ...	716	82,900	—	—
Khalkha ...	—	40,400	30,100	229,800
Kalmuck or Olöt ...	500	3,200	—	—
Altai Urianghai ...	—	—	—	—
Buriat ...	750	—	—	—
Tartar ...	—	—	—	—
†Turkish ...	—	—	—	—
Yakut ...	250	100	—	—
Urianghai, or Tuba ...	—	—	—	—
Sola ...	—	—	—	—
Uigur, or Chantou ...	—	—	—	—
Kasak ...	—	—	—	—
Burut... ..	—	—	—	—
Kirghiz ...	—	—	—	—
Iranian ...	—	—	—	—
Tajik ...	—	—	—	—
Tibeto-Burman ...	—	—	—	—
Hsifan ...	—	—	—	—
Golok ...	—	—	—	—
Kam-pa ...	—	—	—	—
Tsang-pa ...	—	—	—	—
Lolo ...	—	—	—	—
Moso ...	—	—	—	—
Lutze ...	—	—	—	—
Lisu ...	—	—	—	—
Shan, or Tai ...	—	—	—	—
Nama... ..	—	—	—	—
Loi, or Li ...	—	—	—	—
Payi ...	—	—	—	—
Mon-Khmer ...	—	—	—	—
Miao ...	—	—	—	—
Yao ...	—	—	—	—
Hsia ...	—	—	—	—
TOTAL ...	29,441	209,200	36,280	229,800
Others ...	—	—	—	—
Naturalized White Russians ...	—	—	—	—
GRAND TOTAL ...	29,441	209,200	36,280	229,800

* This table is not comprehensive, as figures of many peoples, especially in the Southwest, are incomplete and defective, and the statistics of Tan in the South and those of aborigines in Kiangsi and Fukien are wholly unavailable.

POPULATION

NESE-SPEAKING PEOPLES IN CHINA*

[illegible]

† The Tungan, who are Chinese-speaking Turkish, are not included here. They are distributed as follows: 137,000 in Ninghsia, 350,000 in Sinkiang, 2,000,000 in Kansu, 120,000 in Chinghai.

POPULATION

TABLE 2. STATISTICS OF NON-CHINESE

Tribes	Kansu	Chinghai	Tibet	Sikang
Palao Asiatics	—	—	—	—
Gillak... ..	—	—	—	—
Tungus	—	—	—	—
Manchu	—	—	—	—
Sibo	—	—	—	—
Solon	—	—	—	—
Orochon	—	—	—	—
Goldi	—	—	—	—
Mongol	—	—	—	—
Old Barga, or Chipchin	—	—	—	—
New Barga	—	—	—	—
Daghor	—	—	—	—
Khalkha	—	136,800	—	—
Kalmuck, or Olöt	—	—	—	—
Altai Urianghai	—	—	—	—
Buriat	—	—	—	—
Tartar	—	—	—	—
Turkish	—	—	—	—
Yakut	—	—	—	—
Urianghai, or Tuba	—	—	—	—
Sola	—	16,566	—	—
Uigur, or Chantou	—	—	—	—
Kasak	—	—	—	—
Burut... ..	—	—	—	—
Kirghiz	—	—	—	—
Iranian	—	—	—	—
Tajik	—	—	—	—
Tibeto-Burman	—	—	—	—
Hsifan	256,000	166,319	—	—
Golok	—	398,700	—	—
Kam-pa	—	—	—	680,200
Tsang-pa	—	—	750,000	—
Lolo	—	—	—	2,000
Moso	—	—	—	—
Lutze	—	—	—	1,000
Lisu	—	—	—	—
Shan, or Tai	—	—	—	—
Nama... ..	—	—	—	—
Lol, or Li	—	—	—	—
Payi	—	—	—	—
Mon-Khmer	—	—	—	—
Miao	—	—	—	—
Yao	—	—	—	—
Hsia	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	256,000	718,385	750,000	683,200
Others	—	—	—	—
Naturalized White Russians	—	—	—	—
GRAND TOTAL	256,000	718,385	750,000	683,200

§ They live in the Three Eastern Provinces.

SPEAKING PEOPLES IN CHINA (Continued)

[illegible]

LANGUAGE

F'ANG-KUEI LI¹ (李方桂)

LANGUAGES are classified into families with the assumption that they are historically related. In the course of time the parent speech splits into various dialects and through successive evolutions develops into widely different languages. In the vast territory of the Chinese Republic there are found, naturally, a number of dialects and even languages of diverse structures. The following paragraphs aim merely at an academic enumeration of the various dialects and spoken languages which used to prevail in the different regions of the Republic but are being steadily swept aside by the National Spoken Language Movement.²

INDO-CHINESE FAMILY

One of the largest families of speech in China is known as the Indo-Chinese. Languages of this family are spoken throughout China within the Great Wall and Tibet, and extend into the Northeastern Provinces and Sinkiang as well as to places outside of China such as French Indo-China, Burma, Thailand, etc. One of the characteristics of this family is the tendency towards monosyllabism. By monosyllabism we do not mean that all words in these languages consist of single syllables, which is obviously false; but we mean by it that a single syllable is a phonologic unit, the structure of which is rigidly determined by the

phonologic rules of the language, and serves as the basis for the formation of words, phrases, and sentences. The Tibeto-Burman branch of this family still possesses some of the prefixes, sometimes syllabic and sometimes asyllabical, but the Chinese and the Kam-Tai group have early lost all active use of the prefixes.

The tendency to develop a system of tones is another characteristic of this family. We do not know whether tones existed in the primitive Indo-Chinese speech, and it is doubtful whether tones existed in classical Tibetan, but modern Chinese, modern Tibetan, the Kam-Tai languages, and the Miao-Yao languages all possess tones. These tones are further influenced by the nature of the initial consonant and are divided into two main categories: those with an original voiced initial consonant and those with an original voiceless consonant. Such has been found to be the case with Chinese, Tibetan, Burmese, and the Kam-Tai languages, and is considered as the most powerful argument for the common origin of these languages.

Another phonetic tendency in common with this family of languages is the unvoicing of the original voiced initial consonants but this has not been carried out in all dialects. It occurs in most Chinese dialects except the Wu and the Hsiang, in practically all the Kam-Tai languages, and in

many Tibeto-Burman languages, so that what was originally a voiced initial is only detected in the nature of the tone.

Aside from these there are of course many points in the vocabulary which seem to be common in this family. Exact correspondences of sounds, however have not been worked out. Four main branches are known in this family: Chinese, Kam-Tai, Miao-Yao, and Tibeto-Burman.

A. Chinese.—Chinese is the most important member of this family. The earliest records consist of numerous bone and tortoise shell inscriptions of around 1400 B.C., the excavation of which has been systematically carried out in Honan, but unfortunately interrupted by the Japanese invasion. The reading of these inscriptions is in progress but still presents many difficulties. Our knowledge of the archaic phonological system is largely derived from a study of the rimes in archaic texts, principally the *Shih-ching*, and of the phonetic compounds of the written characters. It has been shown that initial consonant clusters such as *gl-*, *bl-*, *ml-*, etc., and many final consonants such as *-b*, *-d*, *-g*, *-p*, *-t*, *-k*, etc., existed in Archaic Chinese, but up to about 600 A.D., when we have the system of Ancient Chinese well represented by the rime books such as the *Ch'ieh-yün*, the initial consonant clusters were already simplified and final *-b*, *-g*, *-d* dropped. From that time on the Chinese language has gone through a series of evolutions such as the unvoicing of the initial consonants, the dropping of final *-p*, *-t*, *-k*, and the simplification of rimes. The modern Peiping dialect which is taken as the National Language (*Kuoyu*) has now only some 400 possible syllables; and each syllable may have theoretically four tones.

This phonetic simplification which causes the existence of many homophones, is counter-balanced by a great increase in the use of compounds, so that what was formerly expressed by one syllable must now be expressed in the colloquial by two or more syllables.

We may divide the Chinese dialects into the following groups:

1. The *Northern Mandarin group* occupies a large area in North China, in the provinces of Hopei, Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Honan, and Shantung, and extends into Sinkiang, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Chahar, Jehol and the Northeastern Provinces in the north and into Hupeh, Anhwei, and Kiangsu in the south. It is characterized by the unvoicing of the ancient voiced stops, affricates, and fricatives, and by the disappearance of the "entering tone." There are as a rule only four tones: ying-ping, yang-ping, shang, and chü. Further division into sub-groups is possible.

2. The *Eastern Mandarin group* is spoken along the lower Yangtze in the provinces of Anhwei and Kiangsu. It is differentiated from the northern group by the existence of the "entering tone" as a short tone, but the original final consonants *-p*, *-t*, and *-k*, which accompanied the "entering tone," are substituted by the glottal stop. It presents therefore five tones.

3. The *Southwestern Mandarin group* is a fairly uniform type of speech spoken in Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, and parts of Hupeh and Kwangsi. It has as a rule no "entering tone," but in the central part of Szechuen along the Yangtze, the "entering tone" is preserved but the final consonants have completely disappeared without leaving a trace. Further division into sub-groups is possible.

¹ Member of the Academia Sinica.

² The written language being the same throughout China.

4. The *Wu* group of dialects is spoken south of the Yangtze in Kiangsu, Chekiang, and in a few districts in the eastern part of Kiangsi. It is characterized by the preservation of the ancient voiced stops, etc. as aspirated voiced consonants and by the preservation of the "entering tone" as a short tone with the loss, however, of the final -p, -t, -k (or rather substituted by the glottal stop). It often presents six or seven tones.

5. The *Kan-Hakka* group is spoken principally in the provinces of Kiangsi and Kwangtung. It is characterized by the change of the ancient voiced stops, etc. into aspirated surds in all four original tone classes (aspirated in ping-sheng only in the three Mandarin groups). The "entering tone" is preserved and the final -p, -t, -k are more or less preserved according to dialects, and there are often six or seven tones. The northern or Kan group, particularly around the Poyang lake, has the tendency to pronounce all aspirated surds as voiced in connected speech. The Hakka group preserves the final consonants such as -m, -p, -t, -k much better. Settlements of Hakka people can be found in various districts in Kwangtung and Kwangsi, and in Indo-China, Thailand, Malay Peninsula, and the South Seas.

6. The *Min* group can be further divided into two sub-groups. The northern group is spoken in the northern part of Fukien and the southern group is spoken in the southern part of Fukien, in the eastern part of Kwangtung, in Hainan Island, and in parts of the Luichow Peninsula. It is characterized by the change of the original voiced stops, etc. into unaspirated surds, even in ping-sheng where the aspirated pronunciation is the prevalent one, by the preservation

of the Ancient Chinese pre-palatal plosives t', t'', d'' (as dental plosives which were the archaic forms from which the ancient pre-palatals were derived, and by the preservation of final -p, -t, -k (sometimes in modified and simplified forms). It has as a rule seven tones. The Hainan dialects present many phonetic peculiarities, possibly under the influence of an aboriginal speech, presumably a Tai language. Settlements of speakers of the southern group (Amoy, Swatow, Hainan, etc.) may be found in large numbers in Formosa, Indo-China, Burma, Thailand, Malay Peninsula, and the South Seas.

7. The *Cantonese* group is spoken in the provinces of Kwangtung and Kwangsi. It is characterized by the preservation of the final consonants -m, -p, -t, -k. It presents a system of eight, nine or more tones. The distinction of long and short vowels as in Cantonese is also a special feature. Certain distinctions of tone depend on the length of the vowel. Settlements of speakers of this group are found in large numbers in Indo-China, Thailand, Burma, Malay Peninsula, and the South Seas.

8. The *Hsiang* group is spoken principally in Hunan. The ancient voiced stops, etc. are as a rule kept as truly voiced consonants (Changsha dialect excepted), the final -p, -t, -k are usually lost, but the "entering tone" is preserved as distinct tone classes. It often presents a system of six or seven tones.

9. Certain *isolated groups*, such as the dialects spoken in the southern part of Anhwei, certain dialects in Hunan and in the northeastern part of Kwangsi may be mentioned here.

Aside from the phonological features specific to the groups mentioned above,

there are also elements of vocabulary more or less peculiar to each of these groups, but these are too minute to be gone into here. Among these various groups some are mutually intelligible, while some are quite unintelligible.

B. Kam-Tai.—The Kam-Tai branch is proposed by the author to include the Tai languages on the one hand and the Kam-Sui languages on the other. The term Tai is used here in a strict sense and will not include languages whose kinship has not been sufficiently clarified, such as the Annamite and the Miao-Yao. The Kam-Sui languages on the other hand can be shown to be definitely related to the Tai, but must have separated from the primitive Tai sufficiently early to develop their particular features, while the Tai languages develop fairly uniformly among themselves. It seems therefore proper to include the Kam-Sui and the Tai languages under one general group Kam-Tai, keeping the other closely related languages, such as Thai, Lao, Shan, Lü, Nung, Tho, Chuang, etc., under the name Tai. It may be noted that the name Tai with its various dialectal pronunciations is only used by a portion of the Tai speakers, and are not known to Tho, Chuang, Chung-chia or Ddoi.

This branch is closely related to the Chinese and possesses four tone classes analogous to the ping, shang, chü, and ju of the Chinese. These four tone classes are each further divided into two according to whether the initial consonant was originally voiced or voiceless, so that the modern Kam-Tai languages often possess eight, and sometimes nine or more tones as a further development according to vocalic lengths (those tones with final -p, -t, or -k have been counted separately according to the customary method

of treating Chinese tones). It has a series of pre-glottalized consonants, limited to 'b, 'd, and 'j in the primitive Tai but far more extensive as proved by the Kam-Sui evidence. Several Sui dialects possess 'b, 'd, 'm, 'n, 'ŋ, etc., beside the ordinary b, d, m, n, ŋ, etc. Initial consonant clusters such as kl-, pl-, etc., are preserved by some dialects to this day, but the original voiced stops, etc., have practically all become voiceless in the modern dialects. Word order in Kam-Tai is also slightly different from the Chinese. For instance, "good man" in Chinese becomes "man good" in Kam-Tai. In China most of the Kam-Tai languages have no writing of their own, except some in Yunnan which employ either the Shan alphabet (derived from Burmese) or one closely related to the Southern Tai alphabet, both derived from Hindu sources.

1. The *Kam Sui* group is spoken in Southeastern Kweichow and in a few districts in Northern Kwangsi, and may be divided into four sub-groups, Kam, Sui, Mak, and T'en. Initial consonant clusters like kl, pl, etc., are not allowed but must have existed; there is a series of voiceless nasals in Kam and Sui, but it disappears in Mak and T'en; there is also a distinction of velar and palatal plosives in Kam and Sui, pre-palatal and palatal in Mak, but confused in T'en; there is further a series of pre-glottalized consonants, more extensive in Sui, limited in Mak and T'en, but not in Kam. The lengthening of the corresponding short vowels in the Tai languages is apparent in this group in many words common to them both.

2. The *Tai* group may be divided into two sub-groups: (a) Chuang group consists of many dialects spoken in a great part of Kwangsi (known as

Chuang or T'u) and in the southern part of Kweichow (known as Chungchia, Man. Penti, or Dioi), and also in the southeastern part of Yunnan (known as Sha or T'u). The language of the Shu Li, spoken in the northern part of the Hainan Island, in Linkao, Chengmai, and Chiungshan, belongs also here, but the Li dialects in the centre and in the south of the island seem to show great divergence from the ordinary Tai languages. Their relation to this group is therefore doubtful. The languages of this group are characterized by the lack of aspirated surds such as p', t', k', the preservation of the distinction between original *k' and *x-, etc.; and by the preservation of an original *hr-, corresponding to the h- of Shan, Thai, Lao, Nung, etc. The development of vowels also shows many peculiar features from the following group.

(b) The southwestern group consists of some of the best known of the tai languages and lies mostly outside of China. We may divide this group into several sub-divisions: (1) Ahom, once spoken in Assam but now extinct, (2) Kamti and Shan, spoken in Burma and Western Yunnan, (3) Thai and Lao spoken in Thailand and French Indo-China, (4) Lü spoken in Southern Yunnan, (5) Tai Blanc, Nung, Tho, etc. spoken in French Indo-China, in the southwestern part of Kwangsi, and in Southern Yunnan. This group is characterized by the preservation of aspirated consonants such as p', t', k', by the change of the original guttural spirants *x-, etc. into stops, by the appearance of *hr- as h- (except Ahom where r- is preserved), and by a very uniform system of vocalic correspondences among themselves.

C. Miao-Yao.—The Miao-Yao

branch of the Indo-Chinese family is monosyllabic like the Chinese and Kam-Tai, and is known to possess tones. The relationship between Miao and Yao seems to be definitely established, particularly by a study of the Yao languages in Southern Kweichow where they are not so strongly influenced by the Chinese or Tai as in Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Indo-China. Word order resembles Kam-Tai. It is spoken by fairly primitive groups of mountaineers throughout the Southwest. Aside from the occasional use of Chinese characters, there is no writing of their own.

1. The *Miao group* is spoken under various tribal names in the western mountain regions of Hunan, in a large part of Kweichow, and is found scattered here and there in Northern Kwangsi, Southern Szechuen, Yunnan, Indo-China, and Thailand. It is characterized by the dropping of the final consonants, so that only -ng and rarely -n are allowed to stand in final positions. There is a distinction of palatal and velar consonants, such as k- and q-, etc., a series of pre-nasalized consonants, such as mp-, mp', nt-, nt', nk-, nk', etc., and consonant clusters such as pl-, pr-, mpl, mpr-, tl-, kl-, etc., are still preserved by some dialects. The number of tones are usually eight or more. The He-Miao chiefly spoken in Southeastern Kweichow seems to form a special sub-group; it allows no consonant clusters and no pre-nasalized consonants, but presents a bewildering number of aspirated consonants.

2. The *Yao group* is also spoken under various tribal names in the northwestern mountain regions of Kwangtung, in Southern Kweichow, and is scattered here and there among the various mountain regions of

Kwangsi, Yunnan, Indo-China, and Thailand. It preserves the final consonant better than the Miao, final -m, -n, -ng, -p, -t, -k, are all allowable. The number of tones varies from five to eight or more according to dialects. It is greatly influenced by the Tai and Chinese, and some have entirely either the Chinese or the Tai language.

There are among the Chinese, the Kam-Tai, and the Miao-Yao groups certain features in common. Notably the word order of subject-verb-object stands in contrast to the Tibeto-Burman branch where we have subject-object-verb. The system of tones in Chinese and Kam-Tai consists of originally four tone classes, and this may be ultimately proved to be the case with Miao-Yao. It seems therefore possible to group them together under one branch, and it seems not improper to give it the name of Sinitic, as all the Kam-Tai and Miao-Yao languages show profound relation and close contacts with China historically, geographically, and culturally. Annamite may be possibly included in this group, although it shows strong affinities with the Mon-Khmer languages.

D. Tibeto-Burman.—This branch of the Indo-Chinese family is one which presents most clearly the use of prefixes, alternations of voiced and voiceless consonants, and the use of suffixes such as revealed by the classical Tibetan. Tones depend upon whether the initial is voiced or voiceless and are further influenced by the prefixes, but the system of tones seems to be much simpler than that of Chinese, Kam-Tai, or Miao-Yao. Word order is as a rule subject-object-verb. Four divisions are known:

1. The *Tibetan group* is found principally in Tibet and Sikang, and

extends into Chinghai and the western part of Szechuen. The earliest record of this group is dated from the ninth century, the alphabet being derived from the devanagari form of the Hindu alphabet. A great amount of literature, largely Buddhistic, exists. Three main groups of dialects may be distinguished. The western group, Balti, Ladak, etc. preserves more or less the prefixes, the initial consonant clusters, and the final stops generally transcribed as -b, -d, -g. The central dialects, including that of Lhasa, are characterized by the loss of prefixes, by the simplification of consonant clusters, and the dropping of final consonants. The eastern dialects, the Kham preserve very faithfully the prefixes and the final consonants. Belonging to the Tibetan group are some Tibeto-Himalayan dialects and some North Assam dialects spoken along the southern border of Tibet and some Sifan dialects spoken in Sikang and Chinghai. Interesting are the Trung and the Nung, called by Chinese Chü-tze and Nu-tze, in the northwestern corner of Yunnan. Like some Nepalese dialects, the reduced forms of the personal pronouns are used as prefixes and suffixes of the verb to form verbal conjugations.

2. *Katchin* of the *Bodo-Naga-Katchin group* is spoken in the northwestern border of Yunnan.

3. Speakers of the various languages of the *Burmese group*, such as Burmese, Kuki, Chin, "Old Kuki," etc., are found mostly in Burma and Assam.

4. Among the *Lolo group*, the Lolo with its dialects is spoken in a large portion of Yunnan, in Northwestern Kweichow, and in Southern Szechuen and Sikang. It descends into Indo-China and Thailand. The Lolo has an independent syllabic writing of its

own, used largely in religious texts. The Moso is spoken in the northwest of Yunnan and extends into Sikang. It possesses two systems of writing, one hieroglyphic and the other syllabic like the Lolo. This group is characterized by the great simplification of the phonetic system, such as the complete dropping of the final consonants and the rarity of diphthongs. Tones are usually five or six in number, and word order resembles the Tibetan. Minkia may possibly belong to this group, but it shows strong Chinese influence in its vocabulary and in its word order and seems to be a mixed language.

AUSTRO-ASIATIC FAMILY

Of this large family to which the Munda, the Mon-Khmer, and according to some authors the Annamite belong, we may only mention the Mon-Khmer group of which there are representatives in China. The earliest records of this group are some Khmer inscriptions of the seventh century and a Mon inscription of the 11th century, the alphabets being derived from the Hindu sources. This group of languages has no tones, and makes use of prefixes and infixes for the derivation of words. The stem is generally monosyllabic; the word order is subject-verb-object.

Dialects of this group spoken in China are the Palaung, the Wa, and some others along the Yunnan-Burmese border. We know very little about the Wa, but the Palaung is known to have no tones, and has a number of prefixes, both syllabic and asyllabical, such as p-, pan-, ra-, kar-

for example: yām "to die," p-yām "to kill," pan-p-yām "the killing, one who is killed." A special series of initials, hl-, hr-, hm-, and hn-, exists. This language shows close contacts with the Tai languages.

ALTAI FAMILY

All along the northern territory of China from Sinkiang through Mongolia to the Northeastern Provinces may be found this family of languages. It extends further southwest to Asia Minor and northeast to Siberia up to the Arctic coast. This family consists of three main branches of languages, namely the Turkish, the Mongolian, and the Tungus. The relation of the three groups has not been established with certainty, although phonetic structure, syntax, and vocabulary all show great resemblances. The exclusive use of suffixes either derivative or syntactical is one of the characteristics, so that the stem or root always remains at the beginning of a word. The suffixes are loosely joined one after another according to a definite order, for example, Turkish baba (father)-lar (plural)-um (our) -dan (from) "from our fathers."

A specific phonetic feature is known as the vocalic harmony. The principle in short is that in a word all vowels must be either front vowels such as i, y, e, ö, or back vowels such as i, u, a, o, for instance Turkish sev-il-dir-eme-mek "not to be able to cause to be loved" and jaz-il-dir-ama-mak "not to be able to cause to be written." Different dialects of course present slightly different rules for vocalic harmony. This harmony may further

influence the consonants, i.e., palatals in the neighbourhood of front vowels and velars in the neighbourhood of back vowels.

Word order is subject-object-verb; the verb always staying at the end of the sentence. Modifying words are placed before the modified.

A. Turkish.—This branch of the Altai family is found in China in Sinkiang, in the northwest corner of Mongolia, and in certain parts of Kansu. The Turkish dialects are divided into several groups, but the differences among them are slight. The eastern dialects are characterized by the wide application of the rules of vocalic harmony and by the existence of only surds in initial and final positions and only voiced consonants in medial positions. Dialects spoken in the northwest corner of Mongolia (Tannu Urianghai) belong to this group. The central dialects possess voiced initials and have an indifferer i in regard to vocalic harmony. They are chiefly found in Sinkiang, such as Tarantchi, dialects of Hami, of Aksu, of Kashgar, of Yarkand, etc. The dialects spoken in the northern part of Sinkiang, such as the Kirghiz, belong to the western group. The southern group of the Turkish dialects is not represented in China. Our oldest texts are some Siberian inscriptions from the 8th century, a Turkish-Arabic vocabulary from the 11th century, and a Latin-Persian-Turkish vocabulary from the 14th century. Several forms of writing have been known to be in use, including the Runiform, the Uigur, the Brahmi, the Tibetan, etc., but most dialects have adopted the Arabic alphabet on

account of the spread of Moham-medanism.

B. Mongolian.—The Mongolian language is centered in Mongolia and extends to Central Asia in the west, to Siberia in the north, and to the northern provinces in the south. We find here, as in Turkish, the use of suffixes; the vocalic harmony, although distorted in certain ways, is still observable. There are several divisions of the Mongolian, although the differences among them are very slight. The Khalkha group occupies a vast area in Outer Mongolia; the Buriat group is spoken chiefly in Siberia but also in certain parts in Northern Mongolia and in the western part of Heilungkiang; the Kalmuck group is spoken in Western Mongolia and in the northern part of Sinkiang; the southern (or eastern) group is found in Chahar, Suiyuan, Jehol, Ninghsia, and in some parts of the Northeastern Provinces; some Mongolian dialects are spoken in Chinghai and Kansu; another one is spoken outside of China in Afghanistan.

The difference among these groups is slight. The most important one lies in the treatment of the palatal affricates dz- and ts- of the literary Mongolian. The southern group preserved the palatal position, the Khalkha changes them to dz- and ts- except before i, the Buriat changes ts- into s-, and the Kalmuck changes dz- into z-.

The Mongols adopted the so-called Uigur alphabet in the 13th century. It is still in use now with slight modifications. It runs from the top to the bottom like the Chinese, but begins

from the left side of the page. During the 13th and the 14th centuries another alphabet known as the hphags-pa, derived from the Tibetan, was in use, but was soon discarded.

C. Tungus.—The Tungus branch is spoken in Eastern Siberia and found in Northeast China. An exact classification of the dialects is impossible on account of the lack of material. It is generally known to consist of two groups: the northern group and the

southern group. Manchu, Gold, Oroch, Dahur, and Solon, which form the southern group, are found in the provinces of Heilungkiang and Kirin. Manegir and Birar, of the northern group, are found in Heilungkiang also. Most of the northern group are spoken in Siberia. A small group of Manchu speakers is found also in Ili in Sinkiang, being the descendants of earlier Manchu garrisons.

RELIGION

CHI-HSIEN CHANG¹ (張 獻 亨)

RELIGIOUSLY the Chinese are very eclectic. In proportion to the total population the number of *bona fide* Buddhists, Taoists, or Christians, has been and is comparatively small. The average Chinese has long been and still is a Buddhist, a Confucianist, and a Taoist with no sense of incongruity or inconsistency.

Associated with this eclecticism is a certain tolerance. The existence of a greater amount of religious toleration in China may have been because the practically-minded Chinese have been eager to take advantage of every possible benefit from each of the religions which have come to their attention. It may have been because of the desire to build a mankind-embracing culture, and of the concomitant talent for absorbing other cultures.

Still another characteristic of Chinese religious life has been its optimism. There is little of the despair of human existence, of the pessimism about the worth of human life, and of the desire to be rid of personality which one finds in much of Indian thought.

Closely related with the optimistic attitude toward the universe is the strong ethical note in much of Chinese religion. Confucianism emphasizes man's duty to man and praises such virtues as loyalty, filial piety, sincerity, kindness, and not doing to another what one does not like to have done to

oneself. Buddhism has strongly re-enforced this ethical note and has taught that suffering is a certain consequence of unrighteousness. Taoism has also contributed toward making Chinese religion moral.

A further characteristic of the religious attitude of the Chinese has been this-worldliness. The welfare of the living has been stressed in the teachings of Confucius and his disciples.

Under the republic today there is no established religion, but under the Ch'ing dynasty and for many centuries before that period the Chinese Government used to recognize three religions: the *Ju Chiao*, the *Shih Chiao*, and the *Tao Chiao*. The last-named is Taoism. The term, *Shih Chiao*, is one applied to Buddhism. The words *Ju Chiao* mean the religion of the learned. Not infrequently it is called *Kung Chiao*, or "Confucian Religion." Mohammedanism and Christianity are of a later adoption. In the following pages each of the above-mentioned religions will be treated in some detail.

CONFUCIANISM

Confucianism is largely a Western name, although we speak of *Kung Chiao*—"Confucian teaching," or *Ju Chiao*—"teaching of the learned." Indeed, the question is sometimes debated whether Confucianism is a religion at all. To some it is but a system of ethics. Perhaps the answer

¹ The Editor.

depends in part upon a definition. If one calls religion "any system of faith and worship," then Confucianism may be said to contain religious elements, even though it includes other features.¹

To know what Confucianism is, it is essential to study its sacred books. These are commonly referred to as the "Four Books" and the "Five Classics." The "Four Books" are: (1) the "Analects," that is to say, the saying of Confucius as collected by his disciples; (2) the "Great Learning," a treatise written probably by Tseng-tse, a disciple of Confucius; (3) the "Doctrine of the Mean," by Tse-ssu, a grandson of the sage; and (4) the "Works of Mencius."

The "Five Classics" are: (1) the *Yi Ching*, or "Book of Changes," used in divination; (2) the *Shu Ching*, or "Book of History"; (3) the *Shih Ching*, or the "Collection of Poetry"; (4) the *Li Chi*, or "Book of Rites"; and (5) the *Ch'un Ch'iu*, or "Annals."

Another arrangement makes 13 in all instead of nine. This is done by including two other collections of "Annals" and two other collections of "Rites," also an ancient dictionary and the work known as the "Classic of Filial Piety." The "Doctrine of the Mean" and the "Great Learning" in that case are not counted, as they are included in the "Books of Rites."

Among the noteworthy sayings which fell from Confucius' lips, the following may be quoted as examples:

Do not unto others what you do

not like done unto yourself.

Sorrow not that men do not know you, but sorrow that you do not know men.

If you have faults, do not fear to abandon them.

To see the right and not do it, that is cowardice.

Overpassing is like coming short of the mark.

The influence of Confucianism has been largely beneficial. It has promoted peace and good order in society and encouraged moral living in the individual. It has allowed the widest latitude in philosophical speculation. It places no obstacle in the way of research nor prevents the acceptance of the conclusions of modern science.

As a religion, Confucianism has no order of priesthood, that is to say, there is no body of officials set apart from secular life, devoted solely to the performance of religious functions. The emperor, in the days of the empire, was the head of the state, and officiated as the high priest of his people at the most important sacrifices. Every civil and military officer of the Government had duties to perform in connection with the state worship. In the provinces the principal civil official of the district presided over the services at the local altars and temples.² His subordinates assisted, and at the worship of Confucius all the scholars of the district, who had received degrees, were expected to participate. There was, however, a Board of Rites at

¹ It is by no means clear whether what is usually known as the worship of ancestors should be classified under Confucianism, since the erection of temples and the holding of ceremonies in honour of ancestors long antedated Confucius.

² Every territorial division, such as the *hsien*, the city, and the province has a Confucian Temple, usually known as the *Kung Miao*, the *Wen Miao*, or *Hsueh Kung*. Especially famous temples are at K'üfow, the home of the Sage, where a lineal male descendant maintains ceremonies to him and cares for his grave.

Peking (Peiping), charged with general oversight of religion and education, and there were also a Court of Sacrificial Worship and a Board of Music, which were responsible for the details of the worship. The Imperial College of Astronomy, too, had important functions to discharge in connection with the religious services.

On May 31, 1934, the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang designated August 27, the birthday of Confucius, as a national holiday, and ordained that senior officials of the Government should participate in the sacrificial ceremonies at K'üfow. In recent years, this anniversary has been celebrated also as Teachers' Day.

National Confucian Association.

With the aims of "expounding the teachings of Confucius, promoting original Chinese ethics and culture as a means of rejuvenating the nation, and propagating the ideas of cosmopolitanism for the attainment of permanent international peace," a National Confucian Association was founded at the end of 1942 by celebrities of the country. Included in its board of directors are Messrs. H. H. Kung, Wu Chin-heng, Chang Chi, Chen Li-fu, Ho Chien, Tsou Lu, Ku Meng-yu and Huang Yen-pei. Headquarters of the association locates at the National capital, while branch associations are being established at the various provinces and districts.

Among the activities of the association may be mentioned the following: (1) Studying the fundamentals of national culture, (2) Expounding the essence of Confucian teachings, (3) Interchanging Eastern and Western culture, (4) Compiling and publishing literature concerning Confucian teachings, (5) Reorganizing old Confucian

literature, (6) Providing lectureships on Confucian teachings and (7) Establishing Confucian research institutions.

TAOISM

Taoism as a Philosophy.—Taoism is both a philosophy and a religion. As a philosophy it is traced to Lao-tse, who was born in 604 B.C. near the modern city of Kweiteh, Honan. He was a profound thinker, a political philosopher of keen insight, and an ethical teacher of very higher order. He did not pose as a saint, had no thought of founding a religion, and could have had no sympathy with the modern conglomeration of shamanism, sorcery, astrology, necromancy, demon-altry, and magic which passes for a religion. It was not until 700 years after his death that he was canonized and that a temple was built for his worship.

In the *Tao Te Ching*, a classic commonly attributed to his authorship, the Taoist philosophy finds its roots. The book treats of two subjects, *tao* and *te*. *Tao* is the fundamental principle of the philosophy which it teaches, and *te* is the practical exemplification of that principle in conduct. *Tao* means the "way." *Te* is commonly translated "virtue." When one walks in the "way" the result is right conduct, or virtue.

Lao-tse began his work with a brief discussion of the one great problem of philosophy: to discover the unity underlying all diversity, and changeless that lies behind all change, the infinite surrounding the finite, the eternal principle of the universe. This he called *Tao*. In the first chapter of the book he said:

The eternal principle which lies behind the phenomenal world is undefinable. Undefined, it lies at the

beginning of the universe. To define it is to limit it. As the source of the whole world it is defined. It limits itself. Free from all attributes it is seen as the Absolute. Possessed of attributes it is seen as limited. These two, the Absolute and the Limited, have a common origin. Their common origin we call the abyss. It is indeed the abyss of abysses and the doorway of all mystery.

In his political theories Lao-tse seemed to be a philosophical anarchist. This would hardly be a fair judgment, however, for while he sought to reduce government to the minimum he did not deny that government was needed. "The holy man's method of government," he said, "is to empty the people's hearts and fill their stomachs; to weaken their desires and strengthen their bones." For him the welfare of the people was the true object of government. He disliked, however, to see the people struggling for wealth and official position and taking in display. "The lust of the flesh, the lust of the eye, and the pride of life" were things he condemned. "Riches, honour, and pride," he said, "leave a heritage of ill fortune." "Horse-racing and hunting disorder the mind, and the scramble for wealth mars the character of man." He did not think, however, that matters were to be improved by legislation, for he said: "The more warnings and prohibitions there are in the world, the poorer the people become." "The more laws and commands there are, the greater the number of thieves and robbers." Therefore, the holy man says: "I do nothing and men themselves reform; I suppress desire and men themselves become simple in their tastes."

"Do nothing," was his motto—"Do

nothing, and all will be done." He loved paradox. "The *Tao* is ever inactive, yet there is nothing which it does not accomplish." "Whosoever endeavors, fails; he who seizes, loses. The holy man does nothing, so fails in nothing. He seizes nothing and, therefore, loses nothing. He desires to be free from desire, and not to prize things that are hard to get." Again he said: "There is no sin greater than desire; there is no misfortune greater than not to know when one has enough. There is no fault greater than greed of gain." This policy of suppressing desire and allowing things to take their course, he believed to be the way of nature—the way of the *Tao*. He taught that gentleness would accomplish more than force. Real goodness he likened to water, which seeks the lowly place and benefits all sorts of creatures. "There is nothing more yielding than water, but nothing can equal it in attacking the hard." "Weakness conquers strength; the soft overcomes the hard."

Lao-tse was an altruist, for he said: "The holy man keeps himself in the background, and therefore, he comes to the front. He puts self aside, and therefore, his own interests are preserved." He rises to a greater height than Confucius. The latter opposed the teaching that one should return good for evil. "What, then, will you return for good?" he said. Lao-tse, on the other hand, said: "I am good to the good; I am also good to the bad, for virtue is goodness. With the faithful I am faithful; with the unfaithful I am also faithful: for virtue is faithfulness." "Requite enmity with kindness." He hated war. "Even the best weapons," he said, "are unlucky instruments. They are not the instruments of the perfect man. Only

when unavoidable does he use them."

By his philosophy he sought to make men masters of themselves. Thus he taught as follows: "Whosoever knows men is knowing, but he who knows himself has understanding. He who subdues others is strong, but he who conquers self is mighty. He who knows sufficiency is rich." But the method by which one attains this self-control is not to be a method imposed upon one from without by laws and commands. It is the self-determined choice of the soul, which, knowing *Tao* to be the source of all things and the only true way of life, seeks to live in harmony with that living word and to walk in that high way.

Beside the *Tao Te Ching*, a widely revered work, of which the authorship is unknown and copies have been gratuitously distributed, is the *Kan Ying Pien*, "Book of Rewards and Punishments." In this piece of literature a high standard of morality is taught which re-enforces much of that inculcated by Confucianism and Buddhism. The following are some of its beautiful passages:

There are no gateways to calamity or blessing save those which men open for themselves. The recompense of good and evil follow as naturally as the shadow follows the substance.

Enter the right path; avoid the wrong path. Do not walk in the way of evil.

Be compassionate, towards all creatures.

First correct yourself, and then convert others.

Have pity upon the orphaned; assist the widow; respect the aged; be kind to children.

Be grieved by the misfortunes of others and rejoice in their good luck.

Do not publish the faults of others nor praise your own goodness.

Bear insult without hatred; accept kindness as unexpected; bestow charity without seeking reward; give to men without regret.

The greatest of Lao-tse's disciples was Chuang-tse, the great idealist who lived in the fourth century B.C. He was a contemporary of Mencius, but the two men do not appear to have met.

After the passing of Chuang-tse, the Taoist philosophy began to degenerate. Men of smaller mind than Chuang-tse could not live in the rarefied atmosphere in which he delighted. They came down to lower levels. Forgetting the lofty ethics of Lao-tse, some of them fastened upon what he had written about caring for the animal soul and regulating the *ch'i*, or "vital vapour," and sought by a regimen of mental and physical calisthenics to rejuvenate themselves. By holding the breath (which is called *ch'i*), by preserving the bodily secretions, and by suppression of desire, by retirement from the world, avoidance of all violent emotions, and the cultivation of passivity, they thought to attain to immortality.

Others gave to the *Tao* and its operations a physical instead of a metaphysical interpretation. They found in it the final substance out of which all things are made. Chuang-tse's idealism, which reconciled all contradictions in a higher unity, which identified all diversities in the all-pervading one, was transformed into the grossest sort of materialism, in accordance with which all substances were considered as modifications of the one original matter. They reasoned that as a base of all the various metals there must exist a common substance, from

which any or all of them can by manipulation be produced. Thus, one might take a quantity of lead and, by divesting it of certain qualities, reach the primal substance, which, by the addition of other qualities could be converted into gold. So alchemy was born.

Taoism as a Religion.—As early as the middle of the second century A.D. Taoism had ceased to be a philosophy only, and had become a religion as well. In A.D. 166 a temple was erected to Lao-tse. The old philosopher became a god. Chang Liang, who retired from office when the founder of the Han dynasty died (194 B.C.), was declared to have been one of the patriarchs of the Taoist sect, and his descendant in the eighth generation (A.D. 34), Chang Tao-ling, who was declared to have lived to be 123 years of age, was proclaimed as the first Taoist pope. From that day to this the descendants of this Chang Tao-ling have held the headship of the sect. In A.D. 423 the emperor conferred upon the pope of that day the title of *Tien Shih* or "Heavenly Preceptor." In A.D. 748 the papal authority was limited to members of the family of Chang Tao-ling, and in 1016 the pope was granted a large domain in the province of Kiangsi. The White Deer Grotto, on the Dragon-Tiger Mountain, was the papal seat. This, in fact, was the home of Chang Tao-ling, and it was here, according to tradition, that he discovered the elixir of immortality. After reaching the age of 123 years, it was said, he ascended to Heaven, bequeathing the secret to his son.

At present, the only individuals who can in the strict sense be termed Taoists

are the professionals, or *tao shih*. Some of them are anchorites who through meditation and ascetic practices seek immortality. Others are celibates living in monastic communities. However, the majority of *tao shih* marry and do not live in communities but in their own homes and support their families on fees received for saying services for the dead.

BUDDHISM¹

China has been and doubtless still is an important centre of Buddhism. She possesses the greatest number of Buddhist texts and has had a glorious history of Buddhist development. Indeed, Buddhism has exercised a strong influence over Chinese art, literature, thought and customs. Before the present war, there were in the Chinese provinces more than 267,000 Buddhist temples and 738,000 Bhikkus (monks) and Bhikkunis (nuns), while the number of Upasakas and Upasikas (laymen and laywomen who have taken five vows) was five times more.

Wartime Buddhist Activities: Relief Work.—Following the outbreak of hostilities, the Buddhist monks, though exempted from military training, were to take part in the various relief services. As a matter of fact, first-aid corps composed of young monks had been organized in Shanghai in 1936 under the auspices of the China Buddhist Association, and later similar units were formed in Chekiang and Kiangsi. As soon as the Shanghai war broke out, the Buddhist first-aid corps were engaged in front line duties. Their gallantry and devotion to duty under enemy fire were reflected in the high tribute paid to them at that time

by both the Chinese and foreign press.

In the meantime, student monks of the Chao-an, Chu-lin, and Chiao-shan Buddhist institutes of Chinkiang as well as the Chueh-ching Buddhist Institute of Huaiyin engaged themselves in nursing work in field and base hospitals for wounded soldiers and took an active part in troop comforting.

Ere long the call to duty sounded throughout the land and various Buddhist patriotic organizations in one form or another sprang up like mushrooms. The Chi-hsia Temple of Nanking and the Kuang-hsiao Temple of Taichow converted themselves into refugee centres, where over a 100,000 war refugees were received and fed. First-aid corps were formed by such Buddhist organizations as the Han-Tsang Chiao Li Yuan, the Szechuen provincial Buddhism association, the Buddhist Cheng Hsin Hui of Hankow, and the Canton Buddhism association, which won nationwide recognition for its famous Golden Swastika first-aid corps.

With the fall of Hankow the Buddhist first-aid corps from Shanghai made their way to Sian, where they formed the Northwest Buddhist first-aid corps, while monks in Kunming and Ningpo underwent training for the same work. Buddhist monks took part in relief work during the severe bombing of Chungking by the Japanese in 1939 and 1940 won the commendation of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek for bravery.

All the activities cited above were voluntary efforts made by the Buddhist monks themselves. Only recently has the Ministry of Interior started a campaign to train monks all over the country for first-aid work. Under the plan, Chungking will be a model training centre and similar work will

be carried out throughout Free China. Since the Government has taken over the matter itself, greater results are expected.

Propaganda Work.—Experienced monks, whose life work has been the propagating of faith, are generally good propagandists. At present, they have turned their experiences to the urgent need of awakening the masses to the country's cause. Among those who have made outstanding contributions to this important work are the Hunan Nanyueh monks service corps, student monks of the Chao-an and Chueh-ching temples, and the China Buddhist association, the last named being the first Buddhist organization to move to Chungking with the National Government.

Especially fruitful in practical work was the propaganda campaign launched in the Yunnan-Burma area by the Buddhist association. In 1942, Buddhist organizations in the country, in response to the appeal of the Government, started a airplane fund campaign, the results of which were very gratifying.

In the field of propaganda literature, Buddhists have also left their mark. The *Hai Chao Yin*, a monthly publication that has for the past 20 years held the unique position of being the most influential of all Buddhist publications in China, has spared no efforts in the last six years in strengthening the spirit of the Chinese monks and in arousing the sympathies of foreign Buddhists towards China's cause. Other Buddhist publications that have played an important part in the publicity field are as follows: the *Buddhist Daily* (before the fall of Shanghai), the *Golden Swastika* and the *Cheng Hsin Weekly* (before the fall of Canton and Hankow), the

¹ Translated by Mr. Chang-Chen-hual (張 陳 華) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs from information in Chinese furnished by Abbot Tai Hsu (太 虛)

Buddhist News Weekly (of Chungking and Chengtu), the *Chueh Yin* (before the fall of Hongkong), and the recently published *Jen Chien Fu Chiao* (of Chekiang), the *Buddhism Critic* (of Chengtu), the *Lion's Roar Monthly* (of Kweilin), the *Keng Huang Monthly* (before the fall of Rangoon) and the *Chueh Pao Fortnightly* (of Shensi).

Prayers for Victory.—Buddhists throughout the country and lamas in Sikang, Chinghai, Tibet and Mongolia have prayed from time to time for the salvation of the country and for freeing the country from calamities. Winning public acclaim were special prayers held all over the country under the auspices of Buddhist monks in the wartime capital and received the patronage of President Lin Sen, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, President Tai Chi-tao of the Examination Yuan and other leaders in different walks of life.

Overseas Good-will Mission.—Deserving special mention is the Chinese Buddhist Good-will Mission, which under the sponsorship of the Government spent over a year visiting Burma, India, Ceylon, Malaya, Thailand, French Indo-China and other countries. As a result of the visit, the mission won millions of whole-hearted sympathizers for China. The Burmese and Indian good-will missions to China were also the fruits of the visit of the mission. This exchange of good-will has further cemented the bonds of friendship between China and these two countries.

Buddhist Organizations in Chungking.—The following is a list of the principal Buddhist organizations in

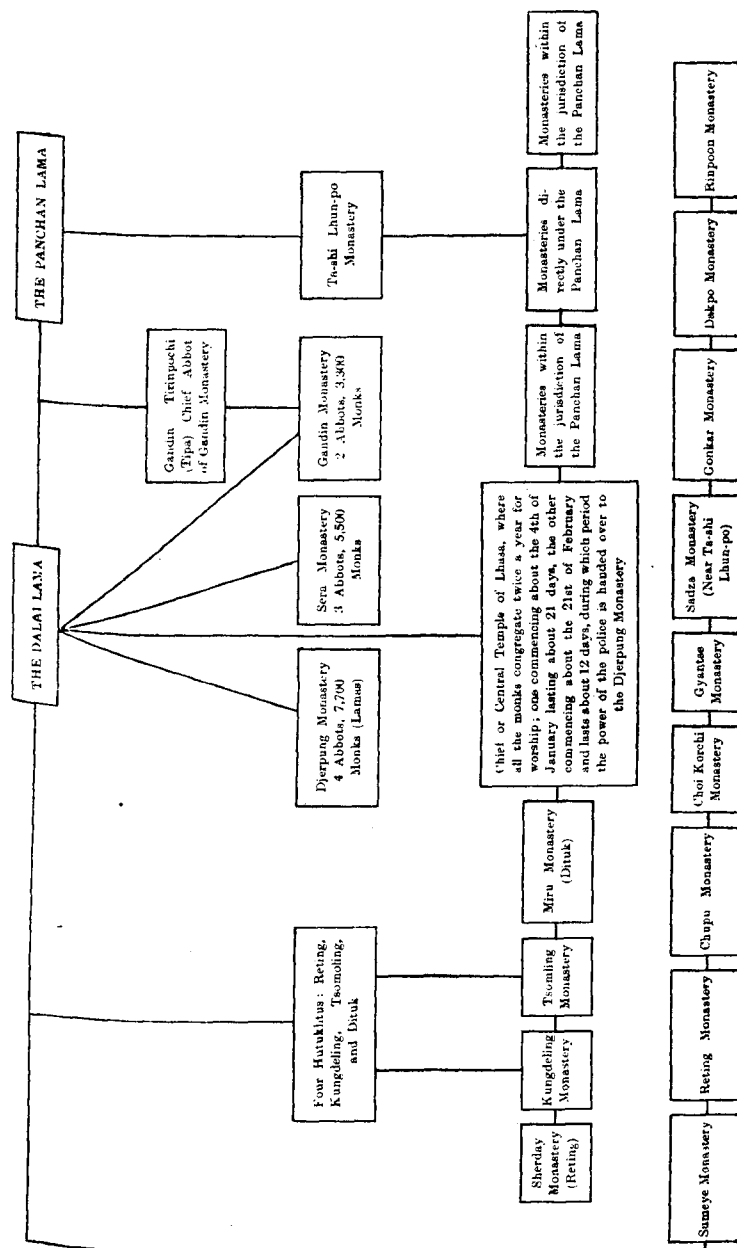
the wartime capital:

Name of Organization	Head of Organization
China Buddhist Association	... Tai Hsu
Han-Tsang Chiao Li Yuan	... Tai Hsu
Buddhist Monks Relief Corps	... Chueh Tung
Hai Chao Yin Monthly	... Tai Hsu
Buddhist Tzu-Chi Hospital	... Chung I-ting
Pu-i Primary School	... Tsung Hsien
Chungking Buddhist Association	... Ting Chiu
Ta Hsiung Middle School	... Wu Tzu-i
Buddhist National Salvation Association	... Chen Chi-tsai
Chungking Buddhist Institute	... Pen Chang-yu

LAMAISM

Lamaism is a form of Buddhism believed chiefly by peoples of Tibet and Mongolia. In Tibet, Buddhism was introduced from India in the seventh century, A.D. In the course of time it emerged into the Red Sect, which flourished in the Yuan dynasty; but it soon underwent a period of decline through its association with mysticism and black magic. Under the Ming dynasty, a saint named Zunkava instituted the order of lamas known as the Yellow Sect and restored the original faith. In addition to the Red and the Yellow Sects, there are the Black and the White Sects, but the Yellow Sect is the most powerful in both Tibet and Mongolia. The first lamas of this sect after Zunkava were the Dalai Lama, the Panchan Lama and the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu, who formed the trinity of lama saints. By means of reincarnations, they are said to have existed up to the present. When the last-mentioned Hutukhtu was reincarnated in Mongolia and later went to live at Urga, the influence of the Yellow Sect began to spread to all Mongolia.

The Dalai Lama is the spiritual head of Tibet and next to him is the Panchan Lama, although in religious ranking the Panchan Lama is the equal of the former. Directly under the Dalai



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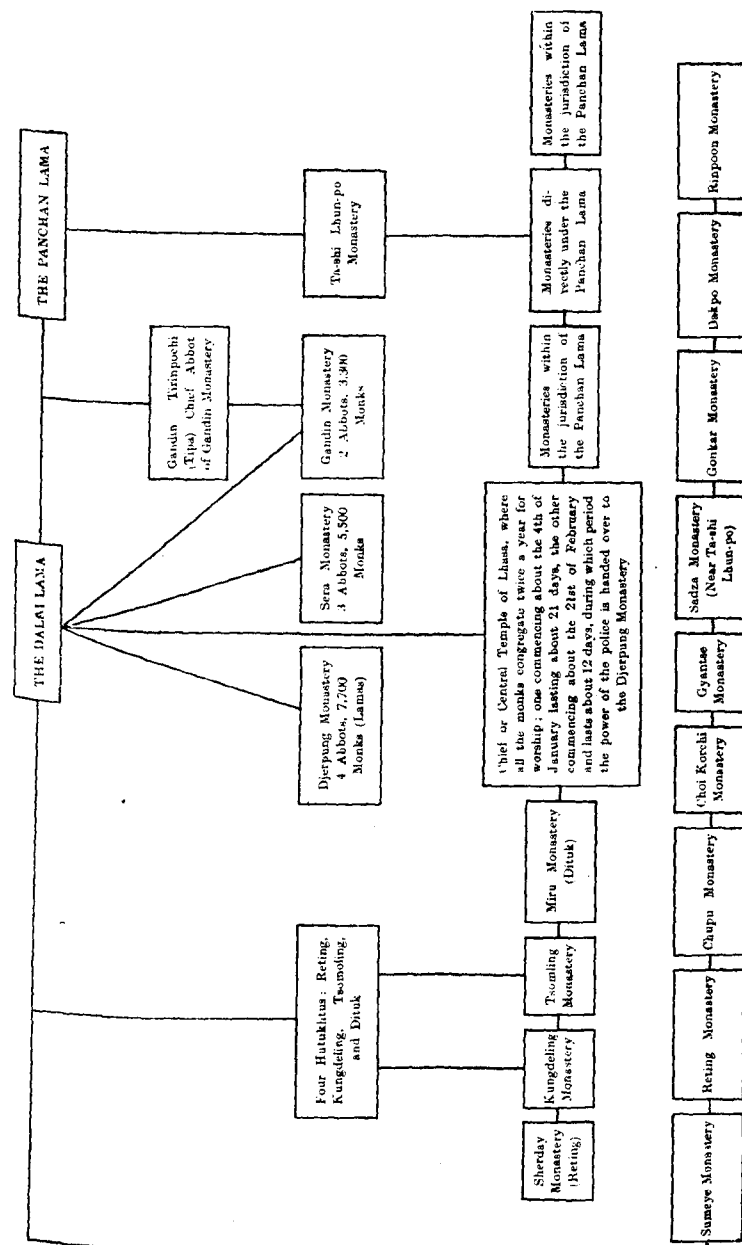
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Lama are three great monasteries in and around the Holy City of Lhasa, namely, the Dierpung (Drepung) Monastery with four abbots and 7,700 lamas, the Sera Monastery with three abbots and 5,500 lamas, and the Gandin (Ganden) Monastery with two abbots and 3,300 lamas. Among the three monasteries the Dierpung is the largest, but the Gandin is the most influential, because the chief abbot residing there is next to the Dalai and Panchan Lamas in rank. Under the Panchan Lama is the Ta-shi Lhun-po Monastery and numerous smaller ones. In addition there are four Hutukhtus, each of whom occupies a monastery either under his name or in some other name. Reting, one of the four Hutukhtus, had been chosen since 1933 as Acting Dalai Lama until the final enthronement of the 14th Dalai Lama in February, 1940. In the Central Temple of Lhasa, lamas from all parts of Tibet meet together for the great religious festival immediately following the Tibetan New Year. Smaller monasteries are too numerous to name, those shown in the accompanying chart being only some of the more important ones.

In Mongolia, Lamaism began to flourish at the time of Kublai Khan, who, for political reasons, took this religion under his protection. Likewise, the Ming and Manchu dynasties utilized it to achieve similar ends. Knowing the Mongols to be ardent believers of Lamaism and realizing that the lamas exercised an immense influence over the Mongol princes, the Manchu emperors contrived to please the lamas by exalting their system of worship. This explains the existence of numerous imposing lamaseries and lesser temples in Peiping, Jehol,

Dolonor, Wutai Shan, and other places.

ISLAM¹

Origin.—Mohammedanism, like all the other great religions, had its inception in Asia. It was founded by Mohammed in Arabia and gradually spread abroad until today it is a world-wide religion and is the prevailing religion in southwestern Asia and northern Africa. Its following is estimated at 300,000,000 and out of this number some 48,000,000 are Chinese. The real name of this religion is Islam, the name assigned to it by its founder. In China it is commonly known as the religion of the *Huis*.

Advent into China.—According to Chinese history, Islam made its advent in this country in the year 628 of the Gregorian calendar during the Tang dynasty, but in Islamic history the date is A.D. 651, when the governments of the Muslim nations began to pay their tributes to the Tang emperor. Thereafter the religion gradually gained a following in China simultaneously with the growth of commerce. During the past 1,300 years, the number of Muslims in China had increased from a few thousand to nearly 50,000,000 at present.

Islam was introduced to China *via* two routes; from south by sea and from west by land. The water route starts from the Arabian Sea, passes through the Indian Ocean and the Strait of Malacca and reaches the coastal provinces of Kwangtung, Fukien, and Chekiang. The magnificent mosques in these three provinces are the best evidence of the greatness of Islam in these early days. The Huai Sheng Mosque in Canton was the first Mohammedan house of worship built in China. Later on the Muslims

DISTRIBUTION OF MOHAMMEDANS AND MOSQUES IN CHINA

Province	No. of Persons	No. of Mosques
Siukiang	2,350,950	2,045
Kansu	3,518,920	3,891
Ninghsia	753,400	655
Chinghai	1,186,590	1,031
Three Eastern Provinces	7,533,680	6,570
Jehol	278,950	241
Suiyuan	384,620	253
Chahar	195,950	175
Hopel	3,379,410	2,942
Honan	3,094,800	2,703
Shensi	4,129,090	3,612
Shansi	1,589,570	1,931
Shantung	2,890,430	2,513
Yunnan	4,568,290	3,971
Kweichow	519,160	449
Szechuen	2,615,330	2,275
Kwangsi	280,180	429
Kwangtung	558,450	201
Hunan	1,302,900	932
Hupoh	1,587,080	1,134
Kiangsi	286,590	205
Chekiang	357,300	239
Anhui	2,288,580	1,515
Kiangsu	1,903,170	1,302
Fukien	471,750	157
TOTAL	48,104,240	42,371

came to China by the overland route through Persia and Afghanistan into Sinkiang and from there gradually made their way eastward and settled in the northwestern provinces of China, particularly in Shensi and Kansu. In A.D. 755 the Caliph Abu Gafar sent an expedition of 4,000 Arabian soldiers to China at the request of the Chinese Government to assist in the quelling of a rebellion and they rendered meritorious service in that connection. Most of these soldiers remained in China, and some of the Mohammedans of today are their direct descendants.

Early Intercourses.

—The Arabians are great traders and navigators and are encouraged by their government to engage in commercial and marine pursuits. During their heyday they practically controlled the carrying trade and commerce between Europe, Asia, and Africa, and went as far south as the South Sea Islands of Sumatra and Borneo. Confining their activities to commerce and religious propagation, they were free from political or territorial ambitions. From the South Seas these mariners and traders came to China, where they were well received. Many of these Arabians became port officials and collectors of Customs at different ports of China and were instrumental in the promotion of trade between China and the foreign states. The majority of the residents in Amoy and Chuanchow having the surname of Pu are said to be the direct descendants of these Muslim officials.

Early in the Ming dynasty, the famous envoy Cheng Ho, alias San Pao, son of Hadj Mohammed Ma of Yunnan, was for 25 years in southern Asia, having made seven trips as far as Arabia.

Islam under the Manchu Rule.

—Although the number of Mohammedans did not diminish under the Manchu rule, their activities were greatly curtailed with the succession of the Manchus to the Chinese throne. The oppressive policies of "divide and rule" of the new rulers were not conducive to the development of Islamism. It was only during the last years of the liberal Emperor Kuang Hsü that a Mohammedan delegate, Wang Hoajang, made a trip to Turkey and obtained an audience with the Sultan Abdul Hamid II who, as the Caliph, was the supreme head of the mosques. As a result of this visit several high-

¹ Data furnished by the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation.

ranking Muslims were sent to China to preach the principles of Mohammed, to improve the educational system among the Muslims and to establish primary schools for the Mussulman children.

Islam under the Republic.—After the establishment of the Republic, the Chinese Muslim Mutual Progress Association was formed for uniting all the Muslims in the different localities to promote the interests both of the nation and of the religion. Branches of the association were formed in every Chinese community wherein the association was able to set up primary schools for Muslim children. It also devoted its best efforts towards the establishment of normal schools, publication of magazines, and general improvement of the condition of Muslims.

Later the Chinese Islamic Educational Association was formed. Among the activities of the institution have been the translation of the Koran into Chinese, the establishment of Islamic normal schools, the despatch of students to Cairo for advance study, the petitioning of the ruler of Egypt to send learned Sheikhs to China to teach Arabic language and other branches of learning, the importation of Koran and other Islamic literature from India, Egypt, Mecca, and Turkey to China and the conduct of meetings, which are open to the general public, at regular intervals and at regular places to preach the precepts of Islamism. A renaissance of Islam in China may be said to have been instituted.

Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation.—After the outbreak of the present hostilities, the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation was immediately organized to parti-

cipate more effectively in the war of resistance. Under the guidance of General Pai Chung-hsi, Deputy Chief of General Staff, the federation undertakes (1) to perform international publicity work, (2) to help in propaganda at home, (3) to encourage the recruitment and training of Muslim military officers, (4) to organize Muslim war service corps, (5) to promote Muslim education, (6) to expound the essence of Islam and improve the administrative conditions of the mosques, (7) to encourage Muslims to engage in productive industries, (8) to participate in relief work, and (9) to foster Muslim women activities.

The head office of the federation is situated at Chungking. Branch offices are established in the various provinces, hsien, towns and villages. The following is a list of the existing provincial branch offices:

<i>Provincial Office</i>	<i>Secretary-General</i>
Yunnan ...	Ma T'sung
Kweichow ...	Tung Yu-hua
Shensi ...	Ma Ping-pu
Kansu ...	Yang Te-liang
Honan ...	Liang Kuang-fu
Shansi ...	Ma Chun
Chinghai ...	Ma Chi
Suiyuan ...	Ma Ping-jen
Ninghsia ...	Ma Hung-kuei
Szechuen ...	Ma Ju-chih
Anhui ...	Ha Fu-kuei
Kiangsi ...	Liu-Fu-yuan
Hupoh ...	Wei Cheng-yung
Fukien ...	Kuo Chao-peng
Sikang ...	Yu Kuang-hsin
Kwangsi ...	Ma Chi-pang
Hopei ...	Ma Huan-wen

Good-Will Missions.—With a view to developing closer diplomatic, commercial, cultural and religious relations with the nations of the Near East and with the South Seas countries, the

Chinese Muslim Near East Good-Will Mission, led by Mr. Wang Tseng-shan, and the Chinese Islamic South Asia Good-Will Delegation, headed by Mr. Ma Tien-ying, were sent out to the respective regions in 1938 and 1939. Details of their trips and the gratifying results achieved by them have been narrated in the fifth issue of this year book (pp. 78-79).

Islamic Education.—In 1939, upon the petition of the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation, the National Government decided to make the study of Islamic culture a regular feature in the curricula of China's leading institutions of higher learning. With the addition of the new courses, the National Central, the National Yunnan, and National Southwest Associated universities are having more Muslim students, who are being admitted by recommendation of the Ministry of Education or of the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation and exempted from the entrance examinations.

Abroad there are at present tens of Chinese Muslim students studying in the Azhar University of Egypt. Formerly granted special scholarships by King Farouk, these students are now receiving annual allowances from the Chinese Ministry of Education.

Of the Islamic institutions of education in China, the more important ones are: the Peiping Cheng Ta Normal School, now at Kweilin; the Shanghai Islam Normal School, now at Pingliang of Kansu and renamed National Lung-tung Normal School; the Ming Teh Middle School of Kunming; the Sining Middle School of Chinghai, and the Peiping North-West Middle School, now at Chengtu and Lanchow. The number of Islamic primary schools established in recent years totals some 300.

Translation of the Koran into Chinese.—In the early days of Islam in China no attempt was made to translate the Koran into the Chinese language and the teaching of tenets of Islam was undertaken by those who were thoroughly conversant with the Arabic language. It was in the reign of the Emperor Tung Chih that a translation of this holy book into Chinese was made by Mr. Ma Kung-fu. This translation comprised 20 volumes but unfortunately 15 of these were lost and only five were left to posterity. These five precious volumes were not published until 1927. Up to the present, efforts have been continued to complete the translation.

Islamic Publications.—The Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation publishes the "Muslim Culture" and "Hui Pao"; the Cheng Ta Normal School edits the "Jelal Gedid" monthly; and the Ming Teh Middle School publishes the "Ching Chen Tao Pao." Other notable publications include the "Islam Forum" and the "Islam Youth."

Prominent Muslims.—Among the distinguished Chinese Muslims the following may be mentioned: General Pai Chung-hsi, President of the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation, Deputy Chief of General Staff of the Chinese Army and Chief of the Board of Military Training of the National Military Council; General Ma Hung-kuei, Chairman of the Ninghsia Provincial Government; General Ma Pufang, Chairman of the Chinghai Provincial Government; Dr. Mai-szu-wu-te, State Councilor; Mr. Shih Tzu-chou, Member of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang; and Mr. Ha Te-cheng, an ardent devotee of Islamism.

Shantung	Lintsing	Gaspar Hu	1931
	Yangku	Thomas Tien	1934
Shansi	Fenyang	Francis Lien	1930
	Hungtung	Peter Ch'en	1932
Shensi	Chowchih	John Chang	1932
	Fengsiang	Silvester Wang	1933
Kiangsu	Haimen	Simon Tsu	1926
	Nanking	Paul Yu	1936
Honan	Chumation	Peter Wang	1933
	Hsiyang	V. Chang	1942
Szechuen	Shanking	Paul Wang	1930
	Wanhien	Francis Wang	1930
	Kiating	Fabien Yu	1936
Hupeh	Puchi	Joseph Chang	1929
	Sianyang	Francis Y	1936
	Enshih	—	1941
Chekiang	Taichow	Joseph Hu	1926
Kwangtung	Canton	Boniface Yang	1931
Yunnan	Chaotung	—	—

In October, 1926, acting on his plan to create a native governing body wherever possible, Pope Pius XI elevated at Rome the first six Chinese priests to the episcopacy. Subsequently a further number has been consecrated. The table above lists these vicars and prefects apostolic as well as the territory under their jurisdiction.

On the Christmas eve of 1941 the Chinese Catholic Cultural Association was founded, with Bishop Paul Yu and Rev. Father Maur Fan-Hao as directors.

Educational Works.—Before the present Japanese invasion the educational enterprise of the Catholic church in China used to be crowned by three institutions of higher learning: the Catholic University of Peiping, the "Hautes Etudes" in Tientsin, and the Aurora University in Shanghai.

SECONDARY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1941

Nature of Schools	No. of Students
Middle Schools	20,177
Vocational Schools	666
Preachers Training Schools	1,326
Senior Primary Schools	38,327
Junior Primary Schools	195,427

Among the Church's notable contributions in the intellectual sphere may be mentioned the Musee Heude in Shanghai, the Peikiang Museum in Tientsin, the Zikawei Library in Shanghai, the Peitang Library in Peiping, and the Zikawei Observatory in Shanghai.

Publications.—Before the Japanese invasion, the Catholic mission used to publish a large number of periodicals. At present, the following are in circulation: *Yi Shih Pao*, *Sacred Heart*, *Hsin Nan Hsing*, *The Lumen Service*, *Shih Kuang*, and *Life of Catholic Friends*.

CHARITABLE WORKS: (1941)

Nature of Institutions	No. of Institutions	No. of Beneficiaries
Orphanages:	40	
Orphans admitted		24,137
Orphans fed		73,671
Hospitals	282	103,703
Dispensaries	908	10,427,772

The Catholic Mission and the War:

Destruction of Catholic Lives and Properties.—The Catholic missions suffered heavily from the ruthless bombings of the Japanese. A large number of churches, chapels, residences, schools, and hospitals have been destroyed, plundered, burned, or occupied. Not a few of the bishops, priests, sisters, and Catholics have been molested, wounded, or even killed by the invading troops or by aerial bombings.

CATHOLIC PROPERTY LOSSES, 1937-1942

Province	Vicariate	City or Town	Date	Specification
Ninghsia	Ninghsia	Sanshengkung	Dec. 29, 1938	Church 2 bombs, girls' school 2 bombs, hospital 4 bombs, houses 4 bombs.
Hopei	Paoting	Paoting	Aug., 1937	Bishop's house, cathedral, rectories, all destroyed.
		Tsingyuan	Aug., 1937	Hospital 6 bombs.
	Siensien	Changkiaschwang	Sept. 23, 1937	Jesuit Mothers' house, more than 30 bombs; hospital, girls' dormitory, chapel, church rectories destroyed.
		Chengting	Aug., 1937	Church, residence 2 bombs.
		Peiping	Aug. 21, 1938	Church bombed.
Shantung	Taming	Kienchwang	—	Church, refugee centre robbed.
	Yengchow	Tenghsien	March 12, 1938	Church 4 bombs, destroyed.
	Welhaiwei	Wenteng	May, 1938	Church destroyed.
		Hokiateng	Feb., 1939	5 houses burned.
	Chefoo	Chefoo	Feb. 1939	Printing shop searched.
	Lini	Lini	March 16, 1938	Church, more than 20 houses bombed by 10 bombs.
Shansi	Tatung	Tatung	—	Church badly damaged.
		Tienchen	—	Church houses destroyed and robbed.
		Lingkin	—	Church, houses ruined.
Shensi	Taijyuan	Suankangchen	—	Church robbed, burned.
	Tungchow	Tungchow	Dec., 1938	20 houses bombed.
	Shan	Shan	March 7, 1939	2 churches bombed.
	Hanchung	Hanchung	Oct. 25, 1939	Cathedral bombed.
Kiangsu	Shanghai	Shanghai	Oct. 30, 1939	Cathedral bombed.
		Lokhatze	Aug., 1937	Sacred Heart Hospital, Yangtze-poo, 4 bombs; technical school partially destroyed; Hongkew institute damaged.
		Chiangkialou	—	Church, houses destroyed.
		Kienkahang	—	Church, school houses destroyed. Church badly damaged.

CATHOLICISM ¹

History.—The history of the Catholic Church in China may be said to have started in the 13th century under the Yuan dynasty, when the Franciscan missionaries were sent out from Rome to the far distant Middle Kingdom. Among the noted arrivals may be mentioned Fathers Jean de Plan-Carpin and Guillaume de Ruysbroeck. Besides introducing the Catholic doctrine to the Imperial palace, the missionaries managed to establish in various parts of the empire 20 churches, the more important of which were found in Yangchow, Hangchow, Chuanchow, and Canton, the famous church of Khambalick being built in 1299.

Prior to the advent of the Franciscan missionaries, the Nestorian Sect, who did not represent the Catholic faith in its original purity, had come to China during the Tang dynasty, as was testified by the stone slab discovered at Sian, Shensi, in 1625, during the reign of Tien Chi of the Ming dynasty. On the other hand, the terms Ye-li-ke-wen meaning three different things—Christianity, Christians, or priests—in different texts, and "Cross-religion" or "Cross-pagoda" as appeared in historical documents have not been

considered important information on the history of Catholicism in China.

Although the Franciscans had made a good start in their efforts to propagate the religion, it was not until the coming of the Jesuits during the declining years of the Ming dynasty that a permanent footing for the Catholic faith was established. By their masterly attainment in science and medicine, Jesuit fathers such as Michael Ruggieri, Matteo Ricci, J. Adam Scholl von Bell, Ferdinand Verbiest, etc., won prestige and patronage for the faith at the Imperial courts of the last Ming and first Ch'ing emperors. Since the middle of the 19th century the Catholic religion in China has experienced a period of progress and expansion.

GENERAL STATISTICS, JULY, 1940
TO JUNE, 1941

Vicars and Prefects Apostolic	...	140
Priests, Chinese	...	2,191
Priests, Foreign	...	3,163
Seminarists, Chinese	...	6,823
Religious, Chinese	...	—
Religious, Foreign	...	—
Sisters, Chinese	...	4,293
Sisters, Foreign	...	2,380
Catholics	...	3,946,380

STATISTICS OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN CHINA ²

Regions	Vicariates	Priests		Seminarians		Sisters		Catholics
		Chinese	European	Chinese	European	Chinese	European	
1. Mongolia	4	104	145	7	—	146	57	142,251
2. Manchuria	6	100	268	43	30	188	222	185,140
3. Hopei	12	451	242	323	97	807	189	780,873
4. Shantung	8	115	231	23	37	249	302	268,831
5. Shansi	6	73	118	10	9	85	48	120,199

¹ Statistics in this section are furnished by Rev. Father Maur Fan-Hao (方 懋).

² These are 1938 statistics, data for recent years being not available.

6. Shensi	...	3	80	94	62	22	182	33	79,151
7. Kansu-Sinkiang	...	2	13	83	1	20	20	62	29,304
8. Kiangsu	...	4	125	144	53	137	413	331	272,623
9. Anhwei	...	3	7	118	10	39	133	38	113,944
10. Honan	...	7	45	164	15	47	323	103	145,393
11. Szechuen-Sikang	...	9	253	129	3	6	224	77	170,582
12. Hupeh	...	6	70	202	36	25	254	185	169,511
13. Hunan	...	4	22	103	3	4	48	62	70,327
14. Kiangsi	...	3	86	93	3	—	109	49	110,449
15. Chekiang	...	4	123	59	52	2	179	54	103,159
16. Fukien	...	3	37	108	—	13	11	69	86,730
17. Kwangtung	...	8	119	226	10	61	320	336	143,766
18. Kwangsi	...	3	12	32	—	1	8	16	16,403
19. Kweichow	...	3	51	48	—	32	36	26	36,886
20. Yunnan	...	3	27	48	1	5	55	25	19,999
Others	...	2	28	165	130	32	—	—	—
TOTAL	...	103	1,941	2,824	791	628	3,781	2,284	3,089,611

Recent Events.—For a long time the Holy See had intended to send a Papal representative to China. In 1922, after repeated efforts were made by Popes Leo XIII and Benedict XV, Archbishop C. Constantini was finally appointed by Pope Pius XI the first apostolic delegate to China. During the decade of his sojourn in this country important results were achieved in the work of evangelism. Failing in health under the strain of his great mission, he was relieved of the duty in 1933 by Archbishop Zanin.

In December, 1941, an office of the representative of the Vatican was

established at Chungking, with Rev. Leo C. Ferrary in charge. On the other hand, Mr. Hsieh Shou-kang (Che'ou-Kang Sie) was appointed in June 1942 by the Chinese Government the first Minister to the Holy See.

In addition to a council of general reunion held in Shanghai, there was also a plenary council assembled in the same city in 1924 for the purpose of legislating on matters concerning the prosperity and welfare of the mission. Of the 115 church leaders participated in the proceedings of the latter meeting, 49 were bishops.

CHINESE BISHOPS 1942

Province	Vicariates	Name of Bishop	Date of Consecration
Jehol	...	Chihfeng	Luke Chao 1932
Suiyuan	...	Tsinling	Joseph Fan 1933
Chahar	...	Hsuanhua	Joseph Chang 1933
Hopei	...	Ankuo	John P. Wang 1937
			Melchior Suen 1926
	Chaohtsen	John Chang	1932
	Paoting	Joseph Tseu	1931
	Yungnien	Joseph Ts'ui	1933
	Stenhsien	Fr. Xav. Chao	1937
	Chengting	Job Ch'en	1939

RELIGION

		Klakoehang	—	Church 2 bombs, rectory and school destroyed.
		Tsipao	—	Church, rectory destroyed.
		Foukiatang	—	Church tower 2 bombs.
		Nantao	—	Hospital many bombs.
		Sungkiang	Aug. 20, 1937	Koang-Ki College 1 bomb.
		Kiating	—	Residence wholly destroyed.
		Kunshan	—	Residence wholly destroyed.
		Punan	—	Residence wholly destroyed.
		Szeking	—	Church 1 bomb, schools destroyed.
		Yang-ze-yu	Aug., 1938	Church destroyed.
		Siaotonzuyu	Aug. 24, 1938	Church, rectory destroyed.
	Nanking	Nanking	Dec., 1937	Bishop's residence plundered.
			Oct. 1937	College Ricci 2 bombs.
		Hsiakuan	Dec., 1937	Catholic properties destroyed.
		Chinkiang	Nov., 1937	Church destroyed.
		Kuyung	Nov., 1937	Church destroyed.
		Tsingyang	Nov. 28, 1939	Church, rectory, burned.
			Dec. 2, 1939	Schools burned.
	Haimen	Louyutsen	June, 1938	Church plundered, burned
		Maokiachen	Dec. 8, 1938	Seminary, college 1 bomb.
	Hsuehow	Hsuehow	May 14, 1938	10 bombs, 10 houses destroyed, church damaged.
Anhui	Wuhu	Kwangteh	Feb. 4, 1939	Church occupied
	Pengpu		Jan. 9, 1938	Church 2 bombs.
		Subsien	May 5, 1938	Church destroyed
Honan	Chengchow	Chengchow	March 8, 1938	Church 2 bombs.
			May 16, 1938	Church 15 bombs, 60 houses destroyed.
Szechuen	Chengtu	Chengtu	June 11, 1939	Church, Bishop's residence destroyed.
	Chungking	Chungking	May 3, 1939	Bishop's residence 6 bombs, 1 church destroyed, 3 churches damaged; hospital, hospice, sisters' residence damaged.
			Apr.-Aug., 1941	Cathedral destroyed; Bishop's residence bombed 4 times, 3 remaining churches destroyed; Min-Chen College demolished; Carmelite Monastery bombed.
	Wanh sien	Wanh sien	Feb. 4, 1939	Church, Bishop's residence, school destroyed; hospital 1 bomb.
	Shunking	Nanchung	Oct. 13, 1939	Church bombed.
	Loshan	Loshan	—	Church, Bishop's residence bombed.
Hupeh	Hankow	Hankow	Dec. 26, 1938	Cathedral occupied.
		Hanchwang	Oct. 31, 1938	Church occupied.
	Hanyang	Kingshan	Aug. 29, 1938	Church wholly destroyed.
	Ichang	Ichang	Nov., 1938	School destroyed.
			Nov., 1939	Church (Nanmen) destroyed.
	Wuchang	Wuchang	March 8, 1939	3 rectories 7 bombs.
			Aug., 1937	College 1 bomb.
			April 29, 1938	Hospital 2 bombs.
			June 6, 1938	Girls' school bombed.

Hunan	Changsha	Linyang	Nov. 10, 1938	Schools 2 bombs ; church, rectory damaged.
		Viyang	Nov. 27, 1938	Church bombed.
	Hengyang	Hengyang	Dec., 1938	School partly bombed.
	Yochow	Yochow	—	Cathedral, Bishop's residence bombed.
Kiangsi	Yüanling	Yüanling	Aug. 21, 1939	Church bombed.
	Yunkiang	Yingt'an	Winter, 1937	Seminary bombed.
			March, 1939	Seminary bombed.
			1942	Church destroyed.
	Nanchang	Tehan	July 26, 1938	Church bombed.
		Kuling	March 16, 1939	Church destroyed.
		Yungshiu	June, 1938	Church bombed.
		Kueichi	1942	Church destroyed.
Chekiang		Yushan	1942	Church plundered.
	Hangchow	Hangchow	Oct. 5, 1937	Country-seat of seminary 6 bombs.
			Dec. 24, 1937	Sisters' house plundered.
		Kiashing	Nov. 8, 1937	Orphanage, school, hospice 7 bombs.
			Nov., 1937	Sisters' house (Carmel) 3 bombs, rectory 1 bomb.
			Nov. 15, 1937	Seminary 5 bombs, girls' school burned.
		Sintai	Nov. 1937	Church plundered.
		Kiashan	—	Church destroyed.
		Tunglou	Jan., 1938	Church bombed.
		Fenshui	Feb. 28, 1938	Church 1 bomb.
		Kienteh	Sept. 8, 1938	Church 3 bombs.
		Shunan	March, 1938	Church bombed.
		Lanki	July, 1939	Church bombed.
			1942	Church destroyed.
		Kinhwa	May, 1939	Sisters' houses bombed.
Fukien			1942	Church destroyed.
		Chuhsien	May 17 and Nov. 14, 1941 and Mar. 27 and May 3 and 9, 1942	Church and schools severely damaged.
	Ningpo	Hsiaoshan	Jan., 1938	Church bombed.
	Taichow	Linhai	—	Church bombed.
		Haimen	Aug., 1939	Sisters' house 1 bomb.
	Amoy	Amoy	—	College St. Thomas destroyed.
	Foochow	Foochow	—	Church bombed.
		Changchow	Aug. 7, 1938	3 mission houses bombed.
	Canton	Canton	Aug. 8, 1938	Cathedral 2 bombs, Cathedral action house destroyed.
		Sheklung	—	Hospice bombed many times.
	Kaying	Meishien	July 27, 1938	Church bombed.
	Pakhol	Weichow Is.	Sept. 29, 1938	Mission destroyed, occupied.
		Hoppo	March 18, 1939	Church 1 bomb.
	Shluchow	Kukong	July 23, 1938	Church bombed.
			Dec. 29, 1938	Church bombed, chapel 3 bombs.
Kwangtung			Jan. 13, 1939	Church bombed.
			Feb. 5, 1939	College 1 bomb, sisters' house 1 bomb.
	Kongmoon	Loting	March 15, 1939	2 mission houses bombed.

RELIGION

		Yangkiang	Aug. 18, 1939	Church 2 bombs, houses destroyed.
	Swatow	Swatow	May 5, 1939	Church bombed.
			July 1, 1938	Mission house bombed.
Kwangsi	Nanning	Nanning	Oct. 8, 1939	Seminary bombed.
	Kweilin	Kweilin	Dec. 29, 1938	Mission public library destroyed.
Kweichow	Kweiyang	Kweiyang	Feb. 4, 1939	South Church 4 bombs.
Hongkong	Hongkong	Hongkong	Dec. 8 to 25, 1941	Cathedrals, schools and hospitals bombed, looted, occupied, or destroyed.

Refugee Relief Work.—From the beginning Bishop Paul Yu of Nanking had exhorted, in a pastoral letter, the Catholics to help in the care of refugees and wounded soldiers. In September, 1937, with the approval of the apostolic delegate, Bishops Massi of Hankow, Calvin of Hanyang, Espelage of Wuchang and Paul Yu of Nanking together organized the "Catholic War Relief." At the same time, Father Jacquinet set up refugee zones in Shanghai and later in Hankow, saving hundreds of thousands of lives. The

late Father Vincent Lebbe, leading his congregational brothers, was always working on the front lines, taking care of the wounded and burying the dead. Finally, a word must be said of the sacrifices made by many sisters in their efforts to rescue thousands of war victims.

Upon the outbreak of the Pacific war in December 1941, Bishop Valtorta of Hongkong immediately set up congee kitchens for emergency relief. No less than 100,000 persons were fed daily.

REFUGEE WORK BY CATHOLIC ORGANIZATIONS

Province	City	Number of Refugees Taken Care of
Chahar	Siwantze	7,000
	Hsuanhua	800
Sulyuan	Kwelsul	9,500
	Tsining	650
Hopei	Ankuo	1,520
	Paoting	4,950
	Peiping	20,000
	Shuntch	5,707
	Sienhsien	7,200
	Taming	5,660
	Tientsin	6,000
	Yihhsien	3,500
Shantung	Chefoo	1,000
	Yituhhsien	1,000
	Tsaochow	10,000
	Tsinan	20,000
	Tsingtao	6,000
	Weihaiwei	5,225
	Yangku	1,600
	Yenchow	100,000

RELIGION

Shansi	Fengyang	1,000
	Luan	32,200
	Shochow	5,500
	Taiyuan	15,000
	Tatung	4,000
	Yutze	6,500
Shensi	Fengslang	81
	Sanyuan	62
	Sian	765
	Tungchow	150
Kiangsu	Shanghai	69,000
	Haichow	25,000
	Nanking	5,000
Anhwei	Pengpu	20,000
	Wuhu	7,000
Honan	Kweitch	3,240
	Loyang	1,780
	Nanyang	364
Szechuen	Chungking	250
Hupei	Hankow	3,500
	Hanyang	700
	Ichang	3,000
	Kichow	3,500
	Laohokow	2,500
	Puchi	175
	Siangyang	750
	Suihsien	300
	Wuchang	11,000
	Huanpei	8,000
Hunan	Changsha	1,568
	Yungchow	82
Kiangsi	Kian	380
Chekiang	Hangchow	4,650
	Kinhwa	100
	Yungkang	500
	Ningpo	1,217
	Taichow	678
Fukien	Amoy	1,266
Kwangtung	Canton	5,000
	Pakhoi	500
Yunnan	Kunming	200
TOTAL		463,770

PROTESTANTISM

W. Y. CHEN¹ (陳文淵)

Never before in the history of the Christian movement in China has the church been so greatly affected as it has been since the beginning of the Sino-Japanese war. At the first stage

of the war, when China was fighting alone against a formidable enemy, the Protestant Church in China experienced tremendous losses of live and property. No accurate estimate can be given at the present moment in regard to the losses of educational institutions, hospitals, churches, chapels, missionary

¹ General Secretary of the National Christian Council.

residences which were bombed, destroyed, or confiscated by the Japanese. During this period, there was a great exodus of Christian workers, missionaries, teachers, doctors and nurses from the occupied area to Free China. The great movement of the population caused by war has confronted the church with serious problems as well as a great opportunity and challenge. The churches in America and Europe have given unstinted support to the Chinese church in administering relief and in acts of mercy and love.

At the second stage, when the war broke out in Europe, the church in China was brought face to face with a new situation. The churches in Europe were experiencing the same distress and suffering; the resources of several continental missions in China had been cut off; and the church in China had to extend relief to continental refugees who were expelled from Europe by the Hitlerian régime and came to Shanghai. At this stage, the church learned to cooperate closely in the common task of relieving distress and upholding true peace and justice in international relationships.

At the third stage, when America and Europe declared war against Japan, and China joined the United Nations fighting shoulder to shoulder against a common enemy, the church in China again faced a new situation. The headquarters of the mission and national Christian organizations in Shanghai had to be closed; financial support to the churches in the occupied area was discontinued; the freedom of the missionaries there was limited or circumscribed, and some were put in the concentration camps; and the communication between the churches in occupied area and Free China was almost completely cut off. New plans

and adjustments had to be made. The need of church unity and cooperation was felt more than ever. The church was called upon to move forward with faith and courage in the struggle against the forces of evil in the lives of men and nations.

A. War Relief and National Service.

In the light of this development we can see how the church had to re-orient itself in response to the need of the hour at a time of unprecedented national crisis. War relief and emergency service at once became the immediate task of the Christian Church. At least six kinds of relief work have been administered by the church and various Christian organizations, namely, civilian refugees, wounded soldiers, children, students, continental refugees, and orphaned missions.

1. *Civilian War Relief*.—As soon as the war broke out in Shanghai, the National Christian Council cabled to the churches in America and England appealing for relief. This appeal was met with an immediate response. The International Council in the United States with the cooperation of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America and other organizations soon set up the Church Committee for China Relief, which has as its official representative, the American Advisory Committee, for relief work in China. Through the Shanghai committee something like \$12,000,000 in Chinese currency was distributed. The committee in Chungking has now become the transmitting and distributing centre which has administered as much as \$30,000,000 through various local committees. Heretofore the members of the committee were Americans. By instruction just received, its personnel must at least be one-third Chinese. Bishop W. Y. Chen

was elected chairman; Dr. Arthur Young, vice-chairman; Dr. C. B. Rappe, treasurer and Rev. Arnold B. Vaught, director of the committee. On the committee there are also representatives of the Catholic Church: Bishop Paul Yu Pin, Rt. Rev. McGrath and Rev. Mark A. Tennien. The programme of activities is chiefly confined to civilian relief and it makes no religious distinction as to the beneficiaries. The local international committees through which the American Advisory Committee operates are organized at present as follows:

- The Kanan International Relief Committee
- The Kukong Y.M.C.A. Relief Committee
- The Fukien International Relief Committee
- The Kweiyang International Relief Committee
- The Kweliu International Relief Committee
- The Kunming International Relief Committee
- The Honan International Relief Committee
- The Hunan International Relief Committee
- The Chengtu Advisory Committee
- The Sian International Relief Committee

The National Christian Council War Relief Committee has also distributed the funds contributed chiefly by Chinese Christians in China and abroad through some 40 local committees in occupied territories and war-stricken areas. In most of the places, churches, chapels, hospitals and schools have been turned into relief camps. At the beginning of the war, in Shanghai alone, more than 20 camps were organized under the auspices of the Protestant Church. The largest camps in Shanghai were under the management of the Y.M.C.A. and the Salvation Army: the Rue Massent Camp,

with 2,500 people; the Route de Sieyes Camp, with 4,600 people; the Luzon Road Camp, with 1,200 people; the Ferry and Macao Road Camp, with 2,300 people and the Chiaotung University Camp, with 16,800 people.

2. *Service to the Wounded Soldiers*.—Initiated by the National Christian Council War Relief Committee, the National Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers in Transit was formed in Hankow in 1937 and has performed marvellous service among the wounded soldiers. In 1942 there were 982 full time workers assisted by 70,000 volunteers (both Chinese and missionaries). In nine months of 1942, from January to October, the council gave aid to 58,386 wounded soldiers as reported and registered with the Quartermaster-General Office. During the same period it also gave aid to 68,602 refugees and 1,822,659 soldiers; thus it makes a grand total of 1,949,647 services in nine months. The Council has at present 140 service stations: 14 in Kiangsi; 10 in Kwangtung; 14 in Kwangsi; 14 in Hunan; 36 in Honan; 24 in Hupeh; 14 in Shensi; four in Yunnan; six in Chekiang; and four in Shansi. There are 22 city councils distributed in 10 provinces and the budget for the year 1942 amounts to 22,000,000.00 Chinese dollars. Dr. H. H. Kung serves as Honorary Chairman of the Council and Dr. T. C. Fan, Director.

The Society of Friends of the Wounded is an organization started by several Christian workers from North China, who came to Hunan in 1938. They arrived after the Changsha fire and were greatly moved by

the needs and distress of the sick and wounded soldiers despite what the Government and relief agencies could do for them. On December 20, 1938 they organized themselves into the Friends of the Wounded, which was later incorporated with the New Life Movement. Sponsored by Madame Chiang Kai-shek and Dr. H. H. Kung a campaign was launched early in 1940 to solicit "100,000 Friends." Within a few months, more than three million "Friends" were enlisted with a contribution of \$6,639,385.68 in cash. At present (March 1943) there are 159 service units and more than four million "Friends," both Chinese and foreign.

The special service that the society originally set out to render is known by the three initials: D.B.S., namely, delousing, bathing and scabies treatment. Later, special diet, laundry and mending service were added to become what is known as the society's fourfold programme. Most of the workers are drawn from college and high school students, some from Protestant and Catholic missions, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., the Red Cross, the Salvation Army and other similar organizations. During the first nine months of the year 1941, 13,229 officers and 133,787 men, with the doctors' approval, were put on special diet; boiled water was served to 1,979,943 patients in the military hospitals; 173,811 patients were bathed, 26,562 were deloused, and 28,870 were treated for scabies. The service units, meanwhile, washed and mended 343,365 pieces of underclothing, pyjamas, sheets, and quilt covers for the sick and the wounded. The society is now undertaking a new programme, viz., the rehabilitation of crippled soldiers.

It is estimated that 80,000 soldiers were merely slightly crippled. Co-operating with the Chinese Red Cross which furnishes the orthopedic treatment and supplies artificial limbs where necessary, and with the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, which provides training in technical and cooperative methods, the society is making thousands of crippled soldiers useful and economically independent.⁴

Under the auspices of the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A. the Special Committee on Emergency Service to Soldiers has also worked among the wounded soldiers. "The physical problem of moving and caring for these soldiers has been tremendous. To help to meet this need, workers have been trained in first-aid and dressing work, and a few in the technique of assisting in even more complicated care of the soldiers. Working units have stayed in the field hospitals where the service is needed most, even under great danger and hardship. Aside from this care of the wounds, physical pain and monotony of life have been relieved by personal visits and conversations, the writing of letters to the families, music, and story-telling. Work for wounded has also been carried on through assisting the changing of dressings, providing of food, tea, drinking water, and any other services to contribute to their comfort."

3. *Child Welfare Work.*—In April 1939 the National Christian Council was called upon to launch a child welfare programme, to provide food, shelter, medicine and education for children in the occupied area. The work has been carried on at 20 cities with a total of some 6,000 children. Most of the centres have enrolled between 100 and 200 children, some

⁴ For more information on the Society of the Wounded, see chapter on "War Relief."

are smaller with 50 children. The first grant of \$50,000 came from the National Child Welfare Association. The council has used \$400,000 with funds from the National Christian Council War Relief Committee, the American Advisory Committee, and the British Fund for China Relief. The fund was distributed to various centres, on condition that local committees or mission groups would co-operate in raising funds locally and in providing instruction for the children fed.

4. *Student Relief.*—After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A. and the National Committee of the Y.W.C.A. started student relief work in Shanghai in September 1937, with funds contributed partly locally and partly by students abroad through the World Student Christian Federation in Geneva and the National Inter-collegiate Christian Council in the United States. Local committees were first organized in Shanghai, Sian, Wuhan, Changsha and Canton. The National Student Relief Committee was formed in Shanghai early in 1938 with Dr. J. Usang Ly, President of Chiao Tung University, as chairman. This work, supplementing at many points the assistance given students by the Ministry of Education, gradually spread to all important educational centres. Some 20,000 university and senior middle school students had been helped by the fall of 1941.

Following the outbreak of the Pacific war, the committee in Shanghai was suspended and a National Student Relief Emergency Executive Committee was organized in Chengtu with Dr. Wu Yi-fang, President of Ginling College, as chairman. During the first eight months of the year 1942,

this emergency committee continued its work until the National Student Relief Committee resumed its office in Chungking with Bishop W. Y. Chen as chairman and Mr. Kiang Wen Han, Miss Shi Pao-chen and Lyman Hoover as secretaries. In 1942 more than 11,000 students have received help through local committee in the following centres: Chengku (Shensi), Chengtu, Chungking, Honan University, Kanhsien and Taiho (Kiangsi), Kweiyang, Changting and Shaowu (Fukien), Pishan and Santai (Szechuen), Tsunyi and Meitan (Kweichow), Yuanling and Shenchu (Hunan). There are also committees rendering special service to student evacuees in Shantung (Chekiang), Nanping (Fukien), Loyang, Sian and Paochi.

The principal types of work have been food subsidies, grants for daily necessities, tuition, books, travel aid, students hospitals, reception and recreation centres, summer work-relief projects, medical aid, bean milk subsidies, winter clothing and bedding. In each case the committees make a personal investigation. A National Reconstruction Scholarship Fund has just been started by the national committee to provide adequate personal aid to a selected number of worthy and promising students in the colleges under the following two categories: (1) 100 annual scholarships, not exceeding \$3,000 for each student, (2) 200 special grants-in-aid, not exceeding \$1,500 for each student. Because of the voluntary service of the committee members and of many Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. student secretaries, all operating costs have been kept below five per cent. The budget for the academic year of 1942-1943 calls for N.C. \$5,000,000. The total expenditure of all local committees is

actually higher than this, because most of them have raised money locally in addition to the grants received from the national committee.

5. *European Refugees.*—In 1938 and 1939 a large number of European refugees, mostly Jews by race, reached Shanghai as other parts of the world were closed against them. Though the Jewish community of Shanghai had a small committee for the assistance of refugees the need became so great that an international non-sectarian committee (familiarly known as I.C.) was also set up. The N.C.C. maintained an office for enquiries and for giving advice and friendly help to these homeless and helpless refugees. Considerable sums of money for this work were subscribed by missionaries all over China. To administer these funds the standing committee of the Christian Auxiliary for the Relief of European Refugees was appointed. This committee made grants to existing funds such as the Refugee Hospital, the I. C. Milk Fund, the Educational Fund and the Shanghai Hebrew Mission and gave individual assistance for special objects. English and Chinese classes were conducted for these refugees in the Mission Building; Jewish doctors and nurses were recommended to various hospitals, and mechanics and skill labours were placed or sent to the interior. In the matter of relief the church makes no distinction as regards race or creed.

6. *Continental Missions.*—Before October 1939, the National Christian Council had already busied itself on behalf of German missions and missionaries cut off by the European war from home support. By April 1940, it was extending its inquiry to all continental missions orphaned in China. Before the war on the Pacific, more than

N.C.\$100,000 were contributed, and some 503 missionaries, both in Free China and occupied territory, received the help.

There are 28 continental missions operating in Free China including Danish, Finnish, German, Norwegian, Swedish and Swiss with about 550 missionaries. The Swedish and Swiss are from neutral countries and are still able to get funds from their home lands. These include about 10 missions.

The 18 missions of the other four nationalities are cut off from their home constituencies and have no way of getting funds, except that the free Norwegian Government in London has made two grants for the maintenance of Norwegian missionaries. The International Missionary Council has been raising funds to support these 18 missions, which have approximately 309 adults and 65 children, and also to support the Chinese pastors and teachers, and to continue the work which is associated with them. Over half of these are Lutheran missions, and the Lutheran World Convention is taking a large part in raising the funds necessary to continue this work. Money has been coming from America, Great Britain, Australia and China for the support of these "orphan" missions. This is another demonstration of the international character of the Christian church. Through its committees on continental missions the National Christian Council takes the responsibility for the administration of these funds and for contacts with all these missions.

Besides the above six kinds of war relief work, various forms of emergency service have been carried on by the Protestant Church since the beginning of the war. The Y.M.C.A.

Emergency Service to Soldiers started in 1937. There are more than 50 units working along the war zone from Shansi and Shensi in the Northwest and Kwangtung and Kwangsi in the Southeast. Among the various types of services they render, the most notable ones are soldiers' clubs, reception centres and the distribution of comforts. The following figures show the numbers served in this work for the year 1942:

Movies and Lantern Slides,	
Attendance	914,009
Dramatic and Stunts, Attendance	1,533,079
First-aid Dressing, Stretcher Cases, etc.	53,547
Mass Singing and Musical Program, Attendance	1,957,924
Physical Education	1,332,982
Outdoor Games and Sports	2,154,109
Hostel, Tea, and Hot Water Service	1,324,196
Letter Writing for Soldiers	51,901
Teaching How to Read and Write	673,830
Other Kinds of Service	2,099,440
GRAND TOTAL	12,097,017

The Joint Committee on War Time Service of the National Christian Council and the New Life Movement has just started a health programme among the conscripts, launched a campaign for making 100,000 slippers for the wounded soldiers, and established several reception centres for the children in the famine stricken areas in Honan. For the National Reconstruction Postal Savings, the Christians in Hongkong alone raised one million dollars in 1940. In the following year the same amount was raised in Hongkong among the Chinese Christian community for the National Liberty Bond. In the field of national service

the Chinese Christians are doing more than their share.

B. Medical and Educational Service.

Before the war there were 269 mission or church hospitals which had 16,580 beds. In the year 1936 they cared for 241,085 inpatients and made 4,305,865 outpatient visits. In mission hospitals there were 300 foreign and 563 Chinese doctors. The report compiled by the Council on Medical Mission for 1939 shows that 62 hospitals were bombed, occupied, looted, destroyed or interfered with. After the war in the Pacific broke out, nearly two thirds of the mission hospitals were either closed or taken over by the Japanese. With very few exceptions, the mission hospitals in Free China have extended their services to the sick and the wounded to the utmost of their strength and funds.

The Council of Medical Missions, which represents the mission hospitals of the Protestant Church in China, has rendered useful service by sending a large amount of medical and surgical supplies to the mission hospitals in different areas. For some time an emergency office of the council was set up in Chungking and the director of the office made it his duty the visitation of the hospitals and medical relief work. The International Red Cross of Central China also developed a helpful service in the purchase and distribution of medical supplies, portable X-ray machines, etc. to hospitals doing war work. After the fall of Hankow its headquarters was moved to Kweiyang, where the work was continued until it was reorganized in October, 1941 as the International Relief Committee and registered itself under the Executive Yuan. Besides transportation of medical supplies, which is now taken over by the Friends'

Ambulance Unit, the major activities of the International Relief Committee are distributing drugs and in relief work. In 1942 its headquarters was moved to Chungking with Mr. Arnold

B. Vaught as chairman; Mr. Y. S. Djang, director and Dr. T. S. Outerbridge, general secretary. The latest report of the committee grants shows the extent of its work:

I. R. C. GRANTS, JAN.-SEPT, 1942

	Cash	Drugs	Total
Hospitals	\$28,895.95	\$235,553.28	\$264,449.23
Refugee Relief	90,278.31	9,560.50	99,838.81
Student Relief	27,573.13	25,332.52	53,905.66
Orphanages	300.00	21,409.11	21,709.11
Emergency Relief	36,786.00	—	36,786.00
Other Relief	24,500.00	33,566.06	48,066.06
TOTAL	\$208,453.39	\$325,421.47	\$524,754.87

The work of the Friends' Ambulance Unit has been divided into two sections, surgical and medical transport. The surgical section works in cooperation with the military, while the medical transport section cooperates with the International Relief Committee and the National Health Administration. The Friends' Ambulance Unit consists of 82 members, Chinese and foreign, not including unit employees. With the addition in the near future, of the American contingent of three doctors and 10 men, the numbers will total 95. The Friends' Ambulance Unit at present operates 40 trucks of various makes along 10 routes totalling 6,828 kms. It is computed that the Friends' Ambulance Unit can haul some 300,000 kilometre-tons per annum. This figure is based on an estimate of 25,000 km.-tons per month, during the present fuel transition stage in transport generally.

In spite of heavy responsibility which falls on the shoulder of the church for medical service at the

emergency period, the church has not lost sight of the lepers, the deaf and dumb and the blind. Christian leper homes cared for 1,824 persons in 24 homes or hospital; and for 828 more in 16 clinics. A number of homes suffered from the war. Six clinics, which formerly were reported as caring for 640 persons, are now suspended.

Christian schools have held together, though they have suffered much as a consequence of war. Twelve of the 13 Christian colleges and universities were forced to move. St. John University returned to its own campus in 1941. At the outbreak of the war there were 7,000 students in the 13 institutions. The first year, through the moving or temporary closing of a number, the total student body was reduced to 4,000. However, these colleges made a rapid recovery, and in the fall before the outbreak of the war in the Pacific the student body had reached a new high figure of 8,000. Six of these colleges were very seriously

affected. Four of them have already moved to the interior and are putting up temporary plants. The fifth is working out plans for establishing work in the interior. It is probable that before the end of the war this group of colleges will have recovered most of the student body, and be up to their former enrolment.

Normally there are 261 Christian middle schools in all China with about 5,000 teachers and 53,000 students. In 1939 these schools reported that 37 were closed entirely, 37 were combined as nine, 96 moved to new sites. During the school year 1937, only 191 had been in operation. Of these, 105 are now operating in Free China, with about 30,000 students. All but a few of these schools have had to leave their original campuses and move longer or shorter distances to new and safer locations. Here they are carrying on under great difficulties. They are scattered through 12 provinces, the largest numbers being in Fukien, Szechuen, Kwangtung and Hunan.

These schools have had serious financial problems, owing to the increase in the cost of living. They have been assisted by special funds from the several missions which have established them, and by special grants from the United China Relief Fund in America, and the United Aid to China Fund in Britain. The amounts thus far available are still far from adequate for the needs of these schools.

Another group of senior middle schools, in addition to the above, are the nurses training schools, which now have the status of senior middle schools under the Ministry of Education. There are normally 143 of these schools with 3,818 students in all China. As these schools are closely related to hospitals, it has not been possible for

them to move into the interior as many of the other middle schools have done, hence the smaller proportion in Free China. These schools also have had financial difficulties. An amount of N.C.\$250,000 has been made available from the United Aid to China Fund from Great Britain, through the courtesy of Madame Chiang Kai-shek.

It has been estimated that there are 150,000 children in the primary schools under Christian management. During the past few years the church has restricted its programme in establishing primary schools, since the Government has taken over the main responsibility. In fact, a large number of these schools have been closed for lack of funds and personnel. In some places, however, in connection with refugee camps or relief work, schools for children have been conducted; some are incomplete or irregular in curriculum.

The China Christian Educational Association has played an important part in cooperating with all these schools, and in connection with securing and administering relief funds, and in serving as a central clearing house. Its headquarters are at 10 Dai Chia Hang, Chungking, in cooperation with the National Christian Council. The senior secretary in charge is Dr. Earl Cressy. Two of the regional associations have been functioning vigorously, in Fukien and in Szechuen. Matters in the other 10 provinces have been handled from the central office.

An indispensable factor in maintaining the work of the Christian colleges has been the associated boards for Christian colleges in China, located in New York. This body normally sends over U.S.\$1,000,000 each year for the 13 Christian colleges, of which by far the larger part comes directly

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or indirectly from the mission boards. Immediately upon the outbreak of war in 1937, the associated boards launched a special campaign to raise a sustaining fund, in addition to the regular million dollars, to take care of the extraordinary expenses growing out of the war. Over a quarter of a million was raised the first year, and increasing amounts in the following years. Last year the associated boards' campaign was combined with that of the United China Relief, and the total amount made available for these colleges came to U.S.\$660,000.

In addition, the united committee for Christian universities in China, located in London, has continued its support of these universities, in spite of the heavy losses which have fallen upon the British Isles in the course of the war. Last, but not least, there have been many grants from government and other sources in China, which have played a very large part in enabling these colleges to continue. All of these colleges have been engaged in many wartime projects, many of them in connection with government and semi-government agencies. One college of agriculture has in process over 115 special projects of all sorts. Here again there is an impressive demonstration of the international character of the Christian movement, which compares in its own way with the 28 United Nations.

C. Christian Literature.—A large amount of Christian literature was produced in Shanghai or Hongkong. The war has created serious problems of printing and distributing this literature. However, through various routes several hundred tons of books, magazines, and pamphlets have been sent to the interior. In 1938 the Christian Literature Society established a depot

in Kunming. In 1939 the National Christian Council set up a Christian Literature Fund Committee in Chengtu, whose work lies primarily in the field of re-printing literature already published and the distribution of such in Free China. This committee later emerged in 1942 as the Commission on Christian Literature of the National Christian Council, promoting closer cooperation among the literature societies, one result being the formation of the United Christian Publishers, including the Christian Literature Society, the Canadian Mission Press, and the Association Press. One outstanding development is the literature production programme established by the N.C.C. and the Nanking Theological Seminary. This aims at the translation of the great Christian classics, so as to make available in Chinese a representative selection of the great literature of Christianity from the beginning up to the present. Such books as St. Augustine's "City of God," "Confession," and "Devotional Talks"; Origen's "Against Celsus"; Thomas A. Quinus' "Summa"; and Thomas A. Kempis' "The Imitation of Christ," etc. are being translated. An ashram held in the summer of 1942 brought together more than 20 Christian writers to participate in this work, and a good start was made, both in the actual translation, and in the working out of the details of the programme. In the pre-renaissance period, this programme will have the cooperation of Catholic scholars, through the newly organized *Societas Luminis*, a society of Protestant, Catholic and non-Christian scholars.

The United Christian Publishers have undertaken to publish such periodicals as an Omnibook, Church

Leaders' Magazines and Women's Magazines, besides re-printing and publishing new books. Pamphlets that deal with current issues and Christian attitude toward war are among the wartime series published by the Association Press and the forward movement series by the National Christian Council. The pre-war circulation of the "Christian Farmer," a bi-monthly, reached 50,000 but dropped to 2,000 when it was moved to Chengtu from Shantung following the outbreak of the war. However, in 1942 the number of circulation gradually came up to 40,000, and it is hoped that in 1943 a circulation of 60,000 will be reached. The "Christian Hope," an organ of the United Church of Canada, now becomes the periodical of the United Christian Publishers. The Methodist has resumed the publication of the Methodist Bulletin; the Church of Christ in China, the "Kung Pao"; and the N.C.C., the Hsieh Chin, a monthly Chinese bulletin, formerly called "China for Christ Bulletin." The Religious Tract Society has just been reorganized with an Interim Committee for Free China in Chengtu and publishes a bi-monthly under the title "Spiritual Life."

The Christian Literature Society suffered a great loss at the time of the Japanese entry to Shanghai. A large amount of Christian literature was confiscated by the Japanese. The society was reorganized in 1942 after the outbreak of war in the Pacific with a new board of directors in Chengtu. Dr. R. O. Jolliffe was elected president; Mrs. L. Tomkinson, recording secretary; and Mr. Marion Terry was appointed general secretary *pro tem* in addition to his duty as distribution secretary. Within the period under

review, the sale of Christian literature is larger than all the previous years in spite of difficulties in distribution and production. The sale of the Bible is even larger. In 1939 more than 234,600 Bibles and Testaments were sold by the China Bible House alone. The demand for the Bible and New Testament in China at present is extraordinary, and the Bible Society has found it difficult to supply.

D. Churches and Christian Organizations.—One hundred and thirty-seven missionary societies are at work in China. In 1935 there were 6,150 missionaries, but the number was reduced by war conditions to something like 4,000 in 1941, and now there are about 2,000 in Free China, 1,000 repatriated and 1,000 are still in occupied areas. There are 11,000 pastors and preachers and 250,000 persons in Sunday schools. The total Christian constituency has been estimated by some to be 1,600,000, of which 600,000 are communicant members. A survey on the life and work of the church was conducted by the National Christian Council in cooperation with the Nanking Theological Seminary in 1941, but no statistical data as to the exact number of the church members were given.

As a result of the formal union of the three largest Methodist bodies in the United States in 1939, these three denominations in China, that is, the Methodist Episcopal Church, the Methodist Episcopal Church South, and the Methodist Protestant Church were automatically brought together and formed the Methodist Church in China. In 1941 the Central Conference was held in Shanghai with representatives from 10 annual conferences. In 1942 the meeting of the executive board of the Methodist Church was

held in Chungking and the board itself was reorganized as some of its members, who were in the occupied areas could not function. Several important actions were taken by the board, among which the promotion of the national and social service, especially service to wounded soldiers and civilian refugees, are among the most prominent.

Toward the end of 1938, the Church of Christ in China and Sheng Kung Hui began their work in Kweiyang. In the following year the border service was started by the Church of Christ in China whose headquarters is now in Chengtu. Within three days of the outbreak of war in the Pacific the new headquarters of the China Inland Missions was functioning in Chungking because preparation had been made for the eventuality. The staff of the headquarters now numbers 16 and more than 500 missionaries look to this centre for direction.

The Y.M.C.A. movement in China has a history of 57 years. Since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese conflict, 29 cities with Y.M.C.A.'s have fallen into enemy's hands. Four associations are still operating in occupied areas, namely, those in Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao and Shanghai. In Free China there are four new associations organized after the outbreak of war, namely, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Lanchow and Paochi, and six branches have been started by associations which have been driven from their home cities, namely, Kanhsien and Kian by the Nanchang association, Yuanling and Hengyang by the Changsha association, and Kukong and Lienhsien by the Canton association. Before the war there were more than 100 students associations and fellowship groups in China. At present, there are 80 in Free China.

In order to meet the needs of students in isolated university centres such as Kiating, Chengku, Pingshek, Liang-feng, etc., the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A. with the cooperation of the N.C.C. has started student service centres in these places. The National Committee of the Y.W.C.A. was the first Christian organization to move its headquarters to Free China. All the local associations in Kukong, Kunming, Kweiyang, Chengtu, Yuanling, etc. put much emphasis on wartime services. There are two new rural centres under the management of the Y.W.C.A. one at Wusu in Hunan and one near Penghsien in Szechuen.

The National Christian Council anticipated the possibility of its Shanghai headquarters being cut off from Free China, and its executive committee in Shanghai took official action authorizing the committee in Free China to function on behalf of the National Christian Council of China in that event. Accordingly, very soon after the outbreak of the war in the Pacific, the National Christian Council of China was reorganized in Chengtu, with Dr. Wu Yi-fang, President of Ginling College, continuing as chairman, and Bishop W. Y. Chen, who had resigned as general secretary a few months before, returning to the general secretaryship, on a voluntary basis. Headquarters were established in Chungking, and the work of the council has rapidly expanded. Under wartime conditions it has not been thought wise to limit its works to the churches and missions which had cooperated in pre-war days, and its aim has been to serve the Christian movement in Free China as a whole.

Besides the new Commission on Christian Literature mentioned above the National Christian Council has

established a second new Commission on Social Service. This is putting special emphasis upon wartime service for wounded soldiers and the like, but is also planning to work out a reconstruction and peace time program. A first step in this is to make a study of the large amount of service work already carried on by the churches and missions, including special schools for married women, industrial work, blind schools, orphanages, old folks homes, free schools for adults, recreational activities and the like. The Christian Church is a great service movement to a far larger degree than is commonly recognized.

In this connection a new emphasis is being put on the development of the city church. A new Church and Alumni Movement aims at getting more of the quarter million alumni of Christian schools into the life and activities of the church. Christian forward movement, Christianizing the home, religious education, Christian cooperative and rural service are

among the wartime activities of the council.

The Protestant Church is a world movement. In 1938 the World Christian Conference of the International Missionary Council was to be held in Hangchow, but was changed to Madras, India, because of the Sino-Japanese war. The conference had representatives from 74 nations, and China was invited to send 60 Chinese and 10 missionaries' delegates. Forty-nine delegates went from China and the whole delegation made a very deep impression on the conference. In 1939 the first Christian World Conference was held at Amsterdam. In the selection of Chinese delegates to this conference the N.C.C. shared with the World's Student Christian Federation and the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. National Committees. 1,500 young people attended the conference. Having as its general theme "Christus Victor," the conference gave to its members a note of the ultimate victory of righteousness and justice which Christ came to proclaim.

APPENDIX I

THE Y. M. C. A. IN CHINA¹

Among the numerous national Christian organizations that have proved their value and worthiness, whose existence and growth no alien military might can crush, is the Y.M.C.A. in China. Five and a half years after the outbreak of war, there are in all China 20 city associations including four in occupied territory and 16 in Free China, as well as 80 student associations and fellowship groups in Free China. Wartime services undertaken by "Y" workers include emergency service to soldiers, civilian and student relief and the promotion of international understanding and goodwill. The multifarious activities may be reviewed under two main categories, namely, the association and wartime services:

A. The Association.—In common with all other social organizations in China, the association has been greatly affected by the war on the one hand, and has gone through a period of unprecedented development on the other. The present condition is as follows:

1. *City Associations.*—Since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese conflict, 29 cities with Y.M.C.A.'s have fallen into enemy hands. Of these, six Y.M.C.A. buildings were seized and three burned before the Pacific war began. The Y.M.C.A. buildings were in Tatung, Taiyuan, Wuchang, Soochow, Swatow and Canton. The Nanking, Weihaiwei and Changsha buildings were burned; of the remaining centres, Shanghai, Tsingtao, Tien-

tsin, Tsinan and Peiping became increasingly active. After December 7, 1941, seven more Y.M.C.A. centres were closed by the invaders: Tsinan, Chefoo, Kaifeng, Paoting, Hangechow, Ningpo and Nanchang. Hongkong has had to suspend all activities. Now four Y.M.C.A. centres in occupied territory continue to function: Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao and Shanghai.

The city associations in Free China find themselves in an entirely different situation. In addition to the six, namely, Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Sian, Foochow and Toishan, which originally existed, four new associations, namely, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Lanchow and Paochi, have been organized since the war began, and six branches have been started by associations which have been driven from their home cities, namely, Kanhsien and Kian by the Nanchang association, Yuanling and Hengyang by the Changsha association, Kukong (Shaokwan) and Lienhsien by the Canton association. With the exception of Foochow and Toishan, which are still in process of recovering from the effects of war, all these associations enjoy the confidence of the community and their work is not only progressing well, but is expanding.

In respect to support, the record has been remarkable. Failures to meet the budgets have been exceptions. In many cases pre-war debts have been paid off. Shanghai liquidated \$200,000 of its debt; Hongkong, \$30,000;

Peiping paid its entire debt of \$80,000; Tatung cleared away a \$2,000 debt and Lanchow acquired land for a building. In several cities new buildings have been built, and in 1941, in every case except Hongkong, the funds received for local support exceeded the sums asked for. Kanhsien and Kian new associations raised \$33,000 against \$15,000 the year before. Kukong, the new home of the Canton association, received \$66,000 on a goal of \$40,000. In the spring of 1942 four associations completed their financial efforts. Kweilin alone failed to reach its goal. Chengtu raised \$50,000 on a goal of \$40,000; Kweiyang, \$84,000 on a goal of \$40,000. The Changsha Y.M.C.A., now operating in Hengyang and Yuanling, received \$260,000 from the community from which it had asked only \$100,000. Shanghai set out to raise \$200,000 and secured \$374,000. To cover needs that were not otherwise provided for, the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A. raised by contribution in the Shanghai area in 1941 \$250,000. In 1942 the National Committee budget called for \$1,199,958. Of this sum, \$800,141 must be raised in contributions. Towards this amount close to \$500,000 was pledged up to August. In 1942 funds for emergency service for soldiers was budgeted at \$2,500,000.

In the large cities in occupied territory educational work was strengthened. Peiping's supplementary schools increased enrolment from 500 to 1,300. The Tsinan educational work became outstanding: a day school of both primary and middle grades was well attended. The same was true of the night school. The total students in daily classes in the Tsinan Y.M.C.A. averaged 1,400. Similar increased demands came to the Shanghai Y.M.C.A.

Membership enrolments have varied with differing political pressure. In most of the smaller occupied cities the development of a membership has been officially discouraged. Tsinan has not made a membership enrolment effort since the war began. Chefoo, Paoting, and other cities of equal size have all been discouraged on the membership question. Large centres like Peiping, Shanghai, and Tientsin have experienced increased memberships. Peiping has a membership of just over 3,000; Tientsin, just under 3,000; while Shanghai has for the first time a membership around 6,000. In Free China, memberships have generally increased. Kunming exceeds anything it has ever experienced before. Chungking has suffered some, for its plant has been badly damaged by bombings. Chengtu has experienced an increase. The new centres, of which there are 10, all represent an increase for Free China. For the country as a whole there has been a net decrease.

2. *Student Associations.*—Before the war there were more than 100 student associations and fellowship groups in different parts of the country. At present there are 80 student associations and fellowship groups in Free China. The student association aims to promote extra-curricular activities, which are urgently needed by students at this time when, under wartime material conditions, the students find life dry and monotonous. A few years ago, in order to meet the needs of students in isolated university centres, the National Committee of Y.M.C.A., with the cooperation of several churches, recruited secretaries and sent them to those places to start student service centres designed to promote all sorts of extra-curricular activities among students.

¹ Article published by the China Information Committee.

Fourteen summer conferences for students were held in 1941 and nine in 1942.

Each year most student conferences follow a common theme. Student thought is directed to this one subject. This gives unity to the intellectual and emotional responses that come from the conferences. In 1941 the theme was "The New China and the New Youth." For 1942 the theme was "The Way of Living." To get themes before youth, to keep groups informed of the activities of other groups and to increase a consciousness of national student solidarity, a smaller paper called "Hsiao Hsi" is printed.

B. Wartime Services.—In harmony with the purpose of the Y.M.C.A., which is to serve young men, the association leaders made and put into execution shortly after the outbreak of hostilities plans for various types of war work. Among them the following are national in scope:

1. *Emergency Service to Soldiers.*—Soldiers are among those whom the Y.M.C.A. should serve, because they are all young men. With experience in war work gained in connection with the campaign along the Great Wall in 1933 and again with the campaign in Suiyuan in 1936, the Y.M.C.A. organized its Emergency Service to Soldiers shortly after the Lukouchiao incident, in order to conduct war work on a large scale. Since then Y.M.C.A. service units have been at work in all the fighting fronts in the country. This work is now carried on by 38 units in seven regions, Suiyuan, Shensi, Honan-Hupoh, Chekiang-Fukien, Kiangsi-Kwangtung, Yunnan and Hunan-Kwangsi. It is designed to meet the needs, spiritual, mental and material, of the soldier so as to heighten his morale. The forms of service may

be placed under four categories: (1) education and publicity, (2) comforting and receiving soldiers, (3) dressing wounds and giving first-aid, and (4) entertainments and recreation. Recently, this work has been extended to Yunnan Province. The fifth anniversary of the Emergency Service to Soldiers was celebrated on August 8, 1942, when tributes were paid to the work by the army commanders whose men have benefited from the service as well as by others.

2. *Civilian Relief.*—When hostilities broke out, the Y.M.C.A. included civilian relief in its wartime program. During the past five years, the associations in different places have either administered refugee camps, collected contributions in money or material for relief purposes, taken charge of education for refugees, looked after child refugees or war orphans, or been charged by the Government with the responsibility of receiving and repatriating refugees in certain areas.

3. *Student Relief.*—During the early stages of the Sino-Japanese conflict, most of the schools and colleges in the coastal provinces had to move to the interior due to the deliberate bombing by enemy aircraft of China's cultural and educational institutions. This worked great hardships on the students. In view of this situation, the Y.M.C.A., in conjunction with the Y.W.C.A., organized a National Student Relief Committee as well as a number of local student relief committees to carry on emergency student relief work. The relief has taken many different forms. This work still continues, as the need for it still exists. At present there are 21 centres where student relief work is carried on, Chungking, Chengtu, Kiating, Santai (Szechuen), Chengku, Sian (Shensi), Sunghsien (Honan),

Kweiyang, Tsunyi (Kweichow), Kunming, Pingyi, (Yunnan) Kweilin, Liangfeng (Kwangsi), Yuanling (Hunan), Kanhsien (Kiangsi), Kukong, Pingshek (Kwangtung), Nanping, Changting, Yungan, and Shaowu (Fukien). A sum of N.C.\$4,500,000 will be spent for this work during the academic year 1942-1943.

4. *Promoting International Understanding and Goodwill.*—To this end the Y.M.C.A. in China sends from time to time representatives to foreign countries for further study and also to participate in international gatherings, to conduct lecture tours, and to help in raising funds for the World Service Program of the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A.s of the U.S.A. and Canada.

5. *Other Activities.*—In addition to the different phases of work already listed, associations in different parts of China have been carrying on numerous forms of wartime service to meet the needs of their respective local situations. Among these may be mentioned promotion of mass singing; publicity on air-raid precautions and precautions against gas attacks; exhibits of pictures of and literature on the war of resistance; promotion of education for production; dissemination of knowledge of wartime diet and

nutrition; promotion of athletics; conducting lectures and forums on current affairs; conducting sick soldiers' hospitals; organizing fire brigades, and operating a rural service car. With the limited resources in personnel and money at its disposal, the Y.M.C.A. in China should not have been able to carry on such a comprehensive wartime program without the encouragement and support of the Chinese Government and the co-operation and active participation of people in different walks of life, as well as the sympathy and assistance of sister movements abroad.

There are two other phases of the work of the National Committee of the Y.M.C.A., the literature production work and the Youth and Religion Movement. The Association Press of China has produced during the past several years, scores of high-grade books and pamphlets, both original and translations, on religious, social, economic and political subjects designed for educated youth. The Youth and Religion Movement aims to present the Christian message to educate youth, both students and non-students, in different parts of the country through the sending from time to time of deputation teams to different educational centres.

nutrition has given definite demonstrations about healthful foods available at low costs, often supplemented by the promotion of bean milk. Mothers clubs and meetings give lessons in the care of children and in home-making in city and country.

A new feature of work has been the promotion of day nurseries in Kweiyang, Shanghai, and Chengtu for the care of pre-school age children of industrial, business and professional women, who are thus enabled to give their trained service to their country. Cheap and sanitary bath houses serve many women. Every city association maintains at least one hostel. Hostels have greatly increased in number and size, providing a place of residence for business and professional girls, and for students during vacation, as well as a transient refugee centre for thousands of young girls and women travelling to a new job, to join their families, or to school.

Rural Women.—Work with rural women has been conducted in seven places in the interior, helping rural communities to understand the war, training in leadership, training for livelihood, and giving education in literacy, health and home-making.

At first it was of a promotional nature. Workers operated from a centre, going out over a large area and reaching many people with new ideas on health education, home and community life. At the same time they aroused much emotional response on the war question. When this had been done they would move to the next centre, always leaving a nucleus to continue the effort. Later this work in the rural districts was made more permanent.

The Y.W.C.A. has been one of the major groups responsible for securing

and administering student relief funds nationally and locally. Travel aid is given to war evacuees moving to new colleges and student emergency centres are established to receive them en route. Students are given relief through medical aid, winter garments, subsidies, hostels, and work projects during the school year and in the summer. This work is in cooperation with the Y.M.C.A. as is the work in new isolated university centres where large aggregations of students are gathered. In such places a student centre is opened and a student secretary assigned to work. Youth and religion teams have travelled in various sections of the country, endeavouring to set forth the Christian message, and interest students in Christian service, through speeches and personal conferences. Summer and winter conferences bring many students together to discuss student problems.

Varied Activities.—More and more women and girls of all groups—middle school, industrial, business, professional, and rural—are organized in clubs and participate in varied activities through which they learn to do things together.

The need for inexpensive recreation, even greater in these days of war strains, is recognised in the existence of singing clubs, social nights, and the maintenance of recreation grounds and rooms with simple equipment for constant use.

In all programs effort is made to help women to understand the origin and nature of the war, of international aspects and relations, and of post-war reconstruction. Club activities as well as other aspects of program and organization are carried on by committees thus both officers and members bear

responsibility and get experience in democratic functioning.

The Y.W.C.A. has had a history of 53 years. The first Y.W.C.A. in China was organized in 1890 in the Southern Presbyterian Girl's School at Hangchow. In 1899 the first National Committee of the Y.W.C.A. of China

was formed. In 1908 the first city association was organized in Shanghai. The first rural work was initiated in 1927 and the first rural Y.W.C.A. affiliated with the National Committee in 1930. In the spring of 1941 the National headquarters were moved to Chengtu, Szechuen.

APPENDIX II

THE Y. W. C. A. IN CHINA¹

Among the torch-bearers of a new womanhood in China is the Young Women's Christian Association. Though conducting a program primarily for young women, it has sought to serve women of all ages and classes, in cities and rural areas, at home and in factories. Throughout the war of resistance and reconstruction in China, the association has served as a refuge where the stranded receive succor and encouragement and a medium through which patriotic women may contribute towards war relief or increasing production.

The nation-wide network of organizations through which its services are carried out consists of city and rural associations which in pre-war days numbered one and six respectively. Of these, seven city and three rural associations have temporarily suspended on account of the war. Of the 100 odd student associations, only 80 are now functioning while registered girls clubs are in existence in 53 centres throughout the nation.

City Associations.—The 14 active city associations, with date of organization are:

Shanghai, (including International Branch)	... 1908
Canton (temporarily in Kungong and Macao)...	... 1912
Tientsin ...	... 1913
Changsha (temporarily in Yuanling, Hunan)	... 1919

Hongkong ...	... 1920
Chengtzu ...	... 1921
Mukden, Liaoning (directly affiliated with World's Y.W.C.A.)	... 1923
Tsinan ...	... 1923
Peiping ...	... 1926
Chefoo ...	... 1926
Chungking ...	... 1935
Kunming ...	... 1936
Kweiyang ...	... 1938
Sian ...	... 1938

The seven temporarily suspended city associations with date of organization are:

Hangchow ...	... 1922
Nanking ...	... 1923
Wuchang ...	... 1928
Amoy ...	... 1938
Foochow ...	... 1935
Hankow ...	... 1935
Taiyuan ...	... 1938

The six rural associations, both active and suspended, with date of founding are listed as follows:

Active	Date of Founding
Fushan, Shantung ...	... 1933
Wusu, Hunan ...	... 1941
Penghsien, Szechuen ...	... 1942
Suspended	Date of Founding
Toishan, Kwangtung ...	... 1930
Tachang, Kiangsu ...	... 1934
Shunhuachen, Kiangsu ...	... 1935

¹ Article published by the China Information Committee.

War Relief.—War relief in various forms has naturally taken a large place since the outbreak of the war. Funds have been raised for war purposes through contributions, benefit performances and thrift campaigns. Several city associations have maintained war service corps on the field giving aid to soldiers.

This has taken two forms: (1) a service corps, and (2) work among the families of soldiers. In the earlier days of the struggle, the Hankow Y.W.C.A. organized a service corps composed of teachers, students, and working girls who went to Hengyang and Kweilin to assist soldiers. These women were volunteers getting only the barest provision for food and maintenance. They cooked and washed for wounded soldiers, prepared special diets and gave medical aid within their knowledge. The group was composed of about 50 persons. The work for soldiers' families was centred in Sian. There the workers visited soldiers' wives or mothers, wrote letters, advised on family problems, provided supplementary food in emergency cases and sometimes provided capital for starting small businesses or industries.

Independently or in cooperation with other organizations, the Y.W.C.A. has conducted camps in the following cities, for refugees driven from their homes by war, or migrating to interior China: Shanghai, Hongkong, Macao, Kungong, Kunming. Food, clothing, and financial aid have been given in these and other cities.

Dr. Robert Fitch in an article published in April, 1938, wrote: "The following items will give some idea of the work of the Y.W.C.A. The Chungking association reports that the local association has sent \$6,000 to headquarters to be used in other association

centres affected by the war and needing special aid. Chengtu association reports having sent over 1,000 garments to Hankow for distribution to wounded soldiers. They later prepared 1,000 pieces of bedding and also collected old clothing. The Chefoo association sent 450 padded garments to Shanghai, also the sum of \$700. This association was among the first to make response for war relief. In Wuchang it was found that there was an average of 1,000 soldiers per week coming for treatment to the hospitals or to be passed on further inland. The Y.W.C.A. workers found in certain godowns lamentable conditions and hospitals over-crowded and over-taxed. They prepared a special centre with 30 beds to give temporary aid to the wounded, so that in emergency conditions they might not die from neglect while waiting for medical treatment."

Livelihood Projects.—Livelihood projects, usually organized as industrial cooperatives, have given refugees and other women training in skills. In 11 centres, city and rural, 19 classes have given training in tailoring, weaving, shoe-making, embroidery work, umbrella making, shredded meat production, spinning, cross stitch and stocking making, and artificial flower craft. As a result, hundreds of women are now able to earn their own living.

Informal adult education has had special emphasis. In 11 city associations and six rural centres thousands of industrial and under-privileged women in mass education classes learned to read and write and received education in general lines, particularly stressing citizenship in wartime. Education in citizenship, health habits and sanitation campaigns provided training in better living. Education in

HISTORY

LEI-HAI-TSUNG¹ (雷海宗)

THERE is no lack of theories with regard to the origins of the ancient Chinese, but so far no theory has yet been able to put forth proofs acceptable to the unbiased student. All that we can say with certainty is that by 2000 B.C. the ancestors of the future Chinese were already inhabiting the Yellow River Valley, and that up to the end of the fourth century A.D. this region was the centre of Chinese history and civilization, with the Yangtze Valley as a sort of political and cultural appendage, while the Pearl River Valley came into the Chinese fold only since the latter date.

Between perhaps 3000 and 2000 B.C. the larger part of North China, including Northeast China and portions of Mongolia, gradually entered the neolithic stage of culture. In about 2000 B.C. the early Chinese tribes entered the last or chalcolithic stage of the neolithic culture. It was an age of transition: though stone and bone implements and pottery still prevailed, bronze objects began to be manufactured. Fishing, hunting, and nomadism had not yet disappeared, but agriculture gradually became the main source of the food supply; and with this predominance of agriculture the social cleavage between landed nobility and ecclesiastic and farming commoner or serf began to appear, destined to last throughout the pre-historical period and the age of feudal-

ism. Tribal conflict went hand in hand with cultural advance. With perhaps hundreds or even thousands of tribes scattered all over the North China plain to start with, by 1700 B.C. two had come to the fore, the Hsia and the Shang. The Hsia, situated in the modern province of Shansi, was at first perhaps the stronger of the two and seems to have succeeded for a time in inducing most of the nearby tribes to acknowledge its supremacy. Hence Hsia, or Hua Hsia, or Chu Hsia, came to be the collective name of the whole Chinese race. But Shang, the centre of whose power lay in the modern province of Honan, was a serious rival and after a long drawn-out conflict that lasted for perhaps a century, in about 1600 B.C. Ch'eng T'ang, the chief of Shang, decisively defeated Hsia, was acknowledged as king and overlord by the tribes and established the first loosely organized semi-feudal empire.

Unfortunately the three centuries which followed this epoch-making event are almost a total blank, so far as our present historical knowledge is concerned. However, by 1600 B.C. there must have been in use a more or less reliable calendar, without which no agricultural life is possible. The traditional list of names of the Shang kings has recently been confirmed by the oracle bones discovered in Honan, thus proving that the art of writing

probably had also been invented by 1600 B.C.

THE FEUDAL AGE

In 1300 B.C. P'an Keng, the king of Shang, established his capital at Yin, the modern Anyang, Honan. This is the first definitely established date in Chinese history, and may be regarded as the beginning of the feudal age. The prince of Shang was king and overlord, also known by a semi-religious title as Son of Heaven. All of the tribes were nominally under the suzerainty of Shang, and at least some of these were more or less under its control. But the tribal chiefs were all hereditary and exercised independence in internal affairs.

At about 1100 B.C. a new power, the Chou, rose in the west and, after decades of bitter struggle, finally overwhelmed Shang and took over the Chinese overlordship in 1027 B.C. The duke of Chou completed the task by conquering most of the subordinate tribes of Shang and distributing the conquered territory as fiefs among his numerous brothers, nephews, sons, and all degrees of cousins, as well as a few faithful ministers outside his own clan. Thus the feudal empire of Chou was stronger than Shang had ever been.

At about 900 B.C. the feudal empire of Chou began to show symptoms of decay. The feudal princes had been becoming more and more independent; through continuous wars and annexations of the weak by the strong, a few larger states had come to be able to defy the Son of Heaven with impunity. By the time of Hsüan Wang (827-782 B.C.), the princes were completely out of hand. His son, Yu Wang (781-771 B.C.), found himself

helpless against the barbarians, and was defeated and killed in 771 B.C.

THE CH'UN CH'IU AGE

For a time the royal domain of the west was completely overrun by the barbarians, and the new king, P'ing Wang (770-720 B.C.), was forced to abandon his ancestral patrimony and reside permanently at the eastern capital, Loyi, near the modern Loyang. The feudal empire was shattered beyond recall; a new age, the Ch'un-ch'iu was ushered in, with the feudal states occupying the centre of the arena, while the king became a mere figure-head.

With the transfer of the capital to the east, the king no longer played the central role in history. An international system of states, with its corresponding world politics and struggle for hegemony, arose out of the last few centuries of feudal turmoil. Four states were of special importance, roughly corresponding to the four points of the compass: Ch'i in the east, Tsin in the north, Ch'in in the west, and Ch'u in the south. Hemmed in between the Big Four were a host of minor states, whom the four giants of the periphery sought to dominate. All of these four states had become more or less unified. The old feudal nobility was still in existence, but it had to play a subordinate part under the prince who was now supreme within the state.

Succeeding the Big Four, there arose in modern Kiangsu the new state of Wu. Yueh, in modern Chekiang, followed close at the heels of Wu in organizing itself into a great power, and, being next-door neighbours, the two states could not but be mortal enemies. But when the older states struggled for hegemony, none ever

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attempted actually to conquer its rival. The chivalrous tradition of the feudal age had not yet died out. Warfare might be frequent, but it was never very bitter. Wu still retained this attitude of former times, and, when, Yueh was completely at its mercy, desisted from making the most of an advantageous position. Yueh, however, already foreshadowed the coming age, that of the Contending States, when all wars were to be wars of annihilation, and, once the situation was reversed, mercilessly wiped the state of Wu off the map (473 B.C.).

Religion comprised the whole of the spiritual life of the feudal age, and seems to have continued to be the predominating influence through most of the Ch'un-ch'iu period. But the closing decades of the age were a period of revolution and suffering and, as a result, saw the rise of the first glimmerings of nationalistic speculation. The philosophers, mostly sprung perhaps from the privileged class, diverged into three types. First, there were those who led in the overthrow of the old order. Secondly, there were the pessimists who believed the situation hopeless and decided to save themselves by fleeing the world; of such recluses Confucius met quite a number during his wanderings. The third type was represented by the Great Sage himself, who worshipped the age that had passed or was passing and devoted himself to preaching a return to the good old days.

THE AGE OF THE CONTENDING STATES

The century after the fall of Wu in 483 B.C. was one of continuous political and social upheaval. Outwardly the most conspicuous change was the partition of Tsin into the three states

of Han, Chao, and Wei and the change of dynasty in Ch'i; but the inward revolution was much more significant. All became centralized states; the hereditary nobility and its prerogative of exclusive political control by the side of the prince were completely overthrown, and the prince from now on was to be an absolute despot.

The era of the Contending States the bloodiest in Chinese history, was also the golden age of philosophy. Though abstract thought was highly developed, yet the main theme of all schools may be said to have been practical, one and all wanted to solve the pressing problem presented by the political and social anarchy of this age of blood and to set forth a plan for the unification or, at least, pacification of the world. All of these schools, however, were rather doctrinaire and utterly ineffective against force and might which ultimately prevailed by pacifying and unifying the war-torn world through the instrumentality of Ch'i Shih Huang-ti (221 B.C.).

THE EMPIRE

For the first time in history China was organized into one state by Ch'in and for the next 2,000 years unity was to be the normal condition and disunity only a temporary phase. Imperial unity was consolidated by the Ch'in and Han within the three centuries from 221 B.C. to 88 A.D., thus laying the institutional foundations of the next two millenniums. The proper territorial limits of the Chinese Empire were also set up in this period.

Socially China was also given a permanent form by the Han dynasty. The clan system of society, all-important in feudal and Ch'un-ch'iu times, reasserted itself. With the establishment of Confucianism as the state

religion, the fortune of the ancient social order may be said to have been assured, for that school was always harping back to the good old days of feudalism. This resuscitated semi-feudal social system was also destined to last for 2,000 years.

With the establishment of the universal empire, the conflicting schools of thought showed a steady decline in creativeness and influence. All schools tended to disappear, in fact, except Confucianism, Taoism, and the Yin Yang, all of which took on a more and more religious colour. Confucianism was recognized as the state cult, and Confucius himself, though never deified, was converted into a somewhat mystical personage.

THE FALL OF THE EMPIRE

The reign of Ho Ti (89-105 A.D.) was an important period of transition. For fully three centuries the empire had been consistently unified and strong, but with Ho Ti it began to decline permanently. Repeated internal insurrections and barbarian invasions shook the empire to its foundations, finally dissolving it into more than half a dozen fragments. After the short period of the Three Kingdoms (208-263 A.D.), the Tsin dynasty managed, again to unify the empire, but not for long.

Before describing the final catastrophe, however, let us review briefly the spiritual condition of the age. Confucianism came to be an ossified system of pedantic erudition and dry ceremonial, with no inspiration for the people or even for the intellectuals. The independent spirits among the latter inclined toward a decadent sort of Taoism, known as Pure Discourse, which served only as an excuse for their nihilistic behaviour, denying all

the ritual and moral code of Confucianism. It was in such an age of despair and unrest that Buddhism was introduced, probably at the beginning of the first century A.D. At first obscure and negligible, by the third century it had become a great dissolving influence for the traditional civilization, just as the barbarians had become a serious menace to the political and racial integrity of the empire.

Beginning from 300 A.D. eight princes of the blood of the House of Tsin indulged in an indescribable melée of civil war in their mutual struggles for power. It was the signal for the barbarians that their day had come, and the Hsiung-nu of Shansi were the first to declare independence in 304 A.D. Other barbarians followed eagerly in their wake, and within the next century or so more than a dozen ephemeral states were set up along the course of the Yellow River. The House of Tsin crossed the Yangtze and established a new seat at Nanking; henceforth it was to be known in history as the Eastern Tsin dynasty (317-420).

By the year 376 a barbarian state comprising the whole of the north and known by the classical name of Ch'in had been established and it began to consider seriously the invasion of the south and the unification of all China. But the Yangtze was never crossed, for the barbarian host was defeated at the River Fei in northern Anhwei, in 383 A.D. The Battle of the Fei is one of the decisive struggles in history. Had the barbarians succeeded in crossing the Yangtze at a time when Chinese vitality was at a low ebb and the Chinese race had not yet taken deep root in the new south, all China would have been lost and most probably rebarbarized, and it might have

meant the end of Chinese civilization. At any rate, all future history, even if China could have been preserved as a cultural entity, would have been totally different.

THE SUI AND T'ANG DYNASTIES

Beginning from the fifth century A.D. China has undergone practically no change politically and socially, but has merely preserved and carried on the institutions set up by the Ch'in and Han dynasties. Outwardly the only notable change was a panoramic succession of dynasties, which never deviated from the general pattern. Really significant changes have occurred only in the cultural sphere. Politically there have only been ups and downs, while socially an even tenor has been maintained throughout. It is only during the last hundred years, under the impact of the West, that signs of a comprehensive transformation have appeared.

The six centuries after the Battle of the Fei were an age of transition and new synthesis. At its greatest extent, the T'ang Empire was even more extensive than that of the Han. All of Northeast China including Korea and the Amur territory, most of Mongolia, Turkestan (both Chinese and Russian), all of Tibet, and Annam all recognized the suzerainty of T'ang, while the Han emperors had never reached the Amur or Tibet. In fact, the T'ang emperor, known as Huang-ti within China, used the additional title of the Heavenly Khan in dealing with the subject peoples.

The grandeur of the Sui and T'ang lasted barely two centuries. Beginning with the middle of the eighth century the empire steadily declined, and the first decade of the 10th century again found it broken into fragments,

of which the most important were the five ephemeral dynasties succeeding one another in the north.

THE SUNG DYNASTY

The Sung dynasty was an age of general stock-taking and house-clearing. By 960 A.D. the signs of weakness had become perfectly plain. For two centuries disunion had been growing apace, and the state of union achieved after 960 was due more to a general weariness than to an active line of policy. The army, composed of hungry peasants and the social riff-raff, was of little or no use in defending the frontier, to say nothing of pushing beyond it. The finances were disorganized, with the peasants loaded with burdensome taxes and heavy corvée services. The civil service examinations, first set up by the Sui, had by this time become artificial and anachronistic, being confined mostly to the Confucian Classics and producing few leaders who could understand and devise means to reform the evils of the country. In view of these considerations, it should be no matter for surprise that the Sung had never been able to gain a natural frontier. The Peiping area, lost to the Khitans or Liao in the period of disunion, could not be reconquered. The northwestern corner of the country, the northern part of Kansu and the southern part of Suiyuan, lost to the Tibetan Tanguts or Hsia, were to remain in barbarian hands throughout the age of Sung.

Wang An-shih, the prime minister of Shen Tsung (1068-1085), was a man of deep insight and rare understanding. He clearly saw the evils besetting state and society and offered the appropriate remedies, and he would most probably have succeeded in revivifying the empire if the opposition had not been

too blind and selfish. But the situation was hopeless, and very soon the North was once more lost to barbarians. For a century and a half the Sung managed to keep a miserable and precarious hold on South China, but ultimately all China, for the first time, was overwhelmed by barbarians, and came to form a part of the universal empire of the Mongols.

In the cultural sphere, however, innovations met with a better fate. The racial mind seemed to be determined to erase at least the external marks of alien influences. In striving to revive classical tradition it succeeded in working out a synthesis of Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism.

THE YUAN AND MING DYNASTIES

The Mongol and Ming dynasties were an age of political catastrophe, temporary recovery, and cultural stagnation. For a full century China was at the nadir of misfortune and decline; for the first time the whole country was ruled by the foreigner. The Mongol Empire, besides, extended as far west as eastern Europe; China formed only a part of the universal empire, albeit a huge and important part. The Mongols, again, differed from the conquerors of former ages in that they were indifferent or even hostile to Chinese culture, and had no inclination to be absorbed into the Chinese body system. If anything, they would rather have liked to see the Chinese adopt Mongol manners and ways of life. This was perhaps the main cause why they were driven out after barely 89 years.

Ming was a period when all China was again unified under one native rule, with even the barbarian territories of strategic importance beyond the frontier incorporated within the

empire. This outward splendour had a gloomy counterpart, however, in institutional and cultural development. The examination system was further ossified by the introduction of the so-called "eight-legged essay," which was to bind the mind of the race with ill-understood classical allusions and stereotyped opinions. The absolutist system of government began to take on the most abnormal accretions.

The only gleam of light in the prevailing darkness was the rise of the Cantonese and Fukienese branch of the Chinese race and its expansion overseas, thus showing that the latent vitality of the race was still capable of forward thrusts. The East Indies, known to China as the West Seas or the South Seas, had been opened to Chinese commerce as early as the T'ang dynasty, if not earlier; and throughout Sung and Mongol times the Chinese of the south had never lost contact with the southern islands. But large-scale Chinese immigration was a Ming phenomenon, for which the impetus seems to have been given by the naval expeditions of Cheng Ho, the greatest eunuch of the dynasty and a rare specimen of his class. The Chinese of the southern coast, with some of their kinsmen already settled overseas, took the opportunity to emigrate to the islands in large numbers, sometimes amounting to thousands, including men, women, and children. This marked a new orientation in Chinese development. Historically the Chinese had been a continental people, knowing little of the sea. From the 15th century onwards, at least one branch of the race was being trained as seafarers.

THE MANCHU DYNASTY

The end of the Ming and the heyday

of the Manchus was an age of utter stagnation, both political and cultural. One contribution made by the Manchus is, however, of special importance. The modern provinces of Yunnan and Kweichow, though first conquered by the Han and since then never completely severed from the empire, had not yet become an integral part of cultural China even by the time the Manchu dynasty was established. Having become Chinese themselves, the Manchus were determined to civilize the aborigines who still predominated in the extreme southwest. Chinese colonists were encouraged to migrate and settle in large numbers, aborigines were persuaded to adopt Chinese ways of life, and bureaucrats directly appointed by the Imperial Government were dispatched to rule over the new districts.

Intellectual effort during the Manchu dynasty was confined largely to philology and textual criticism of the classics. The only really creative work of the age was done, surreptitiously and for the most part anonymously, in the realm of fiction, which, beginning to prosper under the Mongols, reached the height of its development during the Ming and the heyday of the Manchu dynasty.

The era since the Anglo-Chinese conflict of 1839-42 is very hard to characterize in a satisfactory way. From the tendencies of the last century, we may call it an age of general decline and disintegration and one marked by various and repeated attempts at regeneration. Both Chinese vitality and Chinese culture had been steadily waning ever since the Sung dynasty. The Manchus, after two centuries of predominance, were also weakening. Only recently has there been a prospect of recovery from the

repeated blows of a century.

Ever since the first settlement of the Portuguese in Macao, that port together with Canton had been the most important commercial meeting ground between China and Europe, and the Manchus finally confined foreign trade to this locality. Meanwhile the British, who had gradually become the leading commercial nation of the West, made repeated attempts to seek a revision of the arrangement and the failure of these efforts, together with the vexed problem of the opium traffic, led to the Opium War of 1839-1842. The events leading to and following that war are a familiar story, but their interpretation even today is still a difficult matter. Under the circumstances, it was inevitable perhaps that armed conflict should occur sooner or later. Even if the Manchu Government had freely admitted foreign commerce, yet the fundamental aggressiveness of the West would still have led ultimately to rupture and war.

The tide of rebellion and social unrest, never completely suppressed since the end of the 18th century, now rose with added intensity after repeated military and diplomatic losses. The most serious revolt, strangely enough, borrowed at least part of its slogans from the religion of the West. The Taipings developed a special system of Christianity as the ideology of their movement, and, starting obscurely from Kwangsi in 1850, had secured within three years most of the southern provinces. They set up themselves at Nanking, and one of their expeditionary forces once actually penetrated as far north as the vicinity of Tientsin. But the Taipings soon degenerated in morale after their phenomenal successes. Nanking was retaken by the imperial forces in 1864, and the

Manchus were given a new lease of life for another 50 years.

Satisfied on the whole with their privileges in China, the Western Powers allowed the Manchu Government a spell of peace for about two decades after 1860. In the meantime a new menace was rising just beyond the shores of the empire.

The rise of Japan is one of those amazing phenomena in history that everybody explains in his own way and nobody really understands. Politically still in the feudal stage, and culturally more or less a part of the Chinese complex, the island empire succeeded in transforming itself within a generation into an efficient political machine of the European type, and decided with alacrity to join the international scramble for special privileges in China. After a lucky victory over China in the war of 1894, Japan took possession of Formosa and secured a foothold on the continent by forcing China in 1895 to recognize Korea as an independent state under Japanese tutelage. The blow to Chinese prestige was tremendous, and the West began to consider seriously the partition of the empire. The United States, decided, however, to champion the policy of the "Open Door" and its corollary Chinese territorial integrity. This promised to render the contemplated partition of the empire so unprofitable an affair that the first ardour of the Powers began to be very much dampened. Meanwhile the Manchu Government, under a young and enthusiastic emperor, began seriously to consider the problem of reform, and for about 100 days in 1898 actually issued a series of edicts which envisaged far-reaching consequences. But the forces of reaction, under the leadership of the Empress Dowager, forced the

emperor into virtual retirement and set up a régime of reaction.

THE REPUBLIC

Before long the Empress Dowager and her government began to realize their unpopularity and the necessity of making some gesture in the direction of conciliating public opinion. A movement for constitutional reform was officially, though half-heartedly sponsored, but it came too late. The Republican wing of reformers led by Sun Yat-sen and others finally brought about the revolution of 1911, the abdication of the last emperor, and the establishment of the Republic. This overthrow of the monarchic régime seems, for good or for evil, to be permanent. An attempt on the part of Yuan Shih-k'ai to establish a new dynasty (1915-16) and a plot to restore the Manchus (1917) both failed with unexpected rapidity, and since then no one has ever seriously considered a revival of the traditional system.

After the failure of these two attempts at a monarchical restoration, the country was plunged into a hopeless round of civil war among the militarists, the conflict lasting right down to the year of the Nationalist Revolution, 1926. Meanwhile during the years of the Great War a cultural movement was being started, with the universities at Peking as headquarters, but spreading all over the country. After the fiasco of 1900, the state examination system had been abolished, schools of all degrees had been set up, and Western ideas were silently but irresistibly penetrating the country. After the first moments of enthusiasm for the political revolution and the subsequent disappointment, some among the intellectuals began

to see that political changes alone were not enough and that the very cultural foundations must be completely overhauled. The new movement advocated the substitution of the traditional literary style by the vernacular, the unification of the spoken language by adopting the Peking dialect as the national tongue, a scientific re-examination of traditional civilization in all its aspects, wholesale and systematic introduction of Western philosophy, literature, and culture in general, and an attempt at a synthesis of things Chinese and Western and a new cultural creation. The movement, while still in its infancy, was given a distinctly nationalistic turn by the Great War, and the secret agreements between Japan and the Allies gave rise to the Student Movement of May 4, 1919, which was the first instance of active student participation in Republican politics and, being a new phenomenon, was to prove unexpectedly effective. It stopped the Chinese delegates from signing the Treaty of Versailles, 1919, and was at least partly responsible for the convening of the Washington Conference, 1921-22, which was to be a temporary turning point in Chinese foreign relations. For a time the Powers partly reversed their policy of the last 80 years by promising to respect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of China and at least passively to aid China in her efforts at unification.

The Nationalist Revolution which started from Canton in 1926 gave a further impetus to the international and diplomatic recovery of China. The expeditionary force, after a short régime at Hankow, was able to establish the next year at Nanking a government that was to be the strongest since the fall of Yuan

Shih-k'ai. With its communist allies eliminated it had General Chiang Kai-shek at its head, and by 1928, despite Japanese obstruction in Shantung and in the Northeast, the whole country was united once more under a single government—a party government under the dictatorship of the Kuomintang.

Internal troubles and civil war did not disappear altogether, but the Government at Nanking was never to be so powerless as that at Peking had been. And all of the time China was regaining some of her lost rights. Only the Japanese refused to give up their specific rights and interest, while their hold on Northeast China remained as strong as ever. But the building by China of railways of her own was steadily depreciating the value of the Japanese hold, and the phenomenal success of Chinese colonization had made the land as solidly Chinese as any of the inland provinces. Japan would either have to witness the gradual loss of her position, or do something desperate. She chose to follow the latter course.

The Japanese guns fired off at Mukden on September 18, 1931, were to put a decided check to the easy diplomatic successes of the last five years. By the spring of 1932 the Three Eastern Provinces were forcibly occupied, and the Puppet State of "Manchukuo" had been set up. On January 28, 1932, Japan sought a new world to conquer by attempting to seize a section of Shanghai and to turn it into a Japanese concession. Determined Chinese resistance and international opposition, however, rendered the realization of this plan impossible. But Japan was successful in the seizure of Jehol in the spring of 1933, thus rounding off what she regarded as the

natural frontier of her Puppet State. By determined expeditions inside the Great Wall, Japan was able to impose upon China the Tangku Truce of May 31, 1933, by virtue of which Chinese troops were all withdrawn from the territory between the Great Wall and the Peiping area, thus leaving the Japanese a free hand in the Northeast and Jehol. But Japan was by no means satisfied with her gains. In the summer of 1935, after a respite of two years, by military pressure she forced the withdrawal from Hopei of all troops under the direct command of Nanking. With all means of effective resistance removed, she believed that the hour was ripe for a new and more important move, namely, the detachment of the five northern provinces of Hopei, Chahar, Shantung, Shansi, and Suiyuan from the control of Nanking. By the winter of 1935 Japan was exerting her utmost, short of actual military intervention, to create an autonomous régime in North China. But in this she was not to be altogether successful. The Political Council of Hopei and Chahar was established indeed, but at the initiative of the Nanking Government not by declaration of the local authorities or the so-called "representatives of the people." As compensation, however, Japan seized Northern Chahar and detached Eastern Hopei from China, setting up "autonomous" régimes that would meet all the Japanese requirements.

The persistent Japanese aggression has not, however, succeeded in delaying the process of unification in the country. Under General Chiang Kai-shek the National Government has been quietly going ahead with the work of military preparedness and national unification, in spite of disas-

trous floods and the repercussions of a world-wide general depression. The strength, equipment, and efficiency of the Central Army have been increasing by leaps and bounds. Public highways and railways are binding the country firmly together. The reform of the currency by abandoning silver and introducing a managed paper system has proved to be as influential as any other measure in contributing to national unification. At the same time the unprecedented aggression from without has not succeeded in keeping intact the vicious circle of civil wars; all attempts at defying the authority of Nanking have resulted only in a wider extension of central authority and a further measure of real unity.

Meanwhile Japan has never given up her schemes of strengthening her stranglehold on China. Repeated attempts at coercing China to conclude an anti-communist pact have failed, for this would have meant giving the Japanese military forces freedom to operate at will on Chinese soil. On August 25 a mob killed two Japanese in Chengtu, Szechuen. Combined with subsequent incidents at Pakhoi, Hankow, Shanghai, and Fengtai, this gave Japan just the opportunity she needed. Fengtai was forcibly occupied on September 20, and all Chinese troops were withdrawn from the strategic railway junction. Now, in face of the new crisis, the National Government was presented with a series of exorbitant demands, compliance with which would have converted China into a virtual Japanese dependency.

China now felt herself sufficiently strong, however, not only to reject these extraordinary demands, but to make counterdemands of her own, of which the most important seemed to

be: (1) the withdrawal of the surplus Japanese garrisons from North China; (2) the abolition of the bogus régimes in eastern Hopei and northern Chahar; and (3) the cessation of Japanese smuggling.

Violently angry at what she chose to regard as the "unreasonable" attitude of China, Japan determined once more to resort to force. Hiding behind "Manchukuo" and the "autonomous" Mongols, the Japanese military decided to push westward toward Suiyuan, with the ultimate intention of encircling North China. However, this the Japanese failed. When, begin-

ning on November 5, "Manchukuoan" and "autonomous" Mongol troops, with Jehol and northern Chahar as their base, started an invasion of Suiyuan, the whole Chinese nation rushed to the assistance of the soldiers at the front with contributions and technical skill, and the invaders were speedily repulsed.

Nevertheless, this but postponed the designs of the Japanese for another six months. The creation by Japan of the Lukouchiao Incident on July 7, 1937 served a pretext for her present aggression on China.

CHINA grew in one of the world's cradles of civilization that happened to be separated from the rest of its kind by natural barriers more formidable than those separating the others. For that reason she was left to live a life independent of other civilizations until quite recently, though just the same she had to deal with nomadic and tribal peoples during that long period like all of them.

In many respects China was more fortunate in the tackling of what was really the common problem of all civilizations. To start with, her cradle was easy to defend, being exposed to the nomadic and tribal peoples practically only on one side. Next, that cradle was provided with an alternative base to fall upon in case the defence in the original site broke down. Finally, together with the second base that cradle constituted for its purpose the largest site in the Far East—indeed in the entire eastern hemisphere where civilization of any moment had grown. Being in a very large and comparatively secure site China could not help to be powerful. In consequence, she could resist better in time of nomadic and tribal invasion; she could follow up her success in resistance and bring those peoples under control; she could endure better when she happened to be overrun and recover sooner after the crisis was over; and she could in the

THE CHINESE ENTITY

SHUHSI HSÜ¹ (徐淑希)

PAST DEVELOPMENT

meantime grow steadily, keep herself together, bring her influence to bear upon any units that might grow out of her and develop an entity unique in world history and capable of standing impact when she was finally brought into close contact with other civilizations.

At the dawn of her written history China was found in the country on the middle course of the Yellow River and its tributaries the Fen and the Wei rivers, covering roughly the present North Honan, South Shansi, South Hopei, Mid-Shensi and West Shantung. Soon she was found expanding towards the sea in the east and the hills of the Mongolian plateau in the north, as well as into the middle and lower Yangtze Valley, the Szechuen basin and the Kansu plateau. In another while that expansion had taken her into the Liao basin and North Korea in the northeast and the Pearl River basin and Annam in the south.

What is just said takes us down to the early part of the Han Dynasties when China was in her teens, the end of the first period of her expansion. The next period saw her increased in weight as well as in stature. Throughout the Han Dynasties the valleys of the Hsiang, Kan, Chientang and Pearl rivers witnessed intensive development. In the period of the Three Kingdoms the Southeast Seaboard which seems to have been affected only slightly by the early Chinese expansion

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southward began to receive serious attention. In the Southern and Tang Dynasties the entire southern coast, including the Pearl River delta, became increasingly Chinese. The tendency was so strong that by the Sung Dynasty Chinese expansion was already felt in the South Sea countries. In the Ming and Manchu Dynasties the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau, which had been incorporated into China in the Mongol Dynasty was developed. In the Manchu Dynasty the Sungari basin in the present Northeast China and Formosa across the sea from Fukien were for the first time settled by the Chinese and on account of their suitability for the purpose were rapidly converted into integral parts of the Chinese nation.

During this second period of Chinese expansion non-Chinese nations began to be developed, two of them from China herself. In her expansion towards the southwest and northeast, China came into the lands of non-Chinese peoples. In the case of the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau and the Sungari basin China had reached her full growth and her assimilation efforts were effective. In the case of North Korea and Annam she was yet in her teens and was unable to do so much as necessary. During the Barbarian Rebellion of the Tsin Dynasty North Korea was occupied by the Kaokuli, a northeastern barbarian tribe, and thereafter developed a separate existence. During the period of disorganization in China after the fall of the Tang Dynasty Annam fell into the hands of some warlords like other regions in the South. While the rest were reincorporated into China in the Sung Dynasty, Annam drifted away definitely.

During the same Barbarian Re-

bellion when the Kaokuli seized North Korea, the tribesmen of the southern half of the peninsula and the islands further south, who had come under Chinese cultural influence, also asserted themselves. As a result several nations emerged, among which was Japan. Those of South Korea later coalesced with that in North Korea into one. In the Ming Dynasty Liuchiu also came under Chinese cultural influence and appeared as a nation.

It is interesting to note that although these nations developed their separate existence from China, all admitted Chinese suzerainty. This was so with Korea, Annam and Liuchiu which maintained that relationship with China uninterruptedly for the rest of their time. Japan was more independent than others. She maintained the relationship only in three periods, namely, the Liu Sung Dynasty, the Tang, and the early part of the Ming. The same admission came also from the South Sea nations of which Siam was perhaps the most notable. These nations which were called into being more through Indian and Arabian cultural influence than Chinese, entered into relations with China on exactly the same footing as those described above, when Chinese political influence exerted itself across the South China Sea.

Chinese relations with the nomadic and tribal peoples during the long centuries were on the whole more exciting. The desert nomads usually constituted the most serious problem. The Chin and Han Dynasties had to wage war against the Hsiungnu over long periods of time. So did the Sui and Tang Dynasties in their relations with the Tschuch, and the Ming and Manchu Dynasties with the Mongols. In each case direct rule followed sub-

jugation. The tribesmen of the Tarim basin were usually involved in the struggle between China and the nomads and share in their ups and downs. Those of the Sungari basin were generally more tractable, though on account of their favourable geographical position they constituted at times no smaller a problem than the nomads. It was to them that the Kaokuli, the Nuchen and the Manchus belong. The tribesmen of the Tibetan plateau became a problem only for a time in the Tang Dynasty. As tribesmen other than nomads did not as a rule constitute a menace to China, they were usually left alone and watched only at a distance. The establishment of direct rule over the Sungari basin and the Tibetan plateau in the early part of the Manchu Dynasty was due in the former case to Russian intrusion and in the latter case to the struggle with the Oelot Mongols.

AS FIRST SEEN BY OCCIDENTALS

The Far East had, thus, a political system of its own of a standing of almost two millenniums at the time of the Macartney and Ahmerst missions. As it existed at that time, it consisted of (a) China proper, (b) a group of semi-sovereign states on the maritime side owing China allegiance and (c) a vast area of territories on her north and west under her direct rule.

China proper was then divided into two metropolitan prefectures and 19 provinces, and governed in the following fashion:

Division	Governance
Shuntien	Prefect
Chihli	Viceroy
Fengtien } Shengking }	Prefect
Shantung	Governor
Shanai	Governor

Honan	Governor
Kansu	Viceroy
Shensi	
Kiangsu	Governor
Anhui	Governor
Kiangsi	Governor
Hupei	Governor
Hunan	Governor
Szechuen	Viceroy
Fukien	Governor
Chekiang	Governor
Kwangtung	Governor
Kwangsi	Governor
Yunnan	Governor
Kweichow	Governor

The provincial division, it may be noted, was practically the same as had existed from the beginning of the Ming Dynasty. The main difference lay in the splitting of four of the Ming provinces each into two at the beginning of the Manchu Dynasty—Nanchibli into Kiangsu and Anhwei, Shantung into Shantung and Shengking, Hu-kwang into Hupei and Hunan, and Shensi into Kansu and Shensi.

The semi-sovereign states need not detain us long. The principal ones were Korea, Liuchiu, Annam, Siam and Burma. Each one was under a king who, likewise his consort and crown prince, received investiture from the Chinese Emperor. Each one was further required to send tribute missions to the Imperial Court at stated periods fixed according to its distance from the Imperial Capital. Of these states only Burma was a new addition in the Manchu Dynasty.

The territories north and west of the 19 provinces of China proper of the time were inhabited by a large number of peoples, of whom six may be mentioned. The Sungari and Amur basins and the seaboard further east were the home of the tribesmen who for the lack of a name were generally

referred to by the Chinese as the Tungyi, i.e., Eastern Tribesmen, and by the Occidentals as Manchus after their kinsmen who established the Manchu Dynasty. The Tarim basin was the home of the Uigurs. The Tibetan plateau north to the Kwenlun range and the source of the Yellow River and east to the present city of Kangting was the home of the Tibetans and their kinsmen, the latter being generally known to the Chinese as Hsifan, i.e., Western Tribesmen, but to the Occidentals also as Tibetans. The extreme northern corner of the Mongolian plateau known as Urianghai was the home of the people that gave it its name; the northwestern fringe of present North Sinkiang and the territory beyond to the lakes was that of the Kasaks; and the rest of the country under discussion, comprising mainly the Mongolian plateau and by far the largest unit of all, was that of the Mongols.

Concerning the last-mentioned people a further word may be helpful. After throwing them out of China the Ming Dynasty was able to further drive them to the north of the desert at a distance. It was while there that they fell by the Altai range into two groups and called themselves Tatas in the east and Oelots in the west instead of Mongols. When the Ming power declined, part of both peoples moved back to the south of the desert. In the days of the Mongol conquest, it was the Tata branch that led. After their expulsion from China the Oelots began to figure in the Tatas' place. These Oelots south of the desert expanded into the Tibetan plateau, came into contact with Lamaism and served as a medium for the spread of that religion among the Mongols. Those north of the

desert also became active a little later and came into conflict with China in the early part of the Manchu Dynasty, leading eventually to the pacification not only of the land of that people, but also those of the Tibetans and Uigurs.

The Manchu Dynasty revived the name Mongol, but at first applied it only to the Tatas. Hence one reads in records the names Mongol and Oelot mentioned together as if they meant two different races. However, when the Oelots were subjugated, the name Mongol was applied to them also and their own went out of use. The Tatas south of the desert were the first of the Mongols to tender their allegiance. After the Tatas north of the desert followed suit, it was necessary to distinguish one branch from the other and the terms Inner and Outer Mongols were invented. When the Oelots came into the Imperial fold and were honoured as Mongols, naturally they could not be distanced by being called the Outers of the Outers. Hence they were also known as Outer Mongols, no matter whether they were south of the desert in the present Ninghsia and Chinghai or north of it in the present Mongolia and Sinkiang.

The government of the vast country inhabited by the nomadic and tribal peoples as existed in the 19th century was rather complicated. To start with there were three strips of territory that formed part of the provinces. One of these was that which lay between the Great Wall of Chihli and Shansi to as far north as the Yin Shan range and the Saramuren. It formed part of the two provinces mentioned, and was known as Outer Chihli and Outer Shansi. Another was that which extended from the Szechuen border about the present Sikang capital,

Kangting, to roughly the Mekong river. It formed part of Szechuen and was known to the Chinese as Chuen-pien (literally Border Region of Szechuen) and to Occidentals as the Tibetan Marches. The third was that which ran from the northwestern arm of Kansu to Urumchi, constituting with that arm a corridor connecting Kansu with the country beyond. It formed part of Kansu and was known as Sinkiang (literally the New Territory) of Kansu. The first and third strips had changed hands between the settlers and nomads many times in past centuries.

Next, there was a zone that was under the direct jurisdiction of the Li Fan Yuan, known to the Occidentals as Colonial Office. It lay between the northern provinces and the desert, extending from Kansu to the outskirts of the Liao and Sungari basins. It was known to the Occidentals by way of simplification as "Inner Mongolia," and of course with a little falsification. To the Chinese it was never known by a name for the simple reason that it was never organized into a unit. If it was spoken of together with Outer Chihli, Outer Shansi and the country beyond the desert, it was referred to as Kow Wai (literally Outside the Passes), or as the Land of the Mongols, in short, Mongolia. If only parts of it were spoken of, then the large section from the Ordos eastward was referred to together with the eastern part of Outer Chihli as the Land of the Inner Mongols, in short, Inner Mongolia, while the smaller western section as the Land of the Alashan Mongols, in short, Alashan Mongolia.

Finally the remaining part of the country under discussion, by far the largest part, was under the jurisdiction of four Military Governors and two

Imperial Commissioners. The Military Governors of Kirin and Heilungkiang divided by the Sungari from Petuna eastward to the sea their jurisdiction over the territory comprising the Sungari basin, the seaboard further east and the Amur basin including the Barga district in the latter river's upper reaches. The regions concerned were originally under the jurisdiction of the province of Shengking, the oversea half of the Shantung of Ming Dynasty. After the appointment of the two Military Governors, they were referred to together with Shengking proper by Chinese as the Eastern Three Provinces. Occidentals called the same "Manchuria," evidently by convenience but also with some misguided ingenuity. It is true that Chien Lung had a tendency to regard the Eastern Three Provinces as a separate unit from the remaining 18. But to describe them as "Manchuria" must have surprised even the ghost of that reactionary emperor. At any rate the term has been mischievous, for it misleads people to take Shengking in the past and Northeast China at present as non-Chinese, a point that has practical significance when considered with reference to the judgment of the average person in the world on an international question that affects the destiny of 30,000,000 Chinese.

The Military Governor of Uliasutai exercised jurisdiction over the four Khalka Khanates and the Kobdo, Urianghai and Altai regions. Like the zone south of the desert these territories were not known by one single name to the Chinese, but referred to separately. Occidentals, however, called them "Outer Mongolia." The latter name, though not accurate, does less violence than "Inner

Mongolia," for at least there were no Inner Mongols there.

The Military Governor of Ili exercised jurisdiction over the present Sinkiang minus Altai and the New Territory of Kansu, but plus the land of the Kasaks. The territory was known to the Chinese as Ili after the seat of the military government, or Sikiang, literally Western Territory, but to Occidentals as Chinese Turkestan or Chinese Central Asia. Of the last two, Central Asia seems more appropriate, as Turkestan would be applicable to only the Tarim basin.

The Imperial Commissioners of Sining (Kansu) and Lhasa exercised jurisdiction over practically the present Chinghai and Tibet respectively.

The foregoing description does not, however, exhaust the government of the country under review, for within the framework of direct rule, certain amount of autonomy of different degrees in different cases was conceded to the peoples therein for either political reasons or mere convenience. For our purpose it will be necessary to mention only two cases, those of (a) the Mongols and (b) Tibet.

Except the Tumets (a branch of the Oelots) of Kueihua in Outer Shansi all Mongols were organized into Banners. Except the Chahar Banners (a branch of the Tatas) of Outer Chihli and Outer Shansi and the Mongol Banners (Oelot) of Barga who did not enjoy autonomy and a few isolated Outer Mongol Banners (Oelot), including the two of Alashan, who enjoyed autonomy, all Banners were organized into Leagues for self-government. Except the League in Chinghai which was supervised by the Imperial Commissioner of Sining, all similar units were given an elected President. Among the Leagues the six of the 49

Inner Mongol Banners may, on account of their significance from the standpoint of recent internal politics of an international bearing, be given below with their locality in accordance with the present terms of political geography:

Group	Name	Locality
Eastern four	Jerim	Western Liaoning and part of Kirin and Heilungkiang
	Josotu	Southern Jehol
	Jo-ude	Northern Jehol
	Silingol	Northern half of Chahar
Western two	Ulan Chap	Northern Suiyuan
	Yegho	The Ordos in Suiyuan

The Lamaist Church, like the Christian Church in Medieval Europe, exercised certain kinds of jurisdiction over the faithful. This was so in the land of the Mongols as in Tibet, but in the latter place the church came to acquire much greater political power on account of a situation. In 1720 when the Sixth Dalai Lama was set up by the Imperial Government, he was yet in the same position like all other church dignitaries, for the country was still under lay rulers appointed by the same authority from among the loyal Mongols who had since the latter part of the Ming Dynasty in domination there. It was only in 1750 that the same Lama was given the power that formerly belonged to lay elements.

When first made the head of state the power of the Dalai Lama was considerable, as the Imperial Commissioner at Lhasa was then a mere

commander of garrisons. The situation, however, soon underwent a radical change. The Seventh Dalai Lama proved to be incompetent during the Nepalese invasions of 1788 and 1791. In 1793 after the expulsion of the intruders the Imperial Commissioner was entrusted with the government in place of the Dalai Lama, though he was to exercise his authority in consultation with him as well as the Panchan Lama. From that time on the Dalai Lama was not only not supreme, but was to exercise the remainder of his temporal power over only one half of Tibet, leaving the other half to his spiritual colleague.

MONGOLIA AND TIBET AT PRESENT¹

The 19th century saw a change in China's position on account of a change in circumstances. It is true that during the second period of her expansion China had contacts with other civilizations, first the Indian and later the Arabian; but these contacts were merely cultural or commercial in nature. It is also true that since the 16th century her political influence in the South Sea outside the Indo-China peninsula had been curtailed by the arrival there of the Occidentals; but that curtailment affected very slightly the claim of the Chinese commonwealth as a universal state. It was only in the 19th century that the Occidentals had actually closed in upon the Far East and been able to compel the Son of Heaven to descend to the position of an emperor and compress the Chinese universe into a mere state.

Even at this pass that "universe"

or entity might have existed undiminished in extent. Unfortunately that was not the case. The Occidentals with whom it came into contact were of a civilization that was not only full of vigour, being young, but was also in possession of the heritage of half a dozen ancient civilizations, the Roman, the Greek, the Hebrew, the Egyptian and the Mesopotamian. On the other hand, the Chinese universe was not only unwieldy, being truly a universe, but was also in the hands of an alien dynasty in decline. The result was a shrinkage in that entity. By the end of the 19th century that process had involved the loss of all semi-sovereign states and a number of outlying territories, including such integral part of the Chinese nation as Formosa, but since then it had slowed down, manifesting itself in only three places, namely, (a) Mongolia, (b) Tibet and (c) Northeast China. The last case has been dealt with elsewhere as part of a larger problem.² For the present we will proceed with the first two.

Since the closing years of the 19th century Czarist Russia had cast a covetous eye upon Outer Mongolia. By the summer of 1911, the last year of the Manchu Dynasty, she began to intervene in the internal affairs of that country, and in October when the Chinese Revolution broke out in China she followed up by dispatching troops to Urga under the pretext of giving protection to her consulate there. Finally, the Chinese Government under President Yuan Shih-kai was compelled to sign a protocol on September 31, 1913, recognizing Outer Mongolia as an autonomous unit of the Chinese Republic,³ and to enter into a tri-

¹ See chapter on "Home Affairs: Mongolia and Tibet.

² See the *Chinese Year Book*, 1940-41, pp. 126-147.

³ For details see author. "China and Her Political Entity," pp. 352-361.

partite agreement on June 7, 1915, giving effect to the recognition. However, in 1919, after the fall of the Czarist régime, the autonomy thus brought about was cancelled.

In 1921 Russian White Guards entered Urga. In pursuit of them the Red Army also entered the place and occupied it. On May 31, 1924, China and the Soviet Union settled all pending questions between them. Concerning Outer Mongolia the following articles of the agreement on general principles read :

Article III. The Governments of the two Contracting Parties agree to annul at the Conference as provided in the preceding Article, all Conventions, Treaties, Agreements, Protocols, Contracts, et cetera, concluded between the Government of China and the Czarist Government and to replace them with new treaties, agreements, et cetera, on the basis of equality, reciprocity and justice, as well as the spirit of the Declarations of the Soviet Government of the years of 1919 and 1920.

Article IV. The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, in accordance with its policy and Declarations of 1919 and 1920, declares that all Treaties, Agreements, et cetera, concluded between the former Czarist Government and any third party or parties affecting the sovereign rights or interests of China, are null and void.

The Governments of both Contracting Parties declare that in future neither Government will conclude any treaties or agreements which prejudice the sovereign rights or interests of either Contracting Party.

Article V. The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Re-

publics recognizes that Outer Mongolia is an integral part of the Republic of China and respect China's sovereignty therein.

There was also the following declaration :

The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics jointly declare that it is understood that with reference to Article IV of the Agreement on General Principles between the Republic of China and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics of May 31, 1924, the Government of the Republic of China will not and does not recognize as valid any treaty, agreement, et cetera, concluded between Russia since the Czarist régime and any third party or parties affecting the sovereign rights and interests of the Republic of China. It is further understood that this expression of understanding has the same force and validity as a general declaration embodied in the said Agreement on General Principles.

On account first of the Nationalist Revolution and next of the Japanese invasion of Northeast China the Chinese Government has so far not been able to adjust its relations with Outer Mongolia. In the meantime on account of Japanese menace the Soviet Union signed a protocol with it on March 21, 1936, pledging "mutual assistance by all means in the matter of averting and preventing the menace of military attack and also rendering to each other aid and assistance in case of attack by any third state upon the U.S.S.R. or the Mongolian People's Republic." On protest from the Chinese Government the Soviet Union affirmed that the Sino-Soviet agree-

ment of 1924 remained in force and denied that the Soviet-Mongolian protocol was intended as a violation thereof.

In 1903, during high tension in international relations regarding Northeast China the government of British India sent an armed expedition into Tibet on the ground that "doubts and difficulties have arisen as to the meaning and validity of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, and as to the liabilities of the Tibetan Government under these agreements." In the end it was able, on September 7, 1903, to force the Tibetans to sign a convention in the name of "the Government of Tibet," opening Gyantse and Gartok as trade marts in the heart of the country in addition to Yatung previously opened on the frontier, and making certain pledges against interference with Tibetan territory and administration by any "Foreign Power" without the previous consent of the British Government. The matter was later taken up by the Chinese Government with Great Britain, resulting in the convention of April 27, 1906, the pertinent articles of which are as follows :

Article 1. The Convention concluded on September 7, 1904, by Great Britain and Tibet, the texts of which in English and Chinese are attached to the present Convention as an annex, is hereby confirmed, subject to the modification stated in the declaration appended thereto, and both of the High Contracting Parties engage to take at all times such steps as may be necessary to secure the due fulfilment of the terms specified therein.

Article II. The Government of Great Britain engages not to annex

Tibetan territory or to interfere in the administration of Tibet. The Government of China also undertakes not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet.

Article III. The concessions which are mentioned in Article 9 (d) of the Convention concluded on September 7, 1904, by Great Britain and Tibet are denied to any state or to the subject of any state other than China, but it has been arranged with China that at the trade marts specified in Article 2 of the aforesaid Convention Great Britain shall be entitled to lay down telegraph lines connecting with India.

Article IV. The provisions of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890 and Regulations of 1893 shall, subject to the terms of this present Convention and annex thereto, remain in full force.

The declaration referred to in Article I concerns mitigation of certain terms of the Anglo-Tibetan agreement. Article 9 (d) of the same agreement referred to in Article III reads as follows :

No concessions for railways, roads, telegraphs, mining or other rights, shall be granted to any Foreign Power, or to the subject of any Foreign Power. In the event of consent to such concessions being granted, similar or equivalent concessions shall be granted to the British Government.

The Trade Regulations of 1893 referred to in Article IV were later revised to meet the new situation, resulting in the new Regulations signed on April 20, 1908.

The attack by British India on Chinese sovereignty over Tibet led the Manchu Dynasty to tighten its

² For details see *op. cit.*, pp. 417-423

control over that country. That in turn led the 13th Dalai Lama to waiver in his allegiance towards the Imperial Government, ending in his flight to India and subsequent assertion, when the Chinese Revolution broke out, of complete Tibetan autonomy. During the crisis British India, of course, did not fail to avail itself of the opportunity to intervene, and in his anxiety to compose all international differences President Yuan Shih-kai was induced to resort to negotiations. The terms of British India were, however, more than he could accept, and in the end nothing came out of his efforts.

The activities of British India brought about a change in the position of the Dalai Lama not only in its relation to the Chinese Government, but also in its relation to the Panchan Lama. In dealing with Lhasa alone the Dalai, who was then only the equal of the Panchan in matters temporal as in matters spiritual, was practically taken as the political representative of Tibet to the exclusion of the Panchan. This gave the former an advantage on which he did not fail to develop, culminating in his assertion of full Tibetan autonomy as if he was the sole authority. Frictions between the two dignitaries naturally followed, and by 1924 the Panchan had to leave Tibet and seek refuge in China proper, where he stayed until 1938 when he died on his way back to his home country.

In 1929, shortly after the National Government was established, steps were taken to end the ostrangement of Tibet, resulting in the appointment of a personal representative by the Dalai Lama to station in the National Capital. On December 17, 1933, the Dalai passed away. In January of

the following year Reting Hutukhtu was elected regent locally. Both events were reported by the Tibetan authorities as soon as they took place. The National Government in response confirmed the election and sent a special representative to Lhasa to demonstrate its concern and good-will.

In the meantime high lama priests in Tibet searched for the incarnation of the Dalai, whom they located near Sining in October, 1937, in the person of a boy by the name of Lamo Tanchu. On February 5, 1940, the boy was formally appointed by the National Government as the 14th Dalai Lama. Seventeen days later enthronement took place in Lhasa under the auspices of General Wu Chung-hsin, special representative from Chungking. In the ceremony which lasted three hours and was witnessed by 500 Tibetan officials and Chinese delegates, General Wu sat side by side with the new Dalai facing south, while other Chinese officials sat at the east facing the west with Reting Regent and all Tibetan ecclesiastical officials sitting on the opposite side. Tibetan cabinet ministers, three in all, and other lay officials sat on the south facing the throne.

THE NINE NEW PROVINCES

On account of external pressure upon the outlying regions of the Chinese entity, the Chinese Government had to adopt measures for its preservation. One of these was the strengthening of control over the various regions already affected or likely to be affected. This measure proved successful with certain parts, resulting in the addition of nine provinces to the original 19.

The first of the nine that thus came into existence is Sinkiang. The Moslem revolt of 1864-77 in the Tarim basin,

followed by the temporary Russian occupation of the Ili valley, fully demonstrated to the Manchu Court the incompetency of the Ili military government. In 1881, after all was over, the entire territory, or what was left of it, was therefore turned over to civil administrators. This took the form of the creation of a province with the Sinkiang of Kansu as its centre and hence known after it. In 1915 when Outer Mongolia was granted complete autonomy as a result of Czarist intervention, Altai, which was not marked within its boundary though originally under the jurisdiction of the Military Governor of Uliasutai, was made a part of Sinkiang.

Next came Kirin and Heilungkiang. The original territory of these two provinces was never very thickly populated and as the Manchus from time to time drafted its tribesmen for military service elsewhere, it became progressively more empty. As nature abhorred vacuum, the Chinese moved in. At first the Manchu Court took the tendency as a matter of course and established civil government to accommodate the settlers. But before long they began to worry. By 1776 they had already prohibited Chinese entrance. The tendency was, however, only retarded and not destroyed. Chinese infiltration continued and soon they were found everywhere in the valley of the Sungari to as far east as the junction of that river with the Amur. The Russians were no less obedient towards the law of nature, but in the early days they were too far removed from their home base to make their pressure effective. In fact they were actually held up in 1689 by the treaty of Nertchinsk. By the middle of the 19th century, however, the barrier was broken down,

resulting in the loss to China of one half of that territory. In 1878 the Manchu Court, therefore, formally opened the territory of Kirin to Chinese migration. As to that of Heilungkiang, similar measure was not adopted until 1906, i.e., after another disaster in the form of a struggle between Czarist Russia and Japan over the northeastern country.

The reactionary policy of the Manchu Court as shown in the prohibition of Chinese migration to the extra-Palisade country also demonstrated itself in the placing of the government of the province of Shengking under the Manchus in 1751 and the maintenance of the military government of Kirin after the formal opening of the territory to Chinese migration in 1878. The disaster of the northeastern country in the opening years of the 20th century finally compelled a change. In 1907, after the disaster had subsided, not only Manchu domination of Shengking was terminated, the military government of Kirin and Heilungkiang was also replaced by a civil régime. Henceforth the two extra-Palisade units of territory ranked with the original 19 provinces and Sinkiang, bringing the number of provinces to 22. At the termination of Manchu domination in Shengking, which largely meant military government, the name Fengtien which had been associated with civil government was adopted for the province instead. The name had however, a monarchical implication, being literally "In Obedience to Heaven," and so in 1928 it was replaced by order of the National Government by that of Liaoning, literally "The Liao Country Tranquil."

The territory of the Jerim League of the Inner Mongols formed geographically a part of the three provinces

of Liaoning, Kirin and Heilungkiang. Like the two last mentioned it was depleted of population through constant drafting for military service elsewhere and was entered by Chinese settlers. But whereas Kirin and Heilungkiang were originally free and later closed, the Jerim territory, like all Mongol lands, was technically reserved but actually open, for while the Imperial Government did not wish to see the nomads deprived of their pasturage, the Mongol princes valued more the rent they might collect from the settlers. In consequence long before the Sungari basin was filled with Chinese immigrants, most of the arable land of the Jerim League was brought under cultivation. After 1871, when Kirin was formally opened to Chinese migration and civil administration was introduced under the existing military government, the reclaimed parts of the Jerim territory was section by section placed under the jurisdiction of Kirin and Shengking. In 1907, when Shengking was reorganized as Fengtien and Kirin and Heilungkiang were given civil government, the remaining parts of the Jerim territory were distributed among the three provinces, with by far the largest share going to Fengtien, the present Liaoning.

The provinces of Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, Ninghsia, and Chinghai were the third ones to be created. The attitude of the Manchu Court towards Chinese reclamation of the land of the nomadic and tribal peoples, which has been shown to be hostile in the case of Kirin and Heilungkiang and indifferent in that of the Jerim territory, may be described as favourable in the case of the rest of the country bordering on the original northern provinces. It need not be pointed out that in that

case dynastic and national interests happened to coincide. Thus in the reign of Chien Lung, in which exclusion was decreed for Kirin and Heilungkiang, Outer Chihli and Outer Shansi were created out of the territory of the Josotu and Jo-ude Leagues of the Inner Mongols and the Imperial grazing grounds, in the latter of which the Chahar and Tumet Mongols had been accommodated, while the Sinkiang of Kansu was created out of the territory of the Oelot Mongols.

After the Russo-Japanese War the Manchu Court planned to reorganize not only the province of Shengking and the territory of Kirin and Heilungkiang, but also the land of the Inner Mongols, especially three of the eastern Leagues which were exposed to Japanese intrigues and were actually christened by them as East Inner Mongolia. The Manchu Court did not last long enough to do more than what was said above about the Jerim League, leaving the rest of the work to be completed by the Republic. In 1915, after the question of Outer Mongolia was settled, the question of reorganizing the Mongol land south of the Gobi was taken up anew. The remaining part of the territory of the Jo-ude League was united with part of Outer Chihli that belonged originally to the Inner Mongols, to form a special district; the territory of the Silingol League was united with part of Outer Chihli and Outer Shansi that was originally the grazing ground of the Chahars, to form a second special district; the territory of the Ulan Chap and Yegho Leagues was united with part of Outer Shansi that was originally the grazing ground of the Tumets, to form a third special district; and the three new districts were placed respectively under the juris-

diction of the Garrison Commander of Jehol city, the Military Governor of the Chahars at Kalgan and the Garrison Commander of Suiyuan. As to the territory of the Alashan Outer Mongols, no special district was created. It was just made a part of Kansu and entrusted to the special care of the Garrison Commander of Ninghsia. It was on the basis as described that in 1928 the provinces of Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, and Ninghsia were created, the only territorial readjustment in that occasion being (a) the transfer to Suiyuan of part of the Chahar district that formerly formed part of Outer Shansi, (b) the transfer to Chahar of the northwestern corner of Hopei between two lines of the Great Wall and (c) the marking from Kansu of the Ninghsia district for the new province bearing its name.

The territory under the jurisdiction of the Imperial Commissioner at Sining was least affected by external influence. Hence no plan seems to have been made for its reorganization either at the end of the Manchu Dynasty or the beginning of the Republic. But in 1928 when Ninghsia was created, it was also raised to the status of a province. In so doing a district of Kansu around Sining was also marked within its boundary. The name of Chinghai or Koko Nor after which the Mongols of that region were known was adopted for the province.

The last of the nine new provinces to be created was Sikang. One of the salvage measures adopted by the Manchu Court after the attack upon China's sovereignty over Tibet by British India was the dissociation from Tibet of the territory of the 39 Tribes which had been under the exclusive jurisdiction of the Imperial Commissioner at Lhasa throughout. This

was done by the creation of a special district to consist of Chuenpien and that territory. The Manchu Court did not live long enough to see the measure through. When the anti-dynastic Revolution of 1911 broke out, the Dalai Lama not only asserted full autonomy for Tibet, but also took step to wrest the territory of the 39 Tribes from the special district. So since shortly after its creation the district was confined practically to the territory of Chuenpien. In 1939 after the authority of the National Government was fully established over the western provinces the special district was converted into a province, with the southwestern section of Szechuen marked within its boundary. The western boundary of the new province remains undecided, pending arrangement with Tibet. *Kang* in the name of Sikang, is a former name of the district and *si*, or more accurately *hsi*, meaning "west," merely indicates position.

Of the 19 original provinces still another has changed its name since the Manchu Dynasty. We referred to Chihli's becoming Hopei (literally North of the Yellow River) in 1928, when the national capital was transferred elsewhere from the province, Chihli being literally "Governed Directly." The names of the 28 provinces are as follows:

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. Kiangsu | 15. Shansi |
| 2. Anhwei | 16. Honan |
| 3. Chekiang | 17. Hopei |
| 4. Kiangsi | 18. Jehol |
| 5. Hunan | 19. Chahar |
| 6. Hupeh | 20. Suiyuan |
| 7. Szechuen | 21. Shensi |
| 8. Sikang | 22. Kansu |
| 9. Yunnan | 23. Ninghsia |
| 10. Kweichow | 24. Chinghai |
| 11. Fukien | 25. Liaoning |
| 12. Kwangtung | 26. Kirin |
| 13. Kwangsi | 27. Heilungkiang |
| 14. Shantung | 28. Sinkiang |

Attention has been called above to inaccuracies in certain geographical terms in current use by the Occidentals, particularly in the term Manchuria. Here the same may be directed towards one more in the term China Proper. In the days when China was described incorrectly as consisting of "18 provinces and four dependencies,"¹ it followed naturally that "the 18 provinces" was China proper. But when China is described as consisting of "28 provinces and two regions," it seems doing violence to the term to apply it still to the same number of provinces to the exclusion of the rest. The term as it is usually used is political in connotation. But even if it should be used with a racial aspect in mind, it should not be given an application that would exclude such provinces as Liaoning, Kirin and Heilungkiang and to a certain extent also Jehol, Chahar, and Suiyuan. It may be admitted that it is difficult to find a substitute. But it seems that the difficulty should be got around in some way. If the term is used in opposition to the very group of provinces just mentioned, as often it is, some such as "China inside the Wall" or "intramural China" will undoubtedly be more accurate.

CHINESE OVERSEA²

A description of the Chinese entity is not complete without a word on the Chinese oversea, if not for other reasons, for their attachment to the home land. As said above Chinese expansion was felt in the South Sea countries by the Sung Dynasty. That referred, of course, to population pressure. By the Ming Dynasty political influence was evident. In the

reign of Yunglo at least three South Sea kings paid homage to the Ming emperor in person. Before long, however, Chinese political influence was curtailed by the arrival of the Occidentals. By 1717 population movement was also checked by the reactionary policy of the emperor Kang Hsi who in order to prevent reinforcement to reach any possible base established by the supporters of the Ming cause in the South Sea decreed that thereafter no migration to that area was permitted. The decree held good until 1860 when the British and French Conventions of Peking were concluded.

Kang Hsi's policy with regard to Chinese migration to the South Sea was no more successful than Chien Lung's with regard to Chinese migration to Kirin and Heilungkiang. In spite of his edict Chinese continued to leave their home for the South Sea countries. After 1842 when the south-eastern ports were reopened to foreign trade and better communication with the outer world was established, the tendency became even stronger. It was also about that time that the Chinese went beyond the South Sea to Australia and a little later to the two Americas and South Africa.

Being unprotected by their home government either because of the reactionary policy of the early days or of the weakness of the Chinese Government at the later stage Chinese oversea have throughout been at the mercy of those with whom they come into contact. They were subject to wholesale massacre in Dutch and Spanish possessions at one time. They were also for years the objects of exploitation in the form of contract

labour in many parts of the South Sea and the countries beyond it. At present they are generally excluded from the white men's countries and subject to discrimination in various degrees of severity in many countries in and out of the South Sea. In 1932-35 thousands of them were forced to flee from Mexico by anti-Chinese campaigns.

The East Sea was expressly excluded from the application of the law of 1717. Nevertheless northeastern Asia has been affected by Chinese migration only in comparatively recent time. This seems to be due to the fact that Japan and Korea which used to receive Chinese colonists in the early period of Chinese expansion had ceased to lie across their way for centuries past; that between China and Korea as between China and other non-Chinese units of the empire migration was not permitted; and that part of the Russian Far East was formerly part of Kirin and Heilungkiang and shared the prohibition of Chien Lung with regard to migration to these territories. Since Japan entered into treaty relations with China (1871), Korea was opened to Chinese trade (1882) and extra-Amur and extra-Ussuri territories were ceded to Czarist Russia (1858 and 1860), these countries have also been entered by Chinese emigrants. The fate of the Chinese in these countries originally compared well with that in the South Sea. The situation has, however, undergone a change. In 1923 two hundred were killed in Tokyo by the Japanese during an earthquake, and in 1931 three hundred were killed in Korea by Koreans under the direction of the

Secret Service Section of the Japanese Army during the Wanpaoshan dispute in Northeast China.

Chinese, of course, also penetrated to other parts of the world. A fair number settled down in France after serving with the labour corps sent over there during the last European War.

Leaving out Formosa which is a ceded part of China, Chinese oversea were found to be in the following distribution at the eve of the present Japanese war:

Soviet Union (principally in Soviet Far East) ...	430,000
Korea ...	41,000
Japan ...	82,000
Indo-China ...	400,000
Thailand ...	3,000,000
Burma ...	193,598
India ...	5,000
British Malaya ...	1,700,000
British North Borneo ...	88,000
Netherlands East Indies ...	1,232,050
Philippine Islands ...	120,000
Timor ...	3,500
Tahiti ...	5,000
New Chumung Island ...	2,000
Other Pacific Islands ...	1,200
New Zealand ...	2,854
Australia ...	15,500
Hawaii ...	27,495
United States of America ...	74,954
Canada ...	50,000
Mexico ...	20,000
Cuba ...	30,000
Central America ...	9,400
West Indies ...	50,000
Colombia ...	1,000
Ecuador ...	1,500
Peru ...	5,704
Chile ...	2,700
Argentina ...	600
Brazil ...	58,867
Guiana ...	2,300
Venezuela ...	2,828
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France ...	8,000
England ...	8,000
Holland ...	1,800
Germany ...	1,200
Portugal ...	500
Belgium ...	900
Denmark ...	250
Czechoslovakia ...	274
Italy ...	148
Switzerland ...	139
Poland ...	273
Other European Countries ...	7,075
Turkey and Egypt ...	17,000
South Africa ...	...
Indian Ocean Islands (Madagascar and Mauritius) ...	5,000 ¹

¹ Liu Yu in the *Chinese Year Book*, 1938-39, p. 143.

¹ It should be "19 provinces and seven territories."

² See chapter on "Oversea Chinese Affairs."

PART II
THE JAPANESE WAR

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

(March 1940 to May 1942)

LIU FEI¹ (劉斐)

INTRODUCTION

CHINA'S war of resistance will soon conclude its sixth year. Realizing the wide inferiority in equipment and inadequate preparations for national defense, the Chinese Government, at the very beginning of the war, adopted a dual policy of national reconstruction and resistance. During the past six years, China has encountered great difficulties which have been overcome by the hard struggle of her Government and people. Now that a good foundation for rebuilding the country is laid and final victory is in sight, the Chinese, fighting side by side with their Allies for the same cause, feel sure that it will not be long before the aggressors are crushed and a peaceful world is established in which everyone can live a decent life.

For nearly 100 years since the period of the Meiji Reform, the Japanese have aspired not only to dominate the Far East but to conquer the whole world. As the Chinese pointed out long ago, Japan attempted to carry out her plan by first overrunning China and then, with China's resources and manpower, to vanquish the other powers. It becomes evident that the objective of Japan's land forces has always been China and Soviet Russia and that of her navy, U.S.A. and Great Britain.

Japan's attack on July 7, 1937 was just a start for her plot to conquer the world nation by nation. Much to her chagrin, she has not succeeded. On the contrary, nearly 1,000,000 men have been tied up in China. Her strategy for a short and sharp war failed and her plan of liquidating the "China incident" was frustrated. Owing to tremendous casualties, she suffered from a great depletion in manpower and a rapid deterioration in morale. Seeing that to end the war in China was hopeless, the Japanese military could not but play their last trump card by launching treacherous attacks on our Allies on December 7, 1941. The Japanese military have staked the destiny of their nation on a gamble. As an ancient Chinese military strategist Sun Wu-tze said, "To maintain a big army too long drains a nation's resources," the Japanese have already paid too dearly to conclude the war as they wish, regardless of how many initial battles they have won; the initiatives are steadily passing to the United Nations.

The enemy started his "quick war" in 1937. The Chinese enticed him inland and scattered his forces over a wide area and a depleting war of attrition set in. After the battle of Hankow in November, 1938, the enemy's advance reached its climax.

¹ Deputy Chief, Board of Military Operations, National Military Council. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Chen Heng-li (陳衡力) of the Waichiao-pu and Mr. Wu Chien-tzu (伍建緒) of the Central News Agency.

And the Chinese at that time, when their conscription system was instituted, augmented their fighting power to three times what it was when the war broke out. From then on the Chinese troops have been able to stage eight times more counter-attacks than they were able to do before the battle of Hankow.

There have been 26,287 engagements to date between the Chinese and the enemy since the latter's invasion. But the following pages will deal briefly only with the important battles during the period from March, 1940 to May, 1942, those prior to March, 1940 having been narrated in the fifth issue of this year book.

NORTHERN WAR AREA

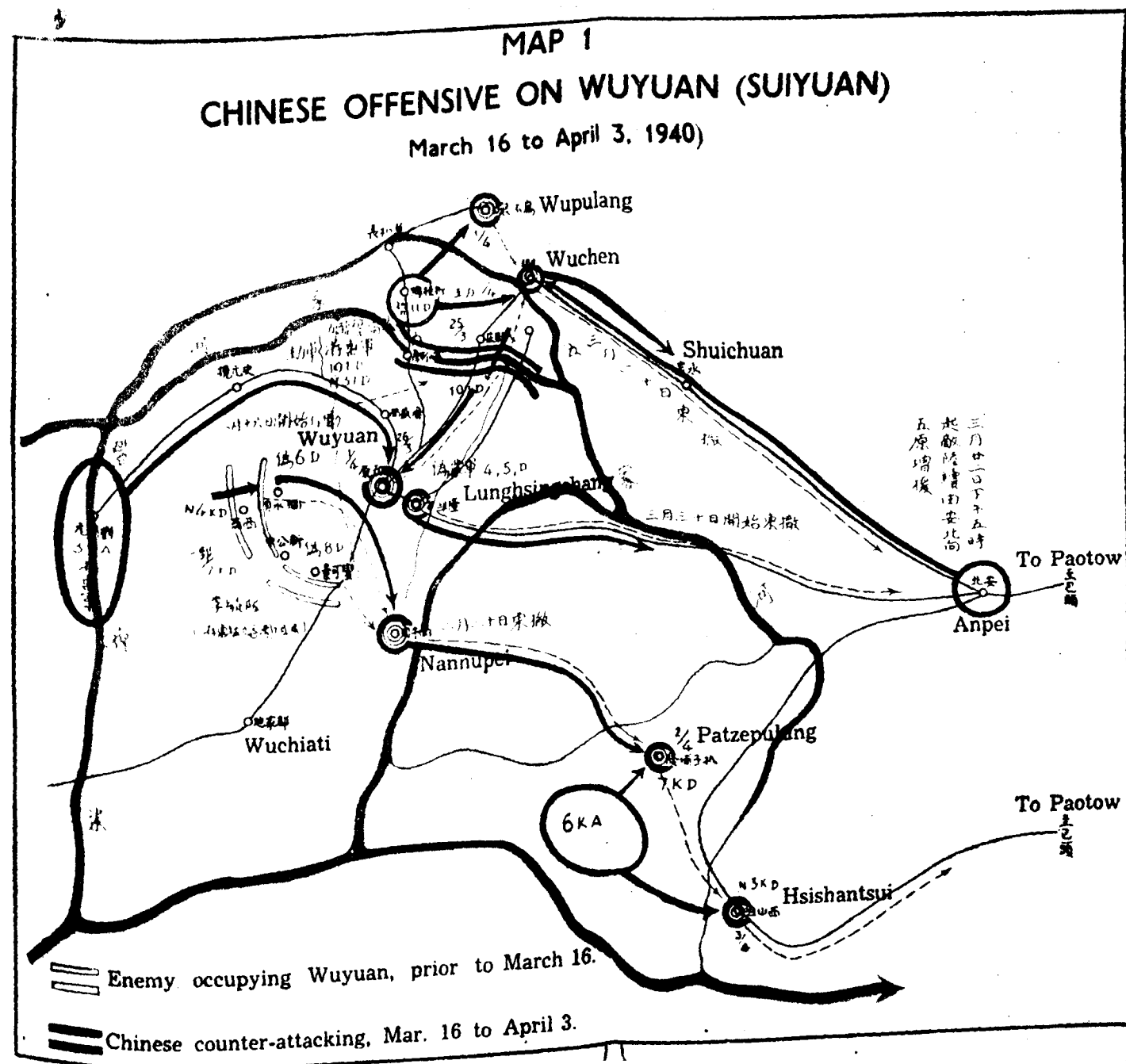
A. Offensive on Wuyuan (See Map 1).—Wuyuan is an important town in western Suiyuan province. If occupied by the enemy for long, this town, together with Yangch'u of Shansi province and Kagan of Chahar province, would form a triangular area enabling the enemy to control the best soil around the upper reaches of the Yellow River and hold China's communication line on the north. If retaken by the Chinese it could be used as a base to attack the occupied area of Tientsin and Peiping to the east, to outflank enemy forces to the south and to threaten the enemy's back to the north. It is apparent that the Chinese must recover this town.

The enemy in western Suiyuan retreated to Wuyuan under pressure of the Chinese winter offensive in 1939. At the beginning of March, 1940, the Chinese again launched an offensive, employing first of all some mechanized units to assault points outside Wuyuan in order to cut off the enemy's reinforcements. Then the Chinese right

flank, utilizing the small tributaries of the Wuchia river as screen and pivot, retreated southward towards the main front, alluring the enemy's main force in this direction, while the Chinese main force secretly shifted to the left flank. On March 16, while the enemy was pressing his force on the Chinese new fourth cavalry division at the main front, the Chinese main force led by General Liu Kai-yuan quietly moved eastward along the Wuchia river for a forced march of four days and nights and made a surprise entry into Wuyuan city on March 20. Hand-to-hand fighting lasted till dawn and the city was entirely recaptured on March 21.

However, on March 22, with 10 odd motor cars and tanks coming as reinforcements from Paosui through Anpei, the enemy crossed the Wuchia river at a point called Tats'aichuang northeast of Wuyuan, where Chinese river defense troops offered strong resistance and for three days the enemy made no progress. It was not until March 25 that the enemy, with 3,000 men as reinforcements and under air and artillery protection, re-entered the city of Wuyuan. Employing skillful tactics the Chinese retreated to the west bank of Fengchi river. Then outflanking the enemy with strong units from both wings, the Chinese sixth cavalry army and the 11th division advanced to Hsishantsui, Patzep'ulung, Wuchen, and Wupulang areas to cut the enemy's supply route. Fearing that the Tats'achuang debacle might be repeated, the enemy fled away quickly from Wuyuan on March 31, and the town was finally reoccupied by the Chinese forces.

B. Battle of Southern Honan (See Map 2).—Honan is a province on the



North China plain through which run the Peiping-Hankow Railway in a north-south direction and the Lunghai Railway in an east-west direction. After the extreme southern and northern parts of Honan fell into their hands, the Japanese repeatedly tried to join their forces along the Peiping-Hankow line in order to cut off the supply route of the Chinese army in eastern Honan. Mobilizing seven and a half divisions including about 150,000 infantrymen, 8,500 cavalrymen, 550 field pieces, some 300 tanks, 200 armored cars and 100 aircraft, the enemy launched an offensive in southern Honan in January 1941, in three columns, attacking Shangshui, Yench'eng and Wuyang. At the same time the enemy also assailed Chinese positions in Hupeh and Anhwei with the purpose of preventing the Chinese troops from reinforcing their positions in Honan. As the enemy began his southern Honan drive on January 24, the Chinese decided to retreat purposely while resisting so as to lure the enemy's main forces deep within their lines. Then with a small unit infiltrating into the enemy's rear and cutting off his communication lines, the main body of the Chinese forces planned to attack the enemy from both flanks and annihilate him.

Just as predicted, the enemy pushed on swiftly. Within three days, from January 25 to January 27, the Chinese abandoned, according to plan, such points as Hsiaolintien, Kuch'eng, Ch'ashan, Mingkang, Toukou, etc. In the meantime, the Chinese 85th and 13th armies from the north moved towards the vicinity of Shangts'ai and Hsianghokuan, the 68th army assaulted the enemy's rear from the south of Hsianghokuan, and the 55th and 59th

armies advanced respectively towards Miho and Nanyang. On the 29th the enemy left column in the vicinity of Wuyang met a surprise attack from the Chinese 13th army and their right column was caught south of Shangts'ai and near Junan by the Chinese 85th army while their central column was amazed to find itself without any organized opposition and without any particular objective. The enemy's right and left columns, being isolated, were badly beaten.

To redeem such a situation, the Japanese hurried their 15th division to Shangts'ai attempting to sandwich the Chinese 85th army with the aid of their forces already at Junan, and similarly their 17th division pushed towards Hsip'ing hoping to envelop the Chinese 13th army at Wuyang. While these Japanese reinforcements were rapidly moved forward, however, the Chinese 85th army had already shifted their positions to areas north of Shaho between Yench'eng and Shangshui, and the 13th army to areas north of Yehhsien. At the same time, the Chinese 59th, 55th and 68th armies from western Honan closely trailed the enemy's rescuing troops and launched surprise assaults. The enemy, after having been surrounded for several days and nights and sustained very heavy losses, fell back with remnants to the south on February 2.

C. Battle of the Chungt'iao Mountains (See Map 3).—After the enemy's invasion of Shansi, he had tried and failed more than 10 times to "mop up" the Chinese forces in the Chungt'iao Mountains, a screen between Shansi and Hopei and Honan provinces. Several enemy divisions were tied up in this region to combat the Chinese forces. In the middle of April, 1941,

the enemy secretly mobilised his 21st division, the 3rd, 4th and 5th independent brigades and the 4th cavalry brigade from Shantung, Hopei on the 13th and took Tungfong, and the Chinese 98th and 15th armies withdrew to areas east and west of Henghochen according to plan.

and northern Shansi to join the 35th, 36th, 37th and 41st divisions already stationed at the Chungtiao Mountain region. Concentrating these forces, which numbered about 100,000 men, in the area including the west part of Taoch'ing, Yangch'eng, Chianghsien, Wenhsü, Hsiabsien and Changmao, the enemy prepared to employ the tactics of "centering-an-attack-from-many-directions." On May 7, using a spearhead supported by a pincer movement, the enemy started their

3. The enemy numbering about 30,000 at Chianghsien and Henghsing-kwan thrust into the central positions held by the Chinese 43th army at the west side of the Hengkiao highway on May 8. The Chinese troops failed in several counter-attacks and were then forced to withdraw to the vicinity of Wanghsienchuang. Continuing their drive the enemy entered Yuanch'ü on the 8th. As a result, Chinese forces of the Chungtiao Mountain area were cut into two groups.

14th "mopping up" invasion. Being badly outnumbered, the Chinese adopted magnetic and guerrilla tactics to cope with the situation. The engagements were briefly as follows:

1. The enemy to the southwest of Wenhsi and Hsihsien had about 20,000 men and on the 7th assailed the Chinese positions of the 3rd and 80th armies east of Changchientien.

1. The enemy at the west part of Taoch'ing drove in three columns towards Chiuyan and Menghsien, in the afternoon of May 7, and occupied Chiuyan on the 8th and Fengmenkou on the 10th after encountering severe resistance. Keeping on advancing westward, they captured Shaoyuan on the 12th. Part of the Chinese 54th and 47th divisions retreated southward and crossed the Yellow River through Kwangkou, with the remaining of the Chinese ninth army spreading behind the enemy as guerrillas.

2. The enemy at Yangcheng invaded the Chinese positions of the 98th army at Tungfeng. Fierce fighting went on for several days and the Chinese positions remained intact. On the 12th the Japanese sent a regiment to a point southeast of Tungfeng trying to stage an outflanking attack but this was totally annihilated.

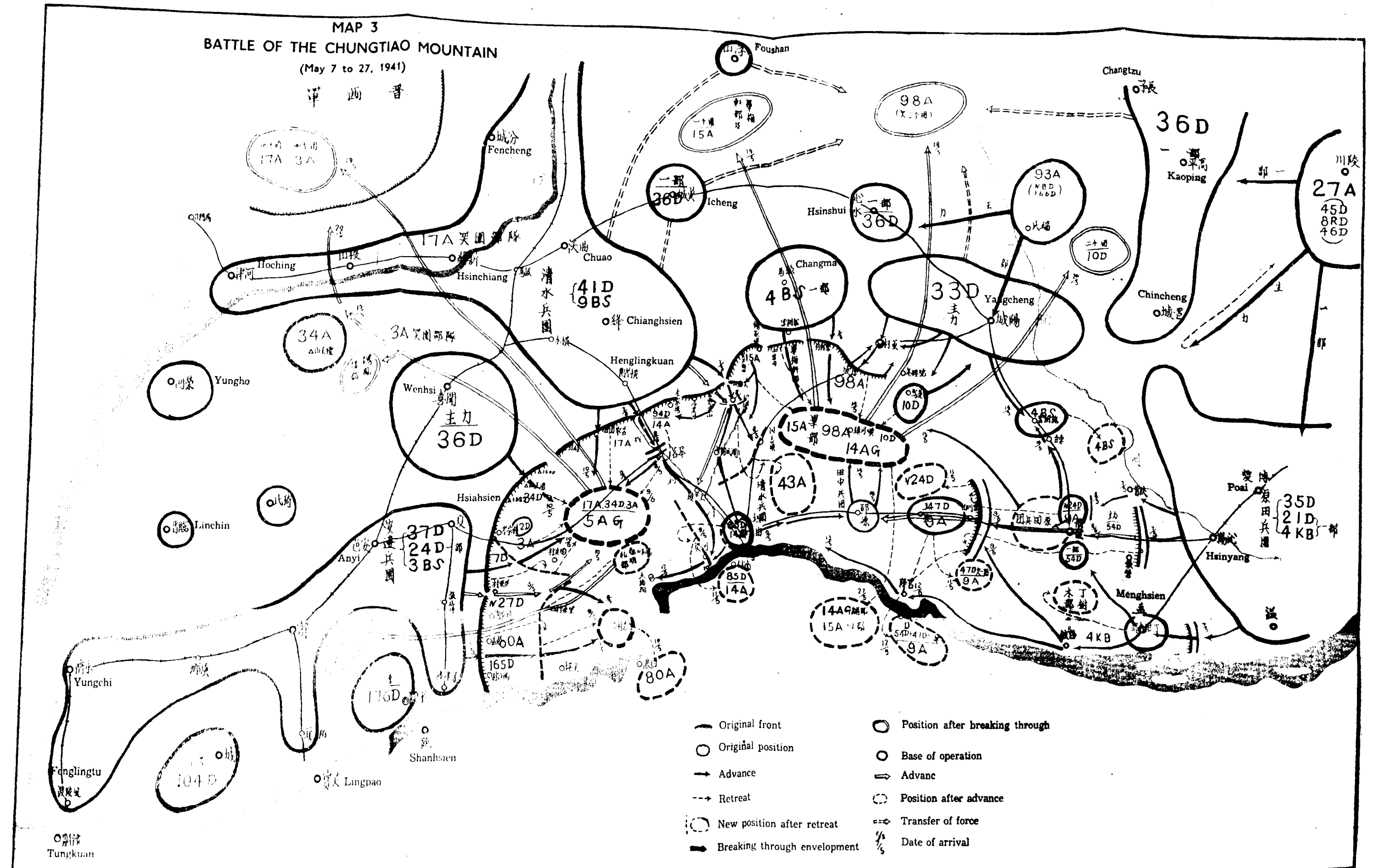
To retaliate for this defeat, the enemy called up heavy reinforcements

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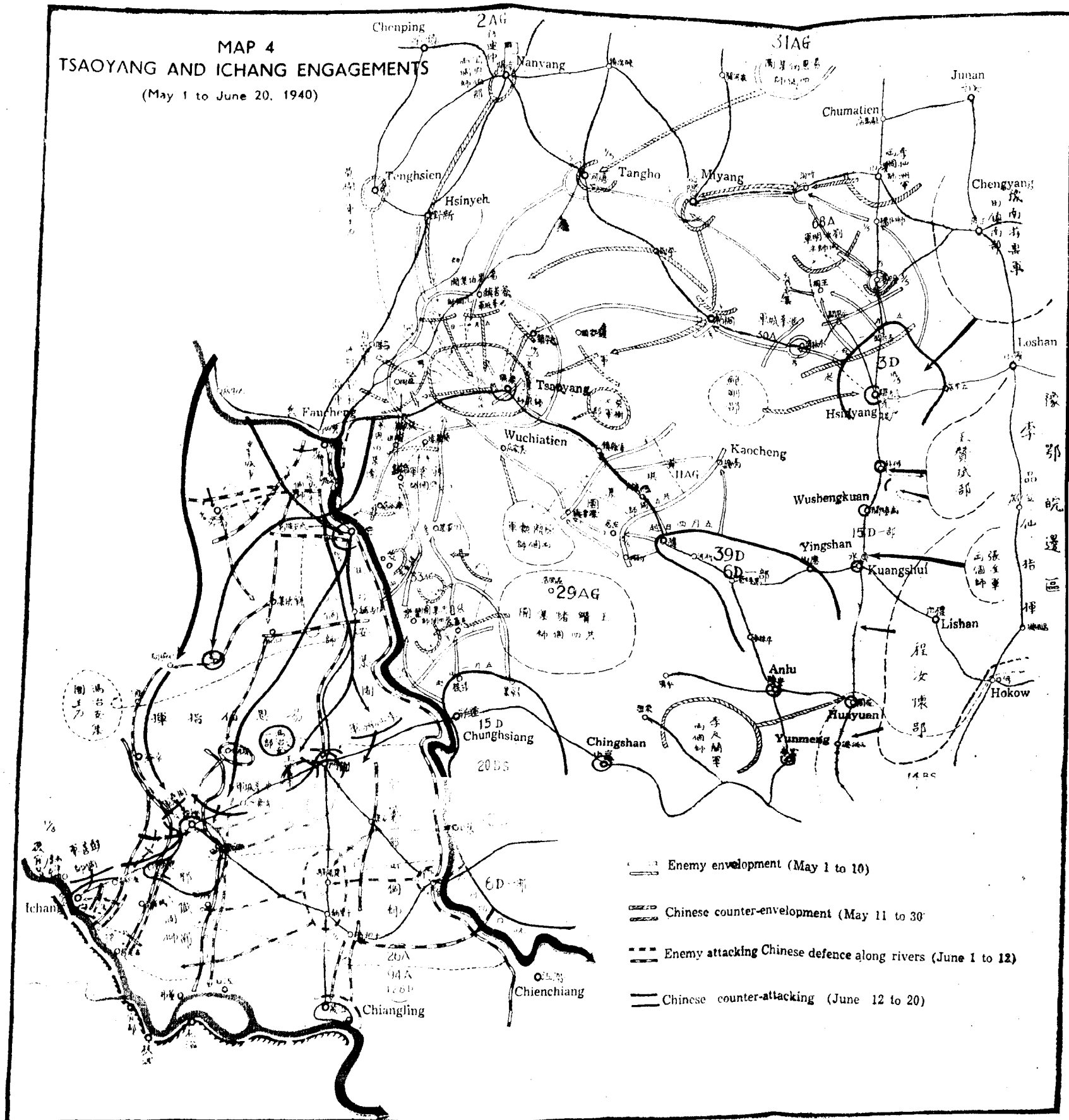
3. The enemy numbering about 30,000 at Chianghsien and Henglingkwan thrust into the central positions held by the Chinese 43th army at the west side of the Hengkao highway on May 8. The Chinese troops failed in several counter-attacks and were then forced to withdraw to the vicinity of Wanghsienchuang. Continuing their drive the enemy entered Yuanch'u on the 8th. As a result, Chinese forces of the Chungtiao Mountain area were cut into two groups.

4. The enemy to the southeast of Wenhsü and Hsianghsien had about 20,000 men and on the 7th assailed the Chinese positions of the 3rd and 80th armies east of Changchientien. Inferior in number and equipment, the Chinese positions were soon broken by the enemy. The two armies then retreated to the two villages of Wang-yuan and Szechiao. On the 9th the 80th army was encircled by the enemy and was then ordered to break out of the ring and retreat southward across the Yellow River.

5. As the highway between Chianghsien and Yuanch'u was entirely under the enemy's control and their plainclothes-men constantly interfered with Chinese communications, the 3rd and 17th armies were, therefore, ordered to withdraw to the mountain area south of the Hsiakao highway and continued to fight valiantly in that area for over 10 days. Being outnumbered, surrounded and short of supply, these Chinese troops decided to break through the encirclement regiment by regiment. On May 13, eight regiments succeeded though some of them lost their way. It was



MAP 4
TSAOYANG AND ICHANG ENGAGEMENTS
(May 1 to June 20, 1940)



not until the 17th that they rejoined the commander's headquarters.

6. With overwhelming superiority the enemy cornered the Chinese defenders in the Hwanghoehen region north of Shaoyuan. The latter decided to fight out on May 14, with the 93rd army attacking the enemy's back to divert their attention. The 42nd division and two other regiments of the 98th army and two regiments of the 93rd army broke through the encirclement and reached the area north of Hsiushui. Other troops, blocked by the enemy, turned back and joined the 43rd army north of the Yuanch'u-Chiyuan road.

Afterwards these troops repeatedly menaced the enemy's communication and supply lines in coordination with other guerrilla bands. They annoyed the enemy to such an extent that the latter had to abandon the points they had gained. The battle of the Chungt'iao Mountain drew to a close by May 28.

D. Chinese Guerrilla Activities in Southwestern Shantung.—The mountainous area of Yimeng in southern Shantung and the region near P'uhsien in western Shantung have for many years been the bases of the Chinese guerrillas. During 1941 and the beginning of 1942 these daring guerrillas unceasingly made surprise attacks on areas along the enemy occupied Tientsin-Pu'kow Railway, threatening the enemy's communication lines and constantly waking them up from their complacency. The enemy was getting restive and tried many a time to rid themselves of this thorn in the flesh. Having assembled about 20,000 men, including some puppet troops and under cover of air force and artillery, the Japanese on February 5, 1942, drove from six directions towards the

areas of Yishui and Mengyin in southern Shantung but were frustrated by the defenders.

On the 15th the Japanese came back again, this time in eight columns, trying to encircle two Chinese divisions west of the Yieh'ing highway. After about 12 days' furious engagements, the Japanese were again driven back on the 27th. Then came the third "thorn picking" campaign which occurred on February 29. This time the enemy employed more than 20,000 men mustered from Hanyang, Ch'eh-ming and Hotseh, together with some 600 trucks, 50 tanks, 40 field pieces and some air strength. On the morning of the 29th a vigorous drive was launched on the forces under General Kao Shu-hsün near P'uhsien in western Shantung. The Chinese, adopting the well-known magnetic strategy, effected numerous hit-and-run attacks and inflicted tremendous losses on the enemy who, failing to locate the Chinese main forces, were compelled to return to their base.

CENTRAL WAR AREA

A. Tsaoyang and Ich'ang Engagements (See Map 4).—Realizing the threatening peril of having the Wuhan area assaulted by Chinese concentrations in Ich'ang, Tsaoyang and Hsiangyang in Hupeh, and in order to strengthen the outer points of the Wuhan area, the Japanese in an attempt to envelop and destroy each of the Chinese main forces separately, initiated fierce onslaughts on Chinese units at the said three strategic towns of Hupeh. Having gathered a total strength of five divisions at Kingshan, Chunghsiang and Suhsien in Hupeh and at Hsinyang in southern Honan, the enemy swiftly advanced in three routes, in the middle of April, 1940,

towards Hsiangyang and Fanch'eng in northwestern Hupeh. The Chinese high command, at that time, ordered the troops to draw the enemy deep inland, and then to trap them in an ambush with flanking and pincer attacks, or, in other words, to counter-encircle the enemy's encirclement. The distribution of the Chinese army for this operation was as follows:

1. The river-defense units under the leadership of General Kuo Ch'ien were assigned to defend Chingmen, Shayang and Ich'ang and especially to be responsible for preventing the enemy from crossing the Hsiang river to Ich'ang.

2. The forces of the Chinese group army on the right wing undertook to guard the areas north of Chungshiang and, after some resistance, to lure the enemy into a position where they could be attacked on their flank and rear, thereby co-ordinating with the Chinese forces on the left wing and in the central area.

3. The 11th group army in the central area stationed at the east and west of Suihsien was directed to draw the enemy forward while resisting and then to hold the west bank of the Tangpai river.

4. The task of the left wing forces, the 30th and 68th armies stationed at Tungpo and Pingkwan, was similar to that of the right wing forces. They were assigned to chase the enemy from north to south so as to form pincer attacks.

5. The 2nd and 31st group armies, patrolling in the vicinity of Nanyang and Hsianghokwan, awaited the opportunity to cross the Tangpai river from north to south in order to surround the enemy.

6. The 29th group army, moving in between the right and central forces,

awaited their chance to advance from south to north in order to aid in surrounding the enemy.

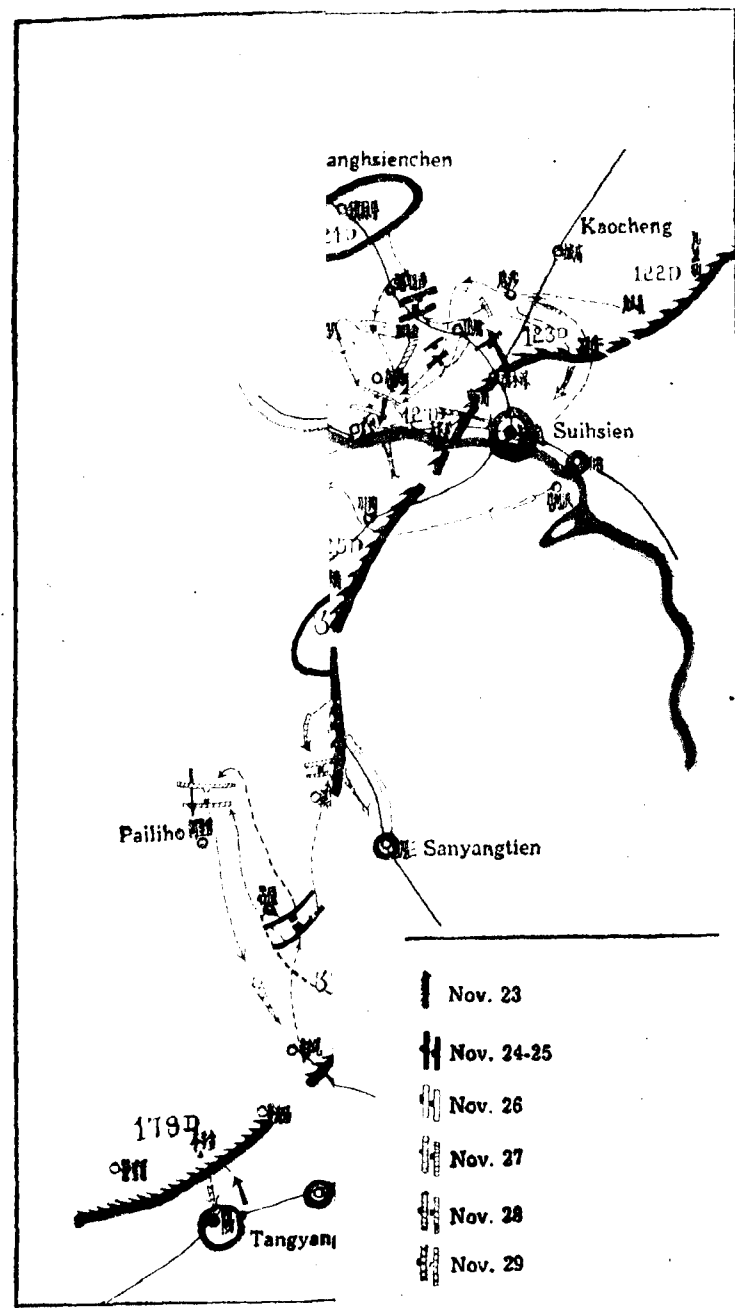
7. The units in the Honan-Hupeh border area and the guerrilla bands in southern Honan were seeking to launch timely operations encircling and cutting enemy supply lines should the enemy in Hsiyang move westward.

8. The 92nd army at Ch'uchshan, the 44th at Changchiachi and the 41st east of Hsiangyang were to serve as reserves for bridging possible gaps in these operations.

This *ruse de guerre* was carried out as follows:

1. On May 1, the enemy from Chungshiang initiated a raid towards the Chinese right wing positions where ferocious fighting took place for a whole day and night. Thereafter the enemy occupied Ch'angshoutien on the 2nd and Fangchiachi and Fengloho on the 6th. The Chinese drew back according to plan and shifted to the sides ready to attack the enemy from his flank and back. The enemy kept pushing on and on the 7th reached the vicinity of Shuangkou and Changchiachi preparing to meet their forces advancing westward from Hsiyang and those advancing northward from Suihsien so as to round up the Chinese force near Tsaoyang.

2. While waiting for this rounding-up development by their two wings, the Japanese in Suihsien did not move until May 4th when they pushed forward along the Hsiang-Hua highway against the Chinese forces in the centre. The latter carried out their assignment steadily retreating while fighting and then holding the west bank of the Tangpai river. On the 5th the Japanese captured Chunchuan and Kaoch'eng. On the 8th they took



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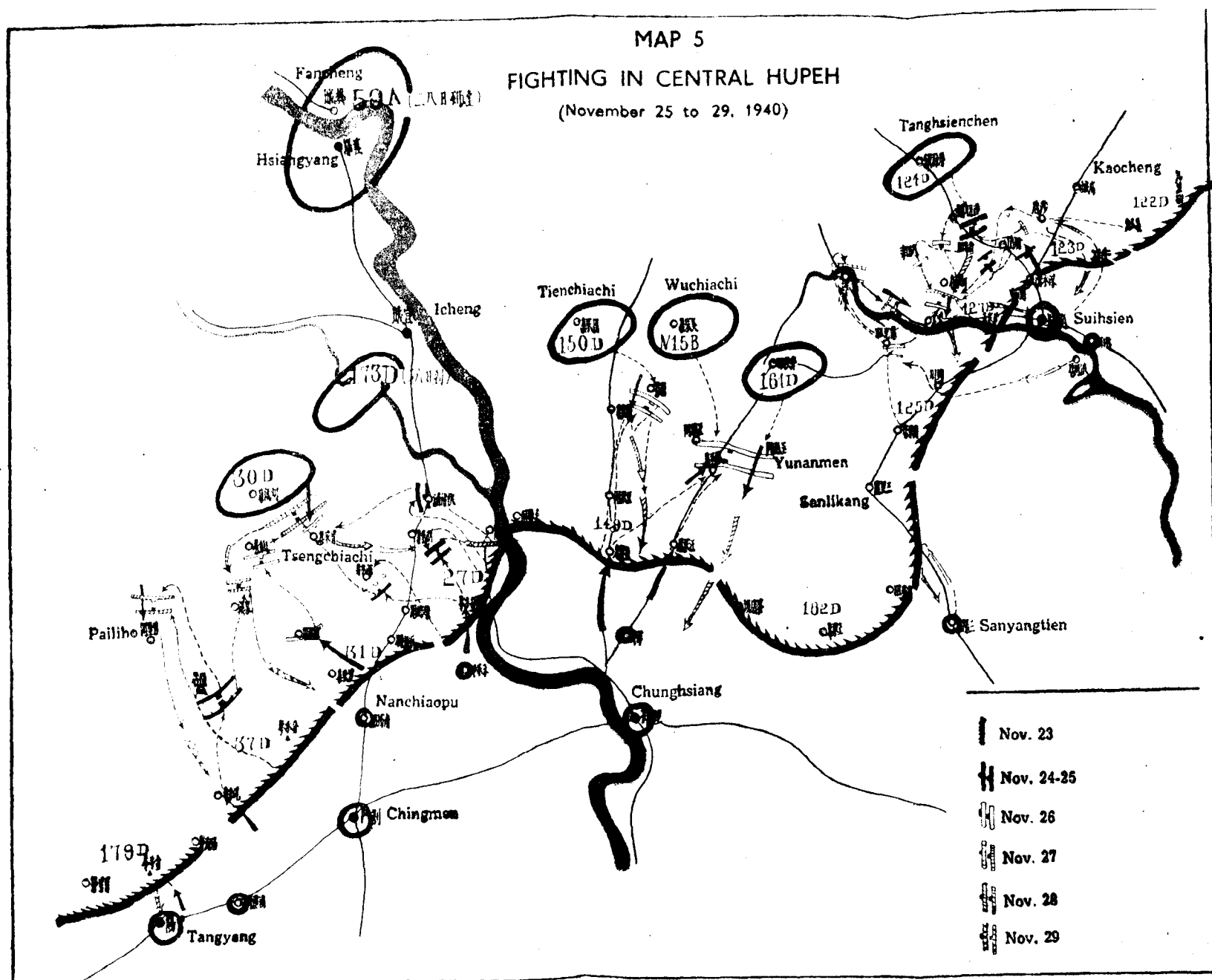
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MAP 5
FIGHTING IN CENTRAL HUPEH
(November 25 to 29, 1940)



Tsaoyang where they linked up with the units moving northward from Chunghsiang.

3. The enemy in Hsinyang started his drive on the Chinese left as early as April 28. After occupying the line of Shanlintien, Mingkang and Shih-tsech'iao, they switched to a westerly direction and occupied Tungpo and Miyang on the 5th. Then they speeded up to the Tang river on the 7th, planning to co-ordinate with the other two columns from Chunghsiang and Suihsien. The Chinese there carried out their order by making a detour to both sides, ready to assail the enemy from the east together with troops under General Li P'in-hsien from the Honan-Hupch-Anhwei border.

4. On May 7, the invader's forces from all directions met in the area of Hsinyang and the Tangpai river. Rejoicing that their encirclement was completed and that it was only a matter of days to crush all the Chinese troops therein, the Japanese, without knowing at all that they were tightly re-encircled by gigantic Chinese forces, let their fighting spirit gradually slacken. On the 9th, the Chinese forces with the 2nd and 31st group armies advancing from north to south, the 39th and 75th army pushing from east to west and the 33rd and 29th group armies moving from south to north, began to tighten the circle and forced the enemy's four divisions into a triangular region east of the Hsiang river and south of the Tangpai river. It was at this region that the Chinese destroyed about 50,000 of the Mikado's troops.

Fleeing was the only thing that the remnants of the Japanese could do at that moment. They did. Protected by some fresh reinforcements from outside and their air force, the Japanese

in the trap moved in two directions, their north column reaching Tsaoyang on May 21 and their south column reaching Ich'ang on June 10. Avoiding unnecessary sacrifices the Chinese did not beleaguer these two points because the enemy had called up overwhelming reinforcements including considerable air strength to protect these terrified remnants.

B. Fighting in Central Hupeh
(See Map 5).—Although the Japanese had occupied Ich'ang and Shayang after the Battle of Tsaoyang and Ich'ang, considerable Chinese strength around Chingmenshan, Tahungshan and Tungposhan was still threatening the enemy-occupied Wuhan area. In the hope of removing this threat the enemy mustering about five divisions at Tangyang, Chingmen, Chunghsiang and Suihsien staged wide attacks against the Chinese positions in the latter part of November, 1940. On the morning of the 25th the Japanese at Tangyang and Chingmen began to invade in four routes whereupon the Chinese were forced to withdraw to the line of Hengtien, Yench'ihmiao, Liangshuiching, Huchiachi and again to the line of Poliho and Hsienchü. Only two days afterwards, however, the Chinese 30th division came to the rescue and immediately counter-attacked the enemy. And in co-ordination with certain outflanking units they drove the enemy back to his original positions on the 29th.

The enemy at Chingshan and Chung-hsiang also assailed Ch'angshoutien and Wangchiatien on the 25th. The Chinese 149th division retreated as planned. With the 150th and 161st divisions carrying out the flanking movements, the 149th division inflicted many casualties on the enemy

and dispersed their remnants on the 28th.

The enemy units from Suihsien suffered the same fate. They started to advance on the 25th and made initial successes by capturing Huan-t'an, Hochiatien and Shatien. On the 28th, nevertheless, the Chinese troops in that sector commenced to deal the enemy a heavy blow. Aided by units who ambushed the enemy's two wings, they attacked the Japanese from three directions at the same time and crushed them.

C. Battle of Shangkiao (See Map 6).

In the rectangular area in northern Kiangsi sandwiched by the Nanchang-Kiukiang Railway on the east and the northern section of the Canton-Hankow Railway on the west, the Chinese High Command massed a big force there to rally to the defence of the two key points of Nanchang and Changsha and to harass enemy communication along the two railway lines. In case of an enemy attack on Shangkiao and Wanchai, they would execute a carefully drawn up strategic plan by which each unit would offer separate resistance based on its fortified positions until the enemy has been lured deep into a trap. Then the Chinese would attempt to route the northern and southern wings of the enemy forces, after that they would shift their weight against the enemy's central column in a counter-encirclement move and annihilate it in their third defence zone.

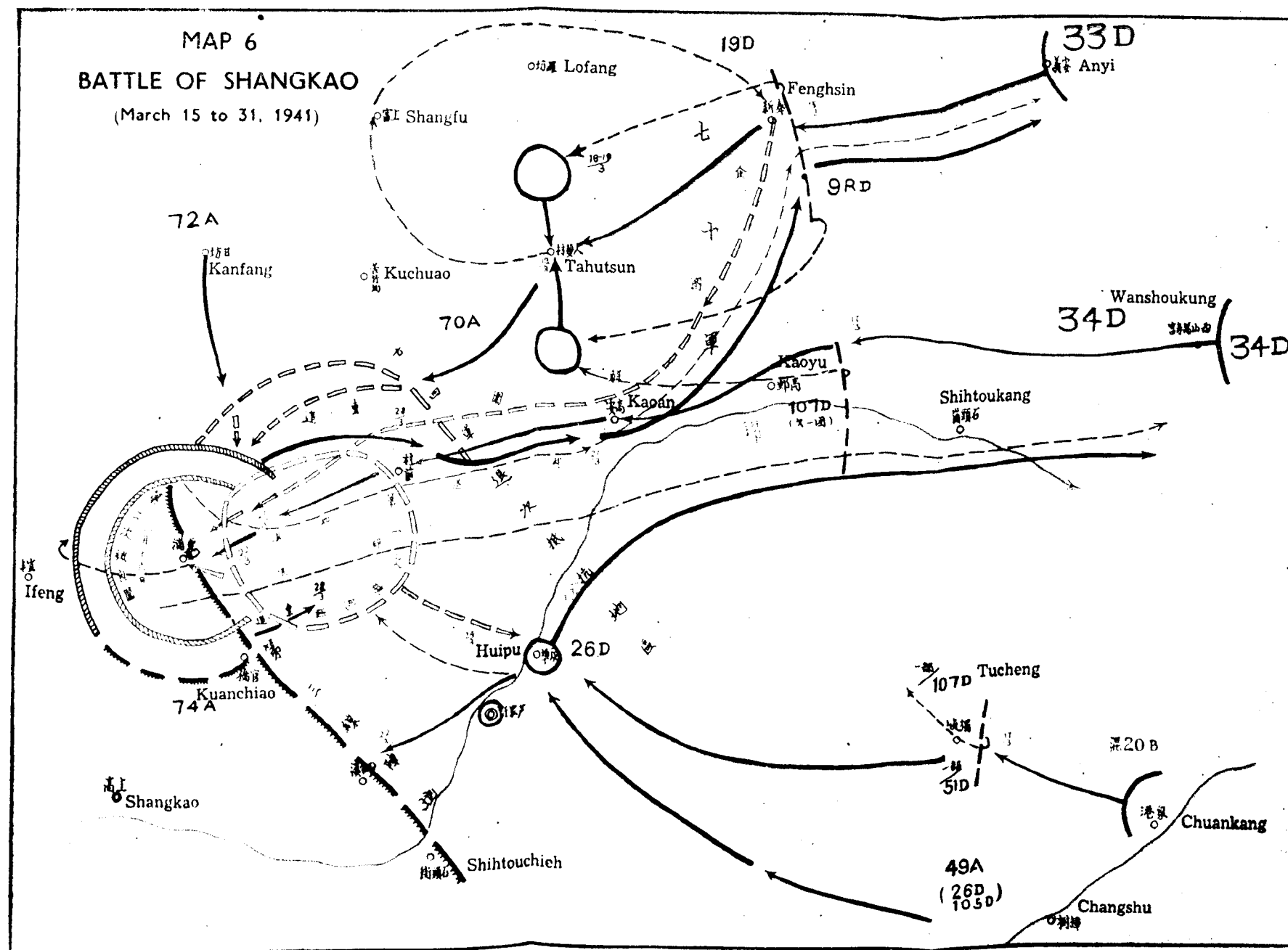
To remove this looming threat to their wings and rear, the enemy set out in an endeavour to capture the main Chinese force in this area in March, 1941. Operating from the area west of the Kan river, the 34th Japanese division, the main strength of the 33rd division and the independ-

ent 20th mixed brigade drove out in a multi-pronged attack against Shangkiao, from where they would attempt to reduce Pinghsiang preparatory to assist in the subsequent drive to Changsha.

Following previously laid down plans, the Chinese deployed their troops as follows: the 49th army to defend the line extending from Lohan-tu, across the Fu river to Yehtzeshan and Shihhanchieh; the 70th army to defend the line extending from Shihhanchieh to Shihtoukang, Fenghsin and Chingan along the south bank of the Chin river; the 74th army to deploy in the neighbourhood of Ying-kangling, Szechi and Tangpu; the 78th army to defend Wuning, Kuantsai shan and Tachiaoho; part of the 72nd army to defend the Yenhsia and Hengshihtan area; and the main forces to be held in wait in the Santu and Liaotien area. The following is a summary of the various stages of operations:

Firstly, on March 15, the northern enemy forces, composed of two regiments of the 33rd Japanese division and a combined cavalry-artillery-engineer unit, began to attack the Chinese 70th army and were met with resistance from the defenders on the high grounds along both sides of the Liao stream. On March 18-19, the Chinese launched a counter-attack in the area of Kanfang and Shangfu, which assault broke the enemy's offensive and forced them to turn tail toward Fenghsin along the Liao stream. The threat to the Chinese left wing thus removed, the main strength of the victorious 70th army was sent southward to assist the 74th army.

Secondly, in the south the independent 20th mixed brigade formed the enemy spearhead. On the night of



March 15, it effected a crossing of the Chin river under fire and attacked the Chinese 54th army's positions along the Chu Kiang. On March 19-20, after having been successfully halted by the Chinese at Chuanling and Chushan, the enemy threw into the battle another unit which attempted to reach Shangkao by way of Chingkiang and Changshu along the west bank of the Kan river. In the afternoon of March 19, this unit managed to infiltrate to the neighbourhood of Chuankangchien and Changchiashan, where it was given a bad lashing by the Chinese 26th division, and the attempt was abandoned. The following day the enemy moved his main force across the Chin river to join forces with his central column to attempt a break-through against the Chinese third defence zone, while leaving only a remnant to garrison his precautionary line along the south bank of the river. By this successful encounter, the Chinese right wing was also secured.

Thirdly, two regiments of the Japanese 34th division and a mixed cavalry-artillery-engineer unit composed the enemy's central attacking force, the main strength of which struck out along the Hunan-Kiangsi highway. Delaying action was fought by a part of the Chinese 74th army, while the main forces were amassed in the third defence zone at Szechu and Tangpu in preparation for the decisive battle. Kaoan, Szechu and Kuanchiaochieh fell into enemy hands on March 17 and 19, but the Chinese were able to harness the striking power of the various enemy units which were now heavily depleted of their strength by stiff opposition from the Chinese 14th and 70th armies. As a last resort, the enemy forces in this sector,

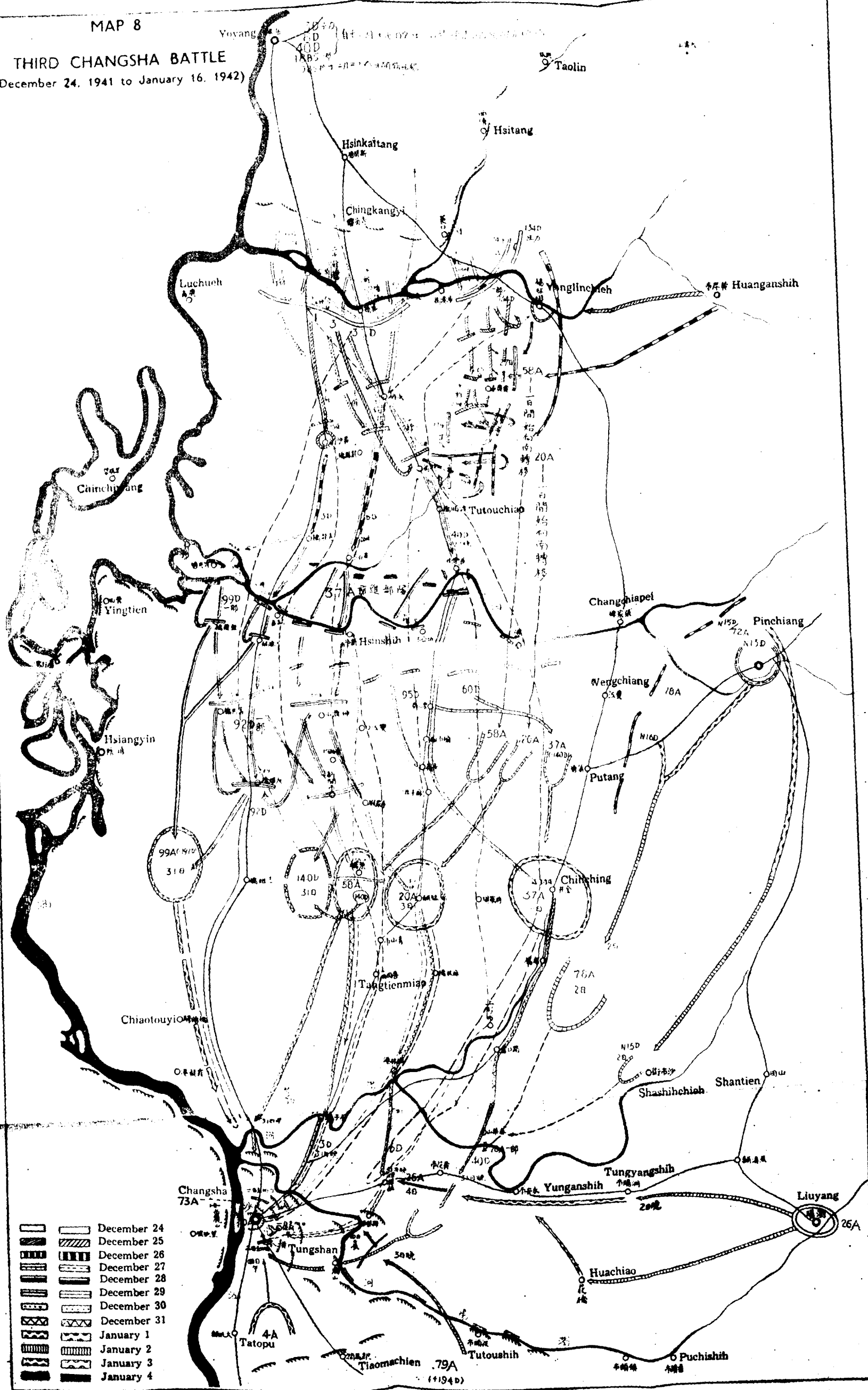
after having been joined by other units from the south, attempted to drive a wedge into the Chinese third defence zone by a sudden breakthrough.

Meanwhile, the main forces of the Chinese 70th army were harassing the enemy from the north, while a part of the 49th army crossed the Chin river and cleared the south bank of enemy remnants. The 72nd army was held in reserve in the Kanfang and Tatuan area.

On March 21 enemy troops pushed to the vicinity of Shangchichia, while the Chinese 37th and 58th divisions were launching a defensive-offensive at Shangkao. From March 22 to 25, the Chinese and the Japanese were locked in a battle at Shihhung and Paimaoshan. But in the meantime, the Chinese were throwing a cordon around the enemy forces with different units converging from the north, east and south. By March 24 the 19th division of the 70th army had reached Yangkungyu, the preliminary 9th division pushed to the southwest of Kuanchiaochieh and the new 15th division of the 72nd army advanced to Shuikouyu. As the encirclement ring was being tightened on the enemy, a portion of the enemy forces broke away on the same night. Overtaken and decimated by pursuing Chinese troops in the vicinity of Huipu, the enemy was eventually forced to flee back to inside the ring.

The next day enemy reinforcements numbering 3,000 men raced westward from Fenghsin, Wuhochia and Tsunchienchieh and effected a juncture with the beleaguered forces in the neighbourhood of Tangpu to make a last stand there. The Chinese quickly threw another cordon around the battered but reinforced enemy troops

MAP 8
THIRD CHANGSHA BATTLE
(December 24, 1941 to January 16, 1942)



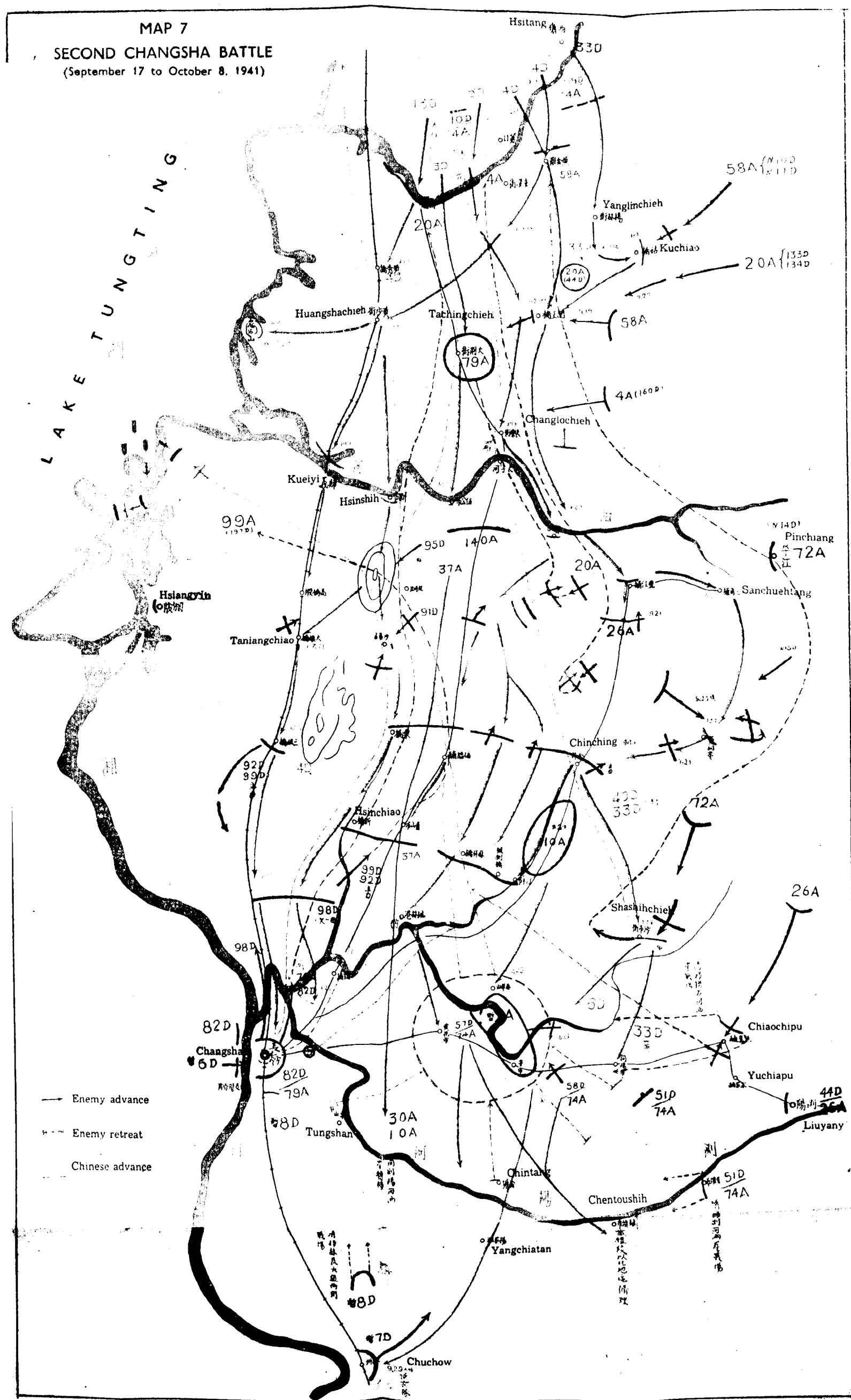
and continued to deal them fierce blows. On March 26 the Chinese 74th army reduced Szechu and joined the 72nd army in exerting strong pressure on the enemy at Kuanchiaochieh and Nanchalo. On March 27-28 the combined forces retaken successively Tangpu and Kuanchiaochieh, inflicting heavy casualties on the enemy and severing his supply line. The enemy began to fall back in confusion along the same route over which he had launched their offensive with the 49th and 70th armies hot on his heels. By April 2 the pursuing Chinese columns had reoccupied all towns lost at the beginning of the battle. Thus the Chinese had not only foiled the enemy's wild venture of annihilating them in this area, but had scored the biggest victory since the battle of southern Hunan in 1940.

D. Second Changsha Battle (See Map 7). After the humiliating defeat of some 100,000 troops at the hands of the Chinese in what is now known as the first Changsha battle in the middle of September, 1939, the Japanese military authorities had refrained from repetition of that fatal move until August, 1941, when they embarked upon their second venture, which proved in the end to be equally disastrous as the first. This was undertaken at a time when the United States-Japanese negotiations were going on in Washington and the arrogant Japanese militarists bent on revenge were also counting on a military victory to back up their wild demands at the conference table. The new campaign had also its strategical objectives, for the Japanese Imperial command had in mind the control of the whole length of the Canton-Hankow Railway once Changsha and Hengyang were

the occupied areas in the south-eastern part of China, and the cornering of hundreds of thousands of Chinese troops in Kiangsi and Fukien.

By the middle of August, the enemy had secretly concentrated a massive force in the Yochow and Lancheng area. The 3rd and 4th divisions, the 18th brigade, and parts of the 13th and 33rd divisions formerly stationed in Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi were brought in. These arrivals together with the 6th division and a part of the 40th division originally garrisoned in northern Hunan and southern Hupeh respectively totalled about 100,000 men.

Aided by scores of warships and more than 100 war planes, enemy troops began to ford the Hsuehchiang River in a several-prong push towards Changsha. Following the pattern of the strategy which brought them success in the first Changsha battle, the Chinese defenders started to withdraw from the main route of the enemy advance to wait for an opportune moment to strike a crushing blow on the enemy. Unaware of what was in store for them, the enemy forces moved into the death trap blindly and boldly. On August 25 they crossed the Milo river and the next day reached the north bank of the Laotao river. Changsha was in sight and unmindful of the bitter experiences learned at a heavy price on the previous occasion, a portion of the invaders fought its way into the city on August 28. And then the worse came. Chinese units remaining in the enemy's rear closed in from all sides and enveloped him in a ring of steel. After weeks of hopeless resistance, the enemy with his ranks battered, foodstuffs drained and ammunition exhausted began to



afternoon of September 30. In their pursuit of the retreating enemy forces, Chinese units inflicted heavy losses on them in both men and material and by October 8 they were again on the north bank of the Hsinchiang river. Thus another dream of the enemy in taking Changsha vanished like a bubble.

E. Third Battle of Changsha (See Map 8).—The third battle of Changsha was fought in December, 1941, after the outbreak of the Pacific war. Coming as it did at a time when the enemy was attacking Hongkong and Kowloon, the move was designed to prevent the Chinese forces in the seventh and ninth war zones from going to the aid of the British defenders.

A force comprising the 3rd, 6th and 43th divisions and the independent 9th brigade, numbering more than 50,000 men, having been amassed in the Yochow area in the middle of December, the enemy effected crossings of the Hsinchiang river at eight points on December 24. Up to their old tricks, the Chinese again deployed only a small force, a portion of the 20th army, to block the advance of the enemy. With a rearguard, the main body of the attacking forces pushed southward, reaching the north bank of the Milo river in the evening of December 26, where it was resisted by the forward elements of the defenders. In spite of stiff resistance, the enemy successfully crossed the Milo in the afternoon of the following day and advanced further southward along the railway. On December 28 another enemy force crossed the Milo at Changlochieh and, after staving off all stubborn resistance with great effort, headed for the Laotao river together with the main enemy forces along the railway in four columns on

December 31. On the same day their advance units reached the area between the Laotao river and the Liuyang river, after that the 40th division as the left wing forged ahead toward Chintan, Tutoushih and Hsienjenshih on the Liuyang river, while the 3rd and 6th divisions turned eastward for a full-dress assault on Changsha. The column pouring down along the railway had meanwhile reached a point within striking distance of the city, but was held in check by the 190th division of the 10th army beyond the city's outer defence system.

The stage was now set for the last act of a drama, the outcome of which the enemy would soon learn with deep repentance. Having carried out their High Command's orders to hammer at the invaders whenever and wherever it was possible to do so, all Chinese units participating in the battle retired to their previously assigned positions and were now ready for the launching of a coordinated counter-attack.

The battle of the city of Changsha itself began on the morning of January 1, when the enemy 3rd and 6th divisions started to attack the city's fortified positions. The Changsha garrison, the 10th army, playing the important role of enticing the enemy further into the dragnet, not only held its own but was able, with the support of artillery, to exact a heavy toll from the attackers. The next day the enemy 40th division was also turned against the defenders while air support was also called in. For the next few days the opposing forces were locked in sanguinary close quarter fighting. On January 4 the enemy offensive showed signs of weakening, while the defenders held firm to their positions. In accordance with previously laid

down plans, Chinese units began to close in, the 20th and 58th armies converging on Changsha from the north, the 78th and 37th armies from the northeast, the 26th army from the east, the 79th army from the southeast, the 4th army from the south, the 73rd and the 10th armies from the west and the 99th army from the northwest. On the same night the encircled enemy forces attempted to force a break-through of the cordon but were hampered by the sheer weight of the encircling Chinese forces and their repeated flank and rear attacks.

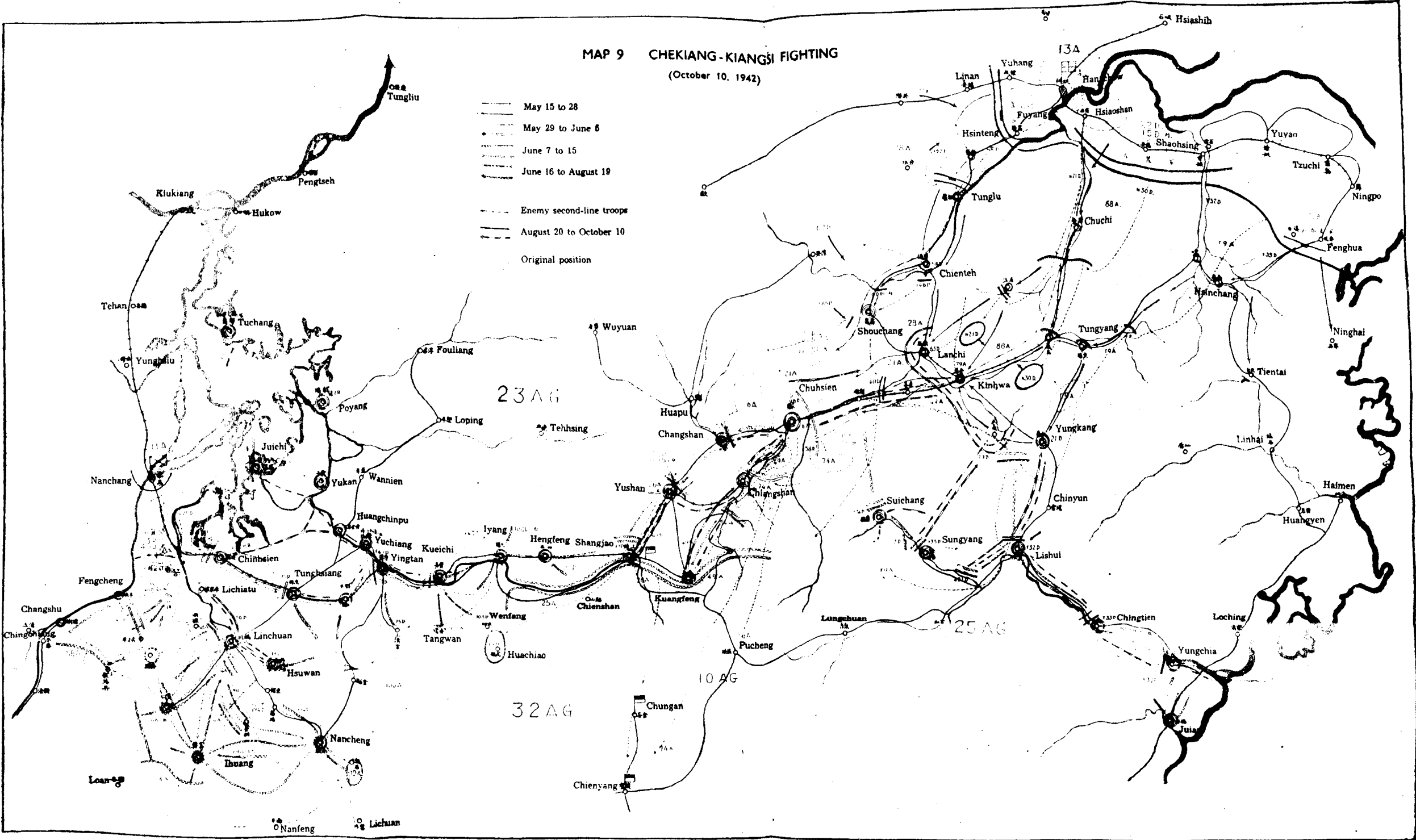
Meanwhile, the enemy independent 9th brigade was pushing its way south to the rescue of the main forces. On January 5 this relief unit was intercepted by the Chinese 37th, 20th and 58th armies in the area of Huamenlou and Kushan, while the 99th army also maneuvered into position for a flanking attack in the mountainous region of Lichiatuan and Shenting. Fighting lasted until January 8, when the relief unit was practically annihilated.

Remnants of the enemy main forces which were retreating in utter confusion suffered from constant hammering by their pursuers. Surging forward right on their heels, the Chinese were able to maintain contact with their vanquished foes, inflicting further casualties on them, until the night of January 15 when the enemy remnants broke off and fled across the Hsin-chiang river. Thus the Chinese could claim a bigger and more complete victory than the previous two battles.

F. Chekiang-Kiangsi Fighting (See Map 9).—Chekiang lies on the China coast facing the East Sea and is a potential forward base for aerial offensives against Japan Proper, while in Kiangsi lies the communication line of hundreds of thousands of Chinese

troops in the southeastern part of the country. Both are fertile production areas, and the enemy had long set a covetous eye of them. Yet still there was another reason why the enemy wished to overrun these two provinces. If he could gain the control of the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway, he would attempt to grab the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, and then sweep through Yunnan and Kweichow to French Indo-China and Burma. In other words, he would be able to realize his dream of running a direct line of communication overland from Shanghai to Singapore. "Southern Greater East Asia One-Week Through Service," the Japanese call it.

The American raid on Japan on April 18, 1942 had quite a demoralizing effect on the Japanese home front, besides causing much loss of prestige to the Japanese militarists. To remove the threat of further Allied raids in order to ease the state of uneasiness at home and to forage Chekiang and Kiangsi of foodstuffs and resources, the militarists set out to concentrate troops for another venture by withdrawing isolated garrison units from all over North China. Altogether over 110,000 men were assembled: 70,000 on the Chientang river front, 30,000 on the Fu river and Hsin river front and over 10,000 on the Ou river front. Their objectives were first to destroy all the Chinese air bases and then to join forces on the border area of Chekiang and Kiangsi for a campaign against the main Chinese forces in the third war zone. This was at a time when the Burma campaign was being fought and a part of the Chinese expeditionary force that was sent into Burma to the aid of the Allied defenders was drawn from here. Faced with this handicap, the Chinese forces had



to carefully conserve their strength by avoiding fighting decisive battles until the enemy had considerably weakened.

The following is a summary of the whole campaign :

Firstly, on the Chientang river front the enemy 13th army struck out in three columns, with its main force advancing along the railway. Contact was made with the Chinese forces on May 15-16 and from May 17-20 the enemy successively captured Hsinteng, Tunglu, Chuchi, Chenghsien, Hsinchang, Chienteh, Pukiang, Yiwu and Tungyang. The column moving down the railway headed straight for Kinhua. Meanwhile, other columns also converged on the famous ham-producing city, forcing the Chinese to evacuate the bulk of forces while leaving only a small portion to defend the city. From May 24-28 the enemy's main forces moved against Tangchi and Lungyu to the west to head off on-rushing Chinese reinforcements. The Kinhua defenders suffered heavily under relentless enemy combined land and air assaults and gas attacks, and, realizing that further resistance would be futile, withdrew to the north of the city. Hence, Kinhua and Lanchi fell into enemy hands.

Following the occupation of Shouchang, Tangchi and Lungyu, the enemy advanced toward Chuhsien in a three-prong drive and laid siege to the city beginning on June 1. Determined to reduce this city, which was one of the bases used in the American raid on Japan Proper, the enemy moved up some long-range guns dismantled from forts at home to lay down an artillery barrage, while strong reinforcements arrived in a steady stream.

Meanwhile, the defenders received orders from the Chinese High Command not to engage the enemy in a frontal

clash in the neighbourhood of Chuhsien. No natural obstacles guard the northeastern approaches to the city, while the core of the city's defence works had been completely wrecked by enemy air attacks, and a decisive battle with the enemy fought under these conditions would be contrary to the conceptions of a long-term war as undertaken by the Chinese Army.

On June 3 the Chinese voluntarily withdrew their main forces from the city to both sides of the railway where they would be in a position to lash at the enemy's flanks in the future. Following his entry of Chuhsien, the enemy continued to sweep westward in two columns, storming into Changshan, Yushan, Kiangshan and Kwangfeng, and on June 15 the two forces met at Shangjao. Driving onward, this enemy force closed the remaining gap on the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway together with another force pushing eastward from the Hsin river sector, thus realizing their objective of controlling the whole line.

However, the enemy failed to accomplish the task of wiping out the Chinese field forces in this area. Neither was he able to lay his hands on any of these two provinces' resources, as the Chinese had carted away all movable materials prior to his arrival. Owing to incessant harassing attacks by the Chinese, the enemy had to pay heavily, for his temporary successes. Finding it hard to balance his losses against gains, the enemy again ventured forth, first making a feint attack on the Chinese 26th army's positions and then on the 10th army without success.

The Chinese launched their counter-offensive in the middle of August. From then on, fighting developed with cinematographic rapidity : the Chinese

and Chungjen, both of which were recaptured. His last attempt at reaching Changshui, Fengcheng and Hsinchin having failed, the enemy offensive began to break down and on July 8 enemy troops started to withdraw toward Nanchang. By August 23 the Fu river area was entirely devoid of enemy troops.

During this three months' old campaign, the enemy employed over 100,000 men over a battlefield extending several hundred kilometers. The final outcome was that not only did the enemy utterly fail in the realization of his wishful thinking of spanning a direct communication line over the continent to the South Seas area to ease his shortage of shipping bottom, but his losses in killed and wounded excluding those missing could be counted up to tens of thousands.

SOUTHERN WAR AREA

A. Battle of Tsingyun (See Map 10).

During the height of the second battle of Changsha, the newly formed 2nd army was dispatched northward to the aid of the Changsha defenders. Taking advantage of this situation, the wily enemy unleashed an attack from Samshui against Lupao on September 25, 1941, employing more than 2,000 men equipped with artillery, steam launches, and aircrafts. Sweeping northward the enemy took Shekkok the next day and captured the walled town of Tsingyun in the afternoon of the third day. On September 28 the enemy reached the vicinity of Kumaigam and Houkong, where the Chinese, who had so far been conserving their strength suddenly started to counter-attack with considerable success. At this time the enemy was like an arrow nearing the end of its flight while more Chinese reinforcements

were being thrown into the battle. After losing heavily in dead and wounded, the enemy began his withdrawal. On November 1 the Chinese recaptured Tsingyun and the next day Shekkok and Lupao.

B. Burma Campaign (See Map 11).

Following his occupation of Rangoon, the enemy immediately swept northward in an attempt to strangle China's lifeline through her backdoor and to prepare the ground work for a direct attack on India. To realize this dual objective, the enemy massed in southern Burma and northern Thailand four divisions numbering over 100,000 men; namely, the 12th, 18th, 35th and 55th divisions, and a sizable force of airplanes and tanks. The attack in Burma was to be launched in three routes: along the Rangoon-Mandalay Railway, the Irrawaddy, and the Salween. At the request of their British ally, the Chinese sent an expeditionary force into Burma under the command of Lieutenant-General Lo Cho-ying. The task set to this force would be to safeguard the Sino-India supply line, to salvage some of the Chinese supplies in Burma and to hold up the Japanese advance as far as was humanly possible so as to afford time for the Allies to secure India as a base for the eventual counter-offensive.

A summary of the operations is as follows:

1. *The Rangoon-Toungoo Railway.* After occupying Rangoon at the beginning of March, the enemy was evidently trying to bring Toungoo and Prome under their possession in order to secure his control of Lower Burma. On March 7 a Chinese division led by Commander Tai took over from the British the defence of Toungoo, where field fortifications were hastily

erected. On March 19 contact was established with the enemy who had earlier captured Pyu and Oktwin. Five days later the enemy made daylong assaults on Chinese positions outside Toungoo with his superior air force supporting, while another enemy regiment made a detour around the mountainous region on the left side of the railway to attempt to cut off the Chinese rear at Yedashe. The battle for the city itself was in full force the next day when the enemy succeeded in breaching the Chinese line in the northwestern corner. Enemy troops poured through the gap and on March 27 the two forces were opposing each other inside the city, the Chinese in the eastern part and the Japanese in the western part, with the bisecting railway as the no man's land. Fighting grew in intensity and the climax was reached the following day during which the enemy sent over waves after waves of airplanes and tanks in an attempt to blast out the Chinese. These methods failing to accomplish their purpose, the enemy employed poison gas, but the Chinese clung tightly to their defence works and did not cede an inch of ground. Under cover of darkness, an enemy unit sneaked around to attack the headquarters of Divisional Commander Tai, while another powerful force slowly closed in from the rear, forcing the Chinese to sally out of the battered town in the north the next morning. Although the Chinese were unable to hold Toungoo, much valuable time had been gained for the main body of the Chinese expeditionary force to concentrate and organize further resistance. During all this while another Chinese division led by Commander Liao was racing down from Yedashe to reinforce the Toungoo defenders.

Encountering an enemy unit en route, the Chinese completely annihilated it and captured much booty.

2. *The Irrawaddy River Front.*—Enemy troops on this front were of the 33rd division. Pushing northward late in March, they carried Prome on April 1 and Allanmyo on April 6. Further north, their advance was checkmated by a unit each of the Chinese division led by Commander Yu and the Indian 17th division. To by-pass this barrier, the enemy crossed the Yin river at Myingun and reached Magwe on April 14. Two days later Yenangyaung fell and the situation was most critical for the British. A regiment of the Chinese division led by Commander Sun rose to the occasion and dashed to the scene. With the fury and swiftness of a stroke of lightning, it flung itself upon the enemy. In a series of surprise attacks drawn over two days and nights, the Chinese retook Yenangyaung, inflicting heavy casualties on the enemy and raising the siege of the encircled British forces. This feat is now history, but it sufficiently bespeaks the fighting caliber of the Chinese soldier and his sincerity to his ally. Handicapped by numerical inferiority and other adverse conditions, the Chinese withdrew to the north bank of the Pin river on April 20.

3. *The Toungoo-Mandalay Railway.*—The enemy along the railway resumed operations shortly after the British lost Prome on the Irrawaddy. The attack was done by the enemy 55th division assisted by a part of the 18th division with a score of tanks forming the spearhead. The land attack on Chinese positions at Yedashe began on April 6, followed by daily raids by enemy aircraft in almost continuous relay. At about the same

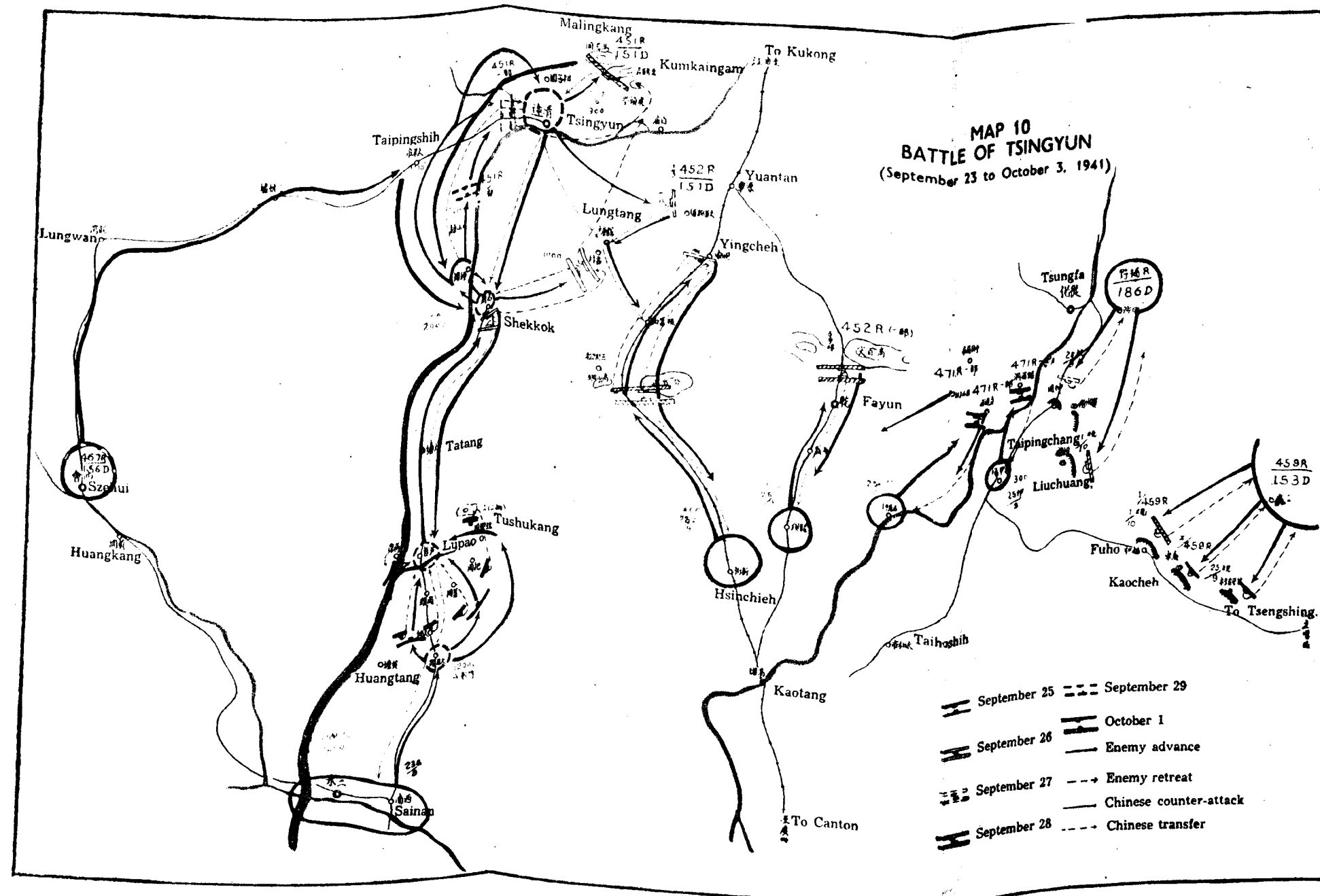
recaptured Shangjiao, Chuhshien and Lungyu in rapid succession and the enemy was chased back to Kihua, where he was being surrounded.

Secondly, the Ou river operations, undertaken by the enemy during the stage of stalemate before Shangjiao and Kwangfeng, were designed to divert the Chinese attention. The landing at the Ou river estuary was made by the enemy 41st division. Simultaneously, two other columns drove down from Lungyu. One of these columns after taking Wuyi and the airfield at Lishui swung eastward for a pincer attack on the port of Wenchow together with the 41st division which landed on the coast. The other column occupied Suichang and Sungyang and made a right turn in the opposite direction for Lungchuan and Pucheng to menace the right flank of the Chinese line running perpendicular to the railway. Timely Chinese counter-attacks defeated the enemy's attempt. At Wenchow and Chingtien, Chinese pressure finally compelled the enemy forces to withdraw in mid-August, a small portion of which escaping by sea and the majority fighting its way to Kihua. Wenchow, Lishui and Suichang are again in Chinese hands.

Thirdly, in the Hsin river and Fu river sector, the enemy 11th army plunged into action when the enemy was nearing Lungyu in the east. Its main forces moved along the railway as the western arm of the gigantic pincer movement aimed at the control of the entire line, while smaller units streamed southward along the banks of the Fu river to prevent a flanking attack by the big forces of Chinese troops in southern Kiangsi. Still other units landed on the south bank of the Poyang Lake. After little over a month of fighting the western and

eastern pincers finally met at Hengling on July 7, but the main body of Chinese troops was able to withdraw safely to both sides of the railway for regrouping preparatory for the counter-offensive. Although the whole line was now in his possession, the enemy's hold on it was by no means secure owing to continuous Chinese attacks. With his losses daily mounting, the enemy evacuated Hengling and Koyang in the middle of July. Almost simultaneous with the Chinese counter-attack, the enemy began his general withdrawal on August 19 and the situation prior to the beginning of the campaign was restored.

The fighting south of the railway assumed bloodier proportions. The enemy began to move down along the Fu river in two columns on May 31. The force west of the river after registering some initial gains was fought to a standstill by the Chinese at Yungtai and Tichlutou. Overcoming Chinese resistance at Linchuan, Huang, Chungjen and a number of other towns, the enemy force east of the river stormed Nancheng from three sides with the support of incessant aerial bombardments. The Chinese suffered heavily and were eventually forced to withdraw to Yuhshiaoshih and other points south of Huang and Chungjen. After regrouping, the Chinese launched a coordinated attack with Linchuan, Nancheng and Huang as their immediate objectives. The battle for Linchuan was most heated, fierce fighting lasting for several days in the southwestern suburbs of the town. On June 25 the enemy counter-attacked from Nancheng and Linchuan in three directions. In a series of brilliant maneuvers, the Chinese managed to score a staggering blow on the enemy at a point midway between Huang



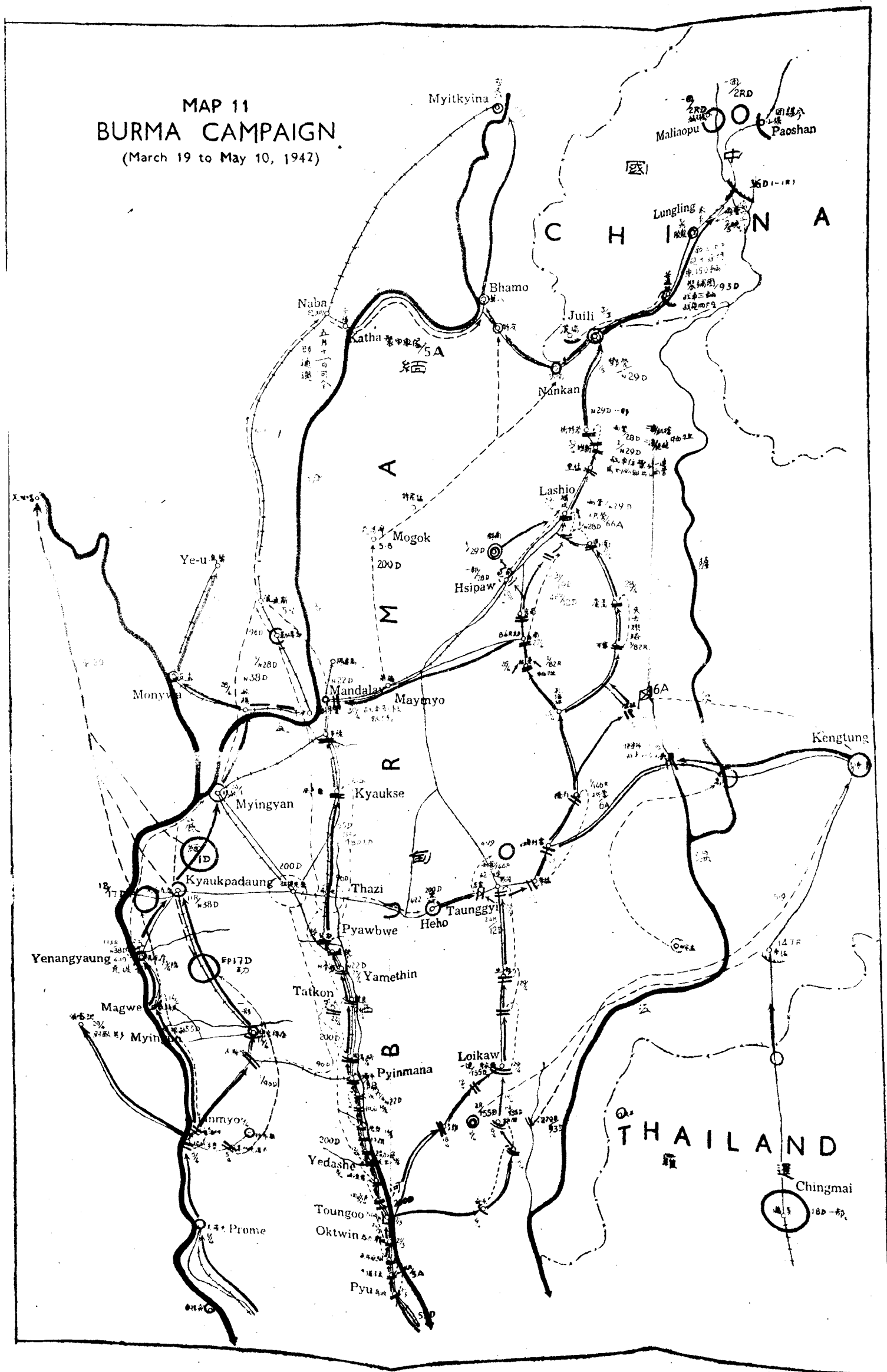
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MAP 11
BURMA CAMPAIGN.
(March 19 to May 10, 1942)



would in turn secure the supply line between China and India. In two months of active fighting, it had accomplished all these, and on top had crowned them with the killing of thousands of enemy troops. Besides, it is keeping between five and six enemy divisions on the run in Burma while they may serve useful purpose if they are turned loose on an attack on Australia. The Chinese expeditionary force's glorious deed has been generally acknowledged. In the final reckoning, the occupation of Burma got Japan nowhere. The campaign has been and still is very expensive for her. In addition, fighting into Burma was like walking into a death trap where her troops make easy preys for the Allies who attack them relentlessly and unceasingly. The opening of this new battlefield only reduced the enemy to a nonplus.

CONCLUSION

During her first five years of war of resistance against Japan, China has gone through 15 big battles, 838 major encounters and 25,434 local guerrilla actions and minor engagements, in which more than 2,600,000 enemy dead were accounted for. After the battle of Hankow, China had to slightly modify her war strategy in order to make up for the inferior armament of her armed forces. These new tactics consist of drawing the

enemy into the mountainous regions in the interior so that the less equipped Chinese can enjoy a parity of mobility. China is a country of an immense size and a teeming population and can well afford to engage in a long war of attrition. Trading space for time, she is wearing out her enemy. Since the battle of Hankow more than four years have elapsed and today China's military position stands out more favourably than at any time during the war. On the other hand, Japan is bogged down in a deep quagmire. She had to choose from holding her temporary gains or withdrawing from Chinese soil, which would be tantamount to an open admission of defeat. Of these two courses, Japan picked the former and in so doing she has to keep tens of divisions of troops in China. Such a big force being pinned down, her blueprints of an attack on the Soviet Union has had to be shelved and her plans for joining forces with her Axis partners are but an empty dream. While Hitler tasted defeat at Stalingrad, all Japan could do was to sit back instead of going to the aid of her associate in crime. Therefore, China is not only fighting for her own existence, but at the same time she is doing her share of the job which confronts the United Nations to bring the common enemies to unconditional surrender.

APPENDIX

ENEMY'S AIR STRATEGY AND TACTICS ¹

Exhaustion Bombing.—In August, 1941, the enemy concentrated a large number of planes at Hankow and launched the so-called "exhaustion bombing" against China's wartime capital. Wave after wave of bombers raided Chungking day and night for a whole week. It was unprecedented ever since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937. But thanks to our effective intelligence network, air-raid alarms never failed to give the people sufficient time to take shelter. What the enemy called "exhaustion bombing" failed to achieve its object.

Psychological Offensive.—In view of the resoluteness of our Government and people in resisting Japanese aggression till victory is won, the enemy thought of breaking down the morale of the Chinese people by propaganda. Pamphlets, leaflets, puppet newspapers, pictures, etc. were dropped by the enemy from the air. What they received are sneers from the Chinese.

Destroying Communications.—To destroy communication lines has long been practised by the enemy air force, but was resorted to particularly often in 1941. The successive bombing of the Congo Bridge on the Salween River on January 5, 6, 19 and 23, the attack on the same bridge and the Huitung Suspension Bridge on the same river in February, the repeated raid on the Panchiang Bridge in Kweichow in June where enemy planes dived down

as low as 100 meters from the target, and the continual bombing of the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway in March and April may be given as examples. Their main purpose was to hinder the flow of supplies into China.

Machine-Gunning Airfields.—When enemy planes attack our air bases, they are usually protected by pursuits. In case the latter do not encounter any resistance from our planes, they fly low and machine-gun indiscriminately.

Guerrilla Warfare.—As enemy planes were limited in number, they often raided our cities singly. Everywhere the plane flies, dropping bombs and machine-gunning to disturb order. On April 7, a single enemy plane successively raided Fukong, Yingtak, Hsiataiyu, Chingtanhsiang, and Paishayu in Kwangtung.

Camouflage Bombing.—In March, 1941, a number of Japanese planes in Canton were discovered to have Chinese national colours.

Gas Attack.—Disregarding international law, the enemy often resorted to gas attack. In December, 1940, enemy planes in Changsha dropped several scores of parcels wrapped up in red cloth. These parcels contained peanuts and green peas. Those who ate them fell unconscious. Again, on November 4, 1941, enemy planes dropped bubonic bacteria outside the west gate of Changteh, and caused 18 deaths. A great deal of gas bombs

¹ Translated by Mr. Chang Chen-huai (張陳懷) of the Waichiao-pu.

time some enemy units were active before the Chinese main line at Swa. The Chinese fell back on the north bank of the Swa river on April 10 after killing between 2,000 and 3,000 enemy troops. The enemy pressed onward and sanguinary fighting was carried onto the ninth day during which both sides lost heavily. Meanwhile, both the Chinese wings were in danger of being enveloped and two divisions at Pyin-mana, Tatkon and Pyawbwe were called upon to stage strong counter-attacks in which an additional 5,000 enemy troops were exterminated. By May 2 the situation on the left flank had undergone such serious changes that the rear of the entire Chinese line was threatened. General Tu Yi-ming, in charge of field operations at this front, decided to evacuate Mandalay and withdraw to Myitkyina.

4. *The Salween River Front.* An enemy force made up by two regiments of the 12th division and a part of the 18th division embarked upon the drive up the Salween on April 6. In the interval of 17 days it reduced Loikaw, Loilem, Taunggyi and other points. To stem the rapid advance of the enemy, Commander Tai, hero of Toungoo, directed his division toward Taunggyi for a rear attack on the enemy. In two days of fighting on April 23-24, Commander Tai's division stormed into the city, wiping out practically the entire enemy garrison. Notwithstanding the severance of their communication line with the rear, the main forces of the enemy continued to bulge forward. On April 26 the enemy reached Mansaung, where a Chinese division led by Commander Liu made a heroic stand to the last man. On April 28 the enemy attacked Lashio with the aid of more than 30 airplanes and between 30 and 40 tanks and

armored cars. The Chinese offered staunch resistance and both sides suffered heavy casualties. Fighting ended the following afternoon when the city fell into enemy hands. From here the enemy forces marched off, one column striking eastward toward the Chinese frontier and the other heading northward. The eastward column captured Wanting on May 3 and reached the Huitung Bridge on the Nu river (upper reaches of the Salween) on May 5. The northward column swept into Myitkyina *via* Bhamo on May 8, beating General Tu Yi-ming's army in the race for the northern Burmese railway terminus town. On May 11 Tengchung fell. To arrest the enemy's rapid advance in western Yunnan, General Tu lunged at the enemy in Myitkyina from the back. By such tactics which have been carried out in northern Burma with recurrent frequency, the Chinese have been able to tie down an enormous force of enemy troops in that area.

Burma lies on one of China's communication routes with the outside world and is one of the Allies' advance bases from which to launch the general counter-offensive against Japan. It is no longer letting the enemy into a secret to say that the Chinese expeditionary force, which was sent into Burma in great haste, had not completed the necessary preparations and had not effected the closest coordination with the friendly armies before it went into action. For this reason, it is to be regretted that the Chinese expeditionary force did not accomplish the eagerly hoped for results of extinguishing the enemy. But the main objectives of the expedition were to wear down the enemy and to fight for time so that the Allies might strengthen the defence of India, which

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

were thrown by the enemy in the vicinity of Ichang on October 8.

In general, enemy strategy and tactics in the air vary according to his object of attack and the strength of our defence. They always fly at an altitude of 3,500 meters to avoid anti-aircraft guns when they are attacking our important cities. When going toward Chungking, they usually fly in concentrated formations at an altitude of 5,000 to 7,000 meters. The flying speed when they drop bombs was about 100 meters per second.

Distribution of Enemy Air Force, 1941.—The total strength of enemy air force in China in 1941 varied from time to time. For a time, it was 1,000 planes strong when the enemy was carrying out the so-called exhaustion bombing against China. A part of them was transferred to Indo-China in September to prepare for the Pacific war. According to reliable information, enemy planes engaged in the Pacific war amounted to 1,300, of which 550 were army planes and 750 navy planes. This represented about 60 per cent of his total strength. At the central and southern war areas in China, the enemy left only about 215

planes, most of which were army planes.

Enemy Air Transportation.—In 1941, enemy transports that passed through China amounted to 3,448 planes, 300 more than the previous year. Enemy air transportation between Canton and Formosa was especially busy. Planes also flew to and fro between Formosa and Hangehow, Nanking and Hankow, Nanking and Canton, and Canton and the Hainan Island. On February 5, a large enemy transport was shot down on its way from Canton to the Hainan Island by our infantry men. Admiral Osumi and Rear-Admiral Suga who were in the plane died as a result of the crash of the plane. The document they carried with them showed that they had been ordered to go to Hainan to organize Japan's southward move.

Casualties and Damages Caused by Enemy Raids.—The losses we suffered from enemy air raids in 1941 were smaller than those of the previous years. On an average, every 100 bombs dropped by the enemy caused 67 casualties and damaged 224 houses on our side.

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

TABLE 1. CASUALTIES AND DAMAGES CAUSED BY ENEMY AIR ACTIVITIES, 1941

Provinces	No. of Enemy Air Attacks	No. of Enemy Planes	No. of Bombs		Casualties		Houses Damaged	Means of Transportation Destroyed							
			Explosives	Incendiaries	Deaths	Wounded		Boats	Steamers	Automobiles	Carriages	Trailers (in China)	Sleepers	Bridges	
Kwangtung	274	920	3,723		932	1,533	1,992	75			5		12	3	
Hunan	106	1,006	4,693		2,027	2,593	4,986	25			6	7		7	1
Chekiang	183	1,086	3,852		1,208	1,328	27,120	2				9			
Kwangsi	64	309	1,153		486	811	927	4			3		2	1	
Shensi	151	935	3,548		980	397	6,075	4			2	4			
Fukien	121	494	971		292	354	1,247	2							
Hupoh	90	592	2,213		701	695	3,446	49	3						
Anhui	163	530	1,939		837	876	4,974	3							
Honan	292	1,043	5,256		1,037	1,280	13,424	2							
Yunnan	85	916	3,388		740	737	8,174				23	1			
Szechuen	154	3,368	8,134		3,327	4,483	21,215	11	1		2				
Kiangsi	136	688	3,208		1,167	1,524	2,483	10	1		2	2	20	10	
Kansu	22	209	919		253	276	1,607				1				
Chinghai	1	27	60		40	10	31								
Kweichow	6	52	53		21										
Sikang	1	27	136		3	5	12								
TOTAL	1,858	12,211	43,308		14,121	16,902	97,714	187	5	51	23	60	14		

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

TABLE 2. ENEMY AIR ACTIVITIES IN CHINA, 1941

Provinces	No. of Enemy Air Attacks	Planes Employed by Enemy	Places From Where Enemy							
			Wuchang Hankow	Tchang	Szechuen	Chungking	Hsinan	Wuhu	Central	Nanchang
Kwangtung ...	2,841	6,711								37
Szechuen ...	171	3,452	3,172	38						
Hupoh ...	449	4,073	2,906	923	20	123	44			
Anhui ...	1,465	2,948	840				53	502	786	169
Kwangsi ...	138	503	68							
Honan ...	678	2,154	257				500		54	
Chekiang ...	953	3,206						94	23	2
Kiangsi ...	256	990	136						292	143
Hunan ...	325	1,538	1,332							18
Shensi ...	392	1,884	95	22			21			
Yunnan...	197	1,305	36							
Fukien ...	934	1,782								70
Kweichow ...	9	56		1						
Shansi ...	6	10								
Suiyuan ...	3	6								
Kansu ...	45	354								
Ninghsia ...	12	190								
Chinghai ...	1	27								
Sikang ...	3	46	46							
TOTAL ...	8,878	31,235	8,888	984	20	123	618	596	1,155	445

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

TABLE 2. ENEMY AIR ACTIVITIES IN CHINA, 1941—contd.

Planes Took Off (No. of Planes)

Front										Northern Front		
Kiukiang	Yoyang	Nanking	Hangchow	Chehai	Hangchow Bay	Chingnan	Shanghai	Kiahsing	Poyang Lake	Pailochi	Yundeng	Linfen
	2										242	
						50				7		
5		233	245				19					
											538	
		270	1,238	498	626		11	44				
55	14		149	10					9			
	76										1,728	18
			154									
											10	
											4	
											354	
											190	
											27	
60	98	503	1,786	508	626	50	30	44	9	7	3,093	18

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

TABLE 3. ENEMY AIR RAIDS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES, 1941

Provinces	Cities			Country Towns			Air Fields			Lines of Communications		
	No. of Attacks			No. of Bombs			No. of Bombs			No. of Bombs		
	No. of Attacks	No. of Bombs	No. of Bombs	No. of Attacks	No. of Bombs	No. of Bombs	No. of Attacks	No. of Bombs	No. of Bombs	No. of Attacks	No. of Bombs	No. of Bombs
Kwangtung	...	...	...	101	434	1,505	168	432	2,140	3	22	51
Hunan	...	...	...	76	756	3,337	9	70	260	4	47	298
Chekiang...	...	...	...	118	750	2,690	44	217	847	2	17	39
Kwangsi	...	...	...	49	238	881	6	6	18	7	47	239
Shensi	...	...	...	133	775	2,840	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fukien	...	...	...	103	455	747	18	39	77	11	150	418
Hupeh	...	...	...	62	376	1,490	37	216	723	...	...	...
Anhui	...	...	...	63	284	1,159	117	246	780	...	...	...
Honan	...	...	...	232	794	3,823	48	155	1,021	1	8	60
Yunnan	...	...	...	56	629	2,323	...	...	...	4	37	100
Szechuen	...	...	...	152	3,318	7,972	...	...	...	2	52	162
Kiangsi	...	...	...	101	565	2,792	16	41	182	1	9	38
Kansu	...	...	...	16	98	371	...	...	...	6	111	548
Chinghai	...	...	...	1	27	60	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kweichow	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sikang	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL	1,263	9,499	31,900	463	1,442	6,028	42	527	2,089	104	630	3,239

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

TABLE 4. CASUALTIES AND DAMAGES CAUSED IN VARIOUS PROVINCES BY ENEMY AIR RAIDS, 1941

Provinces	No. of Bombs Dropped	No. of Deaths and Wounded	No. of Damaged Rooms	Casualties and Damages Caused by Every 100 Bombs	
				No. of Deaths and Wounded	No. of Rooms Damaged
				No. of Deaths and Wounded	No. of Rooms Damaged
Kwangtung	3,723	2,465	1,992		
Hunan	4,693	4,620	4,986	98	106
Chekiang	3,577	2,626	27,120	73	750
Kwangsi	1,153	1,297	927	112	80
Shensi	3,548	1,357	6,075	38	171
Fukien	971	646	1,247	66	129
Hupeh...	2,213	1,396	3,446	63	155
Anhui	1,939	1,713	4,971	88	256
Henan...	5,256	2,317	13,424	44	255
Yunnan	3,338	1,477	8,175	43	241
Szechuen	8,134	7,810	21,215	96	26
Kiangsi	3,268	2,691	2,483	82	76
Kansu	919	529	1,607	57	174
Chinghai	60	40	—	66	—
Kweichow	55	31	31	56	56
Sikang	136	8	12	6	8

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

TABLE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF ENEMY AIR FORCE AT VARIOUS FRONTS IN CHINA, 1941

<i>Front</i>	<i>Northern Front</i>	<i>Central Front</i>	<i>Southern Front</i>	<i>Total</i>
January ...	17	230	462	709
February ...	54	100	381	535
March ...	82	280	356	742
April ...	68	293	191	552
May ...	160	465	210	835
June ...	55	179	261	495
July ...	226	347	298	871
August ...	291	413	241	945
September ...	356	448	244	1,018
October ...	306	256	230	792
November ...	307	289	267	863
December ...	109	159	377	645
Average ...	160	289	291	749

PART III

WARTIME GOVERNMENT

TABLE 6. ENEMY PLANES SHOT DOWN OR DESTROYED, 1941

<i>Cause of Destruction</i>	<i>Shot Down by Air Forces</i>	<i>Shot Down by Anti-aircraft Guns</i>	<i>By Army</i>		<i>Forced Landing</i>	<i>Total</i>
			<i>Shot Down</i>	<i>Destroyed</i>		
January ...	—	2	—	—	2	4
February ...	—	—	2	—	1	3
March ...	—	1	1	—	—	2
April ...	—	1	1	—	1	3
May ...	2	5	—	—	—	7
June ...	—	1	2	13	—	16
July ...	—	1	—	—	8	9
August ...	—	—	—	1	5	6
September ...	—	1	—	2	2	5
October ...	—	—	5	23	—	28
November ...	—	1	—	9	5	15
December ...	3	1	—	2	7	13
TOTAL ...	5	14	11	59	31	111

PARTY AND POLITICS

CHEN CHIH-MAI¹ (陳之邁)

I. THE KUOMINTANG

According to the basic principles underlying the organization of the Chinese body politic, the Kuomintang, or the Nationalist Party, is the place where sovereign power resides. In the previous issues of this year book, we have briefly sketched the evolution of China's only political party and its organization and activities in the past few years of armed resistance against Japanese aggression.

During the period under review (1940-1942) much change has taken place. The Kuomintang, as the party which has been leading China's revolution, has played a most active part in rallying the country against the wanton aggression of Japan and in directing the National Government in the prosecution of the war. As a result of its activities, the party has won the support of the whole nation.

Owing to the exigencies of wartime conditions, the party has not held nationwide elections. As a matter of fact, no session of the Party National Congress has so far been held since the Emergency National Congress convened in Hankow on March 29, 1938. Regular sessions of the Central Executive Committee have been held, and the standing committee, under the direction of the *Tsung-Tsai* (Director-General) and meeting regularly at intervals of two weeks, formed throughout these years the supreme body of the party.

During the period 1940-1942, four plenary sessions—from the 7th to the 10th—of the Central Executive Committee were held. In each of these sessions, a general survey was made of government policies, external and internal; and policies to guide the conduct of national affairs were laid down for execution by the Government.

Among the more important decisions made during the past three years, the **Seventh Plenary Session**, held on July 1, 1940, decided that an Economic Conference was to be organized within the Executive Yuan to coordinate the various branches of the Government in the prosecution of economic warfare against Japan. It decided to control the nation's food supply. In its manifesto, it declared that Japanese greed would not be satisfied until they controlled the whole world and that therefore they were the common enemy of democracy. It laid down concrete policies by which the Government's efficiency might be increased to face the emergency, and exhorted the whole nation to rally behind the Government so that the arduous task of war and reconstruction might be effectively completed.

The **Eighth Plenary Session**, convened on March 24, 1941, passed the underlying principles of two three-year plans, the Three-Year Plan for Wartime Party and Political Reconstruction and the Three-Year Plan for the Development of Wartime National

¹ Counsellor, Executive Yuan.

and personnel of party and government organs." Since its organization, which took place at the end of 1940, the commission has despatched various parties to practically all the central and local government organs to investigate upon their work. The voluminous reports were submitted to the Supreme National Defense Council for final approval and their recommendations acted upon.

The **principle** upon which the Kuomintang is organized is defined as that of "democratic centralization." This principle, according to the authoritative interpretation of the Central Party Headquarters, "involves two phases, that of democracy and that of centralization. In order to make the organization effective, the party must be organized in a centralized way. Party members must owe allegiance to the party, minorities must abide by the decisions of the majority, lower party organs must obey the decisions of higher organs, and power must be centralized in the Central Party Headquarters. Only in this way can the party, from the centre to the individual members and between the various grades, be organized into a living organism so that party work can be efficiently carried out. Especially it is necessary for the Central Party Headquarters to hold centralized power in order that it may lay down revolutionary principles with timely reference to the ever-changing international and domestic environment. With centralized control, the party shall be able to lay down comprehensive plans to fulfill its mission and to distribute man and materials in the most efficient manner. This is the principle of centralization. But before any measure is decided upon, it is always opened for discussion, in

which every party member is entitled to express his or her opinion. Debates no matter how heated are welcomed. In addition, the Party Charter provides that all grades of party organs are elected by party members. This is the principle of democracy. The principles of centralization and democracy are inseparable, especially in the processes of discussion and execution. The problem is that all discussions must be undertaken in the most democratic manner so that the opinions of the members may be fully expressed. But as soon as a decision is made, the decision must be effectively executed without reference to one's personal likes or dislikes. Undemocratic centralization is dictatorial and arbitrary; decentralized democracy means, on the other hand, disunity and disorganization. Only democratic centralization embodies the merits of both." (This passage is freely translated from *What Every Party Member Ought To Know*, a pamphlet issued by the Central Executive Committee to party members in 1941).

Space and secrecy prevent a detailed narration of the elaborate **organization** of the Kuomintang. Suffice it to say, the party has extended into every corner of the nation, including territories now under Japanese occupation. Secret agents have survived and thrived in occupied areas like Nanking and Shanghai as well as little villages and hamlets in North and Northeast China. Work of a large variety has been undertaken to organize the Chinese people in resistance to the enemy, to destroy Japanese establishments, to blow up mines and railways, to disrupt communications, to boycott Japanese goods, to sabotage, and, in general, to undermine enemy rule.

In 1936, the year before hostilities began, membership in the Kuomintang numbered 1,528,503. During the last five years, membership has roughly increased threefold. Owing to the fact that they are distributed among the different professions, residing in different localities, they are differently organized. But the basic unit of the party remains to be the *Chu-Fen-Pu*, or "District Sub-divisions," which in turn are divided into *Hsiao-Chu*, or "Small Groups." Party members are required to take active part in party meetings in which opinions are freely expressed and programs of work decided upon. They are required to help the Government in the prosecution of the war, which includes such items as aid to wounded and sick soldiers, war relief work, service to soldiers' families, campaign for the airplane funds, sale of bonds, etc. In the interior provinces, they help the Government in the promotion of local self-government, food and commodity price control, and a number of other activities. One of the main items in their work is to organize themselves into small units to go among the people explaining to them the meaning of the war and the ways and means by which the people may contribute their shares in the common effort. Up till 1941, 11,729 such units were organized. Another important item is to educate the soldiers. In the year 1941 alone, 11,320 classes were organized to teach the soldiers, benefitting some 462,878 soldiers. Beginning from 1940, the Kuomintang has undertaken a nationwide program of training, the purpose of which is to train the staff members of the Government in order that they may more effectively carry out the work entrusted to them. There are at

present some 593 training units, which in the year 1941 alone trained 327,149 persons.

The **San Min Chu I Youth Corps**, the beginnings of which we have narrated in the fourth issue of this year book under the caption of "Youth in the War," continued to expand in the last three years, and became the most comprehensive organization of youths in present-day China. Under the direction of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, the corps has engaged in a number of activities for the welfare of Chinese youths. For instance, the corps organized summer camps for students in colleges and universities. The summer camp in Chungking trained 1,086 youths in 1941; those in Szechuen, Shensi, Fukien, and Kweichow trained 1,410 youths in the same period. Labour Service Youth Camps were also established in various centres offering opportunities for training in the professions such as journalism, accounting, shorthand, cooperation, public health, etc. Nineteen hostels were established in communication centres offering services to youths coming in from occupied territories and war areas, benefitting in 1941 a total of 40,476 youths. They were either employed in wartime service or enlisted in schools. Sixty-five groups of youths were organized and despatched to the war fronts to offer aid to China's fighting men. The headquarters of the corps, distributed throughout the land, formed the home of Chinese youths, and their needs were answered as far as possible. It was the purpose of the corps to organize Chinese youths in wartime service, offering them the best opportunities possible, and to train them to be useful citizens of the nation.

Defense Industries. It decided to organize a Food Ministry in the Executive Yuan to control the food supply of the nation. It passed a resolution which fundamentally altered the financial structure of China, providing that the provincial budgets should form parts of the National budget, that the land tax, which formed the chief source of revenue for the provincial governments, should be collected by the Central Government and collected in kind, and that the hsien (district) should have a budgetary system of their own, thus enabling them to have ample funds for the development of local self-government. These features, while fundamentally altering the financial structure of the country, also revolutionized the relationships between the central and the local governments. It was by far the most far-reaching reform in internal affairs undertaken by the Government in wartime. It also passed a comprehensive resolution with regard to the relationships between the different peoples of China, reasserting in no uncertain terms that all peoples within the boundaries of China were equal before the law, and that all peoples should rally behind the Government in a united front against the enemy. This resolution was doubly significant in view of the fact that the Japanese have been making every effort in propaganda and in action in occupied territories to bring about ill-feelings between the various peoples in China. In the manifesto, the plenary session urged the nation to exert the most effort in the prosecution of the war, to build up national defense with special reference to military discipline, to accelerate the development of local self-government, and to develop re-

sources for national defense and for national welfare.

The **Ninth Plenary Session**, convened on December 15, 1941, decided upon the effective mobilization of the nation's natural resources and manpower. As a result, a National Mobilization Conference was established to execute the National Mobilization Act promulgated by the National Government on March 29, 1942. It will be remembered that the session convened just after the outbreak of the Pacific war. It opened with a resolution endorsing the National Government's declaration of war against Japan, Germany and Italy. In the manifesto, it declared in unmistakable terms China's stand in world affairs. China has fought Japan single-handedly since July 7, 1937. The outbreak of war in Europe in 1939, and particularly Japan's wanton aggression on the Far Eastern possessions of America and Great Britain, linked the wars in Europe and Asia together. China has become one of the principal nations in this worldwide war against aggression. She is one of the four main allies, and she is determined to play her part in the achievement of allied victory. Hence the more effective mobilization of her forces so that she might contribute her share to the maximum. The Ninth Plenary Session reviewed the world situation, and found that the sacrifices which China has made in the past have not been made in vain. It was full of hope for the future of China as well as for mankind as a whole.

The **Tenth Plenary Session**, held on November 12, 1942, expressed the deepest satisfaction for the declaration of the United States and Great Britain on October 10, 1942, China's national holiday, to abolish extraterritoriality

and related rights in China. The achievement of national freedom and equality has been the fundamental aim of Chinese national revolution. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, in his will to the Chinese people, laid particular emphasis upon this point. It was therefore natural for Dr. Sun's followers to rejoice in the final achievement of national freedom and equality. In addition, the session passed a number of resolutions bearing on a variety of subjects, among which the plan for more effective price control and the plan for large-scale colonization and rapid development of the north-western provinces were the more significant.

The **Supreme National Defense Council**, which was created by the Fifth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee on January 29, 1939, continued to function as "the highest political organ during the period of emergency." In addition to the functions of the Central Political Council which it took over, the Supreme National Defense Council is the organ which coordinates the work of the party, government and military arms of the Chinese Government. The chairmanship of the council, which has since its inauguration been held concurrently by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, enjoys, according to Article 8 of its Organic Law, the power to "exercise discretion without reference to the legal procedure of ordinary times." The standing committee of the council is composed of 11 members, three representing the party, six representing the civil, and two representing the military, arms of the Government. Under the chairmanship of the *Tsung-Tsai*, these 11 persons hold regular meetings in intervals of two weeks to deliberate upon the

fundamental policies of the Chinese Government.

In accordance with a speech delivered by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on administrative reorganization, two additional organs were being created in the Supreme National Defense Council. The scheme for administrative reorganization as outlined by Generalissimo Chiang represents, in his own words, "the result of more than 10 years of actual experience and careful study." It is the "plan for the establishment of an all-powerful government" along the lines of the *San Min Chu I*. To be more specific, the scheme emphasizes the coordination of planning, execution and supervision of national policies.

The Central Planning Board, which was established in 1940, is responsible for "drafting and deciding upon plans for political and economic reconstruction." Since its inauguration, a number of plans, national as well as regional, have been drafted, of which the "Three-Year Plan for Wartime reconstruction" is easily the most important and comprehensive. A comprehensive and detailed plan for the rapid development of the north-western provinces is now under the close study of the board. The board is directly under the Supreme National Defense Council and is responsible thereto. All the plans which it drafts are submitted to the Supreme National Defense Council for final decision.

Another organ which issued from the scheme of administrative reorganization is the Commission on Control of Party and Government Work. The chief function of this commission, as defined in its Organic Law, is "to investigate and approve the progress in the execution of administrative plans and to control the work, finance

PERSONAL OF THE CENTRAL PARTY
HEADQUARTERS

- A. *Tsung-Tsai*—Chiang Kai-shek
- B. The Central Executive Committee:
- (1) The Standing Committee¹:
Chen Ko-fu, Ho Ying-chin,
H. H. Kung, Chang Li-sheng,
Pai Chung-hsi, T. V. Soong,
Tsou Lu, Yeh Tsu-tsang,
Ting Wei-fen, Li Wen-fan,
Feng Yu-hsiang, Chen Chi-
tang, Wu Chung-hsin, Pan
Kung-chan, Teng Chia-yen
 - (2) The Secretariat:
Secretary-General:
Wu Tich-cheng
Deputy Secretary-General:
Ti Ying
 - (3) Chiefs of the Departments
and Ministry²:
Organization Department:
Chu Chia-hua
Ministry of Information:
Chang Tao-fan
Overseas Department:
Liu Wei-chih
- C. The Supreme National Defense
Council:
- (1) Chairman:
Chiang Kai-shek
 - (2) The Secretariat:
Secretary-General:
Wang Chung-hui
Deputy Secretaries-General:
Chen Pu-lei, Kan Nai-kuang
 - (3) The Central Planning Board:
(a) Chairman:
Chiang Kai-shek
(b) The Secretariat:
Secretary-General:
Wang Shih-chieh
Deputy Secretaries-
General:

Peng Hsueh
Wang Cheng

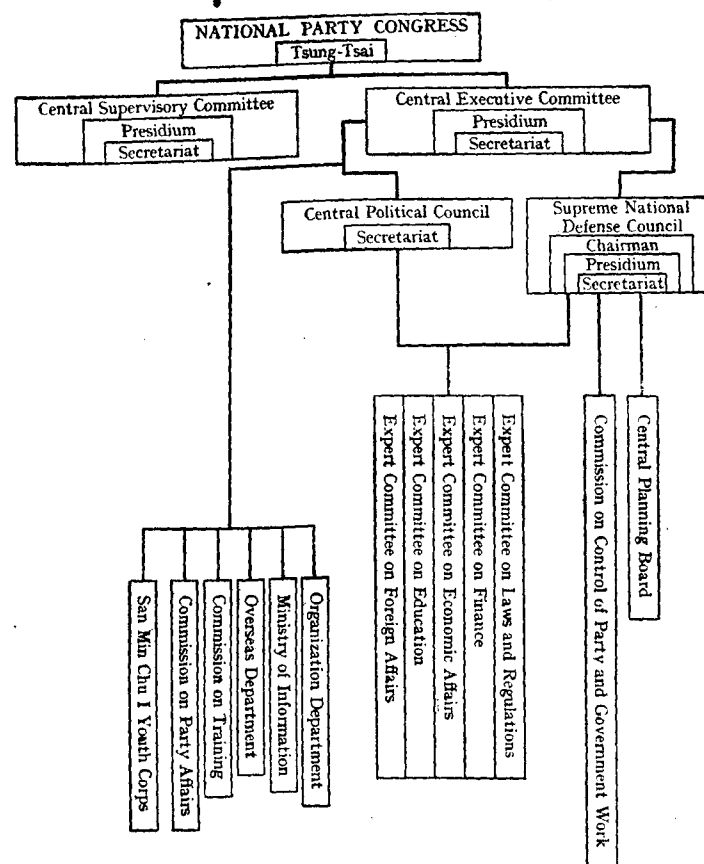
- (4) The Commission on Control
of Party and Government
Work:
(a) Chairman:
Chiang Kai-shek
Vice-Chairmen:
H. H. Kung,
Yu Yu-jen
(b) The Secretariat:
Secretary-General:
Chen Yi

II. RELATIONSHIPS WITH
OTHER PARTIES

In the fourth issue of this year book, we have dealt more or less in detail the origins of the Chinese Communist Party, the Chinese National Socialist Party, and the Chinese Youth Party. We have also narrated the ways by which their relationships with the Kuomintang were re-orientated upon the outbreak of hostilities between China and Japan. All three parties manifested in public documents their sincere belief in the *San Min Chu I*. The Chinese Communist Party, for instance, openly declared that the *San Min Chu I*, as against Marxism and Leninism, were principles best fitted to be the foundation upon which the Chinese state shall be built. Since these are the principles by which the National Government abides, all Communist activities to overthrow and supplant the National Government shall cease.

The re-orientation of policy on the part of these political parties, which fundamentally altered their relationships with the Kuomintang, was in fact one of the major events in the

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE KUOMINTANG*



* This table includes only the principal organs. Many other minor organs are not listed.

¹ Presidents of the five Yuan of the National Government are *ex officio* members of the Standing Committee. They are: Chiang Kai-shek, Sun Fo, Chu Cheng, Tai Chi-tao and Yu Yu-jen.

² The Ministry of Social Affairs is now under the Executive Yuan.

visional assemblies in the provinces and special municipalities. The fact that more than one-third of the members of the People's Political Council were elected showed that it was acquiring a more democratic basis.

Another innovation to be noted was the creation of a presidium. In the first council, a president and a vice-president were elected by the council as presiding officers and as representatives of the council. In the second council, a presidium was created, composing of five persons elected by the council. When the second council convened in the spring of 1941, the councillors elected to the presidium Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, Messrs. Chang Po-ling, noted educator and former vice-president of the council, Tso Shun-sheng, one of the leaders of the Chinese Youth Party, Chang Chun-mai, one of the leaders of the Chinese National Socialist Party, and Miss Wu Yi-fang, leading woman educator. The Communist Party was unrepresented because they voluntarily absented themselves from the meeting in protest to the disbandment of the New Fourth Army.

After two sessions, the second People's Political Council completed their term of office. A third council was created which met for the first time on October 23, 1942. In organization it was again different from the second council. Membership in the council continued to be 240, also divided into four groups, but the distribution among them has radically changed.

Group A: 164 councillors to be elected by the provisional assemblies of the provinces and special municipalities.

Group B: Eight councillors to be selected from among Mongolian and Tibetan leaders, five from Mongolia and three from Tibet.

Group C: Eight councillors to be selected from among overseas Chinese leaders.

Group D: 60 councillors to be selected from among leaders in cultural and economic bodies.

The chief point to be noted was with regard to the increase of the number of councillors elected by the provinces and special municipalities, and the decrease of councillors selected from cultural and economic bodies. It was apparently a further step towards the democratization of the council. The elections were held in the provinces. Some of the seats were hotly contested, but no fraud or other irregularities occurred. China was learning the arts of self-government and was progressing well.

Instead of giving a list of names here,¹ it may be more profitable for us to make a brief analysis of the personnel of the People's Political Council as it was constituted in 1942. Of the 240 councillors, 14 of them were women. Mr. Chang I-lin, former Minister of Education, was the oldest, being 76 years of age. The youngest three were 33 years old. Six councillors were above 71 years of age; 22 were between 70 and 61; 52 were between 60 and 51; 100 were between 50 and 41; 48 were between 40 and 33. The age of 12 other councillors were not listed.

If we analysed them from their provinciality, the province of Hunan topped the list with 21 councillors. Next on the list was Szechuen (including the special municipality of Chungking), with 19. Kiangsu (in-

cluding Nanking) and Kwangtung each had 18; Chekiang, 15; Fukien, 14; Hupeh, 13; Honan and Hopei (including Peiping and Tientsin), 11 each; Kiangsi and Shantung (including Tsingtao), 10 each; Anhwei, 9; Shensi (including Sian), 8; Yunnan, 7; Mongolia and Kwangsi, 6 each; Kweichow, Shansi, Kansu, Liaoning, and Kirin, 4 each; Chahar, Chinghai, Heilungkiang, Sinkiang, and Tibet, 3 each; Sikang, Ninghsia, Jehol, 2 each; Shuiyuan, 1; and 2 unknown.

Of the 240 councillors, there were six persons holding degrees from the state examinations in the Ching Dynasty. Seventy-eight councillors were graduates from Chinese universities; 37 graduated from Japanese universities; 32 studied in the United States; 13 obtained their higher education in Great Britain; eight returned from studies in Germany; 11 from France; two from the Soviet Union; and one each from Egypt and Syria.

Professionally, 119 councillors have served in party or government organization, constituting the largest vocational group. Fifty-eight of them have served in educational institutions; 15 were ex-military men; 13 were journalists; 20 were industrialists or bankers; seven served as women welfare workers; two were lawyers; one was an accountant; three were religious leaders, of whom one was Catholic, one Buddhist, and one Mohammedan. Of the 240 councillors, 105 have served all three terms; 60 served two terms; 75 served in the council for the first time.

Like its predecessor, the third council was also presided over by a presidium. The election took place on the first day under the provisional chairmanship of Dr. Chang Po-ling.

As a result, five persons were elected; they were: Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, Dr. Chang Po-ling, Miss Wu Yi-fang, and Messrs. Mo Teh-hui and Li Huang. The first three persons have served in the second council as members of the presidium. Mr. Mo Teh-hui was a veteran political leader from a northeastern province, Liaoning. He had served a number of important posts in the former Peking Government, including the post of Prime Minister. His election to the presidium also symbolized China's determination to recover the Four Northeastern Provinces. Mr. Li Huang was one of the leaders of the Chinese Youth Party. The former member in the presidium representing that party, Mr. Tso Shun-sheng, and the leader of the Chinese National Socialist Party, Mr. Chang Chun-mai, both failed to attend the council. The Communist Party was represented by two minor members, so it was also unrepresented in the presidium.

The work of the People's Political Council might be regarded from two aspects. In the first place, it could be taken as an organ representing the people to supervise the work of the Government in time of war. In the discharge of this aspect of its function, the council usually devoted a great portion of its time studying and listening to the reports of the Government. Ministers appeared before the council making verbal reports and answering questions raised by the councillors. One of its main functions was to pass upon the "policies of the Government with regard to external and internal affairs" which was regularly submitted to the council for approval by the Government. Recommendations were generally made upon these policies which as a rule

¹ See General Appendix.

political life of China. Henceforth, there shall be no rivalry between them for the political power of China. "Civil war" between the parties shall cease, and a People's Anti-Japanese United Front is to ensue.

During the last three years, relationships between the parties have remained substantially the same. All three parties other than the Kuomintang are represented in the People's Political Council, China's wartime representative assembly. The 18th Route Army, re-organized from the former "Red Army" of the Chinese Communist Party, remains to be one of the branches of the Chinese National Army undertaking active warfare against the Japanese invaders, principally behind enemy lines in North China. They are noted for their conduct of guerrilla warfare which greatly embarrassed the Japanese.

Although relationships between the parties have on the whole been smooth, there have been incidents lately which disturb the active co-operation among them. The special area allotted to the Chinese Communists in Northern Shensi, with Yen-an as its centre, has been illegally expanded by the Communists to include other districts. Legislation passed by the Communist authorities in Yen-an are found to run against the established policies of the National Government. For instance, the Communists at one time issued banknotes, in competition with the legal tender of China. Schools there offered courses the contents of which were incompatible with the *San Min Chu I*. But the National Government was determined to effect the most active cooperation between the parties. Open discussions were from time to time held between the parties to adjust their relation-

ships, discussions which the Communists leaders gladly took part. The ill effects of political dissension were therefore minimized with appreciable results.

Another event which unfortunately disturbed the relationships between the Kuomintang and the Communist was the disbandment of the New Fourth Army. In the spring of 1941 the National Government was forced to issue a mandate ordering the disbandment of the New Fourth Army, a branch of the Chinese National army reorganized from Communist forces in old days. It was disbanded because the leaders have been expanding its numbers and area of operation in violation of the orders of the supreme command. Friction developed between different army units which resulted in bloodshed. For the sake of maintaining army discipline, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was forced to disband the unit and disciplinary measures taken against its leaders, Yeh Ting and Hsiang Ying. This move was purely one of army discipline. It should not be taken as a partisan measure undertaken by the Kuomintang to extinguish the military strength of the Communists.

Unfortunately, the measure caused a good deal of misunderstanding on the part of some Communists. Hot-headed writers in the Communist ranks produced brochures and articles discrediting the Government. They even found the sympathy of some writers in foreign countries. The Communist members in the People's Political Council abstained from one of its sessions, with no substantial result. After a few months of tension in certain quarters, the matter was quite forgotten, and relationships between the Kuomintang and the

Communists remain substantially as before.

The Tenth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, in its manifesto of November 27, 1942, declared that "all those who believe sincerely in the principles of the *San Min Chu I*, who do not endanger the prosecution of the anti-aggression war, who do not violate the laws and mandate of the Government, who entertain no idea of disturbing the peace and tranquility of society, and who have not taken any steps to disrupt the unity of the state, are entitled to enjoy the opportunity of contributing their efforts towards the state without reference to their previous political affiliation, whether acting as groups or as individuals." A resolution adopted by the same session declared that measures should be taken to "render advice and aid to misguided youths." The policy herein embodied points definitely towards the adoption of a non-partisan attitude *vis-a-vis* members of the Chinese Communist Party. It is naturally expected that the relationships between the parties will further improve in the time to come.

As compared with the Communists, not to say the Kuomintang, the Chinese National Socialist Party and the Chinese Youth Party are definitely minor parties. Since their adherence to the *San Min Chi I*, as has been noted in the fourth issue of this year book, they have abided by their promises and have been contributing their share in the prosecution of the war. Leaders of these parties took active part in the People's Political Council. Some of their members serve in various government institutions. As a matter of fact, members of these parties have acted more as

private individuals than in groups.

III. THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL

The People's Political Council continued to function as an organ reflecting the people's will in the period of 1940-1942. According to the law governing its **organization**, the council's term was limited to one year, but it could be prolonged for another year. The first council, inaugurated on the first anniversary of the Lukouchiao incident, was prolonged to last until the spring of 1941. Four sessions were held. The second council was created and held its first session on March 10, 1941. In composition, it was in many ways different from its predecessor, although its powers remained substantially the same. Membership in the council were increased from 200 to 240, divided, like its predecessor, into four groups as follows:

Group A: 90 councillors to be elected by the provisional assemblies of the provinces and special municipalities.

Group B: Six councillors to be selected from among Mongolian and Tibetan leaders, four from Mongolia and two from Tibet.

Group C: Six councillors to be selected from among oversea Chinese leaders.

Group D: 138 councillors to be selected from among leaders in cultural and economic bodies.

As compared with its predecessor, the most important change was with regard to Group A councillors who were elected by the provisional assemblies of the provinces and special municipalities. This was made possible by the fact that, in the course of 1939 and 1940, the Central Government had sanctioned the organization of pro-

were accepted by the Government. The questions they raised were carefully considered by the authorities, and modifications of policies and methods were sometimes made.

In the second place, the council, representing the will of the Chinese people, also submitted proposals to the Government for adoption. Since the council could not be regarded as a legislative body, these proposals, when adopted, were legally not binding upon the Government. But the Government always paid the highest attention to these proposals, and acted upon them whenever possible. More than 100 of these proposals ensued from each of the council's sessions. They covered a very wide range, and most of them went into great details. They all came into the attention of the highest government authorities. Periodical reports were made by the Government on the progress of execution of these proposals, and a general report was always submitted for the scrutiny of the council in its session. From these proposals the Government was able to learn the needs of the people, the good or evil effects of policies and laws, and the best way to put into effect what the people through their representatives desired.

It is not an exaggeration to say that the People's Political Council, since its inauguration, had played a most valuable part in China's wartime Government. Although it was not directly elected by the people, as such elections were impossible in time of war, it was generally regarded as truly representative of the people of China. It voiced the opinions of every sector of the Chinese people and was able to speak freely with regard to government policy. Almost every walk of life was therein represented. The

councillors came from the best sections of Chinese society, with experience, learning, moral integrity, and a high sense of patriotism.

Although the three parties other than the Kuomintang were represented, there was a singular lack of party politics in the council. Kuomintang members voiced their opinions as freely as other members, with no interference from party discipline. Altogether the 240 councillors formed a non-partisan and dispassionate group, inspired by the exigencies of a world war, to contribute their best in a united effort to achieve victory over the enemy. When it was first organized, the council was meant to be an organ to unite the various elements of China in the prosecution of the war. Four years of experience has shown that the council has not only fulfilled its mission, but has at the same time laid a solid foundation for the democratic government of China. After studying the record of the council, even the most critical were convinced that the future of democracy in China was a bright one. The council has demonstrated that democratic institutions of the modern type could be built upon the foundation of traditional democratic thought and institutions of China.

IV. PREPARATIONS FOR THE NATIONAL CONGRESS

According to Articles 22 and 23 of the *Program of National Reconstruction* laid down by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, a National Congress to be directly elected by the people should be convened when a majority of the provinces of China have achieved local self-government. One of the chief functions of the National Congress at its beginning was to adopt a national

constitution the draft of which was to be prepared by the Legislative Yuan of the National Government.

In December, 1932, the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, in its third plenary session, adopted a resolution to the effect that "the National Congress shall be convened in 1935 to adopt the national constitution, and that the Legislative Yuan shall proceed forthwith to prepare a draft constitution for the consideration of the people." The Legislative Yuan, under the presidency of Mr. Sun Fo, began its work in January, 1933, and after prolonged discussions, finally produced a draft constitution which was made public by the National Government on May 5, 1936. The draft constitution was a detailed document consisting of 148 articles divided into eight chapters. It received the widest attention as soon as it was made public.

At the same time, the National Government promulgated, on May 14, 1936, two laws governing the organization and electoral procedure of the National Congress. The Government forthwith proceeded with the elections. Owing to a number of factors, the most important of which was the tense situation in North China between China and Japan that made elections difficult, the Government was forced to declare that the date for the convention of the National Congress be postponed until November 12, 1937. But hostilities between China and Japan broke out in the summer of 1937, so that the date of the convention of the National Congress had to be again postponed for an indefinite date. In September, 1939, the People's Political Council adopted a resolution asking "the Government to appoint a

date for the convention of the National Congress to adopt the constitution in order that constitutional government may be instituted." As a result, the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, in its sixth plenary session, again decided that the date should be fixed on November 12, 1940. Exigencies of a prolonged war in which a large portion of the land was under enemy occupation made elections too difficult to be undertaken. Consequently, the Kuomintang, on September 18, 1940, had to announce a further postponement. At the same time an organization directly under the National Government was set up to make the necessary preparations for the convention of the National Congress.¹

From this brief account, it can be seen that the National Government and the Kuomintang had, during the past 10 years, made every effort to conclude the period of political tutelage and to inaugurate the period of constitutional government. They were trying their best to convene the National Congress so that a national constitution might be adopted and put into effect by the people of China. However, strained relationships between China and Japan on the eve of open hostilities as well as a second world war made it impossible for the National Congress to be convened. In spite of their intentions and the elaborate preparatory work undertaken, the Kuomintang and the National Government had to postpone it time and again.

According to the law governing the elections of the National Congress, Chinese citizens, 20 years of age, were entitled to take part in the elections. It was universal suffrage in the widest

¹ At the beginning of 1942, this organization was transferred to the Ministry of Interior.

sense of the term. There were no property or other qualifications, and no line was drawn between the sexes. Among the members of the National Congress, 665 were to be elected on a territorial basis, 380 to be elected by vocational bodies, and 155 to be elected by special procedures. Any citizen was entitled to elect a territorial representative; if he belongs to a vocational body, he was to take part in the vocational election. Citizens from the Four Northeastern Provinces, already under enemy occupation, citizens overseas, Mongolian and Tibetan citizens, and soldiers were to elect their representatives "by special procedures." This brought the total membership up to 1,200. There were in addition 240 members nominated by the National Government. Members of the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee, as well as the reserve members, were *ex officio* members of the National Congress. Principal officials in the National Government might also take part.

Since the promulgation of the electoral law, a number of local elections and vocational elections have taken place. Up till the outbreak of hostilities, however, these elections were as yet not completed. According to the latest figures, 557 members have already been elected in the territorial category; 311 from the vocational category; and 82 from elections by special procedures; thus bringing those elected to 950 out of a total of 1,200. Of course, most of them were elected before the war. Whether they will constitute the National Congress, or new elections are to be held in the future, is a question still undecided. The draft constitution made public by the National Government in 1936 is also the subject of much discussion. The People's Political Council, for instance, has produced a revised draft which is substantially different from that drafted by the Legislative Yuan. Changed circumstances after the war will probably cause the National Congress, when convened, to make changes in that document.

NATIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

CHI-HSIEN CHANG¹ (張啟賢)

PENDING the adoption by the National People's Congress of the draft constitution promulgated in May, 1936, and the inauguration of a constitutional government, the existing National Government as a whole is responsible to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. The presidents and vice-presidents of the five yuan—executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control—are all appointed by the said committee. Unlike the one proposed in the draft constitution, the present Chairman of the National Government is a titular head bearing no political responsibility, while the President of the Executive Yuan assumes the role of a real administrative chief. Another important organ is the National Military Council, which exercises a unified control over the military matters of the nation.

Upon the outbreak of the present war against aggression, the Supreme National Defense Council was created to serve as the highest political organ during the period of emergency. It has taken over all the peace-time functions of the Central Political Council of the Kuomintang, besides imposing on itself those necessitated by the exigencies of the war. Details of its organization and work are withheld for the time being for military considerations. The following pages will be devoted to an account of the five yuan, the National Military

Council and the various grades of local government.

THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

The Executive Yuan comprises the entire executive branch of the National Government, that is, the yuan itself and all its component ministries, commissions, etc. At present, it consists of 11 ministries, three commissions, one board, and two directorates. They are: (1) the ministries of Interior, Foreign Affairs, Military Affairs, Finance, Economic Affairs, Education, Communications, Agriculture and Forestry, Social Affairs, Food, and Justice; (2) the commissions on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, Oversea Chinese Affairs, and National Relief; (3) the National Conservancy Board; and (4) the National Health Administration and the Land Administration. In addition, there are a number of minor administrative bodies directly under the yuan such as the Board of Trustees for the British Portion of the 1901 Indemnity Fund, the National Weather Bureau, etc. which are shown in the charts of National and Local Administrative Systems under the General Appendix.

The organization and functions of the above ministries, commissions, etc. are treated elsewhere in this volume. The paragraphs below deal with the Executive Yuan in the narrower sense of the term, giving some idea about the institution presided over by the presi-

¹ The Editor.

dent of the yuan, exclusive of its component ministries and commissions.

The Executive Yuan, standing at the head of the administrative hierarchy, provides the propelling force and assumes responsibility for the activities of the various ministries and commissions as well as of the provincial and special municipal governments. It is its duty to direct, coordinate, and review the work of these Central organizations, and either directly or through them, to exercise general supervision over the local administrations.

In the execution of his duties the President of the Executive Yuan is assisted by a secretariat and a Bureau of Political Affairs. While routine matters are usually disposed of by them, important questions are always reserved for discussion at the yuan meeting attended by its president, vice-president, and the heads of the various ministries and commissions.

THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

The Legislative Yuan is the highest law-making organ of the National Government. It is empowered to decide on law bills, budget making, bills on amnesty, declaration of war, negotiation of peace, and other problems of international concern. Bills may be introduced by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, by the National Government Council, by the other yuan, or by members of the Legislative Yuan.

BILLS PASSED BY THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN, JAN. 1940-SEPT. 1942¹

LAWS

	Date of Promulgation by the National Government
1. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of War	Feb. 13, 1940
2. Revised Regulations Governing Subsidiary Coins	Feb. 18, 1940
3. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Finance	March 26, 1940

¹Translated by Mr. Chang Chen-hual of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

When a bill is introduced in the yuan, it is first assigned to a committee for consideration. The five standing committees are: (1) the codification committee, (2) the foreign relations committee, (3) the finance committee, (4) the economic committee, and (5) the military affairs committee. In addition, there are at present six selected committees to deal with specific pieces of legislation. They are: (1) the civil law committee, (2) the penal law committee, (3) the commercial law committee, (4) the labour law committee, (5) the self-government law committee, and (6) the land law committee. After the committee stage, a bill comes to the yuan meeting for decision. If passed, it is reported to the National Government for promulgation.

For the routine business of the yuan there are under its president and vice-president two administrative departments, namely, the secretariat and the Bureau of Legislative Research.

During the period from the outbreak of the present war on July 7, 1937 up to the end of September 1942, the Legislative Yuan, in its 115 yuan meetings held, passed a total of 466 bills, including 267 law bills, 179 budget and finance bills, 19 treaties and conventions, and one declaration of war. The following is a complete list of the bills passed since January 1940, those passed at an earlier date having been listed in the last issue of this year book.

4. Organic Law of the Direct Tax Administration of the Ministry of Finance	March 26, 1940
5. Organic Law of the National Treasury	March 26, 1940
6. Regulations Governing the Organization of Special Limited Companies	March 21, 1940
7. Regulations Governing the Reward and Pension of Social and Educational Workers	April 8, 1940
8. Revised Regulations Governing the National Reconstruction Savings Notes	April 3, 1940
9. Revised Regulations for the Preferential Treatment of the Families of Officers and Men at the Front	April 5, 1940
10. Regulations Governing the Organization of the Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau	April 19, 1940
11. Organic Law of the National Health Administration	April 17, 1940
12. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Interior	April 17, 1940
13. Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Bureau of Weights and Measures of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	May 8, 1940
14. Revised Regulations Governing the Transfer of Prisoners for Military Service in Emergency Time	May 3, 1940
15. Organic Law of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	May 11, 1940
16. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	May 11, 1940
17. Revised Regulations Governing the National Reconstruction Savings Notes	May 30, 1940
18. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Military Affairs	June 3, 1940
19. Outlines Governing Popular Organizations in Emergency Time	June 1, 1940
20. Revised Regulations for the Punishment of Acts against Conscription	June 18, 1940
21. Regulations for the Punishment of Offences against the Enforcement of Conscription	June 29, 1940
22. Regulations Governing the Appointment of Public Functionaries in War Areas in Emergency Time	July 15, 1940
23. Regulations Governing the Reward and Pension of School Faculties	July 15, 1940
24. Regulations Governing the Detention of Civil Defendants	Aug. 12, 1940
25. Amended Law of Trade Mark	Oct. 19, 1940
26. Organic Law of the National Conservancy Board	Sept. 22, 1940
27. Revised Organic Law of the Comptroller-General's Office of the National Government	Sept. 19, 1940
28. Revised Regulations Governing the Appointment of the Personnel of the Comptroller-General's Office	Sept. 19, 1940
29. Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Central Library	Oct. 16, 1940
30. Organic Law of the Ministry of Social Affairs	Oct. 11, 1940
31. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Interior	Oct. 11, 1940
32. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	Oct. 11, 1940
33. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	Oct. 11, 1940
34. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Education	Nov. 16, 1940
35. Regulations Governing the Pension of Judicial Officers	Nov. 18, 1940
36. Provisional Regulations Governing the Title Deeds Tax	Dec. 18, 1940
37. Provisional Regulations Governing the Examination of Candidates for Hsien, County and Town Assemblymen	Dec. 16, 1940
38. Revised Organic Law of the National Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	Dec. 6, 1940
39. Revised Organic Law of the National Relief Commission	Dec. 11, 1940
40. Revised Provisional Regulations For the Encouragement of Industrial Technique	Jan. 6, 1941
41. Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of War	Dec. 24, 1940
42. Lawyers Law	Jan. 11, 1941
43. Revised Organic Law of the Legislative Yuan	Jan. 17, 1941
44. Revised Organic Law of the Committees of the Legislative Yuan	Jan. 17, 1941
45. Regulations Governing the Organization of the Reclamation Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	Feb. 11, 1941
46. Revised Regulations Governing Reclamation by Refugees in Emergency Time	Feb. 14, 1941

47.	Census Regulations	Feb. 13, 1941
48.	Regulations Governing Rewards of Medals	Feb. 12, 1941
49.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Agricultural Experimental Station of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	March 3, 1941
50.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Geological Survey of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	March 1, 1941
51.	Revised Organic Law of the Control Yuan	March 19, 1941
52.	Revised Regulations Governing the Conferring of Honorary Rewards on Civilians in Emergency Time	March 11, 1941
53.	Revised Postal Law	April 9, 1941
54.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the Bureau of Cooperatives of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	April 11, 1941
55.	Law Governing Fees in Civil Procedures	April 8, 1941
56.	Regulations Governing the Transfer of Central and Local Public Functionaries	April 25, 1941
57.	Law of Aviation	May 30, 1941
58.	Revised Organic Law of the Legislative Yuan	May 17, 1941
59.	Revised Organic Law of the Judicial Yuan	May 17, 1941
60.	Revised Organic Law of the Examination Yuan	May 17, 1941
61.	Revised Organic Law of the Control Yuan	May 17, 1941
62.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Organization of Hsien Councils	Aug. 9, 1941
63.	Regulations Governing the Election of Hsien Councillors	Aug. 9, 1941
64.	Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Institute for Compilation and Translation	June 13, 1941
65.	Supplementary Regulations Governing Civil Procedures in Emergency Time	July 1, 1941
66.	Supplementary Regulations Governing Criminal Procedures in Emergency Time	July 1, 1941
67.	Organic Law of the Ministry of Food	July 4, 1941
68.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the Local Offices of the Direct Tax Administration	July 1, 1941
69.	Regulations Governing the Adoption of Personal Names	July 17, 1941
70.	Provisional Regulations Governing Native Tobacco and Wine Tax	July 8, 1941
71.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Consolidated Taxes...	July 7, 1941
72.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Organization of Counties and Towns	Aug. 9, 1941
73.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Election of County and Town Representatives	Aug. 9, 1941
74.	Revised Provisional Regulations Governing the Examination of Candidates for Hsien, County, and Town Assemblymen	Aug. 11, 1941
75.	Revised Organic Law of the Examination Yuan	Aug. 21, 1941
76.	Revised Organic Law of the Commission of Civil Service Examinations	Aug. 21, 1941
77.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Personnel	Aug. 21, 1941
78.	Revised Organic Law of the Judicial Yuan	Aug. 25, 1941
79.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Hygienic Experimental Station	Sept. 10, 1941
80.	Revised Law of People's Physical Education	Sept. 9, 1941
81.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Interior	Sept. 5, 1941
82.	Revised Regulations Governing the Administrative Meetings of the Academia Sinica	Sept. 9, 1941
83.	Revised Regulations for the Inspection and Prohibition of Enemy Goods..	Sept. 3, 1941
84.	Revised Regulations Prohibiting the Shipment of Commodities to Enemy Occupied Areas	Sept. 3, 1941
85.	Revised Regulations for the Farmers Bank of China	Sept. 3, 1941
86.	Regulations for the Land Finance Business of the Farmers Bank of China	Sept. 5, 1941
87.	Regulations for the Encouragement of Medical Technique	Sept. 5, 1941
88.	Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Bureaus of Personnel	Nov. 6, 1941

89.	Revised Postal Law	Nov. 4, 1941
90.	Revised Law of Business Tax	Nov. 1, 1941
91.	Regulations Governing the Registration of Personnel to be Employed	Nov. 18, 1941
92.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Finance	Nov. 24, 1941
93.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	Nov. 24, 1941
94.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Social Affairs	Nov. 24, 1941
95.	Revised Regulations for the Preferential Treatment of the Families of the Officers and Men at the Front	Dec. 20, 1941
96.	Revised Regulations for the Encouragement of Mining and Industrial Enterprises in Emergency Time	Dec. 17, 1941
97.	Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Bureau of Cooperatives of the Ministry of Social Affairs	Dec. 17, 1941
98.	Regulations for Reporting Land Value in Emergency Time	Dec. 11, 1941
99.	Revised Regulations for Making Oaths of offices	Jan. 9, 1942
100.	Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Tax Administration of the Ministry of Finance	Jan. 10, 1942
101.	Revised Regulations Governing the Reward and Pension of School Faculties	Jan. 10, 1942
102.	Revised Table for Postal Charges	Jan. 10, 1942
103.	Regulations for the Disposition of Enemy Civilians	Jan. 1, 1942
104.	Regulations for the Disposition of Enemy Property...	Jan. 1, 1942
105.	Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Office of the Supervisory Commissioner of the Control Yuan	Feb. 7, 1942
106.	Organic Law of Popular Organizations in Emergency Time	Feb. 10, 1942
107.	Revised Organic Law of the National Treasury	Feb. 10, 1942
108.	Organic Law of the Commodity Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	Feb. 18, 1942
109.	Bill Concerning the Payment of Military Telegraphs	Feb. 27, 1942
110.	Law of Land Bonds of the Farmers Bank of China	March 26, 1942
111.	National Mobilization Law	March 29, 1942
112.	Revised Regulations Governing Rewards and Medals	March 25, 1942
113.	Revised Law Regulating the Making of Law Code	March 28, 1942
114.	Bill Relating to the Coordination of the Supreme National Defense Council and the Legislative Yuan	March 28, 1942
115.	Regulations Governing the Inspection Party of the Legislative Yuan	March 28, 1942
116.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Military Affairs	April 18, 1942
117.	War-time Military Law of the Republic of China	April 4, 1942
118.	Provisional Regulations Governing the War-time Consumption Tax	April 2, 1942
119.	Organic Law of the Department of Military Affairs of the National Government	April 27, 1942
120.	Revised Organic Law of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	April 27, 1942
121.	Revised Regulations Governing the National Reconstruction Savings Notes	April 25, 1942
122.	Revised Organic Law of the Control Yuan	April 27, 1942
123.	Regulations for the Formulation and Examination of the War-time National Budget	April 15, 1942
124.	Law Governing Feasting and Amusement Taxes	April 24, 1942
125.	Revised Regulations Governing Army Ceremonies	May 23, 1942
126.	Provisional Regulations for War-time Tobacco Monopoly	May 13, 1942
127.	Provisional Regulations for War-time Sugar Monopoly	May 13, 1942
128.	Provisional Regulations for War-time Matches Monopoly	May 13, 1942
129.	Regulations for War-time Control of Exports and Imports	May 11, 1942
130.	Organic Law of the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	May 13, 1942
131.	Revised Organic Law of the Commodity Administration	May 11, 1942
132.	Provisional Regulations for Salt Monopoly	May 26, 1942
133.	Revised Provisional Regulations Governing the Title Deeds Tax	May 25, 1942
134.	Revised Law of Simple Insurance	May 27, 1942

NATIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

135.	Organic Law of the Land Administration	...	...	June 9, 1942
136.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Interior	...	...	June 8, 1942
137.	Revised Mining Law	...	...	June 8, 1942
138.	Organic Law of the Smuggling Prevention Administration of the Ministry of Finance	...	...	June 9, 1942
139.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the Local Smuggling Prevention Office of the Ministry of Finance	...	...	June 9, 1942
140.	Law of Conservancy	...	...	July 7, 1942
141.	Revised Law of Business Tax	...	...	July 2, 1942
142.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Punishment of Offenses Against National Mobilization	...	...	June 29, 1942
143.	Revised Organic Law of the Customs Administration of the Ministry of Finance	...	...	July 23, 1942
144.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Organization of the Provincial Tax Bureau of the Ministry of Finance	...	...	July 30, 1942
145.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Hsien and Municipal Tax Bureaus of the Ministry of Finance	...	...	July 30, 1942
146.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Mobilization Council	...	...	July 27, 1942
147.	Revised Organic Law of the Executive Yuan	...	...	July 25, 1942
148.	Revised Law of Administrative Procedure	...	...	July 27, 1942
149.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Justice	...	...	July 28, 1942
150.	Provisional Regulations Governing the Organization of the Land Tax Commission of the Ministry of Finance	...	...	July 25, 1942
151.	Organic Law of the Department of Civil Affairs of the National Government	...	...	Aug. 7, 1942
152.	Revised Regulations Governing Narcotics	...	...	Aug. 11, 1942
153.	Regulations Governing the Organization of Provincial Assemblies	...	...	Aug. 20, 1942
154.	Regulations Governing the Election of Provincial Assemblymen	...	...	Aug. 29, 1942
155.	Regulations for Personnel Management	...	...	Sept. 2, 1942
156.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the Codification Committee of the Examination Yuan	...	...	Sept. 1, 1942
157.	Regulations for the Encouragement of Donations for Social Welfare	...	...	Aug. 29, 1942
158.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Food	...	...	Sept. 22, 1942
159.	Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Audit	...	...	Sept. 24, 1942
160.	Regulations Governing the Organization of the Bureau of Labour of the Ministry of Social Affairs	...	...	Sept. 18, 1942
161.	Law for the Examination of Special Vocational and Technical Personnel	...	...	Sept. 24, 1942
162.	Revised Tables of the Ratings of Air Officers and Men	...	...	Sept. 22, 1942
163.	Revised Organic Law of the Huai River Commission	...	...	Oct. 17, 1942
164.	Revised Organic Law of the Yellow River Commission	...	...	Oct. 17, 1942
165.	Organic Law of the Yangtze River Commission	...	...	Oct. 17, 1942
166.	Organic Law of the North China River Commission	...	...	Oct. 17, 1942
167.	Revised Organic Law of the Department of Military Affairs of the National Government	...	...	Oct. 15, 1942
168.	Revised Organic Law of the Military Advisory Council	...	...	Oct. 13, 1942
169.	Revised Census Regulations	...	...	Oct. 17, 1942
170.	Revised Regulations for Reporting Land Value in Emergency Time	...	...	Oct. 17, 1942

BUDGET STATUTES

	<i>Date of Promulgation by the National Government</i>
1. The 28th Fiscal Year Chinghai Provincial Budget	Jan. 13, 1940
2. The 28th Fiscal Year Second Supplementary National Budget	Jan. 27, 1940
3. The 27th Fiscal Year Fifth Supplementary National Budget	Feb. 10, 1940
4. The 27th Fiscal Year Sixth Supplementary National Budget	Feb. 10, 1940
5. The 26th Fiscal Year Fourth Supplementary National Budget	Feb. 24, 1940
6. The 29th Fiscal Year Fukien Provincial Production and Reconstruction Bonds	March 4, 1940

NATIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

7. The 29th Year War Supplies Loan	March 1, 1940
8. The 29th Year Reconstruction Gold Loan	March 1, 1940
9. The 29th Fiscal Year Kiangsu Provincial Financial Readjustment Bonds	March 1, 1940
10. The 27th Fiscal Year Seventh Supplementary National Budget	March 23, 1940
11. The 28th Fiscal Year Fourth Supplementary National Budget	March 23, 1940
12. The 28th Fiscal Year Shensi Provincial Budget	April 6, 1940
13. The 28th Fiscal Year Honan Provincial Supplementary Budget	April 6, 1940
14. The 29th Fiscal Year Sikkang Provincial Currency Bonds	April 29, 1940
15. The 28th Fiscal Year Chungking Municipal Supplementary Budget	May 18, 1940
16. The 29th Fiscal Year Kwangtung Provincial 6% Bonds	June 29, 1940
17. The 28th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Budget	June 29, 1940
18. The 29th Fiscal Year Chinghai Provincial Budget	June 29, 1940
19. The 28th Fiscal Year Fifth Supplementary National Budget	Aug. 30, 1940
20. The 28th Fiscal Year Hupeh Provincial Budget	Aug. 30, 1940
21. The 29th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Development Bonds	Sept. 5, 1940
22. The 29th Fiscal Year Anhwei Provincial Currency Bonds	Sept. 5, 1940
23. The 29th Fiscal Year Ninghsia Provincial Budget	Sept. 26, 1940
24. The 29th Fiscal Year Honan Provincial Budget	Sept. 26, 1940
25. The 29th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Reconstruction Bonds	Nov. 15, 1940
26. The 29th Fiscal Year Chahar Provincial Budget	Oct. 31, 1940
27. The 30th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Debts Readjustment Bonds	Dec. 31, 1940
28. The 29th Fiscal Year Kwangsi Provincial Budget	Dec. 24, 1940
29. The 28th Fiscal Year Second and Third Supplementary Chungking Municipal Budgets	Dec. 24, 1940
30. The 28th Fiscal Year Revised Fourth Supplementary National Budget	Dec. 24, 1940
31. The 30th Fiscal Year National Budget	Dec. 24, 1940
32. The 30th Fiscal Year Kansu Provincial Reconstruction Bonds	Feb. 10, 1941
33. The 28th Fiscal Year Sixth Supplementary National Budget	Feb. 14, 1941
34. The 30th Year War Supplies Loan	Feb. 28, 1941
35. The 30th Year National Reconstruction Loan	Feb. 28, 1941
36. The 29th Fiscal Year Hunan Provincial Budget	Feb. 28, 1941
37. The 29th Fiscal Year Hopei Provincial Budget	Feb. 28, 1941
38. The 28th Fiscal Year Seventh Supplementary National Budget	March 22, 1941
39. The 28th Fiscal Year Eighth Supplementary National Budget	March 22, 1941
40. The 29th Fiscal Year First Supplementary National Budget	March 22, 1941
41. The 29th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Budget	March 22, 1941
42. The 29th Fiscal Year Sikkang Provincial Budget	April 15, 1941
43. The 29th Fiscal Year Fukien Provincial Budget	April 15, 1941
44. The 29th Fiscal Year Kweichow Provincial Budget	April 15, 1941
45. The 29th Fiscal Year Chinghai Provincial Supplementary Budget	April 15, 1941
46. The 30th Year Yunnan-Burma Railway Gold Loan	May 21, 1941
47. The 29th Fiscal Year Honan Provincial Enterprises Budget	June 20, 1941
48. The 29th Fiscal Year Shensi Provincial Budget	July 10, 1941
49. The 29th Fiscal Year Anhwei Provincial Budget	July 10, 1941
50. The 29th Fiscal Year Anhwei Provincial Enterprises Budget	July 10, 1941
51. The 29th Fiscal Year Second Supplementary National Budget	Aug. 9, 1941
52. The 30th Year Kiangsi Provincial Reconstruction Bonds	Sept. 10, 1941
53. The 30th Year Kansu Provincial Conservancy, Agricultural, and Mining Bonds	Sept. 10, 1941
54. The 30th Year Food Certificates	Sept. 10, 1941
55. The 29th Fiscal Year Shansi Provincial Budget	Sept. 10, 1941
56. The 30th Fiscal Year Hopei Provincial Budget	Sept. 10, 1941
57. Revised Regulations Governing the 30th Year Szechuen Provincial Debts Readjustment Bonds	Nov. 1, 1941
58. The 30th Fiscal Year Chahar Provincial Budget	Oct. 18, 1941
59. The 29th Fiscal Year Chungking Municipal Supplementary Budget	Oct. 18, 1941
60. Revised Regulations Governing the 29th Year Anhwei Provincial Currency Bonds	Dec. 17, 1941

NATIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

61.	Revised Regulations Governing 26th Year Anhwei Provincial Highway Construction Bonds	Dec. 17, 1941
62.	The 30th Fiscal Year Ninghsia Provincial Budget	Dec. 2, 1941
63.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kiangsu Provincial Budget	Dec. 2, 1941
64.	The 30th Fiscal Year Shantung Provincial Budget	Dec. 27, 1941
65.	The 30th Fiscal Year Hunan Provincial Budget	Dec. 27, 1941
66.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kiangsi Provincial Budget	Dec. 27, 1941
67.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kweichow Provincial Budget	Dec. 27, 1941
68.	Revised Regulations Governing the 20th Year War Supplies Loan	Jan. 8, 1942
69.	Revised Regulations Governing the 30th Year War Supplies Loan	Jan. 8, 1942
70.	Revised Regulations Governing the 30th Year National Reconstruction Loan	Jan. 8, 1942
71.	Revised Regulations Governing the 29th Year Reconstruction Gold Loan	Jan. 8, 1942
72.	The 31st Fiscal Year National Budget	Jan. 24, 1942
73.	The 30th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Budget	Feb. 21, 1942
74.	The 30th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Supplementary Budget	Feb. 21, 1942
75.	The 29th Fiscal Year Budget of the Factories of the Bureau of Weights and Measures of the Ministry of Economic Affairs	Feb. 21, 1942
76.	The 29th Fiscal Year Budget of the Narcotic Drugs Department of the National Health Administration	Feb. 21, 1942
77.	The 29th Fiscal Year Budget of the National Epidemic Prevention Bureau	Feb. 21, 1942
78.	The 30th Fiscal Year Hupeh Provincial Budget	Feb. 21, 1942
79.	The 29th Fiscal Year Third Supplementary National Budget	April 15, 1942
80.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kansu Provincial Budget	April 15, 1942
81.	The 30th Fiscal Year Shansi Provincial Supplementary Budget	April 15, 1942
82.	The 30th Fiscal Year Sikang Provincial Budget	April 15, 1942
83.	The 31st Year Allied Victory U.S. Gold Bonds	April 25, 1942
84.	The 31st Year Allied Victory Bonds	April 15, 1942
85.	The 30th Fiscal Year First Supplementary National Budget	May 16, 1942
86.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kweichow Provincial Supplementary Budget	May 16, 1942
87.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kiangsu Provincial Supplementary Budget	May 16, 1942
88.	The 30th Fiscal Year Hopei Provincial Supplementary Budget	May 16, 1942
89.	The 30th Fiscal Year Kansu Provincial Supplementary Budget	May 16, 1942
90.	The 30th Fiscal Year First and Second Supplementary Hupeh Provincial Budget	May 16, 1942
91.	The 30th Fiscal Year First and Second Supplementary Kiangsi Provincial Budgets	May 16, 1942
92.	The 30th Fiscal Year Shansi Provincial Budget	May 16, 1942
93.	Bill Revising the 30th Year Szechuen, Hupeh, and Kansu Provincial Budgets	May 16, 1942
94.	The 30th Fiscal Year Honan Provincial Budget	May 30, 1942
95.	The 30th Fiscal Year First Supplementary Honan Provincial Budget	May 30, 1942
96.	The 30th Fiscal Year Second Supplementary Honan Provincial Budget	May 30, 1942
97.	Revised Regulations Governing the 31st Year Allied Victory Bonds	June 20, 1942
98.	Corrections Made on the 30th Year First Supplementary National Budget	July 10, 1942
99.	The 31st Year National Expenditure for Hupeh	July 10, 1942
100.	The 31st Year Food Certificates	Aug. 10, 1942
101.	The 31st Year National Expenditure for Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan, Kweichow, Chekiang, Liaoning, Hopei, Kirin, Jehol Provinces, and Chungking Municipality	July 30, 1942
102.	The 31st Fiscal Year National Expenditure for Shensi	July 30, 1942
103.	The 31st Fiscal Year National Expenditure for Kiangsi	July 30, 1942
104.	The 31st Fiscal Year National Expenditure for Honan, Kansu, Fukien, Heilungkiang, Shantung, Anhwei, Ninghsia, and Chahar	Aug. 20, 1942
105.	The 30th Fiscal Year Second Supplementary National Budget	Sept. 10, 1942
106.	The 30th Fiscal Year Third Supplementary National Budget	Sept. 10, 1942
107.	The 31st Fiscal Year Supplementary National Expenditure for Szechuen, Hopei, Anhwei, Kirin, Honan, Fukien, Shensi, Kwangtung, Kweichow,	

NATIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

	Chekiang, and Hunan	Sept. 10, 1942
108.	The 31st Year National Expenditure for Kiangsu	Sept. 30, 1942
109.	The 31st Fiscal Year Second Supplementary National Expenditure for Shensi, Kweichow and Hunan	Sept. 30, 1942
110.	The 31st Fiscal Year Supplementary National Expenditure for Ninghsia	Sept. 30, 1942
111.	The 31st Fiscal Year Supplementary Budget for National Expenditure from the Second Reserve Fund	Oct. 24, 1942
112.	The 31st Fiscal Year First Supplementary National Budget	Oct. 24, 1942
113.	The 30th Fiscal Year Supplementary Budget for National Expenditure from the Second Reserve Fund	Oct. 24, 1942
114.	The 31st Fiscal Year National Expenditure for Shansi	Oct. 24, 1942
115.	The 31st Fiscal Year Supplementary National Expenditure for Shansi	Oct. 24, 1942
116.	The 31st Fiscal Year Second Supplementary National Expenditure for Shansi	Oct. 24, 1942
117.	The 31st Fiscal Year Second Supplementary National Expenditure for Honan, Kwangtung, and Chekiang	Oct. 24, 1942
118.	The 31st Fiscal Year Supplementary National Expenditure for Chungking Municipality	Oct. 24, 1942

*Date of Promulgation
by the National
Government*

TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS

1.	Bill on the Convention Fixing the Minimum Qualifications for Captains and other Personnel of Merchant Ships	Dec. 9, 1938
2.	Bill on the Convention for the Payment of Wages to Seamen on Annual Leave	Dec. 9, 1938
3.	Bill on the Convention Fixing the Responsibilities of Ship Owners Toward Sick, Wounded, or Died Seamen	Dec. 9, 1938
4.	Bill on the Convention for the Sick Insurance of Seamen	Dec. 9, 1938
5.	Bill on the Convention Regulating the Working Hour and Assignment of Seamen	Dec. 9, 1938
6.	Bill on the Convention Fixing the Minimum Age for the Admission of Children to Employment on the Sea	Dec. 9, 1938
7.	Sino-Soviet Commercial Treaty	Dec. 30, 1939
8.	International Protocol on the Cooperation of Intelligent Education	March 9, 1940
9.	Brussel International Postal Convention and Agreements	Sept. 26, 1940
10.	Sino-Dominican Treaty of Amity	Oct. 31, 1940
11.	Sino-Iraq Treaty of Amity	July 10, 1942
12.	Bill on the Proposal made by the Post Office of Venezuela for Increasing the Extra-Transportation Fee as Provided in the Final Protocol of the International Postal Agreement	Oct. 24, 1942

*Date of Promulgation
by the National
Government*

DECLARATION OF WAR

1.	Declaration of War on Japan, Germany, and Italy	Dec. 9, 1941
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**Laws and Regulations Being Drafted
or Under Discussions :** 1. *Military
Laws and Regulations :*

- a. To collaborate with other competent authorities for the promulgation of various regulations under the National Mobilization Law.

- b. To revise the Conscription Law and other related regulations. Upon the receipt of all the draft bills from the various military and political organizations concerned, steps will be taken to examine them.
- c. To examine in detail all the military laws and regulations

efficiency, the Judicial Yuan has stipulated and put into force many regulations such as the Regulations Governing the Supervision of the Various Organs Directly under the Judicial Yuan, the Regulations Governing the Supervision of the Work of the Ministry of Justice, and the General Principles of Judicial Administration under the Jurisdiction of Branch High Courts. Besides, the Judicial Yuan, with a view to studying the true conditions of judicial administration in the different provinces and thereby giving effective directions and instructions, has sent many commissioners and delegates to conduct a close and minute investigation, the Minister of Justice himself also making personal visits to many provinces.

2. *Promotion of Efficiency in Wartime.*—To meet wartime needs, circuit courts have been organized to tour in the war zones, where the regular courts found it difficult to perform their duty. Rules for readjusting and concluding the undecided cases of the courts in the reoccupied areas have been effectively carried out so as to lighten the burden of lawsuits in the war areas. Since the outbreak of the present war, many able-bodied prisoners have been released on condition that they enlist in the army, and some have been sent to the border provinces as pioneers. These arrangements are to be considered as the fullest utilization of manpower in time of emergency.

3. *Establishment of Experimental Courts.*—On account of the complexity of the present judicial procedure, the introduction of a new system for its simplification is necessary. For this purpose, the establishment of some experimental courts has been taken into consideration by the Judicial

Yuan. In the past year, the district court at Pishan, in the vicinity of the wartime capital, has been reorganized into an experimental court, and the district court at Peipei will also be so reorganized. To put to practice a new judicial procedure in the experimental courts, the Judicial Yuan has formulated a set of Supplementary Regulations Governing Civil and Criminal Procedures for the Experimental Courts. Should these regulations prove practical, they would help much toward the revision of the present judicial procedures.

4. *Enforcement of the Public Accounting System.*—In judicial organs as in executive organs, a system of independent public accounting is in urgent need. In this field, the Judicial Yuan has laid a sound foundation so as to prevent possible corruption in the judicial organs. At present, in the different grades of courts an accounting bureau has been organized with the sole authority to handle financial matters.

5. *Setting Up of a Permanent Judicial Institution.*—Lately, the Judicial Yuan, in order to ensure the integrity and independence of the judiciary and to prevent executive interference, has decided that, in districts where the magistrates concurrently take charge of the judicial function, a district court will be established instead. Under the instruction of the Judicial Yuan, the Ministry of Justice has made a five-year plan for setting up new courts on a very large scale.

Besides what have been stated above, there are still other points worthy to be noted, such as the expediting of the concluding of cases, the constructing of provincial prisons, the recruiting and training of judicial personnel and the supervising of judi-

Yunnan	1	1	—	—	6
Kweichow	1	1	—	—	85
Chahar	2	1	—	1	2
Suiyuan	1	1	—	—	17
Ninghsia	1	1	—	—	7
Sinkiang	1	1	—	—	5

NOTE: 10 prisons and one branch prison were set up since the war. The above figures include prisons temporarily closed.

THE EXAMINATION YUAN¹

The Examination Yuan is intrusted with the power of conducting civil service examinations and reviewing the appointments and removals of administrative officials of the National and local governments. It is headed by a president and a vice-president. Under the yuan are a Commission of Civil Service Examinations and a Ministry of Personnel.

According to the Examination Law, examinations are of three kinds, namely, ordinary examinations, higher examinations, and special examinations. The first two are each divided again into regular and emergency examinations. Classified according to the nature of governmental work, there are examinations for general executives, financial officers, statisticians, educational administrators, diplomatic and consular officers, judicial officers, health officers, police officers, and administrators in reconstruction work. Successful candidates in these examinations are to be referred to the Ministry of Personnel for registration and appointment.

The Ministry of Personnel deals with such matters as (1) classification of ranks and salaries, (2) review of appointments, (3) allocation of successful candidates of examinations, (4) re-

gistration of all public servants, (5) examination of merits, (6) award of pensions and compensations, (7) granting of honours, and (8) educational training and general welfare of government functionaries.

In general, all administrative functionaries are divided into three grades, namely, officials of selected appointments, those of recommended appointments, and those of delegated appointments. Each grade is again divided into a number of ranks. For each of these ranks only a fixed amount of salary is allowed.

As stipulated in the Law of Appointments, persons who are to be appointed to office have to fill in an appointment paper to the Ministry of Personnel together with credentials, certificates, and other supporting documents for review. Those who have already been appointed to office must submit themselves for review within three months from the date of appointment. On account of communication and other difficulties accompanying the present war, it is now decided to waive some of the legal requirements. An official of the grade of delegated appointment, when transferred to a new office of the same rank, is to be exempted from a review of his qualifications for the new work. The time

¹Revision made by Mr. Huang Chin-hung (黃 金 榮) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

cial accounts, all of which have been effectively carried out in accordance with plan.

Of the outstanding work performed by the Judicial Yuan during the period from October 1941 to August 1942, the following may be enumerated:

1. *Enactment of Laws:*

- a. Publication of regulations governing the supervision of the work of judicial organs directly under the Judicial Yuan.
- b. Revision of the pecuniary limits in civil cases involving property rights to be appealed to the Supreme Court.
- c. Revision of the code of administrative procedure.
- d. Revision of the Organic Law of the Ministry of Justice.
- e. Stipulation of the general principles of judicial administration under the jurisdiction of the branch high courts.
- f. Revision of the regulations governing judicial papers, the inquiry office of judicial petition, and the practice of lawyers in the hsien judicial offices.
- g. Stipulation of the regulations governing the experimental courts.
- h. Proposal for the readjustment of relations between the executive and the judiciary.
- i. Publication of judicial interpretations of laws and precedents.

2. *Concerning Judicial Organs:*

- a. Establishment of new courts and improvement of old courts.
- b. Erection of experimental courts.
- c. Promotion of the system of public attorney.

- d. Promotion of the system of notary.
- e. Allocation of accountants in various grades of courts.
- f. Supervision of judicial administration in the provinces.
- g. Evacuation of the Shanghai Special District Court and its staff. Upon the seizure of the whole of Shanghai by the Japanese on December 8, 1941, communications between the courts at Shanghai and the Judicial Yuan were totally suspended. Immediately following the enemy occupation of these courts, the National Government at Chungking declared that any court hereafter established by the Japanese or by the puppet régime was illegal and its actions invalid. The courts were withdrawn and reestablished in Fukien. The officers were evacuated, many of whom served in the courts of Chekiang, Kiangsi, and Anhwei provinces. Before the Pacific war, there were about 1,300 members in the Shanghai Bar Association. After the dissolution of the First and Second Special District Courts in Shanghai, members of the association withdrew to Free China in compliance with the Government's order.

3. *Regarding Legal Proceedings:*

- a. Supervision of the Circuit Courts in Hupeh, Honan, Kwangtung, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Kwangsi, Shensi, and Shantung provinces.
- b. Decision of procedure for handling cases concerning enemy aliens.

- c. Improvement of existing civil and criminal procedures.
- d. Drafting of regulations governing the readjustment of the unsettled cases in the re-occupied zone.

4. *Regarding Judicial Personnel:*

- a. Recruitment and training of judicial officers.
- b. Increase of remuneration.

5. *Regarding Settlement of cases:*

- a. Settlement of civil and criminal cases by provincial courts. In 1941, the number of civil and criminal cases decided by provincial courts were as follows: (1) civil cases: first trial, 186,925; second trial, 65,995; (2) criminal cases: first trial, 139,494, second trial, 40,875. The above figures were greatly increased compared with those for 1939 and 1940, indicating an increase in working efficiency.
- b. Settlement of civil and criminal cases by the Supreme Courts. The cases appealed to the Supreme Courts also increased. The number of civil and criminal cases appealed from October, 1941 to August, 1942 totalled 12,117 (civil cases, 8,057; criminal cases, 4,060), of which 9,120 cases were decided (civil cases, 4,747; criminal cases, 4,373).

- c. Decision of cases by the Administrative Court. From October, 1941 to August, 1942 new cases handled were 52 in number. Including old cases, 106 were decided.

- d. Decisions of cases by the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Func-

tionaries. From October, 1941 to August, 1942, the commission accepted 66 new cases, of which 48 cases were decided. Within the same period 57 old cases were concluded. Of the cases decided, 49 officials were dismissed from office, 13 degraded, 20 cut in salary, 11 received demerits, and one admonished. The rest of the cases were dismissed. Among the officials punished, six were of the selected rank, 48 of the recommended rank, and 51 of the delegated rank.

6. *Regarding Prisons:*

- a. Building and Repairing of prisons in the provinces.
- b. Intensification of prisoner work.
- c. Promotion of reclamation by prisoners.
- d. Increase of prisoners' provisions.
- e. Training and enlistment of prisoners for military service.

7. *Regarding Accounting:*

- a. Founding of an independent system of accounting in the judicial organs.
- b. Supervision of accounting of judicial organs.

8. *Regarding Judicial Statistics:*

- a. Drafting of regulations governing the organization and function of statistics bureaus in organs directly under the Judicial Yuan.
- b. Formulation of a plan for nation-wide statistics collection.
- c. Supervision of statistical work in various judicial organs.
- d. Editing of a Judicial Statistics Year Book.

the authorities. Apart from the construction of dugouts to protect the inmates from air raids, suitable places were found in the countryside to continue prison work. Neither has their education been neglected. Attached to nearly every prison there is a reformatory school in which the inmates are taught useful knowledge.

Judicial Staff and Expenditure.

Generally speaking, the judicial staff of China is of admirable qualification and high educational level, for the majority of the judges, clerks, and prison officers are recruited by civil service examination. According to national law, no judge or higher clerk may be appointed without having passed through the higher civil service examination conducted by the Examination Yuan, and received a long period of training given by the Ministry of Justice. Similarly the lower clerks and prison officers have to pass through the ordinary civil service examination before they may be appointed in the different grades of courts. Therefore, as compared with officials of the other branches of the Government, the judicial officers are noted for their higher qualification and competence.

The bulk of judicial officers in China are largely law college graduates. Each year hundreds of graduates from law colleges are pouring into the different judicial organs. With a view to ensuring the high qualification of the law students, the Judicial Yuan, in accordance with the Regulations Governing the Supervision of Law Colleges, authorized the issue of scholastic record certificates to law graduates. It also established the Institute for the Training of Judicial Officers to give further instructions and training to the law graduates and to those who have passed through the civil service

examination. At present, the Ministry of Justice and Education are under close cooperation for the training of numerous qualified judges and lawyers for the improvement of Chinese judiciary.

The classification of grades and salaries of judicial officers are similar to that of the officials of the other branches of the Government. Formerly the salaries of judicial officers were relatively lower but have recently been raised to the same level. In order to enhance the prestige of judicial officers as well as to ensure their life career, the Judicial Yuan is planning to further increase the compensation of judicial officers.

In China, the national judicial expenditure were relatively small. Judicial expenditures in the various provinces were mainly borne by local treasuries, with limited aids from the National Government, and the Ministry of Justice never had sufficient funds at its disposal to meet its requirement. Recently, however, the financial conditions of the judiciary have been much improved. With a view to facilitating unified planning and systematic improving of the judicial administration of the country, the Ministry of Justice has decided to defray local judicial expenses directly from National revenues. By a recent decision of the Supreme National Defense Council, a very large sum has been appropriated to the Judicial Yuan to strengthen the judicial organization and invigorate its operations in war time.

Judicial Work in 1941-42: 1. *Intensification of Judicial Supervision and Control.*—In order to intensify the work of judicial supervision and control over the various judicial organs so as to promote their working

ministration and national reconstruction, the Examination Yuan called a National Personnel Administration Conference in March, 1940. Of the resolutions passed, those relating to civil service examinations may be classified into two categories, namely, those for modifying the system of examination administration and those for extending the scope of examinations. Those relating to personnel administration may be classified into three categories, namely, those for the establishment of a permanent personnel system, those for the extension of the scope of personnel administration and those for the improvement of the existing practice.

B. Civil Service Examination, 1940-1942: 1. *Fixing of General Principles.*—(a) Giving the successful candidates a technical training after examination, (b) holding more special examinations for positions to be filled immediately, and (c) simplifying the procedure of examination in wartime.

2. *Drafting of Laws and Regulations Governing Civil Service Examination.*—(a) Regulations expediting the holding of examinations were made, (b) tens of special examinations were held, (c) procedures for higher and ordinary examinations were modified. Before the present war, with the exception of judicial officers, all candidates, once having passed the higher examination, were sent for positions immediately. This has not been so since the adoption by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang of a resolution dividing the higher examination into preliminary and final examinations. Those who have passed the preliminary examination are sent to the Central Political Institute for strict training, intellectual, spiritual and physical, so that higher efficiency may be expected

of the candidate after their appointment. As soon as the training is over, the final examination takes place, which is followed at once by the allocation of those successful to offices. The higher examination for the years 1939, 1940 and 1941 as well as the ordinary examination for the year 1940 at Chungking were held according to this resolution.

(d) Laws and regulations for the examination of candidates for local elective offices, specialists and technicians were made. The ever-intensified preparation for local self-government made it urgent to hold examinations for the candidates for local elective offices. The Examination Yuan in 1940 proclaimed a set of regulations representing the hsien, towns and villages, which regulations have been put into practice. In 1942, a law for the examination of specialists and technicians was promulgated by the National Government. This law, the rules of which are still under discussion, does not apply to the examination of lawyers, for whom a Lawyer's Law has already been provided.

(e) Regulations governing the selection of district magistrates among the successful candidates in higher examinations were drafted. In August, 1940, the Examination Yuan, in accordance with an order of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, organized a committee to choose a number of magistrates to be appointed to the districts of Szechuen, from among the successful candidates of the higher examination in 1939, who were experienced in local administration. In view of the similarity of this method of selection to the "Ta-tiao" System of the Ching Dynasty (a system of choosing district magis-

trates from among those who have passed the provincial examination whom we call chu-jen), the Examination Yuan wanted to make it a permanent system, and a draft of the regulations for it has been sent to the superior authorities for consideration.

3. *Holding of Examinations:*

(a) HIGHER EXAMINATIONS:

(1) The final examination of the higher examination for the year 1940 was held on December 4, 1941. The number of successful candidates was 164, of which all were allocated for positions by the Ministry of Personnel.

(2) The final examination of the 1941 higher examination was held on April 16, 1942 for personnel of reconstruction work after their being trained for three months. The number of successful candidates was 31. The final examination for personnel of other government services was held on July 16, 1942 after a training of six months. The number of successful candidates was 107. The successful candidates of both examinations have been allocated for positions by the Ministry of Personnel.

(3) The final examination of the emergency higher examination for judicial officers for the year 1941 was held on July 3, 1942. Only the first group of the successful candidates in the preliminary examination participated in this examination after their being trained for six months. Those who passed this examination were sent to the Ministry of Justice for further training. The second group is still under the first training.

(4) The preliminary examination of the first higher examination for the year 1942 was held on May 18 at Chungking, Chengtu, Sian, Lanchow, Loyang, Kweiyang, Kunming, Kweilin, Taiho, Yungan and Lishui simul-

taneously. Personnel for the following six services were selected: judicial, coroners, land, census, economic and reconstruction. The result of the examination was announced on September 10, the successful candidates being 104.

(5) The preliminary examination of the second higher examination for 1942 was conducted on October 5 at 11 places including Chungking. There were examinations for judicial officers, land administrators, health officials, economic administrators, general executives, social administrators, diplomatic and consular services, auditing and accounting personnel and administrators in reconstruction work. In accordance with an order of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, the Commission of Civil Service Examinations held a higher examination for financial and banking personnel at the same 11 places. Meanwhile, an examination for senior postal officers was also held.

(b) ORDINARY EXAMINATIONS:

(1) The final examination of the ordinary examination for the year 1940 was held on December 1, 1941. The 142 successful candidates were sent for appointments.

(2) The emergency ordinary examination for auditors for the year 1941 was held on February 1, 1942 at Chungking and Chengtu simultaneously. The successful candidates numbered 40. They were sent to the Ministry of Audit for training.

(3) The preliminary examination of the first ordinary examination for the year 1942 was held on May 22 at 11 places including Chungking. The number of successful candidates was 72.

(4) The second ordinary examination for the year 1942 was held on

- e. To revise the provisional match monopoly regulations.
- f. To rehabilitate recovered territories.

THE JUDICIAL YUAN¹

Organization.—The Judicial Yuan is the highest judicial organ in China. Directly under it are: (1) the Supreme Court, (2) the Administrative Court, and (3) the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries. The Ministry of Justice, being more executive than judicial in function, has recently been transferred to the Executive Yuan.

The Chinese system of judicial procedure consists of three grades of courts and three trials. At the apex is the Supreme Court, which is located at the seat of the National Government and has the power of final decision in all cases appealed. Next below it come the high courts in different parts of the country. They hear appeals on decisions of district courts, which are distributed in the various hsien and municipalities.

Wartime Arrangement.—Since the outbreak of the present war, difficulties have been experienced in the administration of justice in areas overrun by the invaders. However, as long as circumstances permit, the courts are to continue their duties. In areas where district courts have evacuated, the hsien magistrates are empowered to deal with lawsuits pending the reestablishment of the courts. In cases where a high court or a branch high court is absent, appeals are heard by an especially designated district court of the same judicial area. If no such a court exists, appeals are referred to a de-

signated high court or district court in an adjacent judicial area.

Meanwhile, another remedial measure has been inaugurated with the formation of circuit courts to tour in the war areas. Handled by high court judges, these courts are competent to hear appeals. At present, the system is working successfully in Hupeh, Kwangtung, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Honan, Shantung, and Shansi.

As regards final appeals, branch courts for the Supreme Court are established in convenient centres to offset communication difficulties.

Courts and Prisons.—Despite the war and financial stringency, new courts have steadily been set up to meet the requirement of this vast country. According to the latest statistics, there are in August 1942 altogether 507 courts in China, including one Supreme Court, 24 high courts, 97 branch high courts, and 385 district courts. In addition, there are 861 hsien judicial offices for the whole country. Courts which suspended their functions in the war areas have resumed duties upon the expulsion of enemy interference.

The systematic construction of modern prisons in different parts of the country has been interrupted by enemy invasion. In the coastal provinces, prison equipments have been removed inland and new jails have been built in safety zones to accommodate prisoners from the war areas. Up to August 1942, there were 97 prisons and 1,246 detention houses in the country. The former consisted of 78 prisons, 15 branch prisons, and four juvenile prisons.

The safety and health of the prisoners have received the utmost attention of

¹ Revision made by Mr. Ho Mien-shan (何 廉) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

October 11 at Chungking and other places.

(c) EXAMINATIONS FOR DISTRICT MAGISTRATES:

(1) The examination for district magistrates in Kiangsi was held on October 11, 1941 at Taiho. The eight successful candidates were allocated to positions by the Kiangsi Provincial Government.

(2) The examination for district magistrates in Shensi was held from October 10 to 25, 1942.

(3) The examination for district magistrates in Hupeh was held on December 25, 1942.

(4) The examination for district magistrates in Kwangtung was held in December, 1942.

(5) The examination for district magistrates in Fukien is to be held on March 1, 1943.

(6) The examination for district magistrates in Honan is to be held on May 5, 1943.

(d) SPECIAL EXAMINATIONS.—Upon the requests of various government offices, the Examination Yuan held 61 special examinations for the selection of the following: junior postal officers, assistant postal officers, telephone operators, technicians of communications; examiners of standard weights and measures for the Ministry of Economic Affairs; senior staff members for the Direct Tax Administration of the Ministry of Finance; accountants for the organizations and schools under the Ministry of Education; and duty collectors for the Chungking Customs. For the local governments, many special examinations have been held such as the examination for accounting, statistics, census, land, and education personnel for Szechuen; accounting officers for Kiangsi and

Kwangtung; hsien education officers for Shensi; hsien officers for Kwichow; junior land officers for the Municipality of Chungking; accountants and other personnel for Fukien and local administrators for Chekiang. In the 61 examinations held, a total of 2,707 successful candidates were selected.

(e) EXAMINATIONS OF CANDIDATES FOR ALDERMANSHIP AND REPRESENTATION OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS. The procedure of this kind of examination is divided into examination and review. The review of the qualifications of such candidates is attended to by the Commission of Civil Service Examinations. The successful candidates for aldermanship have reached the number of 10,530, and those for the representation of towns and villages 8,580. Still more are being reviewed.

C. Personnel Administration, 1940-1942: 1, *Establishment of Personnel Administrative Organs:*

(a) ESTABLISHMENT OF PROVINCIAL BUREAUS OF PERSONNEL.—The outbreak of the present war made it difficult if not impossible for the Examination Yuan to begin with a new scheme of establishing provincial bureaus of personnel throughout the country. As an expedient, the Ministry of Personnel resolved to set up for the time being four provincial bureaus of personnel, functioning in areas each of which comprises several provinces. These four bureaus have all been at work since the summer of 1940. The Ministry of Personnel is to have the areas readjusted as soon as peace prevails.

(b) ESTABLISHMENT OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANS IN GOVERNMENT OFFICES.—In some of the Central and local government offices, personnel administrative organs in

various forms do find their place. Still the fact remains that with their functions indefinite and their organizations irregular, they bear quite a loose connection with the Central and local organizations responsible for personnel affairs. However, under the Provisional Regulations for Personnel Administration in Government Offices drafted by the Ministry of Personnel and later promulgated by the National Government, the establishment of personnel administrative organs in all government offices may be expected soon.

2. *Laws and Regulations for Personnel Administration:*

(a) REGULATIONS FOR GENERAL REGISTRATION OF RESERVE PERSONNEL.—As the demand for talents in every line of government works increases in proportion to the progress of our armed resistance and national reconstruction, a general registration of talents is therefore of urgent importance. The Examination Yuan accordingly drafted a set of Regulations for General Registration of Reserve Personnel, with due regard to the resolution adopted by the National Personnel Administration Conference. The regulations were immediately approved by the Supreme National Defense Council and promulgated by the National Government in November, 1942. After the drafting by the Examination Yuan of the rules enforcing the regulations, arrangement for the general registration of talents is progressing.

(b) REGULATIONS FOR THE INTERCHANGE OF CENTRAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.—With a view to interchanging the experiences of Central and local government officials, the Examination Yuan, with the approval of the National Government,

promulgated a set of Regulations for the Interchange of Central and Local Government Officials. According to these regulations, Central and local government officials of the selected or recommended appointment who have been on service at least three years and with remarkable merits should be interchanged. Such interchange should take place at least once in every three years. A commission for its enforcement is being organized jointly by the Examination Yuan and the Executive Yuan.

(c) MODIFICATION OF LAWS AND REGULATIONS FOR APPOINTMENT.—The appointment of government officials should be adapted to changing circumstances. This is especially true during wartime in the war zones. In July, 1940, the Examination Yuan drafted the Emergency Regulations for Appointment of Government Officials in War Zones, leaving the local authorities considerable discretion in making appointments. Special conditions in the appointment of district magistrates and police officers were recognized.

(d) IMPROVEMENT OF THE SYSTEM OF MERIT EXAMINATION.—As the laws and regulations for merit examination were too complex to meet wartime needs, the Examination Yuan began to revise them in December, 1939. The revisions were numerous and manifold, including the emphasizing of more strict ordinary examination in addition to the annual examination, the increasing of the power of the organs of merit examination in all government offices, and the offering of more varieties of rewards. Examination of merits in the war areas, so far as laws and regulations permit, is very liberal. The requirements of a fix time and a committee to conduct the

showing the three most highly graded and the three most lowly graded officials in every Central government office be presented for consideration. After a careful review of merit records in the government offices, the Ministry of Personnel made a report to the Generalissimo, who afterwards commended the Ministry for its efforts and achievements.

(c) **SCRUTINY OF APPOINTMENTS IN GOVERNMENT OFFICES.**—The Ministry of Personnel began its first scrutiny of appointments in government offices at the end of 1941. Government offices which were to be scrutinized were asked to fill out forms and submit them to the Ministry of Personnel before examiners were despatched thereto. Appointments of 27 Central government offices and those of the Chungking Municipal Government were examined. The result proved to be satisfactory. In June, 1942, another examination of appointments took place.

(d) **INVESTIGATION OF PROVINCIAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION.**—The administration of personnel affairs by the provincial personnel bureaus and the difficulties they encountered were matter of importance which the Ministry of Personnel cannot overlook. In November, 1941, the Ministry of Personnel despatched a number of counsellors and secretaries to investigate personnel administration and, if necessary, to give instructions to the authorities concerned in the provinces of Hunan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kansu, Ninghsia and Chinghai. The investigators returned to Chungking and made their reports, stating that personnel administration in these provinces had made outstanding accomplishments. Recently the Exam-

ination Yuan sent out two parties of investigators to study the administration of examination affairs in Hupeh, Honan, Anhwei, Kweichow, Yunnan and Kwangsi provinces. The parties have been on their way since December, 1942.

THE CONTROL YUAN

Organization.—According to its organic law, the Control Yuan is composed of from 29 to 49 supervisory members headed by a president and a vice-president. Directly under it are a Ministry of Audit, a secretariat, and a board of counsellors. The supervisory members are intrusted with the power of impeachment, the Ministry of Audit with the power of auditing, and the secretariat and counsellors with the routine business of the yuan.

For the convenience of supervision, the country is divided into 16 supervisory districts, with a supervisory commissioner responsible for each. Up to the present, the first nine of the 16 district enumerated below have had their commissioners. The districts are: (1) Kiangsu, (2) Anhwei and Kiangsi, (3) Fukien and Chekiang, (4) Hunan and Hupeh, (5) Kansu, Ninghsia, and Chinghai, (6) Honan and Shantung, (7) Yunnan and Kweichow, (8) Hopei, (9) Kwangtung and Kwangsi, (10) Shansi and Shensi, (11) Liaoning, Kirin, and Heilungkiang, (12) Szechuen, (13) Jehol, Chahar, and Suiyuan, (14) Sinkiang, (15) Sikang and Tibet, and (16) Mongolia.

In the various provinces, bureaus of audit have also been established. Besides, audit offices have been set up in a number of special public institutions and government-owned business organizations.

Impeachment.—As mentioned above, the Control Yuan is empowered

to impeach and to audit. In the exercise of these duties, it is given the right to investigate. An example of its other multifarious functions is the supervision of civil service examinations. Under the Provisional Procedures for the Exercise of the Censorial Power in Emergency Time, promulgated in August, 1938, the yuan is further charged with the duties of accusing and proposing.

By "accusing" is meant the reporting of a delinquent official directly to his superior, who is (1) to investigate and punish the culprit within the shortest time possible, or (2) to hand him over to a criminal or military court if he has contravened criminal or military law, or (3) to make an explanation for his conduct if he is considered innocent. Failing all these, the case will have to be treated as one of regular impeachment and transmitted to the proper disciplinary organ for punishment.¹ Thus this accusing power is given to the Control Yuan to expedite the chastisement of officials in cases which otherwise would involve much red tape and delay. The importance of the time element will be appreciated when one considers the possibility of the disappearance of evidence of offense during wartime. Moreover, prolonged misconduct on the part of civil officials certainly exerts an evil influence on the prosecution of the war.

The duty of making proposals has to do with administrative measures instead of the personnel for their

execution. Upon the detection of improper or ineffective steps taken by any administrative organ, the Control Yuan is to make recommendations in writing to the institution concerned or to its superior organs for the immediate adjustment of the mistaken procedures.

In the period under review, 1940-1942, the yuan continued the extension and intensification of its supervisory activities. Apart from keeping a closer watch on the administrative projects of Central and local governments and the behaviour of their personnel, two inspection parties were sent out: one to the southern provinces of Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kiangsu, Yunnan, and Kweichow; the other to the northern provinces of Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai, and Suiyuan.

Matters to be examined by these parties of inspectors and investigators include conditions of the government-owned financial and industrial organizations, conscription, monopoly prices, communications and transportation, food control, refugee relief, military hospitals, anti-air-raid precautions, popular organization and training, local self-defense, tax burdens, and so on.

In 1942, the yuan drafted a set of regulations governing the inspection of the municipality of Chungking, which being looked upon by the various localities of the country as a standard for emulation with respect to public safety, social welfare, conduct of the

¹ There are different disciplinary organs for different grades of officials. They are: (1) Central Supervisory Committee of Kuomintang for elective officials and members of the Control Yuan; (2) Disciplinary Commission for Political Officials for political officials; (3) Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries for administrative officials of the Central Government and local government officials of or above the recommended grade; (4) Local Disciplinary Commissions for local officials of or below the delegated grade; (5) Disciplinary Commission for Higher Military Officials for military officials of or above the rank of major-general; and (6) Ministry of Military Affairs for military officials of or below the rank of colonel.

merit examination are exempted. The head of organization takes charge of the whole affair. In addition, special medals are granted to officials who have rendered meritorious service in the war.

(e) AMENDMENT OF THE SYSTEM OF PENSIONS AND COMPENSATIONS IN WARTIME.—In February, 1939, the Regulations for Granting Medals was amended to meet wartime needs. The kinds of medals were multiplied, and the standard for granting fixed. The pension system also took a different form from that of peace time. Any official who is injured or killed in the war is entitled to the compensation of a single payment befitting his rank in addition to a special payment by the Government, provided the case is vindicated by the National Military Council. Employees and office boys and personnel of local self-government offices, hitherto not given compensations, were now put on the same basis.

(f) INVESTIGATION OF THE SCHOLASTIC RECORDS OF COLLEGE STUDENTS UPON THEIR GRADUATION.—As there is a close relation between study and examination, there is also a close relation between college graduation examination and the civil service examination. The Examination Yuan therefore decided to define the qualifications of college graduates by scrutinizing their scholastic records upon their graduation. Particular regulations were given to the effect (1) that graduates from national universities who have passed the General Examination held by the Ministry of Education, got an average mark above 80 and been ranked in their own course or department as the first five, shall be sent to the Commission of Civil Service Examinations, together with their brief biographies, marks upon their

graduation and will to serve, and, after all these being scrutinized as satisfactory, shall be entitled to hold office in the government; (2) that those whose records have been so scrutinized and found satisfactory are classified in the grade of delegated appointment or in a corresponding grade, and, after having been recognized by the Ministry of Personnel to have rendered service for three years with outstanding merits, are qualified to hold offices of the grade of recommended appointment, and (3) that the qualifications of graduates from the post-graduate schools of the national universities are defined with reference to the above-mentioned measures, but for those who have worked in a public institution for one year with admirable merits, a qualification of the grade of recommended appointment is granted. These regulations have been agreed upon by the Ministry of Education, and have now been put into practice.

(g) SUPPLEMENTARY PROVISIONS FOR APPOINTMENT OF PUBLIC OFFICIALS IN WARTIME.—The Law of Appointments lays much weight on qualifications and is not suited to wartime circumstances. The Examination Yuan, therefore, drafted the Supplementary Provisions for Appointment of Public Officials. These regulations may be summarized as follows: (1) In case an official's previous appointment constitutes the qualification for his present office, he is allowed to hold the present office in consideration of his experiences in the service; (2) In case an official is qualified only to hold an appointment of the highest rank of a lower grade than the grade he is proposed to assume, but his experiences are not inappropriate to the proposed higher appointment, he is permitted to hold, either actually or

on probation, the proposed higher appointment while retaining a lower grade in qualification; (3) In case an official is transferred to another appointment which is governed by a different law, and the grade of the new appointment corresponds with that which he has been entitled to, he is qualified to the new appointment and retains all his previous qualifications; (4) The qualifications of those appointed in the war zones in accordance with special laws as well as the qualifications of the graduates of high schools and middle schools of the old system are to be recognized. All these measures, temporary and remedial, are expedients not inconsistent with existing laws.

3. *Work of Personnel Administration:*

(a) ALLOCATION OF SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES OF PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS.—There were 125 successful candidates in the higher examination for financial and banking personnel in 1940. Of them 37 were sent to the Ministry of Finance and 88 to the Joint Office of the Four National Banks for positions. In the general higher examination in 1940, successful candidates numbered 186. With the exception of 31 who wished to be allocated to the wartime consumption tax offices and were temporarily not appointed and of 22 judicial officers who were sent to the Ministry of Justice for training, the remaining 133, together with the 142 successful candidates in the ordinary examination of the same year, were either allocated to the Central and local government offices for permanent position or sent to the Ministry of Personnel for training.

The Central government offices, to which the successful candidates in the

higher examination were allocated, were the Department of Civil Affairs of the National Government and 25 other offices. The local government offices which received such candidates were the Provincial Government of Szechuen and nine other provincial governments. The offices to which the successful candidates of the ordinary examination were allocated were the Comptroller-General's Office of the National Government and 10 other offices.

Of the 31 successful candidates in the higher examination of 1941 for technicians, 28 were sent either to the Ministry of Economic Affairs or to the provincial governments of Szechuen and Chekiang, only three being reserved for further allocation. The 99 candidates who had passed the emergency ordinary examination in 1941, as qualified judicial clerks, wardens, statisticians and accountants were sent to the Judicial Yuan and the Ministry of Justice upon whose requests the examination was held. Among the 107 successful candidates in the general higher examination, 67 were sent to the Executive Yuan and 15 other Central government institutions, 31 were sent to 12 local governments, and the remaining nine were to be allocated. The 52 successful candidates in the emergency ordinary examination for auditors were sent to the Ministry of Audit which asked for the examination.

(b) EXAMINATION OF MERITS IN 1940 AND 1941.—Both the 1940 and 1941 merit examination of public officials began in January of the following year. It was instructed by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek that the results of merit examination in the various party, government and military organizations be reported, and that a list

Central government officials, and many other particulars. After the approval of the regulations by the Supreme National Defense Council, the yuan has appointed its supervisory members for the duty and good results have been achieved.

Auditing.—The Ministry of Audit is authorized (1) to see that all government organs make budgetary estimates of their incomes and expenditures, (2) to examine reports on incomes and warrants for disbursements, (3) to audit final accounts, and (4) to watch and check illegal and dishonest practices of government organs and officials in connection with financial matters. The duties under (2)—(4) are assigned respectively to three departments dealing with pre-auditing, post-auditing, and inspection and investigation.

To cope with wartime situations, the Audit Law was revised in March, 1939, to put more emphasis on auditing on the spot and on the closer supervision of the financial and material resources of the various hsien, which are the foundations for the institution of a constitutional government.

Pre-Auditing.—Since the enforcement of the Treasury Law from October 1, 1939, all revenues and expenditures of the National and local governments have had to go through the National and local treasuries. The Ministry of Audit has, therefore, set up an office in the National treasury to audit on the spot, while the local audit bureaus have done the same to the local treasuries. In addition, auditors have been stationed in various government-owned enterprises as well as government organizations which have been rapidly expanding their activities and increasing their expenditures.

Post-Auditing.—On account of com-

munication problems at the present time, National administrative organs located in the various provinces have experienced difficulties in forwarding their financial documents for examination. As an expedient, local audit bureaus have been authorized to check the accounts of the latter organizations in order to avoid the defects of business congestion.

THE NATIONAL MILITARY COUNCIL

The National Military Council is the highest military organ of the nation. In this time of emergency, its organization and functions have been somewhat expanded. It consists of a chairman and from seven to nine members. The chief and deputy chiefs of General Staff, the chiefs of the boards of Military Operations, Military Affairs, and Political Training, and the chairman of the Military Advisory Council are *ex-officio* members. Responsible for the nation's defense, the National Military Council discharges its various duties through a main office and 10 boards. The chief of General Staff, assisting the chairman of the council, supervises the work of its different offices. These are: (1) the Board of Military Operations, (2) the Board of Military Affairs, (3) the Board of Military Training, (4) the Board of Political Training, (5) the Military Advisory Council, (6) the Directorate-General of Courts Martial, (7) the National Aeronautical Commission, (8) the Service Board, (9) the Personnel Board, and (10) the Navy Board.

The main office is responsible for the transmission of military orders and for all general business in connection with the council. It also deals with work that does not come within the sphere

of any of the boards or that belongs to two or more boards at the same time.

The Board of Military Operations has charge of the erection of national defense works; local pacification; the mobilization of land, naval, and air forces for war; the planning and execution of services of a military nature; the collection of military intelligence and of information on international relations. It also has control over members of the staff, the Military College, the Bureau of National Surveying, and military *attaches* residing in foreign countries.

The Board of Military Affairs makes preparations for general mobilization, provides and distributes military supplies and munitions, and supervises over the health and sanitation of the army and navy.

The Board of Military Training concerns with the training, improvement, and supervision of the land, naval, and air forces. It sets up and improves military schools and institutions.

The Board of Political Training gives political education to the land, naval, and air forces; and organizes and trains the people for self-defense and service at the front.

The Military Advisory Council is responsible for military research and may make recommendations in connection with military affairs.

The Directorate-General of Courts Martial enforces military laws and maintains military discipline.

The National Aeronautical Commission is responsible for the organization, training, and command of the air forces.

The Service Board transports and furnishes military supplies, establishes military stations, and manages sanitary stations.

* The head of the secretariat may or may not be a provincial commissioner concurrently.

The Personnel Board deals with the classification, promotion, and general welfare of the officers and men in the land, naval, and air forces.

The Naval Board takes care of the training and command of the naval forces.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The organization of the local government in China is based on the dual graded system, consisting of (1) the provincial governments and (2) the hsien (district) and municipal governments.

Provincial Government.—Serving as a *liaison* between the Central Government on the one hand and district and municipal governments on the other, the provincial government as now organized is of the commission type. In the provincial commission there are from seven to nine members, of whom one is designated as the chairman of the provincial government while four or five others head the same number of chief administrative organs under the commission. These organs are: the secretariat¹ and the departments of civil affairs, finance, reconstruction, and education. A department of industry and other organizations may be created if necessary. In addition, there is usually a provincial peace preservation corps under the command of the provincial chairman.

Being intended primarily to facilitate the administration of governmental affairs, the various provinces are at present under the control of the National Government through the Ministry of Interior. Moreover, as the commissioners of the provincial departments are subject to the supervision and control of the concerned ministries and commissions of the

Executive Yuan, the National Government thus keeps itself in close touch with the provinces.

The provincial commissioners together form the provincial administrative council, which determines the policies of the provincial government and may, with the advice of the provincial provisional assembly, enact any law or regulation not in contradiction with National laws. Some of its other important powers are the supervision of local self-government, the control of its subordinate organs, and the disposal of provincial properties.

Pending the election of a provincial assembly as provided in the Draft National Constitution of 1936, the present provisional assembly constitutes a representative body for the people. Of the total number of members allowed on each assembly, 60% are elected from among native residents of the province and the remaining 40% from residents who are not natives but who have been connected with important cultural or business organizations in the province. The following table gives the number of assembly-men allowed in each provisional provincial assembly together with the date of its organization:

PROVISIONAL PROVINCIAL ASSEMBLIES

Province *	No. of Assembly-men	Date of Establishment of Assembly
Szechuen ...	70	July 1, 1939
Kweichow ...	30	May 1, 1939
Yunnan ...	35	July 10, 1939
Fukien ...	35	May 15, 1939
Kwangtung ...	50	May 15, 1939

* The proposal for the reduction of the size of the provinces has been under consideration.

Kwangsi ...	35	May 21, 1939
Hunan ...	50	Aug. 1, 1939
Anhui ...	45	July 20, 1939
Chekiang ...	40	Apr. 25, 1939
Kiangsi ...	40	June 5, 1939
Shensi ...	30	July 1, 1939
Honan ...	50	May 1, 1939
Hupoh ...	45	Sept. 18, 1939
Kansu ...	25	Jan. 3, 1940
Shantung †	50	June 18, 1942
Ninghsia ...	20	Jan. 4, 1940
Chinghai ...	20	June 3, 1939
Sikang ...	20	Aug. 26, 1940

* Provinces such as Kiangsu, Hopei, Shansi, Sinkiang, Suiyuan, Chahar, Jehol, Liaoning, Kirin and Heilungkiang postpone the organization of assemblies.

† Organization of assembly delayed on account of military conditions.

The duty of the council is to advise, and make proposals to, the provincial commission on major issues as well as administrative routines. During the present war, this new provincial representative organ has contributed greatly toward the formulation of local policies.

Office of the Special Commissioner of Administrative Inspection.—As the area included in each province is too large and the number of hsien, or district, under its supervision too numerous to effect an efficient administration, the system of administrative inspection has been devised as a remedial measure.¹ Accordingly the province is divided into a number of administrative areas, with a special commissioner responsible for each. Appointed by the National Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan, he is empowered to direct, investigate, and supervise the functioning of the hsien and municipal governments falling within his jurisdiction, under the guidance of the provincial government. Thus he serves

as a connecting link between the provincial commissioners and the hsien magistrates, or the mayors.²

Hsien Government.—According to the Outline Governing the Organization of the Various Local Units of the Hsien (District) promulgated by the National Government on September 19, 1939, the hsien is an important unit of local self-government. Based upon area, population, economic resources, cultural attainment, communication development, etc., the hsien are classified into from three to six grades.² The local units under the hsien are the *hsiang* (villages), *chen* (towns), *pao*, and *chia*; *chu* (counties) are created in a larger hsien. Chinese nationals over 20 years of age and having resided within the hsien for six months or established residence there for a year may be considered as its citizen and granted the rights of election, recall, initiative, and referendum.

At the head of the hsien is a magistrate, empowered to perform and supervise matters of self-government within his jurisdiction, and to execute the orders of the National and provincial governments under the direction of the latter. Assisting him are a number of sections dealing with civil affairs, finance, education, reconstruction, military affairs, land, and social affairs. A secretary, section chiefs, educational inspectors, police officers, technical officers are provided for the various administrative organs. The magistrate is the chairman of the hsien administrative council, which consists of, beside himself, the secretary and section chiefs. Pending the formation of the hsien assembly the council con-

tinues to decide on important matters of the district.

The hsien assembly is composed of representatives elected by the villages and towns. Each village or town is entitled to send one assembly-man. Representatives elected by legitimate professional organizations are not to exceed 30% of the total number of assembly members. For the time being the assembly is not yet empowered to elect the hsien magistrate, but it has the right to select its own speaker and decide on the important matter of hsien budgets and accounts before these are presented to the provincial government.

Chu.—*Chu*, or country, includes from 15 to 30 villages or towns. In each county there is a county office serving as a subsidiary organ of the hsien government. It acts for the latter in the supervision of village and town administration and self-government measures. It is headed by a chief officer and from two to five directors assigned with duties relating to the county's civil affairs, finance, reconstruction, education, military affairs, etc. Under the county officer, a police station and a reconstruction committee may be organized.

Villages and Towns.—As a rule, 10 *pao* constitute a village or a town; in no case shall the number be less than six or more than 15. The difference between a village and a town is that the latter is urban in character. Each village or town has a chief officer and one or two assistant chiefs all elected for a term of two years by the village or town meeting from among the local citizens. Under the village or town

¹ See the following chapter on "Home Affairs."

² At present, there are in some of the frontier provinces bureaus of local administration for certain less developed areas. Upon their attaining to a certain degree of advancement, these areas will be given a regular form of hsien government.

of social affairs, public safety, finance, and public works. Bureaus or sections of education, public health, land, public utilities, and harbor administration may be created when necessary. Municipalities which are simultaneously the seats of the National or provincial capitals have no bureaus of safety, whose duties being taken over by the metropolitan or provincial

police.

The municipal administrative council is composed of the mayor, the counsellors, and the bureau directors or section chiefs. There is to be a representative assembly in each city.¹ The territorial units within the city are the wards and the *fang*, each of which has its executive, representative, and supervisory organs.

¹ At present there are provisional assemblies in a number of cities. The municipality of Chungking, e.g., organized its provisional assembly on October 1, 1939; the number of assembly members are 28.

HOME AFFAIRS

CHOU CHUNG-YU¹ (周鍾嶽)

ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE MINISTRY OF INTERIOR

THE Organic Law of the Ministry of Interior was promulgated by the National Government on April 2, 1928 and has since been amended 10 times. According to the Organic Law as it now stands, the Ministry takes charge of the administration of home affairs, directs and supervises the highest local administrators in the administration of home affairs and may recommend to the meeting of the Executive Yuan for the suspension or cancellation of orders or acts of disposition of the highest local administrators in relation to affairs under the control of the Ministry which are considered as contravening laws or decrees or exceeding the sphere of authority.

The Ministry of Interior is now composed of the Departments of General Affairs, Civil Affairs, Census Administration, Police Administration, Customs and Ceremonies, and Construction, the Counsellors' Office, the Secretariate, the Compilation Office, the Inspectorate, the Accounting Office, the Bureau of Statistics and the Opium Suppression Commission. The functions of the different departments are as follows:

The *Department of General Affairs* takes charge of promulgation of ministerial orders; custody of seals;

administration of personnel of the Ministry and its subordinate organs, receiving, dispatching, distribution and drafting of documents, adjustment and custody of files, editing and publication of laws, bulletins and other printed matters of the Ministry; preservation of public properties, charts, maps and books; making disbursements; and miscellaneous affairs which do not come under other departments.

The *Department of Civil Affairs* takes charge of the determination and improvement of the local administrative system; direction and supervision of local administration; demarcation, readjustment and survey of local administrative districts and local self-government districts; determination of the seats of government and names of different grades of local administrative districts; appointment, removal, training, grading, awarding and punishment of local self-government officers; planning, supervision and direction of local self-government; elections; examination of local administrative projects and reports; examination of estimates of local administration; establishment of administration and supervision of frontier people; and issuance of seals to different grades of local administrative offices.

The *Department of Census Administration* takes charge of the determination of the census-taking system;

¹ Minister of Interior. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Hsu Chao-yung (許兆熊) of the Central News Agency.

hall are four sub-sections dealing with civil, police, economic, and cultural affairs. These sub-sections are put under the charge of the assistant chiefs and the teaching staff of a village or town central school. One of these public servants serves as a census taker. Matters of local initiation are decided in meetings held by them.

Representatives of the village or town meeting are elected by the *pao*, each of which has a share of two members. The village or town chief officer may serve concurrently as chairman of the meeting if he is elected to that post by the same meeting.

Pao.—A *pao* may comprise from six to 15 *chia*, but the regular number is 10. In a place where population is relatively dense, a primary school, a cooperative society, and a public storehouse may be established jointly by two or three *pao*. In each *pao* there is a *pao* office headed by a *pao* chief and an assistant chief elected for a term of two years from among the local citizens. Both of these officers are eligible for reelection. Before the application of the system of election, these officers are nominated by the village or town hall and appointed by the *hsien* government. The *pao* chief may act concurrently as the head of the school and of the *pao* citizens corps. Under the *pao* office are from two to four officers, who are simultaneously teachers of the school, to take charge of civil, police, economic, and cultural affairs. The *pao* meeting consists of one representative from each household.

Chia.—A *chia* is composed of 10 households, but the number may vary from six to 15. There is a chairman for each *chia* elected by the householders within the *chia*. If necessary, *chia* people's meetings may be held

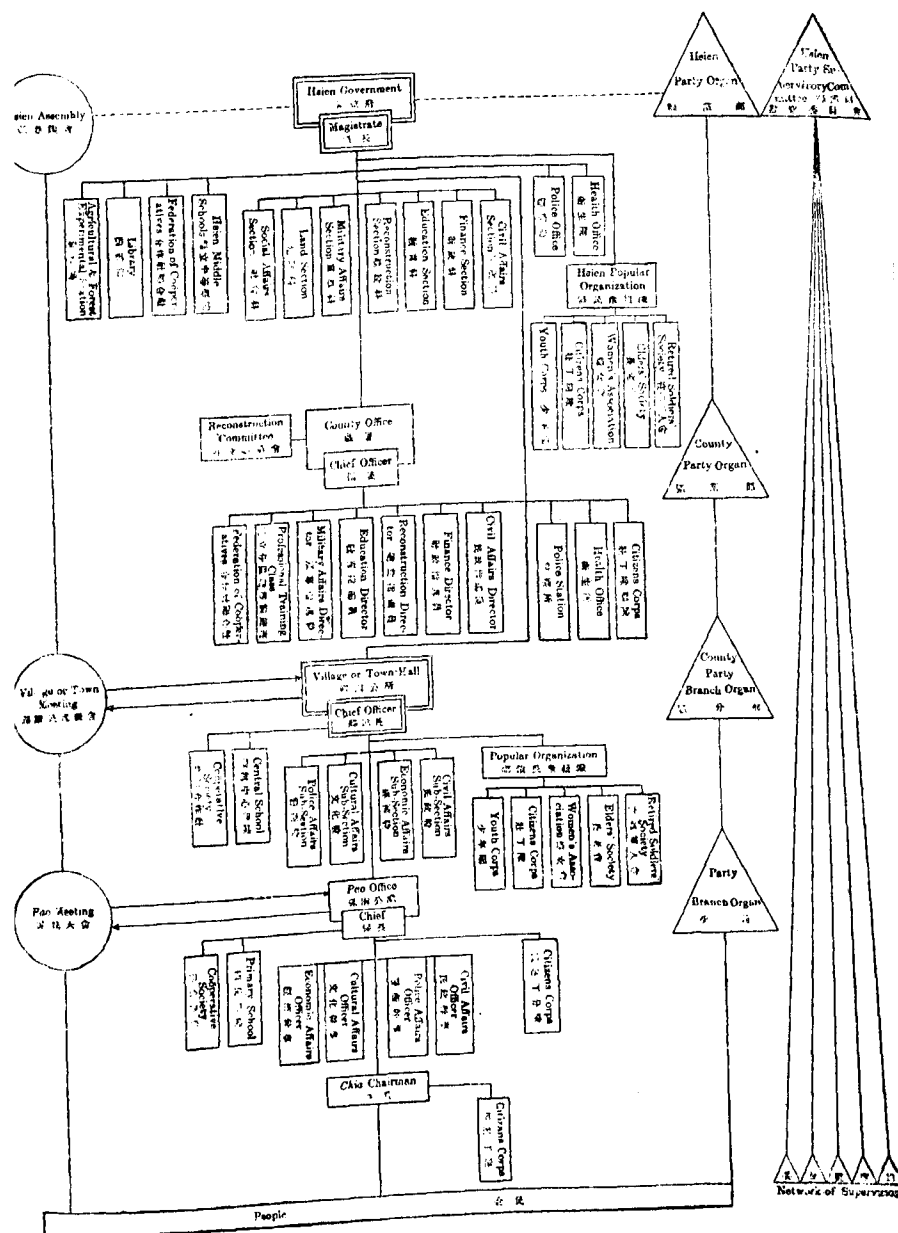
apart from the meeting of the householders.

Program of Local Self-Government.

As has been said in the foregoing, the *hsien* is an important unit of local self-government. According to the plan for the enforcement of local self-government formulated in August, 1939, by a special meeting of government experts called by the Ministry of the Interior, the steps to be taken are: (1) the completion of census, (2) the assessment of land, (3) the reclamation of wastes, (4) the development of natural resources, (5) the readjustment of finance, (6) the strengthening of administrative machinery, (7) the training of the masses, (8) the improvement of communications, (9) the establishment of schools, (10) the promotion of cooperatives, (11) the organization of police and local defense units, (12) the betterment of sanitation, (13) the provision of general relief, and (14) the enforcement of the New Life Movement.

For recent progress made in local self-government, the readers are referred to the following chapter on "Home Affairs."

Municipal Government. China being essentially an agricultural nation with an urban population amounting merely to a quarter of the total, the development of municipal government is comparatively recent. There are at present two kinds of municipalities: (1) special municipalities under the direct control of the Executive Yuan and (2) ordinary municipalities under the supervision of the provincial government. All of these cities are uniformly organized on the mayor and council system. At the head of the administration is the mayor, under whom are two counsellors, a secretariat, and the bureaus or sections



3. Regulations Governing the County Offices under the Hsien Government.

4. Regulations Governing the Hsien Administrative Council.

5. Regulations Governing the Issue of Hsiang (Village), Chen (Town), or Pao Charts.

6. Fundamentals Governing the Organization of the Hsien Police.

7. Provisional Measures Governing the Registration of Oath-Taking by Citizens.

8. Measures Governing Census-Taking in the Pao, Chia and Hsien.

9. Amended Detailed Regulations Governing the Enforcement of the Census Law.

10. Measures Governing the Disposition of Properties of the Hsiang (Village) or Chen (Town).

11. Regulations Governing the Meeting of the Hsien (District) Assembly.

12. Regulations Governing the Hsiang (Village) or Chen (Town) Meeting.

13. Regulations Governing the Pao Meeting.

14. Essential Matters to be Done in the Hsiang (Village), Chen (Town), or Pao.

15. Regulations Governing the Hsiang (Village) or Chen (Town) Property Custody Committee.

The Ministry has also drafted the following laws in collaboration with the organizations concerned:

1. Outline Governing the Training of the Essential Personnel of the Various Local Units of the Hsien.

2. Provisional Regulations Governing the Organization of the Hsien Assembly.

3. Regulations Governing the Election of Members of the Hsien Assembly.

4. Regulations Governing the Election of Hsiang (Village) or Chen (Town) Representatives.

5. Provisional Regulations Governing the Organization of the Hsiang (Village) or Chen (Town).

6. Outline Governing the Medical Organizations of the Various Local Units of the Hsien.

7. Outline Governing the Organization of Cooperatives of the Various Local Units of the Hsien.

8. Principles for the Enforcement of Popular Education.

9. Measures Governing Peace Preservation by the Hsien or Municipal Citizens' Corps or Units.

10. Measures Governing Collaboration among Police, Pao or Chia Police and Citizens' Corps.

Upon the promulgation of the Outline Governing the Organization of the Various Local Units of the Hsien, it was planned to enforce the new hsien system throughout the country within three years, beginning 1940. Except a few provinces which have not yet done so owing to circumstantial difficulties, 20 provinces have already enforced it as shown in the following table:

TABLE 2. ENFORCEMENT OF NEW HSIEN SYSTEM IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES

Province	Program and Time Limit of Enforcement	Number of Hsien for Enforcement
Szechuen	To be enforced in 137 hsien March, 1940-July, 1943 in three periods.	137
Sikang	To be enforced in 46 hsien 1941-45 in three periods.	Enforced in Ya-an, Hanyuan, Siehang and Huili in first period. Report of enforcement in second period not yet received.
Yunnan	To be enforced in 112 hsien 1940-42 in accordance with the Outline and local conditions.	112

Kweichow	To be enforced in 85 hsien 1941-45 in three periods.	Enforced in Kwelyang, Tingfan, Kwelting, Chingchen, Chenyuan, Huangping, Tushan, Tuyun, Hsingjen, Anshun, Tungchiu and Chunyi in first period 1941-43.
Kiangsi	To be enforced in 69 hsien in the province (other than the 14 hsien including Nanchang now under guerilla operation) in two years Jan. 1940-Dec. 1941.	69
Fukien	To be enforced in 64 hsien in three years as from April, 1940.	64
Kwangtung	To be enforced in 66 hsien within three years as from April, 1940.	66 hsien. Enforcement postponed in 30 hsien in the war zone including Namhoi and four hsien including Waiyeung now cut off communicatively.
Kwangsi	To be enforced in 99 hsien 1940-42	99
Hupoh	To be enforced in different hsien in periods as from May, 1940. Those hsien in the war zone may petition for postponement of enforcement.	70
Hunan	To be enforced in periods July, 1940-42	Enforced in 46 hsien in first and second periods. Report of enforcement in third period not yet received.
Kiangsu	To be enforced in three periods of six months each as from July, 1940.	21 hsien, namely, Lihsien, Iing, Kaochun, Nantung, Jukao, Haimen, Chitung, Chingkiang, Kiangtu, Kaoyu, Taihsien, Taihing, Yencheng, Funing, Tungtai, Hsinghua, Hwaiyin, Hwaiian, Lien-shui, Paoyin and Sze yang. All other hsien have petitioned for postponement of enforcement in view of special circumstances.
Chekkiang	To be enforced in 76 hsien 1940-43	—
Anhui	To be enforced in 62 hsien in periods within three years 1940-43.	37 hsien. Reports not yet received from other hsien.
Honan	To be enforced in three periods within three years as from Sept. 1940.	67 hsien. Enforcement postponed in 45 hsien including Shangkiu in the war zone.
Shensi	To be enforced in three periods in all hsien except a few in north Shensi.	74
Kansu	To be enforced in 49 hsien and bureaus of administration July 1940-42.	64 hsien. Enforcement postponed in Choni, Supel, Hsiaho, Hwaihsien and Hoshui.

planning and supervision of matters relative to census administration; appointment, removal, training, awarding and punishment of census administrative personnel; designing and examination of census administrative diagrams, forms and books; matters relative to change of surnames and names; planning in regard to citizen's identification cards; assistance in conscription and requisition; matters relative to citizens' labour service; issuance of citizens' certificates to nationals abroad; change of nationality; and investigation and registration of the domicile of foreigners.

The *Department of Police Administration* takes charge of the determination of the police system; appointment, removal, grading, awarding and punishment of police officers; matters relative to police appropriations; police education and police intelligence tests; matters relative to administrative police; local self-defense; registration of publications and copyright; and planning pertaining to and administration of frontier police.

The *Department of Customs and Ceremonies* takes charge of the administration of rituals and musical codes; standardization of dress and uniforms; matters relative to com-

memorative rites; improvement and regulation of social customs; commending, awarding and pensioning of, and conferring honors on, citizens; state and public funerals and cemeteries; standardization of calendar; establishment and supervision of amusement houses; religious matters that do not come under other ministries and commissions; administration and registration of temples and monasteries; investigation, registration and preservation of scenic spots and historical ruins.

The *Department of Construction* takes charge of planning and examination of the administration of construction works; planning and examination of municipal construction works; direction of rural construction works; direction of public and private construction works; direction of the construction of rural roads and embankments; planning and examination of standards and designs of public construction works; planning and direction of the construction of private residences; direction of the construction of waterworks and other municipal engineering works; and supervision of private-owned public utilities which do not come under the control of other ministries and commissions.

TABLE 1. STAFF OF THE MINISTRY OF INTERIOR

Officials	Number	Duties
Minister (special appointment)	1	Administering ministerial affairs and supervising subordinate staffs and offices.
Political Vice-Minister ("selected" appointment) ...	1	Assisting the Minister in the administration of ministerial affairs.
Administrative Vice-Minister ("selected" appointment)	1	Assisting the Minister in the administration of ministerial affairs.

Counsellors ("selected" appointment)	4-6	Drafting and examining ministerial laws, bills and projects
Secretaries (two of "selected" appointment and the rest of "recommended" appointment)	4-8	Handling important documents and affairs entrusted by superiors
Departmental Chiefs ("selected" appointment) ...	6	Administering affairs of their respective departments.
Technical Experts (four of "selected" appointment and the rest of "recommended" appointment)	8	Administering technical affairs according to superiors' orders.
Technical Assistants ("delegated" appointment) ...	12	Administering technical affairs according to superiors' orders.
Compilers ("recommended" appointment)	8	Editing books on home affairs and examining publications according to superiors' orders.
Inspectors (two of "selected" appointment and the rest of "recommended" appointment)	10-16	Inspecting and directing home affairs in different provinces, municipalities and hsien according to superiors' orders.
Chief Statistician ("selected" appointment)	1	Compiling statistics.
Chief Accountant ("recommended" appointment) ...	1	Accounting.
Divisional Chiefs ("recommended" appointment) ...	22-28	Administering affairs of different divisions according to superiors' orders.
Clerks ("delegated" appointment)	100-130	Administering affairs of different divisions according to superiors' orders.

Note.—There may also be a number of employees.

CIVIL AFFAIRS

Enforcement of Local Self-Government.—Enforcement of the new hsien (district) system is the most important task in internal administration during the war of resistance. It aims not only at awakening the people, mobilizing manpower and strengthening local organization to meet the requirements of protracted resistance but also at speeding up local self-government to lay a foundation for national reconstruction. Since the promulgation by the National Government on September 19, 1939 of the Outline

Governing the Organization of the Various Local Units of the Hsien which lays down the principles of the new hsien system, the Ministry of Interior has taken great pains in planning, supervision and direction with a view to ensuring the success of this important administrative reform. The Ministry has formulated and promulgated the following supplementary laws:

1. Measures Governing the Determination of the Grades of Hsien in Various Provinces.
2. Charts and Diagrams Showing the Various Local Units of the Hsien together with Explanations.

Ninghsia	...	To be enforced in 13 hsien in three periods within three years from 1940.	13
Chinghai	...	To be enforced from 1940	11
Shantung	...	To be enforced in 107 hsien under A.B.C. three classes in accordance with their conditions.	12 hsien, namely, Tancheng, J chao, Fanhsien, Chaocheng, J hsien, Kuanhsien, Wenteng, Yu cheng, Halyang, Changlo, Chli and Lalyang.
Shansi	...	To be enforced in all hsien in three periods 1941-45.	In view of the special condition that province only readjust is made in accordance with new hsien system.

The new hsien system was enforced in some hsien in 1940 and in others in 1941. A survey of the progress made up till the end of 1941 reveals that a

total of 944 hsien had enforced system. The following table shows outstanding features:

TABLE 3. ENFORCEMENT OF NEW HSIEN SYSTEM

Projects Undertaken		Progress Made	
Enforcement of new hsien system	...	...	944 hsien
Reorganization of hsien governments	...	...	1,053
Reorganization of county offices	...	Existing	1,570
	...	Abolished	782
Establishment of village or town halls	...	...	25,060
Establishment of pao offices	...	...	318,367
Organization of pao and chia	...	pao	378,476
	...	chia	4,030,885
Census-taking	...	...	444 hs
Adjustment of hsien finance	...	...	792
Organization of hsien police	...	Police stations	420
	...	Police officers	524
Establishment of schools	...	Central schools	21,306
	...	Primary schools	142,595
Training of various grades of essential personnel	...	Provincial training corps	5,158
	...	County training corps	25,816
Establishment of health organizations	...	Hsien institutes of health	783
	...	County branch institutes of health and village and chen health stations	905
Establishment of cooperatives	...	Hsien	122
	...	Villages and towns	1,144
	...	Pao	5,598
Land registration	...	...	92 hs
Land Survey	...	...	131
Collection of land tax according to land value	...	...	37

Note.—The table given above is based on material from "A Complete Survey of the Progress of Enforcement of the New Hsien System" published by the Ministry of Interior in May 1942.

After the promulgation of the Outline Governing the Organization of Various Local Units of the Hsien, supervision and direction in strengthening the various hsien units and in coordinating control, education, maintenance and defense is of prime importance. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek instructed in August, 1940 the Ministry of Interior to make a monthly examination of the enforcement of self-government in the Chungking Municipality and Paksien in Szechuen with a view to achieving steady improvement until they become the model municipality and hsien. In accordance with the Generalissimo's instructions the Ministry of Interior monthly sent delegates to supervise and direct the work and drew up comprehensive programs based on the actual conditions in these municipality and hsien, and also projects for the preliminary stage which are expected to be carried out within two years. Up till October, 1942 all projects for the first year had been carried out. Satisfactory results were achieved in the reorganization and strengthening

of the various units and in the coordination of control, education, sustenance and defense. Similar supervision and direction is being continued in the current year.

From October, 1941 to August, 1942 the Ministry of Interior had examined a total of 34 reports submitted by different provinces on the enforcement of the new hsien system: 12 from Kwangtung, six from Kweichow, nine from Shensi, two from Honan, and one each from Kwangsi, Anhwei, Kansu, Shansi, and Shantung. Recommendations for improvement were made to the provinces concerned.

Readjustment of Administrative Areas.—The Ministry of Interior has effected many changes in the administrative areas of the country. Large districts especially those in the frontier regions or in the interior were split up into more districts to facilitate administration while small districts were amalgamated as a retrenchment measure. The following table shows the new districts and bureaus of administration established during the last two years:

TABLE 4. NEW HSIEN AND BUREAU OF ADMINISTRATION

Province	New Hsien or Bureau of Administration	Location	Date of Establishment
Szechuen	Peipel Administration	Peipel	September, 1941
Szechuen	Wangtsang Bureau of Administration	Wangtsang	October, 1941
Szechuen	Wulung Bureau of Administration	Hsiangkowchen	October, 1941
Szechuen	Chingchuan Hsien	Kiaochwang	October, 1941
Kansu	Siki Hsien	Mukiayin	December, 1941
Kansu	Shuchuan Hsien	Shuchuan	December, 1941
Ninghsia	Yungning Hsien	Yanghopao	March, 1942
Ninghsia	Huinung Hsien	Paofengchen	March, 1942
Kweichow	Pingtang Hsien	Tungchow	April, 1942
Kweichow	Santu Hsien	Sanho	April, 1942
Kweichow	Tsungkiang Hsien	Pingmei	April, 1942

HOME AFFAIRS

Suiyuan ...	Anpei Hsien ...	Tungshalmu ...	April, 1942
Suiyuan ...	Mitsang Hsien ...	Santaokiao ...	April, 1942
Suiyuan ...	Langshan Bureau of Administration ...	Yungangpao ...	April, 1942
Suiyuan ...	Yenkiang Bureau of Administration ...	Luchangchen ...	April, 1942
Hunan ...	Huailhua Hsien ...	Huailhua ...	April, 1942
Kweichow ...	Changhsun Hsien ...	Changchui ...	June, 1942
Kwangtung ...	Linnam Hsien ...	—	June, 1942

The system of dividing a province into a number of administrative areas, each comprising several districts and controlled by a Special Commissioner of Administrative Inspection was introduced by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in the province of Kiangsi in 1932 during the Bandit-Suppression Campaign. Its purpose is to facilitate administrative work especially in the bandit-suppression areas where urgent rehabilitation measures have to be carried out after a place has been pacified. In view of the success of

the system it was later introduced into other provinces. Since the war more provinces have adopted the system to cope with the situation and to increase administrative efficiency while some of those provinces which had already adopted the system have rearranged the number of administrative areas. The following table shows the number of administrative areas in different provinces as have been registered with the Ministry of Interior since September, 1941:

TABLE 5. NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATIVE AREAS IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES

Province	Existing Number of Administrative Areas	Administrative Areas Newly Established	Date of Authorization
Shantung ...	16	No. 16	September, 1941
Hopei ...	18	No. 18	September, 1941
Kansu ...	8	No. 8	November, 1941
Yunnan ...	7	Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	March, 1942
Honan ...	12	—	April, 1942
Kwangsi ...	7	—	April, 1942
Hunan ...	10	—	June, 1942
Kiangsi ...	11	—	June, 1942

CENSUS ADMINISTRATION

The Census Law, though promulgated long ago, has not been universally enforced. Since the outbreak of the war, many regulations governing the enforcement of the Census Law have been found inapplicable owing to the instability of population and the effect of war. The Ministry of

Interior therefore amended the Detailed Regulations Governing the Enforcement of the Census Law and promulgated the amendment on December 1, 1941. The Ministry also inaugurated a Department of Census Administration on July 1, 1942.

This new department administers national census affairs. Meanwhile,

different provinces established bureaus of census administration under their departments of civil affairs in accordance with the Draft Measures for Strengthening Various Grades of Civil Administration in the Province, Municipality and Hsien. Up till the end of August, 1942 the provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Honan, Szechuen, Shensi, Hupeh, Fukien and Kwangtung had reported to the Ministry of Interior that they had either established bureaus of census administration under their departments of civil affairs or had strengthened their census administration accordingly. In the hsien government either an office of census administration has been established under the division of civil affairs or a clerk in that division has been designated to manage census affairs. In the hsiang (village) or chen (town) a census officer has been appointed. In populous villages or towns he is assisted by one or more assistants.

In view of the importance of training census officers the Ministry of Interior inaugurated the first training class for ranking census officers of different provinces and municipalities. Census administrators in the provinces of Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Anhwei, Honan, Hunan, Hupeh, Shensi, Kansu and Chinghai and the Chungking Municipality as well as census officers of the Ministry of Interior were summoned to undergo training for a period of four months. After they had completed training, they returned to their posts, or were appointed instructors in census training or assigned other kinds of work relative to census administration.

Meanwhile, the Ministry of Interior promulgated provisional measures for

the training of ranking census officers of different provinces and municipalities and requested the different provinces, municipalities and hsien to train such officers within 1942. Up till the end of August, 1942 the provinces of Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Hunan, Hupeh, Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechuen, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu and Honan and the Chungking Municipality had completed the training of such officers.

The Ministry of Interior also designated the hsien and municipality around the Tien Chih (lake) in Yunnan as a model census area. A model census committee was organized jointly by the Ministry of Interior, the Yunnan Provincial Government and the Tsing Hua University. Work was started in January, 1942 and is being continued.

POLICE ADMINISTRATION

Police Organization.—In June, 1929 the Ministry of Interior promulgated the Organic Law for the Provincial Department of Police. The provinces of Shansi, Honan, Hopei, Kweichow, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol, Chahar and Yunnan all formed departments of police accordingly. However, after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, all except the Yunnan province have abolished such departments while other provinces have placed police affairs in charge of police divisions under either the departments of civil affairs or the peace preservation headquarters, which organizations have been found to be too small to handle police affairs of whole provinces. In accordance with a resolution of the Third National Home Affairs Conference the Ministry of Interior has requested the different provinces to

strengthen their police administration and eventually to establish or restore the departments of police. The fol-

lowing table shows the police administrations together with the numbers of staff members in different provinces:

TABLE 6. POLICE ADMINISTRATION AND NUMBER OF STAFF MEMBERS IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES

Province	Name of Police Administration	Division Chiefs	Assistants	Staff Clerks	Employees	Others
Szechuen	1st Section, 2nd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	5	—	—	4
Sikang	3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	1	—	—	—
Yunnan	Department of Police	5	5	10	5	20
Kweichow	2nd Section, 3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	3	1	1	—
Shensi	1st Section, 3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	3	—	—	—
Kansu	Police Division, Police Department	1	4	1	2	—
Ninghsia	Police Section, 2nd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	2	—	—	—
Chinghai	Police Section, 2nd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	2	1	1	—
Shansi	3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	4	—	—	—
Honan	3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	10	2	2	2
Chekiang	2nd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	3	2	—	2
Anhui	2nd Section, 3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	1	1	2	—
Kiangsi	1st Section, 4th Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	3	1	2	—
Fukien	Police Division, Peace Preservation Headquarters	1	10	1	3	—
Hunan	3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	10	2	—	—
Hupeh	3rd Section, 2nd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	2	1	—	—
Kwangtung	2nd Section, 3rd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	6	1	1	—
Kwangsi	1st Section, 2nd Division, Department of Civil Affairs	1	8	1	—	—

Note.—These figures are based on reports submitted to the Ministry of Interior up till the end of August, 1942.

Since the war, the Ministry of Interior has collaborated with different provinces and municipalities in the reorganization and improvement of

the police bureaus and forces. The following table shows the number of the existing police bureaus and police forces in different provinces:

TABLE 7. POLICE BUREAUS AND POLICE FORCES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES

Province	Provincial Capital Bureau of Police	Municipal Bureau of Police	Provincial Controlled Bureau of Police	Hsien Bureau of Police	Hsien Police Officer	Hsien Police Force	Provincial Police Force	Provincial Water Police
Hunan	1	1	2	76	—	—	1	1
Yunnan	1	—	1	127	—	—	—	—
Ninghsia	1	—	1	13	—	—	—	—
Sulyuan	—	—	2	3	—	—	—	—
Kansu	—	1	—	3	—	66	—	—
Fukien	—	1	1	64	—	—	—	1
Kiangsi	—	—	—	9	56	15	1	1
Shansi	—	—	—	41	—	—	—	—
Szechuen	1	1	—	34	100	—	—	1
Shensi	1	—	2	15	45	1	—	—
Sikang	1	—	—	4	10	—	—	—
Kwangsi	—	1	3	8	101	—	—	—
Kweichow	—	1	—	2	35	44	—	—
Honan	—	—	7	65	2	42	1	—
Hupeh	—	—	1	—	70	—	1	—
Chekiang	—	—	—	44	32	—	1	1
Kwangtung	—	1	—	11	68	—	1	—
Anhui	—	—	2	—	34	—	—	—
Chinghai	1	—	—	—	20	—	—	—
Kiangsu	—	—	—	—	6	—	1	—
TOTAL	7	7	22	519	579	168	7	5

- Notes:
1. The figures in this table are based on reports received by the Ministry of Interior up till July, 1942.
 2. This table shows only the police bureaus and police forces in different provinces, the Police Headquarters under the Ministry of Interior, the Central Police College and the Chungking Police Bureau being excluded.
 3. The police organizations mentioned in this table are all police administrative organizations, police educational organizations being excluded.
 4. In Kiangsi there are 10 hsien police stations in addition.
 5. In Szechuen there are three mining police stations in addition.
 6. In Chekiang there are a Ningpo police force and a mining police station in addition.

Police Education: *Central Police College.*—The Central Police College under the Ministry of Interior is the highest institution for the training of police officers. It was founded in 1901 during the Ching dynasty and reorganized in 1936. It was removed from Nanking to Chungking after the outbreak of the war. Owing to financial limitation, it has not been able to enlarge its facilities to meet the needs of police education. However, many special training classes have been conducted since the war. The following table shows the number of graduates from the college:

TABLE 8. NUMBER OF GRADUATES FROM CENTRAL POLICE COLLEGE

Class	No. of Graduates	Date of Graduation
7th Regular Class ...	281	Sept., 1941
8th Regular Class ...	279	April, 1942
9th Regular Class ...	212	Sept., 1942
1st Police Officers Training Class ...	105	Sept., 1940
2nd Police Officers Training Class ...	113	Sept., 1942
3rd Education Class ...	30	Feb., 1942
1st Northwest Police Officers Training Class ...	112	April, 1942
TOTAL ...	1,132	—

TABLE 9. NUMBER OF TRAINEES IN CENTRAL POLICE COLLEGE

Class	No. of Trainees	Date of Entrance
10th Regular Class ...	115	Aug., 1941
11th Regular Class ...	150	Sept., 1941
12th Regular Class ...	400 (being enlisted)	—
4th Education Class...	50	—
TOTAL ...	715	—

Local Police Training.—For training local police, police training institutes have been established in different provinces and municipalities. The Ministry of Interior has sent training officers and appropriated funds to collaborate in the training program. During recent years more funds have been allocated and more training officers have been sent. From October 1941 to August, 1942 six superintendents, nine deans and four captains had been appointed. In addition, two principal instructors had been appointed to the police officers section of the Essential Personnel Training Corps of different provinces, making a total of 38 together with others previously appointed.

In order to train more local police constables the Ministry of Interior requested different provinces to establish branch police training institutes at suitable localities and to open guards training classes under the provincial police training institutes. Financial assistance was rendered by the Ministry. The following table shows the numbers of local police training institutes and police constables and officers under training between July, 1941 and June, 1942.

TABLE 10. NUMBERS OF LOCAL POLICE TRAINING INSTITUTES AND POLICE CONSTABLES AND OFFICERS UNDER TRAINING

Number of Police Training Institutes...	21
Constables:	
Number of Graduates ...	4,917
Number of Trainees ...	1,730
Police Officers:	
Number of Graduates ...	786
Number of Trainees ...	369

Publications Control.—As a measure to ban publications issued by the enemy and puppets and to prevent the enemy and puppets from utilizing

the war-area newspapers and periodicals which have registered with the Government, the Ministry of Interior has drawn up a comprehensive investigation scheme. All publications in Nanking, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Hankow, Canton, and Weihaiwei and a portion of those in Shanghai, Hopei, Hupeh, Anhwei and Shantung had been banned by proclamations. Since October, 1941, 824 more newspapers and periodicals in Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Honan, Chekiang and Hupeh have been banned by proclamations issued by the provincial governments concerned.

Since the war, registration of newspapers and periodicals has been undertaken in accordance with two principles: equitable distribution and economy of material. The following table shows the distribution of newspapers and periodicals as registered since October, 1941:

TABLE 11. REGISTERED NEWSPAPERS, NEWS AGENCIES AND PERIODICALS

Province	Newspapers	News Agencies	Periodicals	Total
Hunan ...	19	2	8	29
Suiyuan ...	—	—	3	3
Chekiang ...	12	6	6	24
Honan ...	3	1	4	8
Szechuen ...	6	4	13	23
Kwangtung ...	17	3	33	53
Yunnan ...	1	—	3	4
Kiangsi ...	23	5	3	31
Kwangsi ...	6	1	50	57
Fukien ...	9	8	6	23
Kansu ...	2	1	2	5
Chinghai ...	—	—	1	1
Kweichow ...	3	—	8	11
Shensi ...	5	—	10	15
Hupeh ...	11	1	3	15
Sikang ...	1	—	—	1

Anhwei ...	13	1	4	18
Kiangsu ...	2	1	—	3
Shansi ...	1	—	2	3
Shantung ...	—	1	1	2
Chungking ...	6	—	53	59
Army-owned ...	61	2	44	107

GRAND TOTAL ...	201	37	257	495
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The following table shows the number of publications that have registered with the Ministry of Interior since October, 1941:

TABLE 12. NUMBER OF REGISTERED PUBLICATIONS

Classification	Kinds
Social Sciences ...	29
Natural Sciences ...	4
Applied Sciences ...	8
Literature ...	27
History ...	15
Arts ...	6
Miscellaneous ...	15
TOTAL ...	104

The following table shows the number of publications banned by the Ministry of Interior since October, 1941:

TABLE 13. PUBLICATIONS BANNED

Classification	Kinds
Books ...	174
Periodicals ...	37
TOTAL ...	211

CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS

Prescription of Ceremonies and Rites.—The Ministry of Interior drafted a set of principles for ceremonies and rites of marriage, funeral, sacrifice and greeting and submitted them to the Executive Yuan for consideration and approval in July, 1937. The outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in that very month delayed their promulgation by the Government. The Third National Home Affairs Conference held in December, 1941 passed a resolution to enforce the drafts by the Ministry on an experimental basis. In February, 1942 the provinces of Kiangsi, Hupeh and Honan successively petitioned the Government for the promulgation of marriage, funeral and other rites at an early date. In the same month Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek instructed that ceremonies and rites be prescribed. Thereupon the Ministry of Interior re-examined its previous drafts in consultation with other government offices concerned and submitted to the Executive Yuan on August 11, 1942 for approval and promulgation. These are intended for enforcement on an experimental basis. Revision will be made basing on the results obtained.

Standardization of Dress.—The Regulations Governing the Standardization of Dress now in force make stipulations regarding ceremonial attire and uniforms but not civilian dress. To fulfill the need the Ministry of Interior drew up and submitted in January, 1939 an amendment to the Regulations to the Executive Yuan for consideration and approval. In this amended version a chapter on civilian dress is inserted. At the Third National Home Affairs Con-

ference discussions on dress were made and a resolution was passed that "Prior to the promulgation of the Amended Regulations Governing Dress the Ministry of Interior draw up a Draft Bill on the Popularization of Coats for Ordinary Civilian Wear in accordance with the principles of (1) simplicity and dignity, (2) economy and suitability, (3) practicability and (4) use of Chinese materials and submit it to the Executive Yuan for approval and promulgation." This has been done accordingly.

Commendation and Pensions.—The Ministry of interior has handled many cases of commendation and pensioning referred to it by either the Executive Yuan or different provincial and municipal governments. From October, 1941 to August, 1942 a total of 41 persons had been commended for their noble virtues, 10 persons commended by the National Government, 21 persons by the Executive Yuan and three by the Ministry of Interior, 130 persons commended for contributions, 56 persons awarded medals or certificates of honors, 186 persons granted pensions for defense of soil, six persons who were not public functionaries recommended for governmental honors, two persons had their deeds recorded in Kuomintang history, eight persons commended by circular orders, and three persons who were either wounded or killed while serving in county, town, pao or chia posts granted pensions.

Commemoration of Patriots and Martyrs.—To perpetuate the memory of officials and civilians who have sacrificed their lives in the Sino-Japanese war the Ministry of Interior has since 1939 encouraged the erection of temples in different provinces and municipalities where they may be enshrined. From October, 1941 to

August, 1942 the following steps had been taken regarding the erection of temples: (1) A site had been chosen and a design drawn up for the erection of the Metropolitan Temple for Patriots and Martyrs; (2) provincial temples for patriots and martyrs in Hunan and Sikang had been erected while those in other provinces including Kwangtung and Anhwei were under planning; and (3) up till September, 1941 a total of 529 hsien had reported the erection of hsien temples for patriots and martyrs. Later, 238 more municipalities and hsien also reported the erection of such in their respective areas. Apart from those in war zones which are permitted to delay erection some 500 more municipalities and hsien are yet planning for erection. In June, 1941 the Ministry of Interior notified different provincial governments to instruct the municipalities and hsien under their respective control to erect such temples before October 31, 1942.

Up till September 30, 1941 the Ministry of Interior had approved of the recommendations from different places for enshrining some 4,600 persons who had sacrificed their lives in the war. From October, 1941 to August, 1942 it had approved of the recommendations for an additional 31,324 persons.

CONSTRUCTION

The Construction Department of the Ministry of Interior established in July, 1942 has drawn up and carried out many projects during the past half year. One of its most important tasks has been supervision of the execution of city planning in different provinces and municipalities. It may be noted that since the beginning of the war, many cities have suffered

heavy damages from enemy air raids. To minimize losses in the future the Ministry has notified different provinces and municipalities in the rear to draw up improved city designs for reconstruction. Reconstruction is to be undertaken first in provincial capitals and principal cities. Road maps are also to be drawn up and submitted together with the city designs to the Ministry for record. Up till August, 1942 the Ministry had received the following for record: (1) the new Kweilin municipal design, (2) maps showing old and new road systems in the Kangning Municipality and plan for reconstructing the Kangning Municipality, (3) road map of the Sian Municipality and a statement on the grades and widths of roads, (4) road map of the Chengtu Municipality, (5) preliminary designs for the reconstruction of Nan Chuan (South Hot Springs) by the Auxiliary Capital Reconstruction Planning Commission, (6) project for opening big lanes and design for building 15-meter-wide Tai Ping Hang at Kiangpei (north of the Kialing River) by the Chungking Municipal Government, (7) designs of the road systems of the Chungking Municipality and its extension area and provisional regulations governing road designing, (8) design of the new residential area of the Kweiyang Municipality, (9) diagram showing standard width of roads and road map of the Kweiyang Municipality, (10) draft design of the new Changsha Municipality, and (11) map of existing main roads and design of the road system of the Kunming Municipality.

The Ministry has assisted in the management and improvement of the Chungking water-works. This water-works has been repeatedly bombed by enemy aircraft since August, 1941

sustaining great damage. As a protective measure, a construction project for the protection of the pumps has been drawn up and has invited the Kwan, Chu & Yang (Constructors) to undertake the construction. In view of the enormous expenses involved it petitioned the Government for subsidies. After the Ministry convened a conference with the government offices concerned, an appropriation of \$3,779,933.85 was petitioned from the Executive Yuan. The Ministry also provided facilities in the purchase of such construction materials as steel rods and cement.

OPIUM SUPPRESSION

After the completion of the two-year narcotic drugs suppression plan and the six-year opium suppression plan at the end of 1940, which were carried out by stages, the Government has since 1941 adopted the policy of "absolute suppression" whereby poppy cultivation, traffic, sale and addiction are to be strictly prohibited. However, owing to wartime conditions, there may be illicit cultivation and traffic, particularly in the frontier provinces. As a preventive measure, the Ministry of Interior instructed the National Opium Suppression Commission to organize three inspection corps to be dispatched to Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Shensi, Honan, Kansu, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Kwangsi, Kwangtung and Chungking to make investigations. Simultaneously Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek appointed three members of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee to supervise the suppression work. The three corps set out simultaneously in March, 1942 on a six-month inspection tour. Satisfactory results were achieved.

ed. Similar corps will be organized and sent out later on.

The Ministry of Interior is well aware that uprooting of poppy sprouts and destruction of poppy seeds are basic measures for opium suppression. In November, 1941 the Ministry petitioned Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to issue a circular telegram instructing all provinces and municipalities to suppress poppy cultivation strictly. The result was gratifying. Poppy sprouts found in the frontier provinces were uprooted while poppy seeds confiscated were burned. At the Third National Home Affairs Conference the Ministry submitted two draft programs on the absolute suppression of opium in the frontier regions and on the development of agricultural production and improvement of the people's livelihood in the frontier regions to effect voluntary suppression of poppy cultivation respectively. They were passed with some revisions and referred to the provincial governments in the frontier regions for enforcement.

As a counter-measure against the narcotic policy enforced by the enemy in the occupied areas, the Ministry drafted in August, 1941 Provisional Measures for the Suppression of Opium and Narcotic Drugs in the War Zones and Regulations Governing the Suppression of Opium and Narcotic Drugs in Recovered Areas, and submitted them to the Executive Yuan for approval. After being duly approved, they were enforced by the Ministry in collaboration with the National Military Council. At the Third National Home Affairs Conference the Ministry submitted for consideration a Bill for the Eradication of Opium and Narcotic Drugs in the War Zones and for the Frustration of the Enemy Narcotic

Policy. The bill was passed by the conference and enforced accordingly. In accordance with this bill Hunan, Chekiang, Shensi, and Kiangsi organized with local garrisons squads for uprooting poppy sprouts in the war zones and also sent delegates to assist in the blockade against the infiltration of enemy goods as enforced by the headquarters of the commanders-in-chief of various war zones.

In March, 1940 the Executive Yuan instructed different provinces and municipalities to effect collaboration in opium suppression among neighbouring provinces and municipalities. The provinces of Shensi, Honan, Kwangtung, Kweichow, Hupeh, Shansi, Sikang, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Szechuen, Kansu, Fukien, Anhwei and Hunan did so accordingly. The provinces of Honan, Shensi, Sikang and Kiangsi set up special suppression organs. The following tables show the collaboration in opium suppression among different provinces and hsien and the suppression organs:

TABLE 14. COLLABORATION IN OPIUM SUPPRESSION AMONG PROVINCES

Province	Provinces Collaborating
Shensi	Szechuen, Kansu, Ninghsia, Suiyuan.
Honan	Shensi, Shansi, Hupeh, Anhwei
Kwangtung	Hunan, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kwangsi.
Kweichow	Szechuen, Hunan, Yunnan, Kwangsi.
Hupeh	Szechuen, Hunan, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Honan, Shensi.
Shansi	Honan.
Sikang	Szechuen, Kweichow, Yunnan.
Kiangsi	Hunan, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi.
Kwangsi	Yunnan, Hunan, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kwangtung.
Szechuen	Shensi, Kansu, Hupeh, Kweichow, Hunan.

Kansu	Shensi, Szechuen, Ninghsia, Suiyuan.
Fukien	Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Chekiang.
Anhwei	Honan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Kiangsu, Chekiang.
Hunan	Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Kweichow, Szechuen, Hupeh.
Chahar	As the province is under enemy occupation, it is difficult to carry out positive measures of suppression. However, negative measures are undertaken.

TABLE 15. COLLABORATION IN OPIUM SUPPRESSION AMONG HSIEN

Province	Hsien Collaborating
Hunan	38 hsien including Yoyang and Pingkiang.
Kweichow	26 hsien including Pichieh.
Sikang	Sichang, Fulin and the districts in the Ning area.
Kansu	The 8th administrative area and the neighbouring hsien in Szechuen.

TABLE 16. SUPPRESSION ORGANS

Province	Suppression Organs
Shensi	Opium and Narcotic Inspectorate. Inspection Posts. Observation Stations. Guerilla Inspection Posts.
Honan	Opium and Narcotic Inspectorate. Inspection Posts (350 in number).
Sikang	Opium and Narcotic Inspection Stations.
Kansu	Opium and Narcotic Inspection Posts.
Kiangsi	Opium and Narcotic Inspection Corps.

Note.—In provinces in the war zones opium and narcotic inspection is undertaken by the Preventive Service. In provinces in the interior apart from inspection organs set up at strategic places the pao chia system is utilized for inspection and suppression.

After the enforcement of absolute suppression, suspects of opium or narcotic addiction have to be subjected to examination and only when they are proved to be opium or narcotic addicts are they to be punished according to law. In December, 1941 the Ministry of Interior stipulated that provinces and municipalities which can afford to do so should establish as far as possible anti-opium or anti-narcotic hospitals but which are in financial stringency to designate certain hsien or municipal hospitals or other health organs to undertake such detection work concurrently. Since the announcement of this measure, up till August, 1942, the Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Honan, Kansu, Chinghai, Szechuen and Kweichow provincial governments and the Chungking Municipal Government had established more than 200 anti-opium and anti-narcotic hospitals while in the provinces of Kwangsi, Sikang and Shensi the work had been undertaken concurrently by the government or private hospitals or the health administration or stations. All those provinces and municipalities which have not yet established such hospitals or are still entrusting the work to hospitals or health organs are being urged by the Ministry to establish them at the earliest possible date.

The Ministries of Interior and Foreign Affairs have during the past jointly prepared reports on opium and narcotic suppression to be submitted

to the Opium Advisory Council of the League of Nations. In 1930 at the 25th meeting of the Council the chairman after hearing the opium suppression report rendered by the Chinese delegate expressed admiration for the Chinese Government's effort at opium and narcotic suppression under extremely difficult circumstances. As to the Japanese and the puppets' encouragement of the opium and narcotic trade in the occupied areas the National Opium Suppression Commission has submitted from time to time to the League of Nations reports which are based on the War Zone Party and Government Commission, the Central Bureau of Investigation and Statistics and various provincial and municipal governments. From October 1941 to August, 1942 38 reports had been submitted.

As a signatory to the International Opium Convention concluded in 1912 at The Hague, the Convention Concerning the Limitation of the Manufacture of Narcotic Drugs and Their Distribution concluded in 1931 at Geneva and the Convention on the Prevention of the Illicit Traffic of Narcotic Drugs concluded in 1936, China has the obligation to submit reports, copies of important regulations pertaining to opium and narcotic suppression and annual estimates of narcotic drugs required for medical and scientific purposes. Notwithstanding the war, these have been done without interruption during the past few years.

HOME AFFAIRS: MONGOLIA AND TIBET¹

WU CHUNG-HSIN² (吳忠信)

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANS FOR FRONTIER REGIONS

THE National administrative organs for the frontier regions vary with each dynasty in the past. Early in the Chin dynasty when feudalism was abolished and a centralized "district system" of administration was instituted, an office was set up in the Central Government merely to take charge of reception and ceremonies when the frontier chiefs came to the court. In the subsequent dynasties of Han, Tang, up till Yuan, similar organs like *Hung Lu Shih* or *Hsuan Cheng Yuan* were established, not for the actual political administration of frontier affairs, but simply served as instruments of good-will.

It was at the beginning of the Ching dynasty that the *Li Fan Yuan*, or Border Affairs Board, was organized as the first Central Government office for the political administration of all frontier regions, including Mongolia and Tibet. Modelled after the other six *pu* or ministries, the *Li Fan Yuan* attended to the reports and appeals of local chiefs in the border territories. These reports and appeals were usually submitted through the military governors or commissioners stationed at those places. The yuan also served to execute the orders of Central authorities with respect to border administration. At the end of the Ching

dynasty, the 32nd year of the Emperor Kwang Hsu, the *Li Fan Yuan* was changed to a ministry retaining the original organization but augmented by a research bureau and a compilation bureau for the study of the conditions of Mongolia and Tibet. Owing to the overthrow of the Ching dynasty soon after the establishment of this ministry, there were few accomplishments.

Central Government Administrative Organs under the Republic.—When the Republic was established after the Revolution of 1911, a Bureau of Tibetan and Mongolian Affairs was founded to take the place of the *Li Fan Yuan* in the administration of frontier affairs. The bureau soon became too small to cope with the activities of the frontier, and was dissolved in 1914 and reorganized into the *Meng Tsang Yuan*. However, owing to internal disturbances in the country, no definite plan was made in the administration of frontier affairs. When the present National Government was established in 1927, the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs was organized with the status of a regular ministry under the Executive Yuan. The Commission has from 21 to 27 members of whom six are on the standing committee. A chairman and a vice-chairman are responsible for the execution of the decisions and internal affairs of the commission. The com-

¹ For background and "Outer Mongolia" see chapter entitled "The Chinese Entity."

² Chairman, Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Tang Yun-shou (唐雲守) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

mission is subdivided into various departments and offices, namely, the Department of General Affairs, the Department of Tibetan Affairs, the Department of Mongolian Affairs, the Counsellors Office, the Secretariat, the Translation and compilation Office and the Research Office. Besides the two branch bureaus in Peiping (now closed) and Tibet, a number of research groups and investigation offices are established in various localities in the frontier regions.

The Department of General Affairs is subdivided into four sections each taking charge respectively of archives and documents, business, finance, and personnel of the commission. The departments of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs are each subdivided into three sections taking charge respectively of (1) financial, diplomatic, civil and military affairs, (2) education, public health, religion, and judicial matters, and (3) mining, agricultural, industrial, commercial and communication affairs related to Mongolia and Tibet. The research office is to direct the activities of the local research groups and to compile their reports. The Translation Office deals with the translating of Mongolian, Tibetan and Mohammedan documents into the Chinese language, and the publishing of papers and books in the Mongolian, Tibetan and Mohammedan languages. The Peiping (suspended since the war) and the Tibet branch bureaus of the commission take charge of certain political affairs respectively in Mongolia and Tibet under the direction of the commission.

Aims of Reconstruction. Just as the National Government follows the principles set by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in the reconstruction of a new China, so the commission follows these principles

in the reconstruction of Mongolia and Tibet. The following is a brief description of the aims of the Kuomintang in the various aspects of reconstruction of Mongolia and Tibet.

1. *National Solidarity.*—The various peoples of the Chinese nation are one in origin. But, owing to geographical factors, they have been separated from and denied close contact with each other with the result that they have developed, in the course of history, different types of culture and showed differences in the degree of social, economic and political development. The lack of foresight on the part of government officials in charge of frontier affairs and their failure to bring about closer relations between the Central government and the frontier territories provided a chance for the creation of misunderstandings. It had been the long-conceived ideal of Dr. Sun Yat-sen to place the five peoples, Chinese, Mongolian, Manchurian, Muslim and Tibetan, on an equal standing, and to eradicate the existence of whatever discriminations. It was expressly pointed out in the Manifesto of the Kuomintang on January 1, 1923, that "the negative aim of the principle of nationalism of the party is to nullify the inequalities existing among the component peoples of China." This principle of "racial" equality is embodied in the sixth article of the National Decree for the Period of Political Tutelage, which article reads in part as follows: "...irrespective of sex, race or religion, Chinese citizens are equal in the eyes of law." Article fifth of the draft Chinese constitution also reads: "Every 'race' of China is a component factor of the Republic, therefore the 'races' should be equal in standing." As legal equality is neces-

sary before each people can enjoy the maximum of happiness, the Government has followed the principle in the reconstruction of Tibet and Mongolia. The first task is to assist them in their various developments and to raise their standard of living. The second is aimed at achieving greater unity among the different peoples. Regarding the first point, a resolution was passed in the Third National Kuomintang Congress which reads: "The Kuomintang solemnly declared as its duty to put aright the deception and indifference in the policies of the Manchu government towards the administration of Mongolia and Tibet and sincerely to help with its utmost effort in their economic, political and educational development, aiming at the general progress of civilization and the reconstruction of a free and unified China." With regard to the second point, the Kuomintang having declared in its manifesto of January 1, 1923 the negative aim of eradicating the inequalities among the peoples, further pointed out that its positive aim is "to unify all the different peoples into a great Chinese nation." In addition, a resolution passed in the Third National Kuomintang Congress explicitly indicates that the ultimate aim of the principle of nationalism of the *San Min Chu I* is for a closer uniting of the five peoples into a powerful nation."

From what has been quoted above, it is evident that the ultimate aim of the principle of nationalism is to weave the different peoples into a closer unit in order to win equality with other individual nations of the world. To attain this end, it is essential to respect the diverse religious customs of the various peoples and to abandon the prejudice and belief in

the cultural superiority of any one people to the others. With respect to this, an act was passed in the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, the essentials of which document are quoted as follows: "To respect the religious beliefs of each people, preserve their fine social customs and harmonize their feelings towards one another. To improve their social life and develop a unique national culture." Hence the handling of the Mongolian and Tibetan affairs by the Government is twofold in nature, that is, to assist in their own development and to promote a greater national unity.

2. *Political Rights.*—In order to bring about "racial" equality, each people must be given an equal political standing, doing away with the existence of a class of rulers on the one hand and a class of ruled on the other. This is the ultimate political ideal of the Kuomintang. But before this ideal could be accomplished, every individual must possess a clear conception of the National constitution and must be able to exercise their rights in the control of the Government. In the present period of Political Tutelage, the practice of self-government in the hsien is the first step towards constitutionalism.

However, people in the frontier regions are backward politically and the need for political tutelage is more urgently felt than in the interior. This is what Dr. Sun Yat-sen meant by helping and training the minor peoples to develop their capacity for self-government. In the Third National Kuomintang Congress, this aim was expressed in the following resolution: "The aim of the principle of nationalism is to promote the self-governing capacity of every people, in order

that they may exercise their rights to take part in the political affairs of the nation." This policy of training their capacity for self-government is more concretely revealed in the following excerpt of a resolution passed in the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee concerning the strengthening of unity among the various peoples and religions. The passage runs: "Every dealing with the frontier peoples should bear the aim of promoting their cultural standard and assisting them in developing a capacity for self-government." There are two ways of helping the frontier peoples to develop this capacity. The first is the promotion of education purporting to improve their understanding of the *San Min Chu I* and their political knowledge. The second is to widen the employment of frontier people in every branch of civil service, in order that they may have the chance to know the machinery of the Government and to understand the relations between the Central and local governments. As to the scope of self-government, the same plenary session passed a resolution which reads in part as follows: "With the exception of the administration of national defense, foreign affairs and other national affairs that must be centralized in control, the Central Government must assist the local governments of the frontier in the development of the cultural, economic, educational and communication conditions of the local people according to the policy laid down by the Kuomintang."

3. *Livelihood of the People.*—The principle of livelihood of the *San Min Chu I* aims chiefly at the improvement of the well-being of the people. Owing to the backwardness of economic development of the frontier regions,

the people's standard of living is low. For the improvement of their living standard, the Central Government has laid down certain principles. For instance, the following principles are embodied in a program for the general improvement of the living standard in the frontiers drafted by the Fourth National Kuomintang Congress in accordance with the Decree of Political Tutelage. It reads: "To improve the livelihood of the frontier people is a matter of vital importance. In developing the frontier regions, we should emphasize the improvement of the welfare of the tribe people." A similar decision was made in an act passed by the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, which act aimed at the improvement of the living conditions of the frontier tribes. The first step towards this goal is the opening of communications with the interior provinces. This would facilitate the flow of sufficient food stuffs and daily commodities, foster local industries and increase the importation of modern machineries and equipments. With the collaboration of the central authority, mineral resources would then be developed and an economic centre established. This would bring about closer relationships between the frontier districts and the inner provinces.

That these measures of promoting the livelihood of the frontier districts have occupied the attention of the Government is well manifested in the following excerpt from an act of the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang: "In suitable localities, the Central Government should establish large-scale projects in farming, animal husbandry, fur and woollen manufac-

ture and leather production. Local enterprises should be encouraged. Additional banking units should also be established to offer financial facilities to the various industries."

COMMISSION ON MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN AFFAIRS BEFORE THE WAR

Since its establishment, the Commission of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs has carried on its work according to the reconstruction plan of the Kuomintang. However, owing to the remoteness of the Mongolian and Tibetan frontiers, the vastness of the territories, and their complicated social conditions, preparatory work such as the adjustment of the administrative system, the readjustment of relations with the central authority and the study of local conditions would first be done before the plan of reconstruction could be successfully carried out. The second step would then be the promotion of education and the organization of local industries. Some of this work had been accomplished before the war. They are listed as follows:

1. *Adjustment of Administrative System:*

- (a) Making of regulations governing the organization of the Mongolian leagues and banners.
- (b) Establishment of the system of peace preservation corps and the appointment of peace preservation officers.
- (c) Establishment of Mongolian local self-government commissions in the provinces of Chahar and Suiyuan.
- (d) Establishment of the commission for the organization of the Sikang Provincial Government.

2. *Relations between Frontier Re-*

gions and the Central Government:

- (a) Calling of a meeting of Mongolian high officials in June, 1930.
- (b) Expedition of General Huang Mu-sung and his comforting mission to Tibet in 1934.
- (c) Establishment of resident offices of Mongolia, Tibet and Chinghai in the national capital.
- (d) Making of regulations governing the visits to the capital of the political or religious leaders of the frontier regions.
- (e) Escorting of the Panchan Lama back to Tibet in 1936.
- (f) Selection of local talents for government service.

3. *Settlement of Local Dispute:*

- (a) Settlement in 1932 of the two cases of disputes arising from the the killing of acting chief Chasakenasen by Chi Chun-shan and the subsequent killing of Chi Chun-shan by Lieutenant Chi Wen-ying of the Ordos left wing front banner.
- (b) Settlement in 1935 of the *coup d'etat* of the Oelot Front Banner.
- (c) Settlement in 1930 of a trade dispute between Tibet and Nepal.
- (d) Handling of a case of property dispute between two monasteries in Sikang.

4. *Adjustment of Religious Affairs:*

- (a) Conferring of titles upon the Panchan Lama and Changchia Hutukhtu.
- (b) Drafting of Mongolian and Tibetan religious decrees.
- (c) Adjustment of the various affairs of the lama temples.

5. *Study of Frontier Conditions.*—

Establishment of research groups in such places as Kweisui, Ninghsia, Chiu-chuan, Sining, Kangting, Weihsia, western Yunnan, Sinkiang, etc.

6. *Other Activities.*—Concerning the publishing of papers and books in the Mongolian and Tibetan languages, the principles of Dr. Sun Yat-San, government orders, dictionary of political terms, guide books and other works have since been published and put in circulation. Schools were established to educate the students of the frontier provinces, and special political classes were given in the National capital for the Mongolian and Tibetan students. In short, no efforts were spared in encouraging the frontier youths to receive education in the interior provinces. Attention was also paid to foster trade among the frontier provinces of Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan, etc. Troops were sent to protect merchants travelling in those regions.

WARTIME WORK OF THE COMMISSION

Since the outbreak of the war of resistance, the Chinese Government has started a gigantic campaign of wartime reconstruction. Never has the Chinese people experienced such a unity of will in this critical moment. There has been much revitalization in every government organ to cope with the unusual conditions in wartime. Following the principles laid down by the National Government in the reconstruction of Mongolia and Tibet, a plan for the wartime political administration of the two regions has been adopted by the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs. The plan may be briefly described as follows:

Adjustment of the Organization.

The internal organization of the Commission remains generally unchanged as before the war, except for the dismissal of some of the staff for the sake of financial retrenchment. On the other hand, a few new establishments

have been added to meet special needs. These are the office of the special commissioner to Chahar and the Commission's branch office in Tibet. The original organizations in Kalgan and Shahukow which had been abolished were re-installed. Commissions for self-government in the various leagues and banners were organized. In the summer of 1942 a number of Mongolian promoters of better administration were appointed and sent to the various banners to assist in the local governments.

Political Administration of Mongolia.

After the occupation of the Peiping-Suiyuan Railway by the Japanese, they declared that they had almost completely occupied Chahar and Suiyuan, to the extent of 555,000 square kilometers, with a population of 2,170,000 (alleged to include 310,000 Mongolians, 50,000 Mohammedans, and 340,000 Chinese). But in reality, what the Japanese occupied are a few scattering points along the railway line. With the only exception of a small part of the Ulan Chap league which turned to the enemy, the entire area of the Ikh Chao league remains intact. A greater part of Suiyuan province is still under the direct control of the provincial government. A brief survey of the administration of this region is described as follows:

1. Political Work:

(a) **STRENGTHENING OF UNITY.**—In 1939 Prince Teh of the puppet "federated" Mongolian régime intrigued to remove away the tomb of Genghis Khan, hero of Mongolia, as an attempt to win the hearts of the Mongolians. Prompt action was taken by the National Government to forestall this intrigue, and in August of the same year, the tomb was removed by Mongolian delegates to a safe

location in Kansu, thus allaying the anxiety of the Mongolians. In 1941, memorial rites for the worship of Genghis Khan were fixed by the Government to be equal in importance to the worship of Huangti, the forefather of the Chinese. The ceremony is attended annually by a Chinese high official.

Since the outbreak of the war, large numbers of Mongolian people were rendered homeless and suffered from heavy losses of property. Besides offering them material reliefs, the Central Government appointed Chairman Sha of the Suiyuan Mongolian Political Commission and other high Mongolian officials special delegates to comfort the refugees. After the invasion of Chahar, the Executive Yuan sent special messengers to the rear of the enemy, conveying the goodwill of the Government to the oppressed Mongolians and to urge the puppet troops to rise against the enemy. As a result 15 cases were reported in the past years of puppet Mongolian armies turning over to the Chinese side.

(b) **STRENGTHENING OF ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY.**—Since the fall of Paotow, most of the government officials retreated to the southeastern part of Suiyuan, putting the various administrative organs out of function. Subsequently Chairman Sha of the Suiyuan Mongolian Political Commission came to Chungking to have an audience with Chairman Lin Sen and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in the spring of 1939. After negotiations with the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, three members were added to the standing committee of the Suiyuan Mongolian Political Commission and the pre-war status of seven departments and three committees was restored. The office

of the director-general for the promotion of self-government in the Suiyuan Mongolian leagues and banners which had retreated to Yulin since the war, was also reorganized, with General Fu Tso-yi, commander of the second war zone, taking charge.

(c) **REFORMATION OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MONGOLIAN LEAGUES AND BANNERS.**—The political organization of the Mongolian leagues and banners were defective in many respects. First, owing to the hereditary nature of the Jassak régime, the fate of the country depended on the competence of the descendent chiefs. Secondly, financial limitation hindered the development of the country. And thirdly, because of the lack of modern knowledge and the small number of public functionaries, the government could not be efficiently run. Since the war, the following measures of reforming the political system of the Mongolian leagues and banners have been followed:

(1) Any vacancy left by a deceased chief of the league or banner must be filled by a prominent member of the league or banner by means of election.

(2) Financial support has been given to the leagues or banners suffered from shortage of income.

(3) Regulations relating to the sending of directing officers residing in the Mongolian leagues and banners and details concerning their activities and services have been drafted and approved by the Executive Yuan. Nine government officials distinguished in the past for their meritorious service with the Mongolian leagues and banners have been chosen and trained as special delegates to reside in the Ordos region. It is expected that the administration of the Mongolian leagues and banners will be much

facilitated and closer ties between the Central and local governments will be brought about.

(4) For the realization of the ideal of equality among the various peoples of China, as indicated in the Kuomintang principle of nationalism, the participation of Mongolians in the various branches of government services have been the desire of the central authorities. In recent years, prominent Mongolians holding important government posts include Mr. Lo Ching-tao, member of the National Government Council and concurrently member of the standing committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang; Mr. Wu Yun-peng, member of the Legislative Yuan; Messrs. Pai Jui and Pa Wen-chun, members of the Control Yuan, Messrs. Pei Yun-ti, Daliehaya, Kang Chi-min, members of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs; and Messrs. Li Yung-hsin, Ti Lu-wa, Shi Chen-to, councillors of the People's Political Council. These are but a few prominent persons from Mongolia, whose long and valuable services are duly recognized by the Government. Good records have also been shown by a great number of Mongolians serving in various branches of government service.

2. Military Affairs:

(a) THE ORGANIZATION OF PEACE-PRESERVATION CORPS IN MONGOLIA.—Owing to the inferior equipments and inadequate training of the Mongolian army, the Central Government took up the organization of defense units in the Mongolian front since the enemy penetration of Suiyuan. Before the war, the highest military officer in that region was the Peace Preservation Commissioner in the person of chairman Sha of the Ikh

Chao league with his headquarters stationed there. The posts of the commanders of peace preservation corps in the various banners were concurrently held by the Jassaks under the control of the peace preservation commissioner. There are at present 22 units of these peace preservation corps. In 1938, with the agreement of the peace preservation commissioner, the Commission of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs decided to put the various army units of the banners under regular military training. In 1939 Commander Fu Tso-yi took over the training of these troops together with those of the Alashan and other banners.

(b) IMPROVEMENT OF EQUIPMENTS. In the occupied areas of Chahar and Suiyuan, Mongolian troops were forced to surrender to the enemy. But recently there have been cases when these troops took chance to escape from the enemy's grip. To encourage them to turn over, the Commission gave them munitions and financial help so that they might take up the duty of defense against the aggressors. The Mongolian guerrillas were also organized and military training given to the Mongolian monks in order that they might participate in the service of defense in time of emergency.

3. Communications:

(a) CONSTRUCTION OF HIGHWAYS. Highways in the regions of Chahar and Suiyuan are constantly under construction to cope with military needs. To facilitate the work the Commission requested the Mongolian leagues and banners to lend their help both in men and material. Recently, the construction of a road of high military value and another from Yulin to Wuyuan through the region of the Ikh Chao league was completed.

(b) ESTABLISHMENT OF NEW WIRELESS, TELEGRAPH AND POST OFFICES.—The increasing importance of wireless communications in military and political administration in Mongolia has called for the strengthening of the wireless service. In this respect, the Commission established wireless stations at a number of places. Postal communications with the interior used to be conducted by "postal stations" in Mongolia or by the post offices of the neighbouring provinces. Since the abolition of the "post station" system, the conveyance of letters has been rendered very difficult. In recent years, upon the request of the Commission, the Ministry of Communications has established new postal services in many localities. In addition, many long distance telephone and telegraph offices have been established.

4. Economic Affairs:

(a) DEVELOPMENT OF ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND HANDICRAFT.—The Mongolians live a nomadic life by rearing cattle. The making of salt from the abundant natural salt lakes is also a means of subsistence.

To help them in developing their own trade, the Commission has done much in recent years in helping them to breed better stock and to prevent animal epidemics. With the collaboration of the provincial government of Suiyuan, large projects were set for the establishment of factories in the production of leather from animal hides. Technical experts were also sent to direct the exploitation of salt lakes.

(b) ESTABLISHMENT OF COOPERATIVES AND BANKING UNITS TO FACILITATE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS.—The Commission planned to organize a number of cooperatives in suitable

localities in the Mongolian leagues. It also requested the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank to install branch offices in places like Lotu, Kweite, Hualung, Shih-tsuitsu, Yulin, Shenpa, etc. to extend credits to the native entrepreneurs.

(c) CONTROL OF MONGOLIAN TRADE.—In view of the flourishing fur and hide trade in Mongolia and their importance to the Mongolian people, the Commission, with an aim to help promote these trades and to prevent the goods from falling into enemy hands, requested the Foreign Trade Commission to purchase their products.

According to the study of the Commission, the production of wool in seven banners of the Ikh Chao league in 1939 is estimate at 410,000 catties, and the production of fur at 82,715 sheets, with a total value of \$374,752. A large quantity of these goods has been stored up. The quantity bought by the Foreign Trade Commission is worth \$601,553, with still \$1,000,000 worth of goods remaining yet to be disposed of.

For other economic activities such as farming, animal husbandry, irrigation, mining, etc., the Commission is at present studying their conditions and has been in constant touch with technical institutions in planning for further development.

5. Education & Cultural Activities:

(a) EDUCATION IN THE MONGOLIAN LEAGUES.—Education here is generally in a more backward state than in the interior provinces. For its promotion the Commission has exerted much effort in the past. Since the outbreak of the war, the Commission besides enrolling a large number of Mongolian refugee students

together with a second class Tsai Yü medal. He was also given order by the National Government to govern Tibet before the new Dalai Lama comes to age.

(b) **ESCORTING THE REMAINS OF PANSHAN LAMA BACK TO TIBET.**—The Panshan Lama, religious head second only to Dalai Lama, used to take his abode in the Tashi-Lhunpo Monastery. Since 1924, he left his country and henceforth had been residing in the interior provinces for 13 years, traveling extensively and assisting the Government in bringing greater unity between the Tibetan and the Chinese peoples. His long absence had caused the earnest expectation of the Tibetans for his return. In 1937 he started to go back home, but on his way he fell sick and died, at the age of 55. His death greatly aggrieved both the Tibetans and the Chinese. In recognition of his outstanding services during his life time, the National Government conferred on him the posthumous title of "Hui Kuo Hsuan Hua Kwang Hui Yuan Chueh Ta Shih." Towards the death of this distinguished Tibetan, a memorial service sponsored by the Government was held in Chungking, while Mr. Tai Chuan-hsien, President of the Examination Yuan, was appointed to represent the Government as special envoy of condolence to Gyantse. In the winter of 1939, Mr. Chao Shou-yu was sent to escort the remains of the Panshan back to Tibet. The remains arrived safely at the Tashi-Lhunpo Monastery in December of the same year. In conformity with the religious tradition, the Executive Yuan appointed Panchan Cha-sa-ro-sang-chien-tsan, to seek for the incarnation of the late Panchan Lama.

(c) **ESTABLISHMENT OF THE RESI-**

DENT OFFICE OF THE COMMISSION IN TIBET. In the Manchu dynasty the link between the Central Government and the local government of Tibet was held by a high commissioner residing in Tibet. In the earlier years of the Republic no National Government office was established there. After General Huang Mu-sung's trip to Tibet in 1934 as special envoy, an official was left there to represent the Central Government, but he had no formal office or staff. It was only till 1940, when Mr. Wu Chung-hsin, Chairman of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, went to Tibet to take charge of the enthronement of the 14th Dalai Lama that a resident office of the Commission was formally established. It is hoped that closer relations between the Central Government and the local government would be brought about.

(d) **APPOINTMENT OF TIBETANS TO PARTICIPATE IN GOVERNMENT SERVICE.** The participation of the Mongolians in the government service has been described above. In Tibet prominent people were also invited to participate. The most notable case was the appointment of the Panchan Lama as a state councillor of the National Government. Other high officials of Tibetan birth include Messrs. Kung-chueh-chung-ni and Lo-sang-chien-tsan, members of the Central Executive Committee, Silon Anchin, member of the Control Yuan, Lo-sang-chia-hsi, Ah-wang-chien-tsan, Hsi-jao-chia-tso, Ting-chieh, members of the People's Political Council. Among those who take part in other political organizations are Messrs. Lo Yu-jen, member of the Legislative Yuan, Tse Chueh-lin, member of the Control Yuan, Tu-tan-tsan-lieh, Chu Hai-shan, members of the Commission

on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs. A large number of Tibetans are serving in various branches of the Government and in the army, navy and air forces.

(e) **PROTECTION OF MONASTERIES AND ECCLESIASTICS.**—The Central Government observes the traditional practice of maintaining the ecclesiastical caste and respecting its leaders in the political administration of Tibet. The Government welcomes them, confers titles on them, rewards and gives them pensions. Since the outbreak of the war, the high ecclesiastic leaders of Tibet treated by the Government include Tse-chueh-lin Hutukhtu, Ting-chieh, Sheng-lu, Kampo Lo-sang-hsi-jao, etc. In recent years, titles have been conferred on the following ecclesiastic leaders, namely, Tan-Chu Hutukhtu receiving the title of "Fu Chiao Pu Chueh Shan Shih" in 1937, Tse-chueh-lin Hutukhtu receiving the title of "Fu Chiao Pu Hui Shan Shih" in 1938, Sheng-lu Hutukhtu receiving the title of "Pu Shan Fa Shih" in 1941. Among those who were commended by the Government, the most notable case is the giving of donations for the funerals of the late 13th Dalai Lama and the Panchan Lama. The Min-chu Hutukhtu, who died in Chungking in 1938, was likewise commended by the National Government and given a funeral donation. "Huo-Fu" Pa-an-se-ang-wu was recommended for official laudation by the Commission upon his death in 1942 in his native country.

For the protection of the Buddhist monasteries and maintaining the livelihood of ecclesiastics, the Government has taken the following measures: (1) Tibetan temples and monasteries, irrespective of their localities, are to receive due protection as officially announced by the Government; (2) the

Mongolian and Tibetan ecclesiastic castes are exempted from military service; (3) monthly rice allowances are given to the Wutai Shan Monastery in Shansi and Kwang-fa Monastery in Szechuen. The three great monasteries in Tibet have been receiving periodic government donations since 1940; and (4) the Government makes numerous grants for the repairing of old monasteries and the building of new ones. The allocation of a large sum of money amid wartime financial difficulties is enough to indicate the consideration of the Government towards the protection of Buddhism and the ecclesiastic caste in Tibet.

2. **Education and Culture.**—Traditionally, education in Tibet is carried out in the monasteries and temples. The following measures for the promotion of education are adopted by the Government:

(a) **SENDING OF BUDDHIST PRIESTS TO STUDY IN TIBET.**—The various monasteries and temples in Tibet are the centres of learning. There are few places in the world which can be compared with these Tibetan monasteries in the study of Buddhism. For the promotion of Buddhist culture and to promote better understanding of the actual conditions of China's resistance against the aggressors, Chinese monks are encouraged to go to Tibet to study in the monasteries. Regulations were promulgated by the Government for their sending. Starting from 1937 two Chinese monks were sent annually to study in Tibet and were financially supported by the Government. The regulations were amended in 1942 whereby the number of monks to be sent was increased to four.

(b) **EXTENSION OF SOCIAL EDUCATION.**—Confined by geographical environment, most of the Tibetans are

to be sent to school in the interior, instructed each of the wealthy Mongolian leagues to establish at least one primary school in the year 1939. Even the poorer leagues should do the same by the end of 1940. Those leagues which carried out the government orders would be rewarded. In 1939, with the collaboration of the Ministry of Education, a middle school was established in the Ikh Chao league to educate the refugee students. The Political Training Corps on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs was expanded and up to the summer of 1942, 130 graduates have been sent to work in the frontier regions. Good results of their work have been reported.

(b) **PROMOTION OF SOCIAL EDUCATION IN THE FRONTIER REGIONS.**—The Commission has spared no effort in the eradication of illiteracy in the frontier regions. The various research groups stationed in different localities in the frontiers were given instruction to push forth social education with such activities as the establishment of small public libraries, the showing of educational movies and lantern slides, the organization of mobile teaching units, and the publishing of various kind of papers and books in the Mongolian, Tibetan and Muslim languages. Recently, upon the request of the Commission, the Ministry of Education established a social education centre in the Ikh Chao league. Aiming at the elevation of the cultural level of the frontier region and giving its people a true picture of the interior provinces, the compilation office of the Commission issued a regular monthly in which were published government notices and orders, world affairs, etc. Special pamphlets containing the speeches and writings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen and Generalissimo

Chiang Kai-shek, rudiments of modern sciences and sanitation literature were also published. An annual fund of \$17,280 is allotted to support 11 private cultural institutions to encourage their study of frontier conditions.

6. **Public Health.**—(Owing to the poor sanitary conditions and the lack of medical knowledge of the Mongolian people, plagues and epidemics are not infrequent, resulting in the increase of death rate in recent years. For this reason, the Commission has requested the National Health Administration to establish a number of medical centres and mobile clinical units in various localities in Chahar and Suiyuan.

The invasion of Suiyuan by the Japanese forced the removal of the hospitals to Lanchow and all the mobile medical units to Kansu and Ninghsia with the results that the Mongolian patients had nowhere to secure medical aid. Recently, upon the request of the Commission, the National Health Administration has removed the hospitals back with the addition of six mobile medical units to be stationed in the regions of the Ulan Chap and Ikh Chao leagues. Instructions have also been given to the various banners to provide every convenience to the medical staff. The National Health Administration has also enrolled a number of Mongolian students graduated from secondary schools to study in various medical schools and colleges in the interior. These students are expected to serve their own homeland after their graduation. The Commission, with the collaboration of the provincial health organs of Ninghsia and Chinghai, has also planned to start a wide campaign for the teaching of the rudiments of

medicine and sanitation in the frontier regions.

7. **Relief.**—Since the outbreak of the war, the Mongolians have suffered heavy losses of property and have been forced to evacuate from their natural habitation. Moreover, droughts and animal epidemics, frequently prevailing in the country, served to bring the people to a desperate state. On any such occasion, prompt relief was given by the Commission, through the National Relief Commission. Mongolian leagues which have received help from the Government in the past include the various banners of the Ikh Chao league, the Oclot front and rear banners, etc. The T'ai people scattered in the Ikh Chao region and the Mongolians living along the Tunhuang corridor have also been relieved on many occasions. The total number of people relieved amounts to over 100,000.

Political Administration of Tibet:

1. **Religion and Politics.**—Because religions belief is a component factor in the formation of a people, the Kuomintang treats the diverse religious beliefs of the various peoples of China on a basis of equality. In the program drafted by the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee for the political administration of Tibet, the principle of respecting the various religious beliefs of the frontier people was taken as the basis of political administration.

Buddhism has had 1,500 years of history in China, and has exerted a great influence in Mongolia, Tibet, Sikang, and Chinghai both in the number of followers and in the degree of devotion. But Tibet is the only Buddhist region in China in which religion has not yet been divorced from politics. Hence the protection of

Buddhism go hand in hands with political administration in the plan adopted by the Commission for the reconstruction of Tibet.

The recent work of the Commission in this respect is briefly summarized as follows:

(a) **CELEBRATING THE ENTHRONEMENT OF THE NEW DALAI LAMA.**—Upon the death of the 13th Dalai Lama on December 7, 1933 in Lhasa, the government of Tibet was taken over by Reting Hutukhtu. As tradition goes in Tibet, the spirit of the deceased Dalai Lama would be incarnated in a person among the people, and the person would be sought to succeed the throne as the new Dalai Lama. In 1938, Reting Hutukhtu reported that a child endowed with unusual grace was found near the Ta-er monastery in Chinghai. Thereupon, the National Government officially announced the appointment of Mr. Wu Chung-hsin, Chairman of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, to assist Reting Hutukhtu in taking charge of the affairs concerning the rebirth of the 14th Dalai Lama. Early in 1939, the Chinghai Provincial Government was instructed to send a special envoy escorting the favoured child from Sining to Lhasa. In the same year, Mr. Kung Ching-tsung, director of the Department of Tibetan Affairs of the Commission went to Lhasa to make preparations for a pompous celebration. The solemn ceremony of enthronement of the 14th Dalai Lama took place in the charge of Chairman Wu Chung-hsin at Lhasa on February 22, 1940. In recognition of his merits in the administration of Tibet since the death of the 13th Dalai Lama, the National Government conferred upon Reting Hutukhtu the title of "Fu Kuo Pu Hua Shan Shih"

ignorant of world affairs and backward in their social education. Since the outbreak of the war, the necessity of promoting social education has been more acutely felt. Broadcasts on current events are given in the Tibetan language twice a week, and a public library was established in Lhasa. It was reported that the broadcasting was attracting a multitude of Tibetans, from officials down to the common people, to gather in front of the Commission's resident office in Lhasa where a receiving set had been installed. The library was likewise attended by many readers. The work of promoting social education was carried out by the various research groups stationed in Kansu, Chinghai, Sikang and in the border of Yunnan.

(c) **TEACHING OF THE NATIONAL DIALECT.**—In Lhasa the national primary school has been conducted in the national dialect. Two additional primary schools were recently established in Changtu and Kiangta, in which schools lessons would be taught in the national tongue. A number of language schools are to be established at Lhasa, Gyantsé, etc.

(d) **ENCOURAGING TIBETAN STUDENTS TO STUDY IN THE INTERIOR.**—Special privileges are given to the Tibetan students who come to the interior for higher education, according to the regulations promulgated by the Ministry of Education and the Commission. These students are entitled to enjoy certain conveniences in the schools and to study with government scholarships. In the national frontier schools the students are entirely supported by the Government.

3. **Relief.**—Owing to the poverty of the soil and frequent famines in recent times, the plight of the people of Tibet has been lamentable. In 1940,

the National Military Council allotted a large sum for the relief of famine-stricken refugees in Kuolo. The next year, upon the request of the Commission, a sum of money was given by the Executive Yuan to be distributed among the Kanchan refugees who drifted to Chinghai. In the autumn of 1942, a dreadful plague broke out in the Huangyuan region in Chinghai, causing the death of many people and live stock. Prompt relief was given by the Commission and a medical staff was speedily sent. Relief fund was also allotted to the inhabitants in Yatung in West Tibet who suffered heavy losses from a mountain flood.

4. *Improvement of Communications.*

The improvement of communications to facilitate the flow of commodities is necessary before it is possible to raise the living standard of the Tibetans. Some time ago, the Commission drafted a plan for the improvement of the old post road leading to Tibet, the establishment of additional post stations, and the sending of troops to protect the travelling merchants. The plan also suggested a reform of the local tax system aiming at reducing the burden of the people. The provincial governments of Chinghai and Sikang were also requested to take due measures according to the plan. However, owing to diverse conditions in the various provinces, the plan has not been successfully carried out. But in recent years there has been evident progress in the gradual realization of the plan. In 1939, according to the report submitted by the provincial government of Sikang, instructions were given to the provincial bureau of communications to establish an engineering office for the repair of post stations. Subsequently engineer-

ing corps were sent out for repair work, and troops were ordered to give due protection.

The collection of transportation and other dues were made in accordance with regulations of the Central Government abolishing illegal taxes. A plan was formulated for through transportation among the various farm stations. The construction of the highway from Kangting to Taofu was progressing rapidly.

According to a report from Chinghai, the provincial government there was planning to organize a Chinghai-Tibet Trading Company. Troops were sent to protect the various highways.

MONGOLIA AND TIBET AND THE WAR

Since the commencement of China's war of resistance against the Japanese aggressors, the people of China has risen to the call of their fatherland under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Although inhabiting in the remote frontier regions, the Mongolians and Tibetans are no less patriotic than their brethren in interior China. At the front, they have shown their bravery and loyalty to the nation by resisting the intimidation and inducement of the enemy. Those in the rear are doing their part by making financial contributions and participating in the work of defense and reconstruction. Their efforts in the war of resistance and national reconstruction are briefly described in the following:

Resistance Against the Enemy.

Since the fall of Paotow in Suiyuan and the subsequent invasion of the Ulan Chap and Tumet banners, the Mongolian Political Commission in Suiyuan has been disbanded. However, Yung Hsiang, chief of the Tumet

banner and concurrently secretary-general of the Mongolian Political Commission, in disregard of personal danger and difficulties, managed to escape southward with the seal and documents of the commission. Colonel Pai Hai-fung, leading a part of his peace preservation corps which was attached to the Mongolian Commission, also retreated to the rear. Chairman Sha of the commission, paying no heed to the intimidation of the enemy, flatly rejected their proposals and moved southward with his associates to reinstate the commission in the region of the Ikh Chao league. The patriotic spirit of the Mongolian amazons was demonstrated by Pa Yun-yin, wife of the Jassak of the Tung-kung banner of the Ulan Chap league and Chi Chun-feng of the Sikung banner, who led their troops to resist the enemy. The latter was appointed by the Central Government assistant Jassak of the Sikung banner in charge of military affairs. At the same time, Alinshih, banner chief of East Suiyuan, also came to the Ikh Chao league to help Chairman Sha in his work of defending the country. Their gallant efforts in the past few years have prevented the enemy from pushing southward. Up to the present, the territory of the Ikh Chao league is the only Mongolian country in Suiyuan that is free from enemy aggression and should be regarded as an important military base for the future restoration of the various Mongolian leagues and banners in Chahar, Jehol and Suiyuan.

Financial Contributions and Comforting Missions.

—Since the outbreak of the war of resistance, the Mongolians, in order to show their patriotism and loyalty to the nation, have sent representatives to Chungking to pay respect

to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and to comfort the soldiers fighting at the front. In 1939, Mongolian officials who came to Chungking include Prince Dalichaya, Jassak of the Alashan banner. Those came in 1940 include: Kang Chi-min, Jassak of the Dalata banner; Commander Chi Wen-ying of the Zongor banner; Kungkeselen, Jassak of the Oelot rear banner; and Chi Yu-shan, assistant Jassak of the Wushen banner. In 1941, Prince Tupushenchierkola, Jassak of the Chunwang banner and concurrently member of the Mongolian Political Commission and a direct descendant of Genghis Khan, came to Chungking specially to pay tribute to government leaders. He ranks highest among the Mongolian Jassaks and his expression of fidelity is of great significance. On his way north he paid tribute to the tomb of Huangti, forefather of the whole nation.

In Tibet, Reting Hutukhtu, the regent, pledged on many occasions his support to the war of resistance and prayed for victory of the national army. Memorial services for the dead soldiers were held in the Buddhist temples and monasteries. In 1939, a comfort mission organized by the people of Sikang and Tibet presented banners to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and commanders of the various war zones. A handsome offer of gold and silver was also made by the mission. In support of the Winter Clothes Campaign for the soldiers, the mission donated a large quantity of furs and wool for the making of garments for the soldiers. In 1940, another comfort mission organized by the staff of the headquarters of Panchan Lama and the people of Tibet, came to the wartime capital from Chinghai to present a banner to the Generalissimo

and contributed a sum of money to the troops then staying in Chungking.

GROWING INTEREST IN FRONTIER REGIONS

Since the removal of the National capital to Chungking, the importance of the frontier has attracted the keen attention of the people. High officials in various branches of the Central Government have visited the northwestern and southwestern parts of the frontier regions to see the actual conditions for future administrative reform and economic reconstruction. Since 1938, high officials of the Central Government who have visited the frontier regions in the Northwest include: Mr. Tai Chuan-hsien, President of the Examination Yuan; Dr. Sun Fo, President of the Legislative Yuan; Mr. Yu Yu-jen, President of the Control Yuan; Dr. Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Organization of the Kuomintang; Mr. Chen Li-fu, Minister of Education; Dr. Wong Wen-hao, Minister of Economic Affairs; Admiral Shen Hung-lich, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry; General Pai Chung-hsi, Vice Chief of Staff; and Mr. Wu Chung-hsin, Chairman of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs. In 1941, Mr. Wu Chung-hsin represented the Generalissimo in paying tribute to the tomb of Genghis Khan. In 1942, he accompanied the Generalissimo in flying to Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai and Sinkiang to inspect the party, military and government work of these provinces.

As to the provinces of the southwestern border, many high officials of the Government have paid visits. Most notable was the visit of Mr. Wu Chung-hsin, who went to Tibet to effect solutions of problems between the local government of Tibet and the

Central Government. Moreover, the visit of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to India in 1942 bore a great significance on the future relations between the frontier regions of China and their close neighbour, India.

In recent years, the growth of interest in studying the actual conditions of the frontier regions led to the organization of many investigation parties by various cultural institutions. To mention a few: the Sikang Scientific Investigation Party organized jointly by the Chinling, Fu Tan and Central universities in 1938; the Chuen-Kang Scientific Investigation Group organized by the Indemnity Funds Board and the Chuen-Kang Reconstruction Inspection Party organized by the People's Political Council in 1939; the Frontier Regions Service Corps organized by the Christian students in Chengtu during the summer vacation, and the Educational Inspection Party of the Southwestern and Northwestern Provinces sponsored by the Ministry of Education in 1940. In 1941 there were the Surveying Party of the Frontier Regions of Szechuen, Kansu, Chinghai and Sikang of the National Geological Survey, the Frontier Regions Inspection Party sponsored by the Institute of Natural Sciences of China, the Language Research Party organized by the Chinese Cultural Institute of the West China Union University, the Southwestern and Northwestern Cultural Inspection Party organized jointly by the *Academia Sinica* and the Central Museum, the Kang-Chang and the Ching-Kang Excursion Parties sponsored by the Executive Yuan, and the Northwestern Reconstruction Inspection Party organized by the Ministry of Communications. In 1942, there were the Northwestern Historical and

Geographical Inspection Party organized jointly by the *Academia Sinica* and the Institute of Geographical Research of China, and the Northwestern Industrial Inspection Party sponsored by the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The large number of investigation parties, both government and private, and their wide range of activities indicate the increasing interest of the Chinese people towards frontier problems in recent years. To satisfy the students, a special subject on frontier problems was added in 1939 by the Ministry of Education in the college curriculum as a divisional course in the study of Sociology.

The keen interest in frontier problems resulted in the establishment of many research institutions. Some of them, such as the New Asia Institute, the Institute of Frontier Affairs, and the Association for the Promotion of Islamic Culture, etc., had been established before the war and were removed westward with the Government. New establishments include the China Institute for the Promotion of Culture in the Frontier Regions, the China Institute of Frontier Research, the Institute of Frontier Study of China, and the Association of Frontier Reconstruction of China, etc. Many periodicals and bulletins are issued by these institutions. They may be classified as follows:

(a) Those concerning the political problems of the frontier regions are: the "Chinese Youth," the "Young China" and the "Spirit of the Era," etc.

(b) Those concerning academic studies of the frontier regions are: the Bulletin of the Chinese Cultural Institute of the West China Union University, the Chinling Journal of the Chinling University, the "Chih Lin Journal" of the Northeastern

University, the Journal of History and Geography of the Chekiang University, etc.

(c) Those concerning the general studies of the frontiers are: the "Voice of the Frontier," the "Study of Frontier Affairs," and articles in a special column of the Yi Shih Pao, etc.

(d) Those concerning the study of the frontier by regions include: the "Northeastern Monthly," the "Northeastern Forum," the "Northwestern Critic," the "Northwestern Resources," the "Muslim Community," the "New Northwest," the "New Ning-Yuan" (Ningsia and Shuiyuan), the "Southwestern Guide," the "Southwestern Industrial Correspondence," the "Sikang Guidance," the "Kang-Tsang Pioneer," etc.

(e) Those concerning specific studies of the frontiers include: the "Southwestern Frontier," published by the Institute for the Study of the Southwestern Frontier; the research series of the Chinling University, the "Frontier Study Correspondence," etc.

For securing a deeper understanding of the actual conditions of the frontier regions and for bringing about greater unity in the nation, Mr. Wu Chung-hsin, Chairman of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, organized the Chinese Association of Frontier Study with the cooperation of many experts and people interested in this

problem. A periodical named "Critic of Frontier Administration" is issued by the association, in which periodical topics concerning various aspects of the frontier are discussed by experts. The periodical also aims at formulating policies for the administration of the frontier regions, securing better understanding of the social background of frontier politics, and studying frontier peoples, geography and culture. In the autumn of 1942, the Commission also issued the "Monthly Correspondence of the Frontier Regions" to supply fuller information for political and academic circles.

On the whole, the five years of China's war of resistance has resulted in a stronger national conception among the frontier people and a deeper understanding among the people in the interior of the importance of the frontier regions. A closer unity was brought about by the visits of the frontier leaders to the interior, and the study by the people of the interior of frontier problems and their investigatory expeditions. Doubtless this new spirit of unity, cooperation and good-will will pave the way for the better reconstruction of the frontier regions, and the creation of an integral and modern China according to the ideals embodied in the principles of the Kuomintang.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

SHAO YU-LIN¹ (邵毓麟)

THE ATLANTIC CHARTER AND THE JOINT DECLARATION BY TWENTY-SIX NATIONS

China and the Atlantic Charter.—The principles as laid down in the joint declaration by President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill of August 14, 1941, known as the Atlantic Charter, being in harmony with China's aims of the war of resistance and her ideals of post-war reconstruction, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Dr. Quo Tai-chi, immediately issued a statement endorsing it. This statement reads as follows:

The Chinese Government and people whole-heartedly welcome and endorse the joint declaration of President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill on the fundamental aims of the democratic Powers in resistance to aggression, and the aspirations of all peaceful and freedom-loving peoples, including the people in the Axis countries themselves, for a real world order.

China feels all the more gratified in as much as the Eight-Point Program is essentially in harmony with the principles of the Kuomintang (Chinese Nationalist Party) and its founder's advocacy of a 'great commonwealth of nations.'

The post-war world reconstruction will constitute a task even more difficult than that of winning the war itself. Restoration of freedom

to the conquered peoples, full economic collaboration between all nations in the enjoyment of access, on equal terms, to trade and raw materials, in the advancement of living standards, and the establishment of a permanent system of general security will require the supreme efforts and resolute statesmanship of the democracies and their leaders.

In this task China is prepared to make full contribution just as she has, for the past four years, made untold sacrifices of her man-power and national resources toward the democratic cause and continues to play her essential part in the world-wide conflict.

China believes that the final destruction of the forces of aggression can be most swiftly achieved by first bringing about the defeat of Japan through tightening the 'encirclement' of which she herself is the sole architect.

China and the Joint Declaration by the 26 United Nations.—Twenty-six United Nations, including China, the United States, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. signed a joint declaration on January 1, 1942, pledging to prosecute the war against the Axis Powers to a successful conclusion by employing all their resources, military and economic, to cooperate fully and not to agree to any separate armistice or peace with the enemies. Foreign Minister Dr. T.

¹ Former Director, Information Department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

V. Soong, representing China as one of the four leading nations, signed the declaration at the White House. At a special press conference after the signing, the Waichiaopu spokesman said *inter alia* :

The Allied Declaration signed on the New Year's Day at Washington enjoys the whole-hearted support of the Chinese Government and people. China is gratified to see that the principles for which she has been striving for have bound together all the members of the anti-aggression bloc in their common struggle for liberty and peace. After the Declaration there will only be one war, one alliance and one peace in this world.

This is a war between the aggressors and those resisting aggression. This is an alliance between 26 or more nations against the Axis Powers. It will be a peace, everlasting and real. We may say now that the joint Roosevelt-Churchill declaration known as the Atlantic Charter has now become a World Charter.

We deeply feel that the task of the Chinese people is not only to liquidate the so-called Japan incident with the assistance and co-operation of all the friendly nations, but also to solve what may be described as the world incident.

SINO-BRITISH RELATIONS

Re-opening of the Burma Road.—The Burma Road was closed from July 17, 1940, for three months, thus the transportation of the sorely needed supplies was stopped. The agreement between Great Britain and Japan on this question was made with the understanding that, during the interval

of three months, an attempt should be made to reach a general settlement of Far Eastern questions. But Japan paid no heed to this provision. Instead, she moved troops into Indo-China in order to direct further attacks on China from that region and, far from adopting a more friendly attitude towards Great Britain, she ranged herself on the side of Great Britain's enemies, Germany and Italy, by the conclusion of the Tripartite Pact. One of the consequences was that the British Government, on the expiration of the agreement on October 18, 1940, re-opened the Burma Road. This action, marking as it did the turning point in Britain's Far Eastern policy, did much to soften the keen disappointment of the Chinese Government and people at the closing of the road and to pave the way for the two countries to fight shoulder to shoulder against their common foe.

Sino-British Currency Stabilization Fund Agreement.

—In addition to the conclusion of the Sino-American Currency Stabilization Fund Agreement with the United States Secretary of Treasury Morgenthau at Washington on April 25, 1941, Foreign Minister Dr. T. V. Soong signed the Sino-British Currency Stabilization Fund Agreement simultaneously with the representative of the British Ministry of Finance, Sir Phillips. The Agreement provided that the British Government was to grant the Chinese Government a loan of US\$20,000,000 to be used for the stabilization of Chinese currency, and that on the Currency Stabilization Fund Board to be formed at a later date, there should be a British member. This agreement was interpreted as another step forward towards strengthening the friendship and cooperation between the two

July 12th, 1941.

countries. In June of the same year, a credit loan of £5,000,000 was granted to China, and another loan of £50,000,000 was made for war purposes.

Exchange of Notes concerning Revision of Unequal Treaties.—Following the example of the American Government, the British Government formally informed the Chinese Government that when peace was restored in the Far East, the British Government would be ready to negotiate with the Government of China the abolition of the extraterritorial rights, the rendition of concessions and the revision of treaties on a basis of reciprocity and equality. Following are the texts of the notes exchanged between Foreign Minister Dr. Quo Tai-chi and the British Ambassador, Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, in July 1941 :

BRITISH EMBASSY,
Chungking
July 4th, 1941.

SIR,

On instruction from His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, I have the honour to inform Your Excellency that, when peace is restored in the Far East, His Majesty's Government will be ready to negotiate with the Government of China the abolition of extraterritorial rights, the rendition of concessions and the revision of treaties on a basis of reciprocity and equality.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) ARCHIBALD CLARK KERR.

His Excellency
Dr. Quo Tai-chi
Minister for Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

SIR,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of the 4th instant, informing me that, when peace is restored in the Far East, His Britannic Majesty's Government will be ready to negotiate with the Government of China the abolition of extraterritorial rights, the rendition of concessions and the revision of treaties on a basis of reciprocity and equality.

In reply, I have the honour to state that the Chinese Government highly appreciates this expression of friendship on the part of His Britannic Majesty's Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) QUO TAI-CHI.

His Excellency
Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, K.C.M.G.
His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador
Chungking.

Exchange of Notes concerning the British Policy in the Far East.—On the 9th July, 1941, Mr. Eden, the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, in reply to a question in the House of Commons, said that the recognition of the Nanking regime by the Axis Powers will make no difference to the British policy in the Far East, which was based on the recognition of the Chinese Government at Chungking as the legitimate government of China. The British Ambassador to China, Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, was instructed to communicate officially to the Foreign Minister, Dr. Quo Tai-chi, on the 16th of the same month, the British attitude on this matter.

The following are the notes ex-

changed between the British Ambassador and Dr. Quo Tai-chi, the Foreign Minister.

Sir Archibald Clark Kerr's note to the Minister for Foreign Affairs:

I have the honour to inform Your Excellency on instructions from His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs that, in reply to a question in the House of Commons on the 9th July, Mr. Eden stated that the recognition of the Nanking regime by the Axis Powers and their satellites will make no difference to British policy in the Far East, which was based on the recognition of the Chinese Government at Chungking as the legitimate National Government of China. Mr. Eden added that, on the 7th July, the Chinese people entered the fifth year of their indomitable resistance and he stated that he was happy to repeat the assurance he recently gave in the House of Commons that His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom would continue to do what they could to help China maintain her independence.

I am instructed to assure Your Excellency that this statement had the warmest support of all parties in Parliament.

The reply of the Foreign Minister, Dr. Quo Tai-chi, to the British Ambassador:

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's note of the 16th instant, stating that His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Eden, in reply to a question in the House of Commons on the 9th July, declared that the recognition of the Nanking regime

by the Axis Powers and their satellites will make no difference to British policy in the Far East, which was based on the recognition of the Chinese Government at Chungking as the legitimate National Government of China; and that Mr. Eden reiterated the assurance of the British Government that they would continue to do what they could to help China.

In reply, I have the honour to state that the Chinese Government greatly appreciates the above definite pronouncement and reassurance on the part of the British Government, which will strengthen the Chinese Government's determination to continue its resistance to aggression and further consolidate the ties of friendship subsisting between China and Great Britain.

Exchanges of Notes on Sino-Burmese Frontier Delimitation.—A question outstanding between China and Great Britain for more than 40 years was amicably settled on June 18, 1941, when Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Minister for Foreign Affairs, and Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, British Ambassador, effected an exchange of notes, definitely fixing the southern section of the Yunnan-Burma boundary.

It may be recalled that the boundary in question had remained undemarcated ever since the conclusion in 1897 of the Sino-British Treaty relating to Burma. In the latter part of 1933, the Lufang incident occurred and a Burmese party was believed to have been despatched there to explore the mines. Thereupon the *Waichiaopu* proposed the setting up of a Joint Boundary Commission to make investigations on the spot with a view to the definitive settlement of the boundary question. This proposal was

eventually accepted by the British Government. The Commission, which included a neutral member appointed by the Council of the League of Nations and acting as Chairman, made two trips to the border regions in the winters of 1935-36 and 1936-37, completing their task in April 1937. A report was afterwards submitted by the Commission to the respective Governments. During the subsequent years, negotiations were carried on between the *Waichiaopu* and the British Embassy in an amicable and conciliatory spirit, leading to the exchange of notes embodying a satisfactory solution of the question.

According to this agreement, the areas of Panghung, Yungkwang, Monghsaw and Hsimeng, together with the circles of Mongka, Kawn Long, Kawn Yong and Man Myen, which have been consistently claimed by China, are turned to her with a total area of approximately 2,000 square kilometres. On the other hand, the Chinese Government made certain concessions enabling Burma to administer a portion of the territory claimed by the British Government.

As for Lufang, it lies outside of the line defined by the Sino-British treaties as well as the so-called Liu-chen line, and, according to the neutral chairman's decision, should be within British territorial limits. But in view of the fact that the area had had intimate historical ties with China and that this was one of the reasons which prompted the Chinese proposal to demarcate the boundary, the Chinese Government suggested a scheme of joint Sino-British participation in the mining enterprises at Lufang. After lengthy discussions the British and Burmese Governments, as a gesture of goodwill, signified their

assent to this proposal. Separate notes were exchanged on this particular aspect of the question.

The following are the texts of the Exchanges of Notes:

WAICHIAOPU,
Chungking,
June 18th, 1941

SIR,

I have the honour to refer to the Notes exchanged between Your Excellency's predecessor and the then Minister for Foreign Affairs on the 9th April 1935 defining the terms of reference of a Boundary Commission to be charged with the investigation of the undemarcated southern section of the Yunnan-Burma frontier; and to the additional understanding embodied in further Notes exchanged upon the same day.

The Joint Boundary Commission having been duly established and having submitted its report to our respective governments in accordance with its terms of reference, the question of modifications of the general treaty line found by the Commission has since been under negotiation between the National Government of the Republic of China on the one hand and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of Burma (as the successor in interest of the Government of India) on the other, as provided in the additional understanding of the 9th April 1935.

I now have the honour to inform Your Excellency that the National Government of the Republic of China agrees that for the boundary line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement

between China and Great Britain, signed at Peking on the 4th February 1897, shall be substituted in the following:

"The line commences at the confluence of the Nam Hpa (Nam P'a Ho) with the Nam Ting (Nam Tin Ho), where Boundary Pillar No. 97 of the northern demarcated section is erected, and ascends the Nam Ting for a distance of about three miles to a point in the neighbourhood of the village of Pang Kwi where Cairn No. 1 was erected by the Sino-British Commission 1899-1900 on the left bank of the Nam Ting at the point where a spur strikes the river. The frontier then follows this spur generally in a southerly direction to Cairn No. 2, where the road from Hopang to Mengting crosses the spur, and thence to Cairn No. 3 on the summit of the hill known as Loi Hseng (1366). It then follows the watershed between the basin of the Nam Tap including the Nam Loi Hsa (which, also known as the Kung Meng Ho, is a tributary of the Nam Tap, joining it through or under a natural bridge) and the basins of the Namhka and the Nam Kun (Hei Ho) to hill 2360 (approximately longitude 98° 57' 14" and latitude 23° 21' 40"). Thence it descends the nearest tributary of the Nam Pan stream (Chin Ho) which has its source about half a mile west of hill 2303 and follows the Nam Pan stream to its confluence with the Nam Kunlong (approximately longitude 99° 0' 30" and latitude 23° 14' 48"). It then descends the Nam Kunlong to the point where that river is joined by a tributary on its left bank at approximately longitude 98° 59' 50" and latitude 23° 13' 20"; the line

then ascends that tributary to its source and continues southeastwards on to a ridge along which it proceeds to hill 1970 (approximately longitude 99° 3' 58" and latitude 23° 10' 42"); thence it proceeds southwards along the same ridge to hill 1770 (approximately longitude 99° 3' 27" and latitude 23° 7' 25"). The line then proceeds generally eastwards along the watershed between the basins of the Nam Kunlong and Nam Htung till it strikes the point on the Salween-Mekong watershed (approximately longitude 99° 10' and latitude 23° 6' 23") about a mile south of hill 2179. Thence it follows the Salween-Mekong watershed first generally in an easterly direction to a point just south of hill 2178 and then generally in a southerly direction over hill 2146 to hill 1930 (approximately longitude 99° 34' and latitude 22° 56'). Thence it proceeds first in a southwesterly, then westerly and finally northwesterly direction along the watershed between the basin of the Nam Ma and the basins of the Nam Hka Lam (Ku Hsing Ho) and the Nam Hka Hkao (Nan Hsiang Ho) to hill 1523 (approximately longitude 99° 26' 43" and latitude 22° 56' 43"); thence it descends the nearest tributary of the Nam Hka Hkao and follows that river down to approximately latitude 22° 50' 52", where it is joined by a tributary on its right bank. The line then ascends this tributary in a westerly and southwesterly direction to its source and crosses the ridge, of which hill 2180 (approximately longitude 99° 24' 38" and latitude 22° 48' 37") is the highest point, by the most direct route to the source of the nearest tributary of the Nam Sak and follows that stream down to

its confluence with the Nam Hse (approximately longitude 99° 18' 42" and latitude 22° 44' 18"); thence it descends the Nam Hse to its confluence with the Nam Hka (approximately longitude 99° 23' 20" and latitude 22° 35' 10") and thence it follows the Nam Hka river down stream to Boundary Pillar No. 1 of the southern demarcated section."

A copy of the Boundary Commission map with the line marked in red is appended.

I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will confirm that His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of Burma agree that the boundary line described above shall be substituted for the line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of article 3 of the Agreement between China and Britain signed at Peking on the 4th February 1897.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) WANG CHUNG-HUI

His Excellency
Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, K.C.M.G.,
His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

BRITISH EMBASSY,
Chungking,
June 18th, 1941.

SIR,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of today's date which reads as follows:

"I have the honour to refer to the Notes exchanged between Your Excellency's predecessor and the then Minister for Foreign Affairs on

the 9th April 1935 defining the terms of reference of a Boundary Commission to be charged with the investigation of the undemarcated southern section of the Yunnan-Burma frontier; and to the additional understanding embodied in further notes exchanged upon the same day.

"The Joint Boundary Commission have been duly established and having submitted its report to our respective governments in accordance with its terms of reference, the question of modifications of the general treaty line found by the Commission has since been under negotiation between the National Government of the Republic of China on the one hand and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of Burma (as the successor in interest of the Government of India) on the other, as provided in the additional understanding of the 9th April 1935.

"I now have the honour to inform Your Excellency that the National Government of the Republic of China agrees that for the boundary line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement between China and Great Britain, signed at Peking on the 4th February 1897, shall be substituted by the following:

"The line commences at the confluence of the Nam Hpa (Nan P'a Ho) with the Nam Ting (Nam Tin Ho), where Boundary Pillar No. 97 of the northern demarcated section is erected, and ascends the Nam Ting for a distance of about three miles to a point in the neighbourhood of the village of Pang Kwi

where Cairn No. 1 was erected by the Sino-British Commission 1899-1900 on the left bank of the Nam Ting at the point where a spur strikes the river. The frontier then follows this spur generally in a southerly direction to Cairn No. 2, where the road from Hopang to Mengting crosses the spur, and thence to Cairn No. 3 on the summit of the hill known as Loi Hseng (1366). It then follows the watershed between the basin of the Nam Tap including the Nam Loi Hsa (which, also known as the Kung Meng Ho, is a tributary of the Nam Tap, joining it through or under a natural bridge) and the basins of the Namhka and the Nam Kun (Hei Ho) to hill 2360 (approximately longitude 98° 57' 14" and latitude 23° 21' 40"). Thence it descends the nearest tributary of the Nam Pan stream (Chin Ho) which has its source about half a mile west of hill 2303 and follows the Nam Pan stream to its confluence with the Nam Kunlong (approximately longitude 99° 0' 30" and latitude 23° 14' 48"). It then descends the Nam Kunlong to the point where that river is joined by a tributary on its left bank at approximately longitude 98° 59' 50" and latitude 23° 13' 20"; the line then ascends that tributary to its source and continues south-eastwards on to a ridge along which it proceeds to hill 1970 (approximately longitude 99° 3' 58" and latitude 23° 10' 42"), thence it proceeds southwards along the same ridge to hill 1770 (approximately longitude 99° 3' 27" and latitude 23° 7' 25"). The line then proceeds generally eastwards along the watershed between the basins of the Nam Kunlong and the Nam Htung till it

strikes the point on the Salween-Mekong watershed (approximately longitude 99° 10' and latitude 23° 6' 23") about a mile south of hill 2179. Thence it follows the Salween-Mekong watershed first generally in a easterly direction to a point just south of hill 2178 and then generally in a southerly direction over hill 2146 to hill 1930 (approximately longitude 99° 34' and latitude 22° 56"). Thence it proceeds first in a southwesterly, then westerly and finally northwesterly direction along the watershed between the basin of the Nam Ma and the basins of the Nam Hka Lam (Ku Hsing Ho) and the Nam Hka Hkao (Nan Hsiang Ho) to hill 1523 (approximately longitude 99° 26' 43" and latitude 22° 56' 43"); thence it descends the nearest tributary of the Nam Hka Hkao and follows that river down to approximately latitude 22° 50' 52", where it is joined by a tributary on its right bank. The line then ascends this tributary in a westerly and southwesterly direction to its source and crosses the ridge, of which hill 2180 (approximately longitude 99° 24' 38" and latitude 22° 48' 37") is the highest point, by the most direct route to the source of the nearest tributary of the Nam Sak and follows that stream down to its confluence with the Nam Hse (approximately longitude 99° 18' 42" and latitude 22° 44' 18"); thence it descends the Nam Hse to its confluence with the Nam Hka (approximately longitude 99° 23' 20" and latitude 22° 25' 10") and thence it follows the Nam Hka river downstream to Boundary Pillar No. 1 of the southern demarcated section.'

"A copy of the Boundary Com-

mission map with the line marked in red is appended.

"I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will confirm that His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of Burma agree that the boundary line described above shall be substituted for the line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement between China and Great Britain signed at Peking on the 4th February 1897."

In reply I have the honour to confirm that His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on their own behalf and on behalf of the Government of Burma agree that the boundary line, as quoted above, shall be substituted for the line described in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 3 of the Agreement between China and Great Britain, signed at Peking on the 4th February 1897.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) ARCHIBALD CLARK KERR
His Excellency,
Dr. Wang Chung-hui,
Minister for Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

BRITISH EMBASSY,
Chungking,
June 18th, 1941.

SIR,

With reference to the Notes exchanged between us today regarding the determination of the southern section of the boundary between Burma and Yunnan, I am authorized by the Government of Burma to

inform Your Excellency's Government that the Government of Burma is willing as a gesture of goodwill to undertake to permit Chinese participation in any mining enterprises which may be undertaken by British concerns on the eastern slopes of the Lufang ridge provided that Chinese interests in these enterprises do not exceed 49% of the total of the capital of each enterprise.

The area in question is shown enclosed by a red line on the attached map and its boundaries are as follows:

A line commencing at the summit of hill 2304 running along the ridge to the hill of Lufang Camp (2025), thence along the ridge to Man Hsiang village, thence in a southeasterly direction down the ridge to join the Nam It stream, thence following the course of the Nam It upstream to its source below the peak of hill 2304, thence to the summit of hill 2304.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) ARCHIBALD CLARK KERR
His Excellency,
Dr. Wang Chung-hui,
Minister for Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

SIR,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date which reads as follows:

"With reference to the Notes exchanged between us today regarding the determination of the southern section of the boundary between Burma and Yunnan, I am authorized by the Government of

Burma to inform Your Excellency's Government that the Government of Burma is willing as a gesture of goodwill to undertake to permit Chinese participation in any mining enterprises which may be undertaken by British concerns on the eastern slopes of the Lufang ridge provided that Chinese interests in these enterprises do not exceed 49% of the total of the capital of each enterprise.

"The area in question is shown enclosed by a red line on the attached map and its boundaries are as follows:

"A line commencing at the summit of hill 2304 running along the ridge to the hill of Lufang Camp (2025), thence along the ridge to Man Hsiang village, thence in a south-easterly direction down the ridge to join the Nam It stream, thence following the course of the Nam It upstream to its source below the peak of hill 2304, thence to the summit of hill 2304."

I have the honour to request that you will convey to the Government of Burma the National Government's appreciation of this gesture of goodwill.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) WANG CHUNG-HUI.

His Excellency,
Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, K.C.M.G.,
His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

Anglo-American Economic Mission.
The Anglo-American Economic Mission, headed by Sir Otto Niemeyer of the Bank of England, was formed upon the invitation of the Chinese

Government. Originally it was proposed that the American and British Governments should send separate missions to China to assist in economic matters. But as there were already several American representatives in China in that capacity, so Mr. H. Merle Cochrane of the U. S. Treasury was sent to join the mission as one of its members. The mission arrived in Chungking on October 16, 1941. Aiming at the improvement of economic conditions in China as a whole and strengthening of her war effort, the mission sought to (1) bring about a rapid and thorough development of the latent forces of China's war economy; (2) make recommendations to the British and American Governments as to the most effective way of giving financial and economic assistance to China from the standpoint of her wartime needs; and (3) make recommendations to the Chinese Government as regards its post-war economic measures to be carried out with British and American cooperation. Sir Niemeyer returned to London on February 15, 1942 and, prior to his departure, he expressed the view that new Anglo-American loans to China would not only bring about the latter's financial stability, but would also ensure a more intimate cooperation among the A-B-C powers in furtherance of their common purpose to crush the aggressor nations.

Exchange of Notes re Chungking-Calcutta Air Service.—A proposal was made by the Chinese Government early in 1941 to operate an air service between Chungking and Calcutta, with a view to linking it with the British air service in the Far East. To carry out this proposal, the British Government agreed to afford China the facilities to operate forthwith an air

service carrying passengers, mail and freight between Chungking and Calcutta via Kunming, Lashio, Chittagong and/or via Kunming, Lashio, Rangoon and Chittagong. The Chinese Government agreed that, as long as the agreement was in force, the existing service between Kunming and Rangoon should be substantially maintained until a reciprocal service was established. After the outbreak of the Pacific war, the service between Chungking and Rangoon was suspended as from January 1942. An exchange of notes between the Chinese and British Governments covering this point was effected on March 27, 1942, the texts of which are as follows:

BRITISH EMBASSY,
Chungking
27th March, 1942

SIR,

I have the honour on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom to inform Your Excellency that they agree that the China National Aviation Corporation or other Chinese company to be approved by His Majesty's Government shall, subject to the arrangements provided for below, have the right to operate forthwith an air service carrying passengers, mail and freight between Chungking and Calcutta via Kunming, Lashio, Chittagong and/or via Kunming, Lashio, Rangoon and Chittagong.

It is understood that the Chinese Government agree that as long as the present agreement is in force the original service between Kunming and Rangoon, which has been recently suspended on account of the Pacific war, will be resumed when conditions permit later on and substantially maintained until a reciprocal service is established.

It is accordingly agreed that there shall be at present two departures from Lashio weekly flying direct to Calcutta with similar return journeys and that, when conditions permit later on, there shall be three departures from Lashio weekly, two aircraft flying direct to Chittagong and Calcutta with similar return journeys, but they always reserve the right of making alterations in the frequency of flights on giving three months' notice.

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom agree to waive for one year in the first instance, subject to withdrawal at three months' notice, all present restrictions on Chinese aircraft whether flying direct from Lashio to Calcutta or flying via Rangoon, except in so far as that the aircraft flying via Rangoon may carry traffic between India and Burma and *vice versa* only where such demands cannot be carried out by the British Overseas Airways Corporation's service; bookings for such traffic shall be dealt with by the British Overseas Airways Corporation's agents or first offered to them.

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom agree to permit the carriage by Chinese aircraft of mails across Burma in transit to places beyond Burma in either direction. Delivery of mails within Burma shall be governed by the orders of the Government of Burma issued from time to time.

In consideration for the above a British company (that term is understood as covering an Indian or Burmese company to be approved by the Chinese Government) shall in principle have permission to operate a service from Calcutta to

Kunming and *vice versa* over the same routes, and from Kunming on to Hongkong and Shanghai as soon as conditions permit. His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Chinese Government agree that the conditions in which the service carried out by the Chinese company is permitted to operate shall apply on a basis of complete reciprocity to the service which it is agreed in principle shall be operated by a British company.

This agreement shall remain in force until the date on which the agreement signed between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Chinese Government on January 24th 1939 is terminated, subject however to the right of either Government to give three months' notice in writing to the other government of their intention to terminate. Nothing in the present agreement shall affect the validity of the agreement signed between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Chinese Government on January 24th 1939 save that the rights conferred on the China National Aviation Corporation or any other Chinese company to operate a service from Kunming to Calcutta or Rangoon, or *vice versa*, under clause (2) thereof shall remain in abeyance during the currency of the present agreement. In the event of the present agreement being terminated under this clause before the expiry of the said agreement of January 24th 1939 the latter agreement shall then resume full force and effect according to the provisions thereof.

I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will be so good as to confirm that the arrangements

defined above are equally acceptable to the Chinese Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) H. J. SEYMOUR

His Excellency
Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek
President of the Executive Yuan
Concurrently Acting Minister of
Foreign Affairs
Chungking.

WAICHIANGFU,
Chungking,
27th March, 1942.

EXCELLENCY,

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's note of today's date which reads as follows:

"I have the honour on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom to inform Your Excellency that they agree that the China National Aviation Corporation or other Chinese company to be approved by His Majesty's Government shall, subject to the arrangements provided for below, have the right to operate forthwith an air service carrying passengers, mail and freight between Chungking and Calcutta *via* Kunming, Lashio, Chittagong and/or *via* Kunming Lashio, Rangoon and Chittagong.

"It is understood that the Chinese Government agree that as long as the present agreement is in force the original service between Kunming and Rangoon, which has been recently suspended on account of the Pacific war, will be resumed when conditions permit later on and substantially maintained until a reciprocal service is established. It is accordingly agreed that there

shall be at present two departures from Lashio weekly flying direct to Calcutta with similar return journeys and that, when conditions permit later on, there shall be three departures from Lashio weekly, two aircraft flying direct to Chittagong and Calcutta with similar return journeys, but they always reserve the right of making alterations in the frequency of flights on giving three months' notice.

"His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom agree to waive for one year in the first instance, subject to withdrawal at three months' notice, all cabotage restrictions on Chinese aircraft whether flying direct from Lashio to Calcutta or flying *via* Rangoon, except in so far as that the aircraft flying *via* Rangoon may carry traffic between India and Burma and *vice versa* only where such demands cannot be carried out by the British Overseas Airways Corporation's service; bookings for such traffic shall be dealt with by the British Overseas Airways Corporation's agents or first offered to them.

"His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom agree to permit the carriage by Chinese aircraft of mails across Burma in transit to places beyond Burma in either direction. Delivery of mails within Burma shall be governed by the orders of the Government of Burma issued from time to time.

"In consideration for the above a British company (that term is understood as covering an Indian or Burmese company to be approved by the Chinese Government) shall in principle have permission to operate a service from Calcutta to Kunming and *vice versa* over the

same routes, and from Kunming on to Hongkong and Shanghai as soon as conditions permit. His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Chinese Government agree that the conditions in which the service carried out by the Chinese company is permitted to operate shall apply on a basis of complete reciprocity to the service which it is agreed in principle shall be operated by a British company.

"This agreement shall remain in force until the date on which the agreement signed between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Chinese Government on January 24th 1939 is terminated, subject however to the right of either Government to give three months' notice in writing to the other government of their intention to terminate. Nothing in the present agreement signed between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Chinese Government on January 24th 1939 save that the rights conferred on the China National Aviation Corporation or any other Chinese company to operate a service from Kunming to Calcutta or Rangoon, or *vice versa*, under clause (2) thereof shall remain in abeyance during the currency of the present agreement. In the event of the present agreement being terminated under this clause before the expiry of the said agreement of January 24th 1939 the latter agreement shall then resume full force and effect according to the provisions thereof.

"I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will be so good as to confirm that the arrangements defined above are equally acceptable to the Chinese Government."

In reply I have the honour to confirm that the arrangements defined above are equally acceptable to the Chinese Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) CHIANG KAI-SHEK

His Excellency

Sir Horace James Seymour,

K.C.M.G., C.V.O.,

His Britannic Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

Sino-British Agreement Regarding Chinese Seamen.

On the basis of the principles of equality of treatment for Chinese and British seamen and uniformity of terms governing the employment of Chinese seamen by British concerns, the Chinese and British Governments concluded an agreement designed to better the conditions of Chinese seamen serving on British ships. The agreement was signed at London on April 24, 1942 by Dr. Willington Koo, representative of the Chinese Government, and the British Minister of War Transport. The text of the agreement reads as follows:

The National Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland desiring to conclude an agreement regarding the terms and conditions of the employment of Chinese seamen on British ocean going ships in accordance with the principles of equality of treatment with British seamen and of uniformity as between different companies employing Chinese rating as far as these principles can be applied in present circumstances have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The Government of the United Kingdom undertake that British shipping companies will offer on terms agreed between the parties concerned as set out in the annexed heads of agreement to all Chinese seamen originally engaged in Asia and now still serving in British ocean going ships who are prepared to give loyal services and continuous employment until they can be repatriated to their home port.

ARTICLE 2. The Chinese Government desirous of seeing Chinese seamen continue to accept employment on ocean going ships owned or controlled by the owner or nominated by the Minister of War Transport and thus to contribute their services to the Allied cause will consider and endeavour to secure adoption of measures best suited to achieve this purpose.

ARTICLE 3. The Contracting Parties agree that the contracts concluded between the British shipping companies or managers of ships nominated by the Minister of War Transport and the Chinese seamen shall be open to inspection by the Chinese Consular Authorities at the mercantile marine offices.

ARTICLE 4. Any dispute between the British shipping companies and the Chinese seamen in their employ shall, if necessary, be referred for settlement to the Chinese diplomatic representative in the United Kingdom and the Minister of War Transport or their representatives and shall not be allowed to stop the sailing of the ship.

In witness whereof the undersigned duly authorized thereto by their respective countries have signed the present agreement.

Done in London in duplicate on the 24th day April 1942.

The heads of agreement among the representatives of the Chinese Government, of Chinese seamen, of the British Government (Ministry of War Transport) and of British ship owners employing Chinese crews may be summarized as the following: (1) increase of basic wage, (2) payment of war risk money, (3) provision for bonus, (4) extra pay for service after expiry of contract, (5) rules governing leave, (6) payment for overtime work, (7) payment of back wage and tea money, (8) date of operation of the agreement, (9) modified application of the agreement to crews already obtaining higher rates under special arrangement, and (10) provision for the discussion of further questions.

British Parliamentary Goodwill Mission.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued the following statement on September 10, 1942:

The British Government, in response to the invitation from Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, has decided to send a goodwill mission to China in the near future. With the intention of representing the British Parliament as a whole, the Mission is composed of four members of both the House of Lords and the House of Commons. In the Mission the three major parties in Parliament, the Conservative, the Liberal and the Labour Parties, are all represented. It is the first mission of its kind ever sent to China by the world's oldest Parliament. China welcomes the forthcoming visit.

The four members of the Mission are Captain Lord Ailwyn, B.N., Lord Teviot, D.S.O., M.C., representing the House of Lords, and Captain Scrymgeour Wedderburn, M.P. and Mr. J.

J. Lawson, M.P., representing the House of Commons. It is expected that the Mission will leave for China at about the end of September.

The Mission arrived in Chungking on November 10, and left for England on December 10. During their one month's visit to China, the members were extended a most cordial welcome and were given an opportunity of coming into contact with the Chinese people in various parts of the country and of seeing the different aspects of China's war effort. To quote the statement of Lord Ailwyn, the head of the Mission, their purposes were (1) to tell the Chinese people about British war effort, and (2) using their stay in China to see everything they could of the valiant spirit of the Chinese people who for over five years have been fighting single-handedly against the aggressor. These they have no doubt accomplished. The relations between China and Great Britain have grown closer since they became comrades-in-arms, and the visit of this Mission has further strengthened the mutual understanding and solidarity between the two nations.

On February 6, 1943, three days after their return to London, the Mission issued the following joint statement:

We return home with the happiest recollections of our visit to China. No nation could have honoured their guests with greater consideration and kindness. We wish to express our gratitude to the Generalissimo and Government of China for their invitation to us as representatives of both Houses of Parliament.

We spent a month¹ in China, travelling vast distances by air and through the provinces of Szechuen,

Shensi and Yunnan. In the cities of Chungking, Sian, Chengtu, Kunming, as well as in the countryside around, a great welcome was extended to us by all classes and sections of the Chinese people. We were entertained by the President of the Republic, by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, with whom we have had several discussions while we were in Chungking, by various Ministers in the Government, by the Governors of three provinces which we visited and by many public bodies and institutions.

We had the unprecedented honour of attending the session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and of addressing them. We visited schools, universities, hospitals, war orphanages, factories, arsenals, cultural associations, youth corps, military and air force academies, the Central Political Institute of the Kuomintang, a number of industrial co-operative enterprises, a coal mine, the irrigation system, newspaper offices and many other political, industrial and military institutions.

We saw many units of the Army and we had the privilege of visiting the troops in the Yellow River area of operations. We also saw a demonstration by the Chinese air force. We were greatly impressed by the spirit of the Chinese people. We saw no sign of war-weariness. Everywhere there is a cheerful acceptance of the privations and dangers which they have withstood for so long.

The leadership of the Generalissimo, who is looked on by the people as a symbol of resistance to the invader, has created the strongest

sense of unity and patriotism.

We had many interviews with people representative of every shade of opinion in politics, industry and education. We found a warm feeling of friendship for the people and institutions of Great Britain. We believe our two nations are bound to be more closely connected in the future and we can see many ways in which we can help each other and the rest of the world to maintain peace and advance prosperity.

SINO-AMERICAN RELATIONS

Lauchlin Currie's Mission.—At the invitation of the Chinese Government, Mr. Lauchlin Currie, Administrative Assistant to President Roosevelt, was sent to China in January 1941 to secure first-hand information about her economic conditions. Accompanied by Mr. Emile Despres, senior economist in the Division of Research and Statistics of the Board of Governors of the American Federal Reserve System, he arrived in Chungking on February 7, bearing personal greetings from President Roosevelt to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Besides conferring with the Generalissimo, they held personal consultations with the Government officials on various economic subjects. They returned to Washington on December 27, after the completion of their mission, and visited China again in the autumn of 1942 to study the questions arising from the operation of the Lend-Lease Bill. These visits were successful and proved to be of benefit to both countries.

Sino-American Currency Stabilization Loan Agreement.—Foreign Minister Dr. T. V. Soong, representing the Chinese Government, and Secretary

of the Treasury, Mr. Henry Morgenthau, representing the United States Government, signed on April 25, 1941, an agreement for the purchase of Chinese yuan by the United States stabilization fund to the amount of US\$50,000,000. After the conclusion of the agreement, they issued the following statement:

Another important step has been taken in the field of monetary co-operation between the United States and China by the signing of a stabilization agreement involving the purchase of Chinese yuan by the United States stabilization fund to the amount of US\$50,000,000. The agreement provides under the conditions acceptable to both parties for the establishment by China of a United States stabilization fund. Included in the funds and resources will be the dollars acquired from the United States through the purchase of Chinese yuan and a further sum of US\$20,000,000 to be contributed by the Chinese government banks.

This is the cooperative agreement between the friendly nations that are working together in many ways to preserve basic freedoms. Apart from the obvious purpose of stabilizing the relationship between the currencies concerned, it will be an important factor in fostering the welfare of the participating countries.

China has also entered into an agreement with the British Treasury, under which 5,000,000 pounds sterling is provided for currency stabilization, in addition to the existing British stabilization fund which was set up in 1939. This agreement closely parallels the agreement between the United States and China.

These stabilization funds will be managed by a five-man board which China is creating. The board will consist of three Chinese and one American, appointed by China on the recommendation of the United States Secretary of the Treasury.

Exchange of Notes regarding American Foreign Policy in the Far East.

While there has not been any deviation from the fundamental principles and policies which the United States so consistently and faithfully observed in the past, particularly with regard to the Far East and the Pacific, Dr. Quo Tai-chi on his way to Chungking from London to assume his new post as Minister of Foreign Affairs, took the opportunity to visit America and made contacts with American government leaders and leaders of American public opinion. An exchange of notes was effected as a result of an understanding arrived at with the Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull. Following are the texts of these notes:

CHINESE EMBASSY
Washington
May 26, 1941

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY,

I am shortly to depart from the United States for China and wish to send you a word of farewell and of thanks for the cordial hospitality extended to me during my brief stay in Washington.

It was very gratifying to me to receive in person during our conversations the extended account which you were so good as to give me of the attitude and policy of the United States in regard to problems, both economic and political, which are of concern to the whole world, and especially to your Government and mine, in this unhappy period of disturbance, violence and distress.

With the general principles of the foreign policy of the United States, which were set forth in your public statement of July 16, 1937, I have long been familiar. I could, therefore, readily appreciate the importance which, as you indicated in our conversations, your Government attaches to the principles of world order under law and of equality of treatment among nations, and to the general recognition of the need for freer international trade and for broader cultural exchange. My Government shares the desire and the hope of your Government that there may be brought about by processes of agreement conditions in world affairs in which those principles will be universally accepted and applied.

You will recall that on August 12, 1937, there was sent to you a communication from my Government endorsing the principles enumerated in your statement of July 16, 1937, and stating that China's policy was therefore in full harmony with the views of the Government of the United States. Such was the position of China then, and such is its position now.

My country has for nearly four years been fighting in self-defence. During this period the Government and people of the United States have shown great friendship and sympathy for the Government and people of China. The Chinese Government and people deeply appreciate the attitude, the policy, and the action of the Government of the United States. We feel, moreover, that our attitude, objectives and policies are constantly evolving along lines more and more completely

in harmony with those of the United States.

My people are traditionally believers in nondiscrimination in international commercial relations and in the broad principles of cooperation and fair-dealing among nations which are implicit in the faithful observance of international agreements and the adjustment of problems in international relations by processes of peaceful negotiation and agreement freely arrived at. We believe in and subscribe to the principles of equality of commercial opportunity and nondiscriminatory treatment. Our Government gave clear indication of this nearly a century ago when there were being negotiated the first treaties between China and Occidental countries.

Upon restoration of peace, the Chinese Government desires and expects to seek and to effect the fullest application of these principles in its own economy and in its political and economic relations with other countries.

With many pleasant recollections of my visit to Washington, and with my kindest personal regards, I am, my dear Mr. Secretary,

Yours sincerely,

(Signed) QUO TAI-CHI

Honourable Cordell Hull,
Secretary of State.

May 31, 1941

MY DEAR MR. MINISTER,

I acknowledge the receipt of and thank you for your letter of May 26 1941 in regard to your visit to Washington and to our conversations during your short sojourn here.

We greatly enjoyed your visit.

It is very gratifying to receive in your letter *re* affirmation of the

endorsement by the Chinese Government and people of the general and fundamental principles which this Government is convinced constitute the only practical foundation for an international order wherein independent nations may cooperate freely with each other and to their mutual benefit.

As you know, the program in which the Government and people of the United States put their trust is based upon and revolves about the principles of equality of treatment among nations. This principle comprehends equality in international relations in a judicial sense, nondiscrimination and equality of opportunity in commercial relations, and reciprocal interchange in the field of cultural developments. Implicit in this principle is respect by each nation for the rights of other nations, performance by each nation of established obligations, alteration of agreements between nations by processes not of force but of orderly and free negotiations, and fair dealing in international economic relations essential to peaceful development of national life and the mutually profitable growth of international trade. One of the purposes of this program is to effect the removal of economic and other maladjustments which tend to lead to political conflicts.

As you are also aware, the Government and people of the United States have long had a profound interest in the welfare and progress of China. It goes without saying that the Government of the United States, in continuation of steps already taken toward meeting China's aspirations for readjustment of anomalies in its international rela-

tions, expects when conditions of peace again prevail to move rapidly, by processes of orderly negotiation and agreement with the Chinese Government, toward relinquishment of the last of certain rights of a special character which this country, together with other countries, has long possessed in China by virtue of agreements providing for extra-territorial jurisdiction and related practices.

This Government welcomes and encourages every advance made by lawful and orderly processes by any country toward conditions of peace, security, stability, justice and general welfare. The assurances given in Your Excellency's letter under acknowledgment of China's support of the principle of equality of treatment and nondiscrimination in economic relations should have wholesome effect both during the present period of world conflict and when hostilities shall have ceased.

The Government of the United States is dedicated to support of the principles in which the people of this country believe. Without reservation, we are confident that the cause to which we are committed along with China and other countries—the cause of national security, of fair dealing among nations and of peace with justice—will prevail.

With kindest regards and best wishes, I am, my dear Mr. Minister,
Yours sincerely,

(Signed) CORDELL HULL
Honourable Quo Tai-chi,
Washington.

Application of the Lend-Lease Bill to China.—President Roosevelt signed on March 11, 1941 the Lend-Lease Bill to aid the democracies after the House

of Representatives had finally passed the measure by 317 to 71 votes. He told the press conference on April 18 that specific aid in materials to China under the Bill had been authorized, and he revealed that allocations were being made from time to time. Dr. Launchlin Currie, the President's special representative, interviewed by the *Central News* representative after the conference, said that the machinery for giving aid to China under the Lend-Lease Bill arrangement was working smoothly. Efforts were made to rush materials to China he added. China's list was continuing to be analyzed and allocations would go through the same procedure as British war needs were being handled. On April 29, the China Defense Supplies Corporation was established in Washington, with Dr. T. V. Soong as the chairman of its board of directors. The corporation serves as contact organ between China and the United States responsible for the application of the Lend-Lease Bill to China.

In his report to the Congress on September 15, 1941, as regards the execution of the Lend-Lease Bill, President Roosevelt stated that the main task involved in the sending of materials to China and Great Britain was to improve, extend and safeguard the transport for war supplies and that trucks carrying these supplies on Chinese highways had been on the increase during the past months.

The Magruder Mission.—In connection with the carrying out of the purposes of the Lend-Lease program, President Roosevelt announced on August 26, 1941 that a military mission would be sent to China, with Major-General Magruder as its head. He indicated that it was being organized and would operate under the

direction of the Secretary of War and that its function would be to study, in collaboration with the Chinese and other authorities, the military situation in China and Chinese needs for materials and also to formulate recommendations regarding the types, quantities and items needed, to assist in the procurement in the United States and for delivery to China of such materials, to instruct in the use and maintenance of the articles thus procured, and to give advice and suggestions of an appropriate character toward making the Lend-Lease assistance to China as effective as possible not only in the interest of the United States and China, but also in the interest of other United Nations who are fighting on the same front against conquest by force.

In answer to this announcement, the Chinese Government spokesman expressed hearty welcome to the proposed mission and stated that the decision by the American Government would no doubt bring about closer co-operation and strengthen the relations between China and the United States. The Mission arrived at Chungking in October 1941. Later, with the appointment of Lieutenant-General Joseph W. Stillwell as head of the Mission, Major-General Magruder was recalled.

American-Japanese Negotiations and China. During the spring and early summer of 1941, the Secretary and officers of the American State Department held informal, unofficial and exploratory conversations with the Japanese ambassador and his associates at Washington, in an endeavour to determine whether some basis could be found for working out a peaceful settlement of the general problems of the Pacific area. These conversations were disrupted, following the occupa-

tion of Indo-China by Japan; but under instructions of his government, the Japanese ambassador continued discussing with Mr. Hull the possibility of reaching an agreement on certain fundamental principles. To help reach an agreement, Admiral Nomura was given new instructions by his government from time to time. China had followed closely the developments of these talks, and statements were issued by both Generalissimo Chiang and Foreign Minister Quo reiterating China's stand *vis-a-vis* the Pacific situation. Ambassador Gauss called at the Waichiaopu on September 10 and, as instructed by Washington, informed Foreign Minister Quo that (1) the American-Japanese exploratory conversations had not achieved any material results on which further negotiations might be based; (2) the Government of the United States did not have the slightest intention of sacrificing any of its principles and policies; (3) prior to discussing any proposals or suggestions relating to China, the Chinese Government would be consulted in the first place; (4) the United States Government was not ready to consider the withdrawal of its economic and political pressure imposed upon Japan, unless the conditions giving rise to such pressure did not exist; and (5) in the progress of hostilities between the aggressor nations and those offering resistance, the latter could still get the Lend-Lease supplies from the United States and her moral and political support.

Chinese Military Mission to America.

A decision was made to send a military mission to Washington, after the assumption by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek of the title of Commander-in-Chief in the China front following the outbreak of the Pacific war. The

mission was formed in the early part of 1942 and arrived at Washington on April 12, with General Hsiung Shih-hui as its head. The purpose of the mission was to participate in the war council of the Allied chiefs-of-staff and to establish contacts and strengthen war efforts among the United Nations.

Sino-American Agreement on 500 Million Dollar Loan.—On February 2, 1942 President Roosevelt asked the Congress to approve a US\$500,000,000 loan to China. He said in his letter to Speaker Rayburn and Vice-President Wallace that the loan would increase the Chinese capacity to function with great military effectiveness in the common effort to end aggression. The bill was passed and sent to the Senate after a brief debate and voice vote on February 4, and was regarded as a financial counterpart of the Lend-Lease program covering war materials. The following is part of the text of the report which accompanied the unanimous approval of the loan:

From the beginning of the vicious onslaught in 1937 by Japanese armed forces upon China, the Chinese Government, the Chinese people and the Chinese armed forces have heroically and with great sacrifice resisted the ruthless invasion. Areas which Japan succeeded in occupying have not been yielded until after the Chinese people have with unbelievable sacrifice and fortitude stripped them of materials that might be of value to the enemy. China, cut off from communications with the outside world except by long and difficult routes, deprived of its great industrial, commercial and shipping centres and denied the greater part of its normal sources of revenue, is continuing after almost five years' valiant fight against aggression.

fourthly, to prevent hoarding of foods and other materials; fifthly, to improve the means of transportation and communications; sixthly, to effect further social and economic measures to promote the welfare of the Chinese people; and seventhly, to meet military needs other than those supplied under the Lend-Lease Act and take other appropriate measures in its war effort authorized by their respective governments for that purpose, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The Secretary of the United States agrees to establish forthwith on the books of the State's Treasury one credit in the name of the Republic of China in the amount of five hundred million United States Dollars. The Secretary shall make transfers from this credit in such amounts and at such times as the Government of the Republic of China shall request through its Minister of Finance to an account or accounts in the Federal Reserve Bank of New York in the name of the Republic of China or any agencies designated by the Minister of Finance. Such transfers may be requested by and such accounts at the Federal Reserve Bank of New York may be drawn upon by the Government of the Republic of China either directly or through such persons or agencies as the Minister of Finance shall authorize.

ARTICLE 2. The financial determination of terms upon which this financial aid is given including the benefits to be rendered the United States in return is deferred by the two contracting parties until the progress of events after the war makes clear what financial terms and benefits will be in the mutual interest of the United States and China and

will promote the establishment of lasting world peace and security. In determining the final terms and benefits, full cognizance shall be given the desirability of maintaining one healthy and stable economic and financial situation in China during the post-war period as well as during the war and the desirability of promoting mutually advantageous economic and financial relations between the United States and China and the betterment of world-wide economic and financial relations.

ARTICLE 3. This agreement shall take effect as from this day's date. Signed and sealed at Washington, District of Columbia, in duplicate, this twenty-first day of March, 1942. On behalf of the United States of America, (signed), Henry Morgenthau, Secretary of Treasury. On behalf of the Republic of China, T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Sino-American Agreement on Mutual Aid in Prosecution of War Against Aggression.—For prosecution of the present war against aggression, an agreement was made between the Government of the United States and the Government of the Republic of China on the principle for mutual aid. The agreement was signed by Foreign Minister, Dr. T. V. Soong, on behalf of China and Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull, on behalf of the United States on June 2, 1942, the text of which reads as follows:

Whereas the Governments of the United States and China declare that they are engaged in the co-operative undertaking, together with every other nation or people of like mind, to the end of laying the basis of a just and enduring world peace

and securing order under law to themselves and all nations; and

Whereas the Governments of the United States and China, as signatories of the Declaration of the United Nations of January 1st 1942, have subscribed to the common program of purpose and principle embodied in the joint declaration made on August 14th, 1941 by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland known as the Atlantic Charter; and

Whereas the President of the United States of America has determined, pursuant to the Act of Congress, March 11th, 1941, that the defence of the Republic of China against aggression is vital to the defence of the United States of America; and

Whereas the United States of America has extended and is continuing to extend to the Republic of China aid in resisting aggression; and

Whereas it is expedient that the final determination of terms and condition upon which the Government of China receive such aid and of the benefit to be received by the United States of America in return therefor should be deferred until the progress of events makes it clearer that the final terms and condition and benefit will be in the mutual interest of the United States and China and will promote the establishment and maintenance of world peace; and

Whereas the Governments of the United States and China are mutually desirous of concluding a new preliminary agreement in regard to the provision of defence aid and in

regard to certain consideration which shall be taken into account in determining such terms and condition; and

Whereas the making of such an agreement has been in all respects duly authorized, and all acts, conditions and formalities which it may have been necessary to perform, fulfil or execute prior to the making of such an agreement in conformity with the law either of the United States of America or of China, have been performed or fulfilled or executed as required, the undersigned, being duly authorized by their respective Governments for that purpose, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The Government of the United States of America will continue to supply the Government of China with such defence article, or defence service and defence information, as the President of the United States of America shall authorized to be transferred or provided.

ARTICLE 2. The Government of China will continue to contribute to the defence of the United States, and the strengthening thereof, and will provide such article, service, facilities or information as it may be in a position to supply.

ARTICLE 3. The Government of China will not, without the consent of the President of the United States of America, transfer title to, or possession of any defence article or defence information transferred to it under the Act of March 11th, 1941, of the Congress of the United States of America or permit the use thereof by any one not an officer or employee or agent of the Government of China.

ARTICLE 4. If, as a result of

The tenacity of the Chinese in this battle for their national existence has won the untinted praise of free peoples everywhere.

The country which attacked China in 1937 attacked the United States in 1941. That country and its partners in world crime declared war on the United States. This country thereupon declared war on them. China also declared war on them. Today the United States and China are actively engaged, along with other countries that have been attacked by aggressor nations, as comrades in arms fighting for the same great purpose against common enemies. In the declaration of January 1, 1942, by the United Nations, the United States and China and their associates took a common pledge to cooperate fully to the end that war against Japan and its partners should be successfully carried on to victory.

In essence, this measure of financial assistance is intended to contribute to the same strengthening within China of the structure of economic, financial and production measures that is being found necessary within the United States for the pursuit and winning of the war.

The long, historic association—cultural, educational and economic—which has thrived between the United States and China since the early days of our republics is now further amalgamated in one common war effort. This measure will be a further manifestation of the unity of purpose, the tenacity of faith and the determination of the free nations that are united in the defense of freedom.

The Senate unanimously approved the loan on February 5, and it took

only one minute to pass the bill. President Roosevelt signed it on the 12th, making immediately available an appropriation of US\$100,000,000 to provide aid for China. To a telegram informing him of the granting of the 500 million dollar loan, Generalissimo wired his reply as follows:

A few days ago I arrived in Delhi and while here received your most welcoming telegram informing me of the granting of US\$500,000,000 loan to China. I feel most grateful for your having accepted my suggestion *in toto* and with no conditions attached to the loan. On behalf of the Chinese army and people, I wish to convey and through you to the Senate and the House of Representatives as well as the American people our deep gratitude for this timely assistance.

For four and half years our people have gone through untold panic and privations. The credit you have just secured for China will not only ameliorate her economic situation but will also heighten the morale of her people in the present struggle. The loan and supplies which we have received from you in the past enabled China to continue the war of resistance to the present time and fight side by side with our Allies. Through your timely assistance and support, inspiration and encouragement have been given all the peoples who are fighting for freedom; in a word they have benefited the whole anti-aggression front. Your farsightedness in this world's greatest crisis is deservedly the envy of all real statesmen.

Apart from military needs the money will be used principally for strengthening all the economic structure, redemption of legal tender

notes, control of issue of currency notes, stabilization of prices of commodities and wartime standard of living and increase of production. I will give you a detailed report after my return to Chungking.

The following is the text of the joint statement made by Secretary of Treasury Henry Morgenthau and Dr. T. V. Soong:

The United States of America and the Republic of China have today entered into an agreement giving effect to the Act of Congress unanimously passed by the Senate and House of Representatives authorizing \$500,000,000 of financial aid to China. The agreement has been approved by President Roosevelt and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and signed by Secretary Morgenthau on behalf of the United States and Dr. T. V. Soong on behalf of China.

This financial aid will contribute substantially toward facilitating the great efforts of the Chinese people and their Government to meet the financial and economic burdens which have been imposed upon them by almost five years of continuous attack by Japan.

This agreement is one concrete manifestation of the desire and determination of the United States to aid China in our common battle.

The financial determination of terms upon which this \$500,000,000 financial aid given China, including the benefits to be rendered the United States in return, is deferred until progress of events after the war makes clearer the final terms and benefits which will be in the mutual interest of the United States and China and will promote the

establishment of a lasting world peace and security.

TEXT OF AGREEMENT

Whereas the United States of America and the Republic of China are engaged together with other nations and peoples of like mind in one cooperative understanding against common enemies toward the end of laying the basis for a just and enduring world peace and securing order under law for themselves and all nations, and whereas the United States and China are signatories of the declaration of the United Nations on January 1, 1942 which declares that each government pledges itself to employ its full resources military or economic against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such governments are at war; and whereas the Congress of the United States in unanimously passing Public Law Number 402 has declared that financial and economic aid to China will increase China's ability to oppose forces of aggression and that the defence of China is of the greatest possible importance and has authorized the Secretary of Treasury of the United States with the approval of the President to give financial aid to China, and whereas such financial aid will enable China to strengthen greatly its war efforts against common enemies by helping China first to strengthen its currency, monetary and banking systems; secondly, to finance and promote increased production, acquisition and distribution of necessary goods; thirdly, to retard the rise of prices and promote the stability of the economic relationship and otherwise check inflation;

transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of any defence article or defence information, it becomes necessary for that Government to take any action or make any payment in order fully to protect any right of the citizen of the United States who has patent right in and to any such defence article or information, the Government of China will take up such action or make such payment, when requested to do so by the President of the United States of America.

ARTICLE 5. The Government of the Republic of China will return to the United States of America at the end of the present emergency, as determined by the President of the United States of America, such defence article transferred under this agreement, as shall not have had been destroyed, lost or consumed, and, as shall be determined by the President, to be useful in the defence of the United States of America or the Western Hemisphere, or to be otherwise of use to the United States of America.

ARTICLE 6. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided to the United States of America by the Government of the Republic of China, full cognizance shall be taken of all property, services, information, facilities or other benefits or consideration provided by the Government of the Republic of China, subsequent to March 11th 1941 and accepted or acknowledged by the President on behalf of the United States of America.

ARTICLE 7. In the determination of the benefits to be provided after conferring with the United States of America by the Government of

the Republic of China in return for the aid furnished under the Act of Congress March 11th, 1941, the terms and conditions thereof shall be such as not to burden the commerce between the two countries, but to promote mutually advantageous economic relations between them and the betterment of world-wide economic relations. To that end, they shall include agreed action by the United States of America and the Republic of China, open to participation by all other countries of like mind, directed to the expansion by appropriate international and domestic measures of the production, and employment and the exchange and consumption of goods which are the material foundation of the liberty and welfare of all peoples, to the elimination of all forms of discriminatory treatment in international commerce, to the reduction of tariffs and other trade barriers, and, in general, to the attainment of economic objectives identical with those set forth in the joint declaration made on August 14th, 1941 by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

At an early convenient date, conversations shall be begun between the two Governments with a view to determining, in the light of governing economic condition, the best means of attaining above stated objectives by their own agreed action and of seeking the agreed action of other like minded Governments.

ARTICLE 8. This agreement shall take effect as from this day's date. It shall continue in force until a date to be agreed on by the two Governments.

Sino-American Technical Cooperation.

—The United States Government, through its State Department, has rendered assistance in a number of ways to various foreign countries where American scientific, technical, social, educational, industrial and other experience was sought. Ambassador C. E. Gauss received instructions during the early part of 1942 to invite the Chinese Government to inform him of any immediate needs which it had for specialists or experts in particular fields, with a view to strengthening technical cooperation between these two nations. The Ambassador said in his interview with Political Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs Dr. Foo that a modest sum was available to undertake some possible measures of assistance on the part of the American Government. To the extent that the State Department could send such specialists to China, it would utilize the experience of persons, both Chinese and American, who had long been doing work in China in the various segments of their field of specialization. Under the present conditions, in order to be of maximum utility to the Chinese Government, as well as in the interest of transportation economy, the persons sent should remain for at least one year, according to the Ambassador. Arrangements have been made for sending 30 specialists or experts in such fields as medical science, public health, agriculture, engineering, education, vocational instruction, etc. Some of them are already in China, while others are either under preparation or on their way to Chungking.

Wendell Wilkie's Visit to China.

—Following the White House's announcement on August 24, 1942, of his trip to the Near East, the U.S.S.R. and

China as President Roosevelt's special representative, Mr. Wendell Wilkie told newsmen that when he first agreed to go abroad, the thing he most wanted to do was to go to China. Mr. Wilkie has been closely associated for many years with China's struggle, most recently as one of the heads of United China Relief. He said that he was very eager to meet the Chinese people and their great leaders. He arrived at the wartime capital on October 2nd and left China on the 9th. During his brief stay, he visited Chinese schools, factories and other wartime establishments. Not content with conferring with the leaders only, he visited the battlefields, spoke to the fighting forces and personally greeted people on the streets. The trip was an arduous one, spanning thousands of miles in a very short time. According to a spokesman of Washington, this trip had a twofold significance. It symbolized the fact that all American political factions were behind the war effort 100%, and the harmony among the various United Nations on the battle fronts. He carried this message of unity everywhere he went, and everywhere he received a most enthusiastic welcome by both the people and Government leaders. In his many speeches he emphasized the point that he believed that it was not alone by the exchange of diplomatic representations, the gathering of a few leaders around the conference table, that post-war freedom, security and liberty for all would be guaranteed. He believed that full understanding of one people by another, one nation by another, was needed to banish aggression and bloodshed. He has done no little in improving the already existing friendly relations between

China and the United States through this trip.

SINO-FRENCH RELATIONS

Statement re Landing of Japanese Troops in Indo-China. Reports emanating from various sources in August 1940 that Chinese troops had crossed the border and attacked units in Indo-China were categorically denied by Foreign Minister Dr. Wang Chung-hui. In a statement immediately issued, he said that the Chinese troops had always remained on Chinese territory and had received strict orders not to enter Indo-China as long as the Japanese did not take any measures of a military nature in the colony directed against China's southwestern provinces. In the event of the French Government permitting or conniving at any Japanese military operations in Indo-China directed against this country, the statement emphasized, the Chinese Government would consider this as a direct and immediate menace to China and might be constrained to adopt such measures as were necessary to and compatible with the security of the southwestern provinces. Concluding, the Foreign Minister declared that if the Chinese troops should be compelled, under such circumstances, to cross into Indo-China to cope with Japanese invasion, the Chinese Government would hold the French Government responsible for the consequences, including damages to lives and properties of Chinese nationals resident therein.

Destruction of the Hokow Bridge of the Indo-China-Yunnan Railway.

The spokesman of the Waichiaopu made the following statement on September 19, 1940, regarding the destruction by order of the Chinese authorities of the Hokow bridge of the Indo-

China-Yunnan Railway and Chinese assumption of control over the Hokow-Kunming section of the railway:

In view of the Japanese demand upon Indo-China for the right to make use of the territory as a base of operation for moving troops into China, the Chinese Government cannot but take such measures as it may deem necessary to deal with the situation. The destruction of the Hokow bridge is nothing but a measure of self-defence.

The Hokow-Kunming section of the railway lies completely within Chinese territory. It follows therefore that in case of emergency the Chinese Government is entitled to assume control of this section of the railway.

Furthermore, the assumption of such authority by the Chinese Government is based upon the Sino-French Railway Agreement of 1903, Article 24 of which provides that if China is engaged in war with a foreign country this railway shall not observe the rules of neutrality; but shall be placed at the entire disposal of China.

At present the military headquarters in the railway region are given the authority to control the operation of the Hokow-Kunming section of the railway but, so far, there has not been any change of railway personnel from the traffic manager downwards.

Franco-Japanese Agreement at Hanoi.—As a result of the Franco-Japanese negotiations conducted at Hanoi, an agreement was signed on September 22, 1940. The terms included (1) entrance of 6,000 Japanese troops by Haiphong for garrison purposes, and (2) the use of three airports in Tongkin including those at Phuto, about 12

miles northeast of Hanoi; Laokai on the Indo-China-Yunnan border along the Hanoi-Kunming railway and Phulangthuong 35 miles northeast of Hanoi. It was known, however, that the number of Japanese troops later brought into the territory far exceeded the 6,000 agreed to.

Following the signing of this agreement, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged a strong protest with the French authorities. The protest, after reasserting China's right to take such measures of self-defence as might be deemed necessary, declared that the French Government would be held responsible for all losses and consequences which might arise therefrom.

Indo-China-Japanese Alliance Pact.

In reply to the conclusion of the so-called Indo-China-Japanese Alliance Pact on July 25, 1941, Foreign Minister Dr. Quo Tai-chi issued a statement the following evening reading:

The Japanese Government has once again obtained by coercion from the French Government new military, naval and air bases in southern Indo-China. This fresh move marks an extension of Japan's movement of conquest in that country and a further step in her southward drive. Henceforth the entire area of Indo-China cannot but be regarded as virtually under the military occupation of Japan.

This development not only constitutes an increasing menace to China's southwestern border provinces but puts in jeopardy the rights, interests and possessions in West Pacific of all other powers. For this reason the matter is of as much concern to these Powers as it is to China.

The Chinese Government will, for its part, continue resolutely to

pursue its fixed policy of resistance to aggression and do what lies in its power to prevent Japan's adventure from becoming a success. And it is the firm belief of the Chinese Government and people that the other interested Powers will not allow unchecked this Japanese attempt to spread aggression until it may be too late or costly to stop it.

Clarifying China's position regarding the Japanese invasion of French Indo-China, the Waichiaopu spokesman stated at a press conference on July 26th that China would adopt the necessary measures for self-defence now that the whole of French Indo-China had become Japanese-occupied territory; and referring to Yosuke Matsuoka's pet phrase "eight corners under one roof," he said that the ominous shadow of Japan's political philosophy of world domination was being cast over the entire Pacific.

Taking over of Shanghai Second Special District Court by Japan.—On November 7, 1941 an agreement was made between the Shanghai French concession authorities and the Japanese-controlled puppet regime regarding the taking over of the Second Special District Court in the French Concession by the Japanese. A strong protest was lodged with the French Government by China, following which a statement was issued by the Waichiaopu declaring that any new court in place of the old was of no legal basis and that its decisions would be regarded as null and void.

SINO-SOVIET RELATIONS

The U.S.S.R. and the Anti-Communist Clause in Wang-Japan Treaty.—On November 31, 1940 after the conclusion by Japan with the puppet

organization at Nanking of what purported to be a treaty to facilitate the execution of her policy of domination and expansion in the Far East, Clause 3 of which treaty permitted the Japanese to retain troops for an indefinite period in North China and Inner Mongolia for anti-communist purposes, the Soviet Ambassador at Tokyo declared to the Japanese Government that the policy of the Soviet Union towards China remained unchanged. The declaration was interpreted as an effective reply to the anti-communist clause in the treaty between Japan and the Wang Ching-wei regime. Japan clearly demonstrated her anti-Soviet policy, though she attempted to explain that the clause in question was not directed against the Soviet Union.

Nor did the recognition by Japan of the puppet regime affect the attitude of the great Powers, including the U.S.S.R. In a previous pronouncement made by the Foreign Commissar, M. Molotov, on August 1st of the same year, he declared that, as regard the relations with the great nation of China, which was fighting for its existence, they were as ever good-neighbourly and friendly in accordance with the Soviet-Chinese non-aggression pact. This, of course, should be taken to mean that the Soviet Union would continue to recognize the Government established in Chungking as the National Government of China and not the Wang regime.

Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact.

The Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact was signed and a declaration issued on April 13, 1941, after a series of conversations conducted between M. Molotov and the Japanese Foreign Minister Matsuoka at Moscow, which provided for the mutual undertaking

to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the so-called "Mongolian People's Republic" and "Manchukuo," and which was claimed to have cleared the road for the settlement of the remaining issues between the U.S.S.R. and Japan, including the fishing conventions and the treaty of commerce. Foreign Minister Dr. Wang Chung-hui declared on behalf of the Chinese Government the following day that the neutrality pact in question violated the administrative and territorial integrity of China and was therefore regarded by the Chinese Government as devoid of all legality. His statement reads as follows:

At the time of the signature of the neutrality pact on April 13, the U. S. S. R. and Japan issued a joint declaration in which Japan undertook to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the so-called "People's Republic of Mongolia" and the Soviet Union undertook to respect the territorial integrity and inviolability of the so-called "Manchukuo."

It is an indisputable fact that the four Northeastern Provinces and Outer Mongolia are an integral part of the Republic of China and always remain Chinese territory.

The Chinese Government and people cannot recognize any engagements entered into between third parties which are derogatory to China's territorial and administrative integrity, and wishes to state that the Soviet-Japanese declaration just announced has no binding force whatsoever on China.

Assurances by the U.S.S.R.—In connection with the provisions of the Soviet-Japanese pact, assurances were given by the Soviet Foreign Affairs Commissar, M. Molotov, that these

provisions were stipulated for no other purpose than to ensure the security of the Soviet Union and that they had no bearing on her relations with China nor had they anything to do with the Sino-Japanese hostilities. A similar expression was made by the Soviet Ambassador to China, M. A. S. Paniushkin.

SINO-AXIS RELATIONS

Severance of Diplomatic Relations with Germany and Italy.—Recognition was accorded to the puppet organization at Nanking by Germany and Italy on July 1, 1941, with a view to strengthening their relations with Japan. In conformity with a declaration made on November 31, 1940, the following official statement was issued by Foreign Minister Dr. Quo Tai-chi, severing diplomatic relations with these two countries:

The recognition of the puppet regime at Nanking by the German and Italian Governments amounts to the extension of their aggressive policy to the Far East and proves beyond doubt that these countries have unreservedly cast in their lots with China's enemy. Knowing as they do that the Nanking puppet regime is but a creature of the Japanese militarists, the Nazi Government of Germany and the Fascist Government of Italy, in according recognition thereto, have committed a gross injustice to China and have thereby forfeited any claim to the friendship of the Chinese Government and people.

The step thus taken by these Axis Powers has made it abundantly clear that the forces of aggression have been further consolidated into one bloc bent on the destruction of human freedom and civilization.

It is, however, gratifying to note that these evil forces are being heroically and resolutely opposed and resisted by a group of Powers who, having steadily increased in number and in strength, are ever closer by their love of peace and freedom in face of the common menace. China is proud of her record and role in this anti-aggressor crusade. Despite unprecedented difficulties, China has consistently observed good-faith in all her international dealings. China is determined to continue the struggle in close cooperation with her friends till our common cause is vindicated.

In pursuance of the official declarations repeatedly made on previous occasions, the Chinese Government now declares that China's diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy are hereby severed.

Severance of Diplomatic Relations with Denmark and Rumania.—Presumably under the pressure of the Nazi and Fascist governments, Rumania and Denmark officially recognized the puppet regime at Nanking and that of the four Northeastern Provinces. The Chinese Government severed diplomatic relations with Rumania on July 8, 1941. On August 20th, it severed its diplomatic relations with Denmark and issued the following statement through the Waichiaopu:

Following in the footsteps and presumably under the pressure of Germany and her partners, Denmark has recognized the puppet regimes in Nanking and the four Northeastern Provinces. In taking this unjustified step, Denmark has not, it is highly to be regretted, hesitated to forfeit her friendship of long standing with China. The Chinese Government, in line with its fixed

policy, hereby declares that the diplomatic relations between this country and Denmark are forthwith severed.

Declaration of War on Japan, Germany and Italy.—Japan's duplicity in attacking the United States and Great Britain on December 7, 1941, without warning or declaration of war while diplomatic conversations were still going on in Washington, was no surprise to those who knew that Japan would not be deterred by considerations of morality to gain any advantage over her opponents. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, presiding over a meeting of leading government officials, fully discussed the situation arising from this treacherous attack and act of international brigandage. Now that the aggressor nations had banded themselves together into a solid *bloc*, it was only natural that the anti-aggression nations should also form a united front. With this end in view, a decision was reached to declare war against Germany and Italy as well as against Japan. The formal declaration of war against Japan made on December 9th contained the following:

Japan's national policy has always aimed at the domination of Asia and the mastery of the Pacific. For more than four years China has resolutely resisted Japan's aggression, regardless of suffering and sacrifice, in order not only to maintain her national independence and freedom but also to uphold international law and justice and to promote world peace and human happiness.

China is a peace-loving nation. In taking up arms in self-defence, China entertained the hope that Japan might yet realize the futility

of her plan of conquest. Throughout the struggle all the other Powers have shown the utmost forbearance, likewise in the hope that Japan might one day repent and mend her ways in the interest of peace in the entire Pacific region.

Unfortunately, Japan's aggressive propensities have proved to be incorrigible. After her long and fruitless attempt to conquer China, Japan, far from showing any sign of penitence, has treacherously launched an attack on China's friends, the United States of America and Great Britain, thus extending the theatre of her aggressive activities and making herself the arch-enemy of justice and world peace. This latest act of aggression on the part of Japan lays bare her insatiable ambition and has created a situation which no nation that believes in international good faith and human decency can tolerate.

The Chinese Government hereby formally declares war on Japan. The Chinese Government further declares that all treaties, conventions, agreements and contracts concerning the relations between China and Japan are and remain null and void.

Another statement was issued to the effect that, as from mid-night December 9th, 1941, a state of war existed between China and Germany and between China and Italy, which reads as follows:

Since the conclusion of the Tripartite Pact of September 1940, Germany, Italy and Japan have unmistakably banded themselves into a *bloc* of aggressor States working closely together to carry out their common program of world conquest and domination. To de-

monstrate their solidarity, Germany and Italy successively accorded recognition to Japan's puppet regimes in Northeast China and at Nanking. As a consequence, China severed her diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy last July.

Now, the Axis Powers have extended the theatre of their aggressive activities and thrown the whole Pacific region into turmoil, making themselves then enemy of international justice and world civilization. This state of affairs can no longer be tolerated by the Chinese Government and people.

The Chinese Government hereby declares that as from midnight, December 9, 1941, a state of war exists between China and Germany and between China and Italy. The Chinese Government further declares that all treaties, conventions, agreements and contracts concerning the relations between China and Germany and between China and Italy are and remain null and void.

Disposition of Enemy Nationals and Property.—Measures relating to the disposition of enemy nationals and property have been enforced in two successive stages. Prior to the recognition of the puppet regime at Nanking by Germany and Italy, there were reported to be residing in Free China 746 enemy nationals, including 389 Germans and 357 Italians, scattered in Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Kwangtung, Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Yunnan, Szechuen, Kiangsi and Sikang. Since China's severance of diplomatic relations with these Axis Powers as from July 1941, they were under protection and surveillance in accordance with international practice, with the exception that a more lenient attitude was

adopted in respect of the missionaries. After the declaration of war on Germany and Italy on December 9, 1941, regulations relating to the disposition of enemy nationals and enemy property were promulgated by the Waichiaopu in collaboration with the various organizations concerned. These regulations were promulgated by the National Government on January 1, 1942. Other regulations governing the supervision and registration of enemy nationals and the changing of their living quarters; rules relating to the supervision of the localities designated for their residence; regulations relating to the assignment of residence to, and the protection and surveillance of, missionaries of enemy nationality; regulations governing the registration, control and liquidation of enemy property and regulations governing the organization of a commission on disposition of enemy property were drafted by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in collaboration with the organizations concerned, and have become effective since January 11, 1942, following their promulgation by the Executive Yuan.

EXCHANGE OF DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATIVES, & RECOGNITION OF NEW GOVERNMENTS

Exchange of Diplomatic Missions with Australia.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued on May 13, 1941 the following communiqué regarding the exchange of diplomatic missions between China and Australia:

The Chinese Government and the Australian Government have decided to accredit diplomatic representatives to each other. The Chinese Government will soon send

a Minister Plenipotentiary to Cambodia, while the Australian Government will appoint a similar envoy to reside in Chungking.

For Geographical and economic reasons, China and Australia should have long ago entered into diplomatic relations, and in view of the present situation in the Pacific, it is imperative for the two countries to exchange diplomatic missions. It is confidently believed that henceforth the friendly relations between China and Australia will be greatly strengthened.

Dr. Hsu Mo, the Political Vice-Minister of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, was soon named as China's first Minister to Australia, while Sir Frederic William Eggleston was appointed the first Australian Minister to China.

Exchange of Diplomatic Missions with Canada. In view of the increasingly important relations between China and Canada, it was announced by the Chinese Foreign Office on August 29, 1941 that the two countries had agreed to exchange diplomatic missions. Hitherto there had been only Chinese consulates in Ottawa and Vancouver. The British Ambassador, Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, expressed in his note to Foreign Minister Dr. Quo Tai-chi the hope and belief that the establishment of the Canadian Legation would promote the maintenance and development of cordial relations not only between China and Canada but also between China and the whole of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Dr. Quo stated in his reply that the Chinese Government shared the sentiments expressed in the Ambassador's note.

Dr. Liu Shih-hsun, former director of the department of European affairs

of the Waichiaopu, was appointed China's first Minister Plenipotentiary to Canada, and Major-General Odium was named the first Canadian Minister to China. This establishment of diplomatic representations, following so closely the exchange of diplomatic missions between China and Australia, marks the ever increasing cooperation between China and the British Dominions.

Establishment of Legation at Cairo.

The position of Egypt has become increasingly important since the outbreak of European War II. With a view to improving the friendly relations with the Near Eastern countries, negotiations were conducted between the Chinese and Egyptian Governments for the exchange of diplomatic missions. The Egyptian Government agreed in March 1942 with the Chinese Government on the establishment of a Chinese legation at Cairo. First secretary Dr. Tong Wu was named *chargé des affaires* of the legation, who left for Cairo in July together with his colleagues, pending the appointment of China's first Minister to Egypt.

Establishment of Legation in Iran.

It was in November 1941 that the Government of Iran agreed to the proposal for the establishment of a Chinese legation at Teheran. Diplomatic relations between China and Iran entered a new phase with the appointment by the Executive Yuan on May 5, 1942 of Mr. Li Tieh-tseng, senior secretary of the Waichiaopu, as the first Minister to Iran.

Historically speaking, Sino-Iranian relations are of long standing. Commercial intercourse between these two countries may be traced to the time of the Romans. The introduction of Zoroastrianism and Nestorianism into

China has long become a kind of spiritual bridge between China and Iran. A Sino-Iranian treaty of amity was signed in June 1920. Since China and Iran have become nations bound together by their determination to fight against aggression, and since Teheran occupies an important position in the line of communications among the United Nations, it is hoped that the establishment of diplomatic relations with Iran will bring about more cordial relations between the two countries.

Exchange of Diplomatic Missions between China and the Vatican.

The Chinese Government has always desired to establish diplomatic relations with the Vatican, but it was not until March 1942 that the Holy See agreed to exchange envoys with China after the negotiations between Foreign Minister Dr. T. V. Soong and the Nuncio at Washington. Mr. Hsieh Shou-kang was appointed first Minister of China to the Vatican.

Erection of a Commissioner's Office at New Delhi.

At the suggestion of the Chinese Government, the British Government and the Government of India agreed to an exchange of representatives between China and India early in March 1942. These representatives are called commissioners, following the precedence of the United States. Mr. Shen Shih-hua was appointed China's first Commissioner to India and the Government of India sent Sir Zafrulla Khan to Chungking as its first Commissioner to China. This arrangement marks the first formal political contact between the two countries, despite the long cultural intercourse between them.

Resumption of Diplomatic Relations between China and Poland.

ing the resumption of diplomatic relations between China and Poland, the following announcement was made by the Waichiaopu on February 23, 1942:

As a result of recent negotiations between Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to London, and the Polish Government there, the two Governments will resume diplomatic relations and exchange diplomatic representatives in the near future. The Polish Government also formally announced the withdrawal of their recognition of the puppet state of "Manchukuo." In a note to Ambassador Koo, the Polish Foreign Minister advised that a state of war had existed between Poland and Japan since December 11, 1941, and that the Polish Government had withdrawn the recognition it extended to "Manchukuo" in 1938. The Polish Government warmly welcomed the exchange of diplomatic representatives between the two countries. In another letter the Polish Foreign Minister conveyed on behalf of the Polish Government respect for China's successful war against aggression as well as gratification at the early resumption of diplomatic relations between China and Poland.

The Chinese Government, needless to say, welcomed the resumption of diplomatic relations and exchange of diplomatic representatives between China and Poland no less than the Polish Government. Shortly after the resumption of diplomatic relations, the Chinese Government named Mr. Wanz King, Chinese Ambassador to the Netherlands, concurrently Chinese *Chargé d'Affaires* accredited to the

Polish Government in London. The Polish Government also appointed Mr. Drohojowsky, Counsellor of the Polish Embassy in Washington, as Counsellor of the Polish Embassy in China and concurrently Chargé d'Affaires pending the appointment of a new envoy, following the agreement between China and Poland made in June to elevate the rank of their respective diplomatic representatives to that of an ambassador.

Recognition of the Belgian, Dutch and Czechoslovakian New Governments. After the governments of Belgium, Netherlands and Czechoslovakia were installed in London, instructions were given early in May 1941 to Mr. Wunz King to proceed to London to resume his duties as Minister to Holland and concurrently Chargé des Affaires to Belgium. Instructions were given him again in September of the same year to act concurrently as Chargé des Affaires to Czechoslovakia.

Appointment of Concurrent Ministers to Central and South American Countries.—With a view to strengthening friendly relations with the Central and South American countries, the Chinese Government named Dr. Tu Yun-tan, Chinese Minister to Panama, to act concurrently as Minister to Costa Rica and Dr. Li Ti-tsun, China's Minister to Cuba, to act concurrently as Minister to Venezuela.

CONCLUSION OF NEW TREATIES

Exchanges of Ratifications with the Dominican Republic and Cuba. Shortly after the conclusion of the Sino-Dominican Treaty of Amity, Dr. Li Ti-tsun, Chinese Minister to Cuba, exchanged ratifications with the Domi-

nican Minister at Havana on December 9, 1941. The Sino-Liberian Treaty of Amity was ratified at Lisbon on October 16, 1941. The texts of both treaties were made public by the Chinese Government on January 19, 1942.

Conclusion of Treaty of Amity between China and Iran. Dr. Chang Peng-chun, Chinese Minister to Turkey, was appointed the representative of China to sign the Sino-Iraq Treaty of Amity with the Government of Iraq. This treaty was signed at Baghdad, on March 16, 1942. Messages of greetings were exchanged between Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and Prime Minister Nuri Assaid on the occasion of the signing of the treaty, expressing the conviction that the good relations between the two countries would henceforth be further strengthened. The treaty was ratified by the Iraq Parliament on May 27, 1942, and by the Legislative Yuan on June 16, 1942.

Conclusion of Treaty of Amity between China and Cuba. The Sino-Cuban Treaty of Amity was signed on November 12, 1942 at the Cuban Chancellery, and a joint statement was subsequently issued by the Cuban Minister of State and the Chinese Minister T. T. Li. The following is the text of the statement:

A treaty of amity between China and Cuba was concluded today at the Cuban Chancellery. The instrument was signed in representation of the Republic of Cuba by Dr. Jose A. Martinez, Minister of State, and on behalf of the Republic of China by Dr. T. T. Li, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Republic of China to Cuba.

The agreement is based on prin-

ciples of equality and mutual respect of sovereignty, and is calculated to strengthen the friendly relations which has always existed between the two Republics. The pact places on a concrete basis the bounds of sympathy which have traditionally united the two peoples since the days of the Cuban War of Independence, when large numbers of Chinese fought shoulder to shoulder with Cuban liberators.

This treaty puts on record the firm determination of both parties to work in close friendly collaboration for the establishment and maintenance of world peace, based on principles of justice and for the promotion of economic prosperity of both peoples. Each of the contracting parties further agrees to give reciprocally to the nationals of the other, treatment of equality which befits two important members of the United Nations fighting for the defence of common ideals, and which shall also collaborate in future for the establishment of the democratic regime in all countries of the world.

ABOLITION OF UNEQUAL TREATIES AND CONCLUSION OF NEW TREATIES

The U.S. State Department took a historic step on October 10, 1942, the 31st anniversary of the birth of the Chinese Republic by announcing its readiness to negotiate with the Chinese Government, in full accord and simultaneously with Great Britain, for the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China. The full text of the State Department's announcement follows:

On October 9th, 1942 the Acting Secretary of State informed the

Chinese Ambassador in Washington that the Government of the United States is prepared promptly to negotiate with the Chinese Government a treaty providing for the immediate relinquishment of this country's extraterritorial rights in China, and for settlement of related questions, and that the Government of the United States expects in the near future to present to the Chinese Government for its consideration a draft treaty which would accomplish the purpose mentioned.

The Government of the United States has, during the past several weeks, exchanged views with the British Government in regard to this general question and the Government of the United States is gratified to know that the British Government shares this Government's views and is taking similar action.

The British Foreign Office announced on the same occasion that His Majesty's Government communicated to the Chinese Chargé d'Affaires in London its intention to open discussion with the Chinese Government on the draft treaty for the immediate relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China. The announcement was made simultaneously with that made by Washington, the text of which is as follows:

His Majesty's Government declared in public pronouncements on January 14, 1939, July 18, 1940 and June 11, 1941 that they were prepared at the conclusion of hostilities in the Far East to negotiate with the Chinese Government for abrogation of extraterritorial rights and privileges hitherto enjoyed by their nationals in China. Similar pro-

announcements have been made by the United States Government with whom His Majesty's Government have been in consultation. In order to emphasize their friendship and solidarity with their Chinese allies, His Majesty's Government now decided to proceed further in the matter at once. Accordingly the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in communication to the Chinese Chargé d'Affaires in London on October 9 said that His Majesty's Government would in the near future open discussions with the Chinese Government and present for their consideration a draft treaty for immediate relinquishment of extraterritorial rights and privileges in China and settlement of questions intimately connected therewith. His Majesty's Government recently had been engaged in exchange of views with the United States Government on this question. They have been pleased to learn that a similar communication was made by the United States Government on the same day to the Chinese Ambassador in Washington and that the two governments found it possible to take similar action in this important matter which occasioned lively satisfaction in London.

Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Secretary-General of the Supreme National Defense Council, issued on the same day the following statement:

The Chinese people welcome with great enthusiasm the announcement by the American and British Governments of their readiness to negotiate with the Chinese Government for the immediate relinquishment of their extraterritorial rights in China

and for settlement of related questions. This opens a new chapter in the history of China's relations with Western countries, and will be hailed by all liberty-loving peoples as a concrete example of the United Nations' sincere efforts to create a new world order based upon freedom, justice and equality.

It may not be inappropriate to recall in this connection Dr. Sun Yat-sen's political testament to the Chinese people, enjoining them to strive for the abolition of unequal treaties. I therefore hope that the negotiations which are about to commence will cover all the remaining special rights, concessions, privileges, etc., that are incompatible with the principle of equality of states or the general principles of international law.

Following the example of the United States and Great Britain, the Prime Minister of Canada, Mr. Mackenzie King, announced on October 10th that Canada was prepared to negotiate a treaty with China, relinquishing extraterritorial and related rights enjoyed by her under the existing treaties between China and Great Britain. Other nations, taking similar action are New Zealand, Brazil, Norway, Holland and Belgium.

On October 24, 1942 the American Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull, handed a draft treaty to the Chinese Ambassador, Dr. Wei Tao-ming, and told the latter that the presentation of the draft of the proposed treaty was a step which the American Government has long desired to take—a step in conformity with, and in practical application of, the fundamental principles of the American foreign policy. Mr. Hull also remarked that because

of deep, long-standing interest in the matter, that moment was to him one of especial personal gratification.

Anglo-Chinese negotiations on a draft treaty began on October 28th in Chungking between Foreign Minister Dr. T. V. Soong and British Ambassador Sir Horace James Seymour.

A new era was ushered in Sino-American and Sino-British relations on January 11, 1943, when the new Sino-American and Sino-British treaties were signed respectively in Washington and Chungking by the Chinese, United States and British Governments, abrogating extraterritoriality and related rights enjoyed by the United States and Great Britain in China, after certain revisions of the original draft. The full texts of the new Sino-American and Sino-British treaties released for publication read:

TREATY BETWEEN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA FOR THE RELINQUISHMENT OF EXTRATERRITORIAL RIGHTS IN CHINA AND THE REGULATION OF RELATED MATTERS

The Republic of China and the United States of America, desirous of emphasizing the friendly relations which have long prevailed between their two peoples and of manifesting their common desire as equal and sovereign States that the high principles in the regulation of human affairs to which they are committed shall be made broadly effective, have resolved to conclude a treaty for the purpose of adjusting certain matters in the relations of the two countries, and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China,

Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of China to the United States of America, and

The President of the United States of America,

Mr. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States of America:

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers found to be in due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE I. All those provisions of treaties or agreements in force between the Republic of China and the United States of America which authorize the Government of the United States of America or its representatives to exercise jurisdiction over nationals of the United States of America in the territory of the Republic of China are hereby abrogated. Nationals of the United States of America in such territory shall be subject to the jurisdiction of the Government of the Republic of China in accordance with the principles of international law and practice.

ARTICLE II. The Government of the United States of America considers that the Final Protocol concluded at Peking on September 7, 1901, between the Chinese Government and other governments, including the Government of the United States of America, should be terminated and agrees that the rights accorded to the Government of the United States of America under that Protocol and under agreements supplementary thereto shall cease.

The Government of the United States of America will cooperate with

the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with other governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the Diplomatic Quarter at Peiping, including the official assets and the official obligations of the Diplomatic Quarter, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China in taking over administration and control of the Diplomatic Quarter will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of the Diplomatic Quarter and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

The Government of the Republic of China hereby accords to the Government of the United States of America a continued right to use for official purposes the land which has been allocated to the Government of the United States of America in the diplomatic Quarter in Peiping, on parts of which are located buildings belonging to the Government of the United States of America.

ARTICLE III. The Government of the United States of America considers that the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy should revert to the administration and control of the Government of the Republic of China and agrees that the rights accorded to the Government of the United States of America in relation to those Settlements shall cease.

The Government of the United States of America will cooperate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any

necessary agreements with other governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, including the official assets and the official obligations of those Settlements, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China in taking over administration and control of those Settlements will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of those Settlements and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

ARTICLE IV. In order to obviate any questions as to existing rights in respect of or as to existing titles to real property in territory of the Republic of China possessed by nationals (including corporations or associations), or by the Government, of the United States of America, particularly questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties or agreements as stipulated in Article I, it is agreed that such existing rights or titles shall be indefeasible and shall not be questioned upon any ground except upon proof, established through due process of law, of fraud or of fraudulent or other dishonest practices in the acquisition of such rights or titles, it being understood that no right or title shall be rendered invalid by virtue of any subsequent change in the official procedure through which it was acquired. It is also agreed that these rights or titles shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national

defense, and the right of eminent domain, and that no such rights or titles may be alienated to the government or nationals (including corporations or associations) of any third country without the express consent of the Government of the Republic of China.

It is also agreed that if it should be the desire of the Government of the Republic of China to replace, by new deeds of ownership, existing leases in perpetuity or other documentary evidence relating to real property held by nationals, or by the Government, of the United States of America, the replacement shall be made by the Chinese authorities without charges of any sort and the new deeds of ownership shall fully protect the holders of such leases or other documentary evidence and their legal heirs and assigns without diminution of their prior rights and interests, including the right of alienation.

It is further agreed that nationals or the Government of the United States of America shall not be required or asked by the Chinese authorities to make any payments of fees in connection with land transfers for or with relation to any period prior to the effective date of this treaty.

ARTICLE V. The Government of the United States of America having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within the territory of the United States of America to travel, reside and carry on trade throughout the whole extent of that territory, the Government of the Republic of China agrees to accord similar rights to nationals of the United States of America within the territory of the Republic of

China. Each of the two Governments will endeavour to have accorded in the territory under its jurisdiction to nationals of the other country, in regard to all legal proceedings, and to matters relating to the administration of justice, and to the levying of taxes or requirements in connection therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded to its own nationals.

ARTICLE VI. The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America mutually agree that the consular officers of each country, duly provided with exequaturs, shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places and cities as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of each country shall have the right to interview, to communicate with, and to advise nationals of their country within their consular districts; they shall be informed immediately whenever nationals of their country are under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in their consular districts and they shall, upon notification to the appropriate authorities, be permitted to visit any such nationals; and, in general, the consular officers of each country shall be accorded the rights, privileges, and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

It is likewise agreed that the nationals of each country, in the territory of the other country, shall have the right at all times to communicate with the consular officers of their country. Communications to their consular officers from nationals of each country who are under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in the territor

of the other country shall be forwarded to such consular officers by the local authorities.

ARTICLE VII. The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America mutually agree that they will enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a comprehensive modern treaty of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights, upon the request of either Government or in any case within six months after the cessation of the hostilities in the war against the common enemies in which they are now engaged. The treaty to be thus negotiated will be based upon the principles of international law and practice as reflected in modern international procedures and in the modern treaties which the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America respectively have in recent years concluded with other governments.

Pending the conclusion of a comprehensive treaty of the character referred to in the preceding paragraph, if any questions affecting the rights in territory of the Republic of China of nationals (including corporations or associations), or of the Government, of the United States of America should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present treaty, or by the provisions of existing treaties, conventions, or agreements between the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America not abrogated by or inconsistent with this treaty, such questions shall be discussed by representatives of the two Governments and shall be de-

cided in accordance with generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

ARTICLE VIII. The present treaty shall come into force on the day of the exchange of ratifications.

The present treaty shall be ratified and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington as soon as possible.

Signed and sealed in the Chinese and English languages, both equally authentic, in duplicate, at Washington, this eleventh day of the first month of the thirty-second year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the eleventh day of January, one thousand nine hundred forty-three.

(L.S.) WEI TAO-MING

(L.S.) CORDELL HULL

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE
REPUBLIC OF CHINA AND THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CHINESE EMBASSY

Washington

January 11, 1913

EXCELLENCY,

Under instruction of my Government, I have the honour to state that in connection with the treaty signed today by the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America, in which the Government of the United States of America relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China, it is the understanding of the Government of the Republic of China that the rights of the Government of the United States of America and of its nationals in regard to the systems of treaty ports and of special courts in the International Settlements at

Shanghai and Amoy and in regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territory of China are also relinquished. In the light of the abolition of treaty ports as such, it is understood that all coastal ports in the territory of the Republic of China which are normally open to American overseas merchant shipping will remain open to such shipping after the coming into effect of the present treaty and the accompanying exchange of notes.

It is mutually agreed that the merchant vessels of each country shall be permitted freely to come to the ports, places, and waters of the other country which are or may be open to overseas merchant shipping, and that the treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places, and waters shall be no less favourable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

It is mutually understood that the Government of the United States of America relinquishes the special rights which vessels of the United States of America have been accorded with regard to the coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China and that the Government of the Republic of China is prepared to take over any American properties that may have been engaged for those purposes and to pay adequate compensation therefor. Should either country accord the rights of inland navigation or coasting trade to vessels of any third country such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other country. The coasting trade and inland navigation of each

country are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each country in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that vessels of either country shall enjoy within the territory of the other country with respect to the coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

It is mutually understood that the Government of the United States of America relinquishes the special rights which naval vessels of the United States of America have been accorded in the waters of the Republic of China and that the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America shall extend to each other the mutual courtesy of visits by their warships in accordance with international usage and comity.

It is mutually understood that questions which are not covered by the present treaty and exchange of notes and which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China shall be discussed by representatives of the two Governments and shall be decided in accordance with generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

With reference to Article IV of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China hereby declares that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights or titles to real property referred to in that article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that if and when the Chinese Government declines to give assent

to a proposed transfer the Chinese Government will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss on the part of American nationals whose interests are affected, undertake, if the American party in interest so desires, to take over the right or title in question and to pay adequate compensation therefor.

It is mutually understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the United States Court for China and of the Consular Courts of the United States of America in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall, when necessary, be enforced by the Chinese authorities. It is further understood that any cases pending before the United States Court for China and the Consular Courts of the United States of America in China at the time of the coming into effect of this treaty shall, if the plaintiff or petitioner so desires, be remitted to the appropriate courts of the Government or the Republic of China which shall proceed as expeditiously as possible with their disposition and in so doing shall in so far as practicable apply the laws of the United States of America.

It is understood that these agreements and understandings if confirmed by Your Excellency's Government shall be considered as forming an integral part of the treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that treaty.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will confirm the foregoing.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the

assurances of my highest consideration.

(L.S.) WEI TAO-MING.

His Excellency

Mr. Cordell Hull

Department of State

Department of State

Washington

January 11, 1943

EXCELLENCY,

In connection with the treaty signed today between the Government of the United States of America and the Government of the Republic of China in which the Government of the United States of America relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China, I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your note of today's date reading as follows:

"EXCELLENCY,

"Under instruction of my Government, I have the honour to state that in connection with the treaty signed today by the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America, in which the Government of the United States of America relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China, it is the understanding of the Government of the Republic of China that the rights of the Government of the United States of America and of its nationals in regard to the systems of treaty ports and of special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy and in regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territory of China are also relinquished. In the light of the abolition of treaty ports as such, it is understood that all coastal ports in the territory of the Republic

inland navigation treatment as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

"It is mutually understood that the Government of the United States of America relinquishes the special rights which naval vessels of the United States of America have been accorded in the waters of the Republic of China and that the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America shall extend to each other the mutual courtesy of visits by their warships in accordance with international usage and comity.

"It is mutually understood that questions which are not covered by the present treaty and exchange of notes and which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China shall be discussed by representatives of the two Governments and shall be decided in accordance with generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

"With reference to Article IV of the treaty, the Government of the Republic of China hereby declares that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights or titles to real property referred to in that article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that if and when the Chinese Government declines to give assent to a proposed transfer the Chinese Government will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss on the part of American nationals whose interests are affected, undertake, if the American party in interest so desires, to take over the right or title in question and to pay adequate compensation therefor.

of China which are normally open to American overseas merchant shipping will remain open to such shipping after the coming into effect of the present treaty and the accompanying exchange of notes.

"It is mutually agreed that the merchant vessels of each country shall be permitted freely to come to the ports, places, and waters of the other country which are or may be open to overseas merchant shipping, and that the treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places, and waters shall be no less favourable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

"It is mutually understood that the Government of the United States of America relinquishes the special rights which vessels of the United States of America have been accorded with regard to the coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China and that the Government of the Republic of China is prepared to take over any American properties that may have been engaged for those purposes and pay adequate compensation therefor. Should either country accord the rights of inland navigation or coasting trade to vessels of any third country such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other country. The coasting trade and inland navigation of each country are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each country in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that vessels of either country shall enjoy within the territory of the other country with respect to the coasting trade and

"It is mutually understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the United States Court for China and of the Consular Courts of the United States of America in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall, when necessary, be enforced by the Chinese authorities. It is further understood that any cases pending before the United States Court for China and the Consular Courts of the United States of America in China at the time of the coming into effect of this treaty shall, if the plaintiff or petitioner so desires, be permitted to the appropriate courts of the Government of the Republic of China which shall proceed as expeditiously as possible with their disposition and in so doing shall in so far as practicable apply the laws of the United States of America.

"It is understood that these agreements and understandings if confirmed by Your Excellency's Government shall be considered as forming an integral part of the treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that treaty.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will confirm the foregoing.

"I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration."

I have the honour to confirm that the agreements and understandings which have been reached in connection with the treaty signed today by the Government of the United States of America and the Government of the Republic of China are as set forth in the above note from Your Excellency.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) CORDELL HULL.

His Excellency,

Dr. Wei Tao-ming,

Ambassador of China.

SINO-BRITISH TREATY

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India:

Being desirous of defining more clearly in a spirit of friendship the general relations between them, and for this purpose to settle certain matters relating to jurisdiction in China:

Have decided to conclude a Treaty for this purpose and to that end have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China:

His Excellency, Doctor Tse Vung Soong, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China;

His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India (hereinafter referred to as His Majesty the King):

For the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland:

His Excellency, Sir Horace James Seymour, K.C.M.G., C. V. O., His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the Republic of China;

For India:

Hugh Edward Richardson Esquire, an officer of the Indian Political Service:

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1. (1) The territories of the High Contracting Parties to which the present Treaty applies are, on the part of His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China, all the territories of the Republic of China; and on the part of His Majesty the King, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, India, all colonies, overseas territories, protectorates of His Majesty, all territories under His protection or suzerainty and all mandated territories in respect of which the mandate is exercised by His Government in the United Kingdom. Any reference in subsequent articles of the present Treaty to the territories of one or the other High Contracting Party shall be deemed to relate to those territories of that High Contracting Party to which the present Treaty applies.

(2) In the present Treaty, the term "nationals of the one (or of the other) High Contracting Party" shall in relation to the Republic of China, mean all nationals of the Republic of China; and in relation to His Majesty the King all British subjects and all British protected persons belonging to the territories to which the present Treaty applies.

(3) The expression "companies of the one (or of the other) High Contracting Party" shall for the purpose of the present Treaty be interpreted as meaning limited liabi-

lity and other companies, partnerships and associations constituted under the law of the territories of that High Contracting Party to which the present Treaty applies.

ARTICLE 2. All those provisions or treaties or agreements in force between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King which authorise His Majesty or His representatives to exercise jurisdiction over nationals or companies of His Majesty in the territory of the Republic of China are hereby abrogated. The nationals and companies of His Majesty the King shall be subject in the territory of the Republic of China to the jurisdiction of the Government of the Republic of China, in accordance with the principles of international law and practice.

ARTICLE 3. (1) His Majesty the King considers that the Final Protocol concluded at Peking on September 7th 1901, between the Chinese Government and other Governments, including His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, should be terminated, and agrees that the rights accorded to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom under that Protocol and under the agreements supplementary thereto shall cease.

(2) His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom will co-operate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with the other Governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the diplomatic quarter at Peiping, in-

cluding the official assets and the official obligations of the diplomatic quarter, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China, in taking over administration and control of the diplomatic quarter, will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of the diplomatic quarter and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

(3) The Government of the Republic of China shall accord to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom a continued right to use for official purposes the land which has been allocated to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom in the diplomatic quarter in Peiping, on parts of which are located buildings belonging to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom.

ARTICLE 4. (1) His Majesty the King considers that the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy should revert to the administration and control of the Government of the Republic of China and agrees that the rights accorded to His Majesty in relation to those Settlements shall cease.

(2) His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom will co-operate with the Government of the Republic of China for the reaching of any necessary agreements with the other Governments concerned for the transfer to the Government of the Republic of China of the administration and control of the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, including the official assets and the official obligations of those Settlements, it being mutually understood that the Government of

the Republic of China, in taking over administration and control of those Settlements, will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of those Settlements and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

(3) His Majesty the King agrees that the British Concession (including the whole British municipal area) at Tientsin and the British Concession at Canton shall revert to the administration and control of the Government of the Republic of China and that the rights accorded to His Majesty in relation to those Concessions shall cease.

(4) The administration and control of the British Concession (including the whole British municipal area) at Tientsin and the British Concession at Canton, including their official assets and official obligations shall be transferred to the Government of the Republic of China, it being mutually understood that the Government of the Republic of China in taking over administration and control of those Concessions will make provision for the assumption and discharge of the official obligations and liabilities of those Concessions and for the recognition and protection of all legitimate rights therein.

ARTICLE 5. (1) In order to obviate any questions as to existing rights in respect of or as to existing titles to real property in the territory of the Republic of China possessed by nationals and companies of His Majesty the King, or by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, and in particular questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties and

agreements provided for in Article 2 of the present Treaty, the High Contracting Parties agree that such existing rights or titles shall be indefeasible and shall not be questioned upon any ground except upon proof, established through due process of law, of fraud or of fraudulent or dishonest practices in the acquisition of such rights or titles, it being understood that no right or title shall be rendered invalid by virtue of any subsequent change in the original procedure through which it was acquired. It is also agreed that the exercise of these rights or titles shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national defense and the right of eminent domain; and that no such rights or titles may be alienated to the government or nationals (including companies) of any third country without the express consent of the Government of the Republic of China.

(2) The high Contracting Parties also agree that if it should be the desire of the Government of the Republic of China to replace by new deeds of ownership existing leases in perpetuity or other documentary evidence relating to real property held by nationals or companies of His Majesty the King or by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, the replacement shall be made by the Chinese authorities without charges of any sort and the new deeds ownership shall fully protect the holders of such leases or other documentary evidence, and their legal heirs and assigns without diminution of their prior rights and interests, including the right of alienation.

(3) The High Contracting Parties

agree further that nationals or companies of His Majesty the King or His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom shall not be required or asked by the Chinese authorities to make any payments of fees in connection with land transfers for or with relation to any period prior to the effective date of this Treaty.

ARTICLE 6. His Majesty the King having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within each of the territories of His Majesty to travel, reside and carry on commerce throughout the whole extent of that territory, the Government of the Republic of China agrees to accord similar rights to nationals of His Majesty within the territory of the Republic of China. Each High Contracting Party will endeavour to accord in his territories to nationals and companies of the other High Contracting Party in regard to all legal proceedings and in matters relating to the administration of justice and the levying of taxes and requirements in connexion therewith treatment not less favourable than that accorded to his own nationals and companies.

ARTICLE 7. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party, duly provided with exequaturs, shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places and cities of the territories of the other High Contracting Party as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall have the right within their districts in the territories of the other High Contracting Party to interview, communicate with and to advise the nationals and companies of the former High Contracting Party, and the nationals and com-

panies of one High Contracting Party within the territories of the other High Contracting Party shall have the right at all times to communicate with the consular officers of the former High Contracting Party. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party in the territories of the other shall be informed immediately by the appropriate local authorities when any of their nationals are arrested or detained in their consular districts by the local authorities. They shall have the right to visit within the limits of their districts any of their nationals who are under arrest or awaiting trial in prison. Communications from the nationals of one High Contracting Party in prison in the territories of the other High Contracting Party addressed to the consular officers of the former High Contracting Party will be forwarded to the appropriate consular officer by the local authorities. Consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall be accorded in the territories of the other High Contracting Party the rights, privileges and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

ARTICLE 8. (1) The High Contracting Parties will enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a comprehensive modern treaty or treaties of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights upon the request of either of them or in any case within six months after the cessation of the hostilities in the war against the common enemies in which they are both now engaged. The treaty or treaties to be thus negotiated will be based upon the principles of international law and practice as reflected in modern international procedure

and in the modern treaties which each of the High Contracting Parties has respectively concluded with other Powers in recent years.

(2) Pending the conclusion of the comprehensive treaty or treaties referred to in the preceding paragraph, if any questions affecting the rights in the territory of the Republic of China of the nationals or companies of His Majesty the King, or of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom or of the Government of India, should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present Treaty and Exchange of Notes or by the provisions of existing treaties, conventions and agreements between the High Contracting Parties which are not abrogated by or inconsistent with the present Treaty and Exchange of Notes, such questions shall be discussed by representatives of the High Contracting Parties and shall be decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

ARTICLE 9. The present Treaty shall be ratified and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged at Chungking as soon as possible. The Treaty shall come into force on the day of the exchange of ratifications.

In witness whereof the above mentioned Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Chungking this Eleventh day of the First month of the Thirty Second year of the Republic of China corresponding to the Eleventh day of January, 1943, in duplicate in Chinese and English, both texts being equally authentic.

Exchange of Notes

A. Note from Dr. Tse Vung Soong, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, to Sir Horace James Seymour.

(Chungking,
January 11th 1943.

SIR,

During the negotiations for the Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if Your Excellency would confirm these understandings on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

H. E. Sir Horace J. Seymour,
K.C.M.G., C.V.O.,
His Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

ANNEX

1. With reference to Article 2 and Article 8 (2) of the Treaty, it is understood that:

(a) His Majesty the King re-

linquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the system of Treaty Ports in China. His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King mutually agree that the merchant vessels of the one High Contracting Party shall be permitted freely to come to ports, places and waters in the territories of the other High Contracting Party which are or may be opened to overseas merchant shipping and that the treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places and waters shall be no less favourable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favourable as that accorded to vessels of any third country. The term "vessels" of a High Contracting Party means all vessels registered under the law of any of the territories of that High Contracting Party to which the Treaty signed this day applies.

(b) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy.

(c) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing rights with regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territories of the Republic of China.

(d) His Majesty the King relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the entry of His naval vessels into the waters of the Republic of China; and the Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom shall extend to each other in connexion with the visits of the warships of the one High Contracting Party to the ports

of the other High Contracting Party mutual courtesy in accordance with ordinary international usage.

(c) His Majesty the King relinquishes any right to claim the appointment of a British subject as Inspector-General of the Chinese Customs.

(f) All the courts of His Majesty the King which have hitherto been sitting in the territories of the Republic of China having been closed down in accordance with Article 2 of the Treaty signed this day, the orders, decrees, judgments and other acts of any of His Majesty's courts in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall when necessary be enforced by the Chinese authorities; further, any cases pending before any of His Majesty's courts in China at the time of the coming into effect of the Treaty shall if the plaintiff or the petitioner so desires be remitted to the appropriate courts of the Government of the Republic of China which shall proceed to dispose of them as expeditiously as possible and in so doing shall so far as practicable apply the law which the court of His Majesty would have applied.

(g) His Majesty the King relinquishes the special rights which His Majesty's vessels have been accorded with regard to coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China, and the Government of the Republic of China are prepared to take over any properties of His Majesty's nationals or companies which have been used for the purposes of these trades and which the owners may wish to dispose of and to pay adequate compensation therefor. The Govern-

ment of the Republic of China relinquish the special rights which have been accorded to Chinese vessels in respect of navigation on the river Irrawaddy under Article 12 of the Convention signed in London on March 1st, 1894. Should one High Contracting Party accord in any of his territories the right of coasting trade or inland navigation to the vessels of any third country, such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other High Contracting Party provided that the latter High Contracting Party permits the vessels of the former High Contracting Party to engage in the coasting trade or inland navigation of his territories. Coasting trade and inland navigation are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each High Contracting Party in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that the vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy within the territories of the other High Contracting Party with regard to coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country subject to the above mentioned proviso.

2. With reference to the last sentence of Article 5 (1) of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China declare that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights and titles to real property referred to in that Article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that, if and when the Chinese Government decline to assent to a proposed transfer, the Chinese Government will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss

on the part of the nationals or companies of His Majesty the King whose interests are affected, undertake, if so requested by the national or company of His Majesty to whom permission to alienate has been refused, to take over the rights and titles in question and pay adequate compensation therefor.

3. It is understood that the abolition of the system of the Treaty Ports will not affect existing property rights and that the nationals of each High Contracting Party will enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party in accordance with the conditions and requirements prescribed in the laws and regulations of that High Contracting Party.

4. It is further agreed that questions which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China and which are not covered by the present Treaty or by the preceding provisions of the present Note shall be discussed by the Representatives of the Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

B. Note from Sir Horace James Seymour to Dr. Tse Vung Soong, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Chungking,
January 11th 1943.

Sir,

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note

of today's date reading as follows:

"During the negotiations for the Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if Your Excellency would confirm these understandings on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom."

I have the honour on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom to confirm the understandings reached between us as recorded in the annex to Your Excellency's Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

His Excellency
Dr. Tse Vung Soong
Minister for Foreign Affairs
of the Republic of China
Chungking

C. Note from Dr. Tse Vung Soong, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, to Mr. Hugh Edward Richardson.

Chungking
January 11th 1943

SIR,

During the negotiations for the Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if you would confirm these understandings on behalf of the Government of India.

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to you the assurance of my high consideration.

Hugh Edward Richardson Esquire
Indian Agency General
Chungking

ANNEX

1. With reference to Article 2 and Article 8 (2) of the Treaty, it is understood that:

(a) His Majesty the King Emperor relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the system of Treaty Ports in China. His Excellency the President of the National

Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King Emperor mutually agree that the merchant vessels of the one High Contracting Party shall be permitted freely to come to ports, places and waters in the territories of the other High Contracting Party which are or may be opened to overseas merchant shipping and that the treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places and waters shall be no less favourable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favourable as that accorded to vessels of any third country. The term "vessels" of a High Contracting Party means all vessels registered under the law of any of the territories of that High Contracting Party to which the Treaty signed this day applies.

(b) His Majesty the King Emperor relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy.

(c) His Majesty the King Emperor relinquishes all existing rights with regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territories of the Republic of China.

(d) His Majesty the King Emperor relinquishes all existing treaty rights relating to the entry of His naval vessels into the waters of the Republic of China; and the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of India shall extend to each other in connexion with the visits of the warships of the one High Contracting Party to the ports of the other High Contracting Party mutual courtesy in accordance with ordinary international usage.

(e) His Majesty the King Emperor relinquishes any right to claim the appointment of a British subject as Inspector-General of the Chinese Customs.

(f) All the courts of His Majesty the King Emperor which have hitherto been sitting in the territories of the Republic of China having been closed down in accordance with Article 2 of the Treaty signed this day, the orders, decrees, judgments and other acts of any of His Majesty's courts in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall when necessary be enforced by the Chinese authorities; further, any cases pending before any of His Majesty's courts in China at the time of the coming into effect of the Treaty shall if the plaintiff or the petitioner so desires be remitted to the appropriate courts of the Government of the Republic of China which shall proceed to dispose of them as expeditiously as possible and in so doing shall so far as practicable apply the law which the court of His Majesty would have applied.

(g) His Majesty the King Emperor relinquishes the special rights which His vessels have been accorded with regard to coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China, and the Government of the Republic of China are prepared to take over any properties of His Majesty's nationals or companies which have been used for the purposes of those trades and which the owners may wish to dispose of and to pay adequate compensation therefor. The Government of the Republic of China relinquish the special rights which have been accorded to Chinese

vessels in respect of navigation on the river Irrawaddy under Article 12 of the Convention signed in London on March 1st, 1894. Should one High Contracting Party accord in any of his territories the right of coasting trade or inland navigation to the vessels of any third country such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other High Contracting Party provided that the latter High Contracting Party permits the vessels of the former High Contracting Party to engage in the coasting trade or inland navigation of his territories. Coasting trade and inland navigation are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each High Contracting Party in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that the vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy within the territories of the other High Contracting Party with regard to coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country subject to the above mentioned proviso.

2. With reference to the last sentence of Article 5 (1) of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China declare that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights and titles to real property referred to in that Article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that, if and when the Chinese Government decline to assent to a proposed transfer, the Chinese Government will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss on the part of the nationals or com-

panies of His Majesty the King Emperor whose interests are affected, undertake, if so requested by the national or company of His Majesty to whom permission to alienate has been refused, to take over the rights and titles in question and pay adequate compensation therefor.

3. It is understood that the abolition of the system of the Treaty Ports will not affect existing property rights and that the nationals of each High Contracting Party will enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party in accordance with the conditions and requirements prescribed in the laws and regulations of that High Contracting Party.

4. It is further agreed that questions which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China and which are not covered by the present Treaty or by the preceding provisions of the present Note shall be discussed by the Representatives of the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of India and decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of International law and modern international practice.

D. Note from Mr. Hugh Edward Richardson to Dr. Tse Vung Soong, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Chungking
January 11th 1943

SIR,

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date reading as follows:

"During the negotiations for the

Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, a number of questions have been discussed upon which agreement has been reached. The understandings reached with regard to these points are recorded in the annex to the present Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if you would confirm those understandings on behalf of the Government of India."

I have the honour on behalf of the Government of India to confirm the understandings reached between us as recorded in the annex to Your Excellency's Note, which annex shall be considered as an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered as effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty.

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

His Excellency
Dr. Tse Vung Soong
Minister for Foreign Affairs
of the Republic of China
Chungking

AGREED MINUTE

With reference to paragraph 1 (a) of the Annex to the Note from the Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs to His Majesty's Ambassador in

connexion with the Treaty signed today, it is understood that both High Contracting Parties reserve the right to close any port to all overseas merchant shipping for reasons of national security.

With reference to paragraph 1 (g) of the Annex to the Note from the Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs to His Majesty's Ambassador in

connexion with the Treaty signed today, His Majesty's Ambassador informed the Chinese Government that trade between India on the one hand and Burma or Ceylon on the other has always been regarded as coasting trade.

Chungking,
January 11th 1943.

APPENDIX

READJUSTMENT OF SINO-AMERICAN AND SINO-BRITISH ECONOMIC RELATIONS AFTER CONCLUSION OF NEW TREATIES

C. Y. W. MENG¹ (孟長洙)

The conclusion of the new Sino-British and Sino-American treaties on January 11, 1943, undoubtedly constitutes an epoch making event in the Far East and opens a new era in China's diplomatic history. It marks the removal of all shackles which were imposed on the country a century ago. Chinese leaders and intellectuals took the occasion to remind the younger generation of the many new responsibilities ahead, which China has to resume and to discharge. In his message to the nation, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek said, "By the abolition of the unequal treaties, our national responsibilities have only been increased. We should meet the new responsibilities with a still keener resolve to do our duty." In his famous *China's Destiny*, the same Generalissimo says, "This preliminary success of the People's Revolution (meaning the abolition of the unequal treaties) begins at once our genuine national reconstruction."

While the conclusion of new treaties have indeed put at once many of the political issues, such as the abolition of extraterritoriality, the retrocession of foreign concessions and settlements, and the cancellation of the rights to station foreign troops on Chinese soil and foreign gun boats in Chinese water, etc., out of the question and existence, it is not so simple with the

readjustment of the economic relations between China and Great Britain and the United States. On the one hand, the readjustment is certainly closely linked up with the enforcement of China's national economic policy, and on the other, it has a great deal to do with the internal economic conditions of the two Allies.

The urgent needs for foreign capital and technical assistance by the Chinese in their intensive efforts to industrialize the country after the war, together with the necessity to inaugurate a gigantic economic reconstruction program in the warring countries to avert the economic crisis following the conclusion of the present war, will likely call for an early readjustment of the economic relations, not only between these three Allies (China, Great Britain and the United States), but also among all United Nations, so as to enable all of them to take active part and to contribute their due share in the building up of a new economic order in the world after the war. Then, we will have a situation which demands the readjustment of our economic relations not only as a result of the conclusion of new treaties, but also as part of our concerted effort toward the post-war world economic reconstruction and recovery.

Foreign Factories in China.—One of the economic problems which is most

frequently discussed by Chinese economists and foreign nationals in China is the operation of foreign factories in China. Will the abolition of the unequal treaties mean the simultaneous cancellation of this right, the cessation of the operation of these factories and the taking over of the same by the Chinese through purchases or other arrangements? Will the British and American owned cotton mills and tobacco factories in China have the same fate as the British and American steamship companies have, as the latter have to cease operation owing to the abolition of the right of inland navigation in the Chinese waterways?

It will be recalled that part of Article 6 of the Treaty of Shimonoseki of 1895 provides: "Japanese subjects shall be free to engage in all kinds of manufacturing industries in all the opening cities, towns, ports of China, and shall be at liberty to import into China all kinds of machinery, paying only the stipulated duties thereon." Through the application of the most-favoured nation clause, many other powers having treaty relations with China claimed the same privileges. As a result, China was dotted with many factories and mills owned, managed and operated by foreign nationals. These foreign factories had four distinct advantages over others. First, the finished products from these factories were exempted from import duties; second, raw materials purchased by these factories were free from export duties; third, both finished products and raw materials were free from transit and internal taxes; and fourth, these factories had the benefit of the cheap Chinese labour which acted favourably to reduce the cost of their production. For a long time,

the Chinese had considered such a situation as most harmful to the healthy growth of their industries, and had accused that the operation of many foreign factories on Chinese soil with their larger capital and better industrial technique, had ruined the Chinese infant and handicraft industries. Therefore, paradoxically, the abolition of the unequal treaties should mean the end of such situation.

But a close study of the situation reveals that most Chinese economists think differently today. With the abolition of extraterritoriality, they reasoned, all fear and suspicion as entertained on both sides in the former days, and all disadvantages formerly on the Chinese side have been dispelled and removed, while the advantages, notably the opportunity of employment, the increase in industrial production, and the enrichment of local revenue may be preserved. Their conclusion centres not so much on the advisability or inadvisability of permitting the establishment of foreign factories in China as on the necessity for completing the Chinese industrial legislation. They propose the early formulation and promulgation of the following industrial laws and regulations:

1. Industrial Law which will draw a demarcation between industrial undertakings under government management and those under private management, and will provide general principles for the registration, supervision and examination of industrial enterprises, adjustment of relationships between employers and employees, and regulation of the welfare of the labourers.
2. Law Governing the Government

¹ Research Fellow, Economic Research Department, Central Bank of China.

Management of Industrial Undertakings which will thus complete the system of government management of industrial undertakings acting as the centre for national industrial development.

3. Industrial Encouragement Act which will greatly encourage investments in industries and the embarkation on many industrial enterprises by the people.
4. Patent Law which will decide industrial right in each case.
5. Special Industrial Act which will provide and regulate, among others, the establishment of foreign factories in China, the employment of foreign capital and technical assistance, and the formation of Sino-foreign technical cooperation.

As to the establishment of foreign factories in China, some Chinese economists have advanced the following general principles:

1. No foreign national shall be permitted to establish any factory in China without a special permit from, or special arrangement with, the National Government.
2. No foreign national shall establish his factory in any place other than the location designated.
3. Before the operation of his factory, a foreign national shall apply to the Chinese authority for registration. For factories already in operation, they shall also apply for registration, without which no protection will be given, and, if it is deemed necessary, compulsory cessation of operation may be ordered.

4. All foreign owned factories in China shall be subject to Chinese laws and other factory regulations.

5. All foreign factories in China shall pay taxes in accordance with Chinese laws.

6. The exemption of taxes as may be specially permitted to the Chinese factories as an encouragement for the development of domestic industries may not be applicable to foreign factories.

7. The duration for the existence of foreign factories in China shall be decided by the National Government in accordance with the nature of the establishment, and shall be announced by a Government mandate. Upon the expiration of the period, the National Government may take over the factory with compensation, or may order the cessation of operation within a limited period as may be decided in accordance with the then existing situation.

8. All staff members and laborers of foreign factories in China shall be Chinese. If foreign technicians are employed owing to technical necessity, their employment shall be reported to the Chinese authority for approval.

9. Foreign nationals should not establish factories for the manufacture of national defense supplies, or operate public utilities, such as water works, electric tram cars, and other basic industries, such as copper, iron, acid and alkali.

10. Accounting and book-keeping in foreign factories shall be in

Chinese, or in the most common world language, so as to facilitate the examination of their accounts.

11. Products manufactured by foreign factories in China shall bear the mark "Manufactured by so-and-so (indicating the nationality of the foreign nationals who own and operate factories) in China."

12. Foreign factories shall be subject to examination by local authorities.

13. Foreign factories selling their manufactured products cheaper than the cost of production shall be treated as dumping the market, and shall be subject to the payment of a dumping tax thereon.

14. The scope of the construction of foreign factories in China shall be regulated and limited in accordance with Chinese laws and regulations.

Others have further suggested the formulation and enforcement of some provisional regulations governing the registration of foreign patents and patent products in China. Some of the general principles may be enumerated as follows:

1. Nationals of friendly powers having equal and reciprocal treaty relations with China who have made inventions for the manufacture of industrial products which inventions have been duly registered with the patent office in their countries, or who are enjoying the right through inheritance or transfer, may apply to the Ministry of Economic Affairs for registration.

2. No Chinese citizen shall apply for registration for the same products or the process of their manufacture which have already been granted to foreign nationals by the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

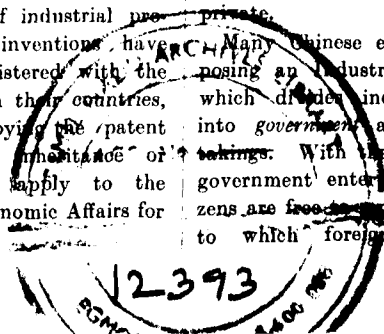
3. No patent products or their process of manufacture shall receive due protection which have not been registered.

4. Patent products or their process of manufacture which have been duly registered shall have the preference over all other products and processes.

5. Foreign nationals shall have the right to form joint factories with the Chinese citizens for the manufacture of patent products which have been duly registered, subject to the provisions of other Chinese laws and regulations.

These general principles speak well for the Chinese intention. Apparently, it is not the plan of the Chinese legislators to put foreign factories in China out of existence, nor to cancel the right of establishment. On the contrary, after the abolition of extraterritoriality, foreign nationals in China are merely brought under Chinese laws and regulations, thus removing one of the greatest obstacles on the way of genuine Sino-foreign cooperation, government as well as private.

Many Chinese economists are proposing an Industrial Law for China which divides industrial enterprises into government and private undertakings. With the exception of the government enterprises, Chinese citizens are free to undertake any others, to which foreign nationals from



friendly powers having new treaty relations with China may also join. According to Dr. Wong Wen-hao, Minister of Economic Affairs, government-owned enterprises are confined to the following categories:

1. Those closely related to national defence and specially suited to government operation.
2. Those necessitating government planning or control.
3. Those required by national defence and the people's livelihood where there is no assurance whatsoever of gain or loss.
4. Those required for supplying power or fuel to private enterprises.

That is, besides a few industrial enterprises which are put under government management, there is a wide scope of activities for private entrepreneurs. So the Chinese say that after the abolition of the unequal treaties, China will accord "national treatment" to foreign nationals in China. Undoubtedly, the application of national treatment will be one of the general principles underlying Sino-foreign economic relations.

Foreign Banks in China.—By 1938, no less than 62 foreign banks belonging to nine nationalities, namely, five British, five American, four French, 38 Japanese, two Dutch, two Italian, one Russian, one Belgian, one German, one French-Belgian, and two others, were established in China. The recent opening of the branches of the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation (British) and the National City Bank of New York (American) in Chungking bears eloquent testimony to the fact that it is not the intention of the Chinese to discontinue the operation of foreign banks in

China after the conclusion of new treaties. On the contrary, most competent Chinese economists, while demanding the end of the situation in the former days, advance the following general principles for the reopening of foreign banks in China:

1. The operation of foreign banks in China shall be subject to the application of the Chinese Banking Law.
2. The reopening of foreign banks in China shall be preceded by the submission of full statements of the capital, assets and liabilities and business operation to the Chinese authorities for approval and registration.
3. The foreign exchange operation of foreign banks in China shall be restricted and controlled, and shall be under the direction of the Central Bank of China. No foreign bank shall engage in speculation and manipulation activities to endanger the Chinese money market.
4. Like all other Chinese banks, foreign banks in China shall submit full reports on the operation of savings deposits to the Ministry of Finance for periodic examinations and approval. Article 3 of the Revised Provisional Regulations Governing Wartime Control of Banks, promulgated by the National Government on December 9, 1941, provided that "Each bank handling savings deposits, besides having to act in accordance with the Savings Bank Law, shall be required to deposit 20% of its total savings deposits as deposit reserve fund with any of the four government banks,

the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China, within the same locality. The latter shall give reasonable rate of interests on such deposit reserve fund to the depositing bank." This provision shall apply to foreign banks in China as well.

5. The loan operation of foreign banks in China shall be regulated and controlled by the Chinese financial authorities, and the "compradore system" shall be abolished.
6. No foreign bank in China shall engage in speculation on real estate. Article 11 of the Chinese Banking Law provides: "No bank shall be allowed to purchase or acquire any real estate other than such as is required for conducting the banking business. When a bank accepts its own shares in settlement of any debts, such shares shall be disposed of within four months, and when immovable properties are accepted for similar purposes, they shall be disposed of within one year." These provisions shall apply to foreign banks in China as well.
7. Like all other Chinese commercial banks, no foreign banks in China shall undertake note issue.
8. No foreign bank in China shall be permitted to engage in stock exchange speculation.
9. No foreign bank in China shall undertake the trust business and the custodianship of valuables owned by the Chinese.
10. No foreign bank in China shall engage in any activities other than the legitimate banking

business permitted by Chinese laws and regulations."

11. Foreign banks in China shall join the Chinese Bankers' Association in the same locality where the banks are located, and shall discharge their obligations in accordance with its by-law.

These general principles are advanced, partly in conformity with the usual practice now in existence in other countries governing the establishment of foreign banks, and partly to safeguard Chinese interests. The "close" of The China American Bank of Commerce, Banque Industrielle de Chine and Deutsch Asiatische Bank in the past, which caused the Chinese depositors to sustain heavy losses is still a painful and vivid lesson in the Chinese mind. Therefore, these general principles are suggested in good faith to protect the interests of the public, and they do not amount to any discriminatory treatment.

Lease of Land.—Obsolete treaties provided the rights of foreign nationals in China to lease land in the Chinese treaty ports for foreign residence and trade, and land in the interior of China for construction of churches and hospitals. But our bitter experience in the past told us that the term "permanent lease" was generally used, and this term was tantamount to the passing of the ownership of the land from the Chinese owners to foreign nationals. It was estimated that by 1931, foreign investments in real estate in China alone amounted to U.S.\$400,000,000, of which U.S.\$225,000,000 were located in Shanghai. Here, the situation will likely undergo a more complete change when the readjustment of economic relations is made, and one of the general principles governing the re-

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Lease of Land.—Obsolete treaties provided the rights of foreign nationals in China to lease land in the Chinese treaty ports for foreign residence and trade, and land in the interior of China for construction of churches and hospitals. But our bitter experience in the past told us that the term "permanent lease" was generally used, and this term was tantamount to the passing of the ownership of the land from the Chinese owners to foreign nationals. It was estimated that by 1931, foreign investments in real estate in China alone amounted to U.S. \$400,000,000 of which U.S. \$225,000,000 were located in Shanghai. Here, the situation will likely undergo a more complete change when the readjustment of economic relations is made, and one of the general principles governing the re-

adjustment is the full application of the Chinese Land Law.

Article 7 of the Land Law provides: Land within the boundary of the Republic of China belongs to all people of the Republic. Article 17 further provides: No farm land, forest districts, pastoral land, fishery water, salt field, mining area, fortified zones and military areas and land on the frontier borders shall be transferred or leased to foreign nationals. Section 10 of Article 10 of the Detailed Regulations for the Enforcement of Land Law further prohibits the Chinese to transfer or lease the rights to land to foreign nationals "other than what is permitted by the treaties." Violation of these Regulations will subject the Chinese people to the confiscation of the land without compensation by the State, and the imposition of a fine twice the sum of what they gain from the lease. Article 11 of the same Regulations further provides: Should foreign nationals who lease Chinese land in accordance with the treaty provision abuse the use of the land, local Chinese authorities could cancel the lease.

The underlying principle of this legislation is, obviously, that no foreign national could acquire the right of ownership of land in China and the right to mortgage the land. As stated in the Land Law, land within the boundary of China belongs to all people of the Republic. Therefore, both in the spirit and letter of this Law, and further, in the light of the present national policy of "equalization of the ownership of land by the people," as advocated by the late leader Dr. Sun Yat-sen, any acquisition of Chinese land by foreign nationals in China under whatever term has no legal basis. In the course of the re-

adjustment of our economic relations, the Chinese authorities are likely to demand the examination of leases, the registration of the lease and land in accordance with Article 31 of the Detailed Regulations for the Enforcement of the Land Law, the abolition of "permanent lease," and the rigid enforcement of the Chinese Land Law.

This leads us at once to the discussion of the lease of land to foreign missionaries and missionary property in China. According to the estimate made by the American Department of Commerce in January, 1938, property owned by American missionaries and philanthropic organizations in China amounted to U.S.\$40,000,000, out of an aggregate American investment of around U.S.\$202,000,000. In this connection, it is interesting to note some of the Chinese proposals for settlement:

1. In view of what the foreign missionaries have been doing in China, and the different nature in the acquisition of land, many Chinese agree that the problem shall be viewed, treated and settled more liberally and differently from what would govern the lease of land to other foreign nationals.
2. The national Christian and Catholic associations in China are advised to organize committees for making a thorough investigation and for compiling complete statistics of the leases and property in China under their respective control.
3. After the completion of their investigation and compilation, the said associations should, at their own option, apply to the Chinese authorities for examina-

tion and registration, and hand over the property to the Chinese Government.

4. After due examination and registration, the Chinese Government will hand back the property to the associations for their use if everything is in order.

Therefore, it is pointed out by the Chinese that their wish is not the cancellation of the leases, but simply the completion of the procedure of the leases in accordance with the provisions of Chinese laws and regulations. While the Ministry of Interior is urged to organize a planning committee to be specially in charge of the investigation and registration of the lease of land to foreign missionaries and the control and registration of missionary property in China, it is suggested by many Chinese that it would be far more honourable and commendable if foreign missionary associations in China would take the initiative in this direction.

Mining Rights.—This also leads us to the discussion of mining rights now enjoyed by foreign nationals in China. Article 12 of the Chinese Mining Law provides: Mines within the territory of the Republic of China shall be owned by the State, and no exploitation of mines is permitted without first acquiring the mining right in accordance with the present Law. Section 1 of Article 5 of the same Law further provides: With the exception of State-owned mines and other mines within the mining districts reserved for the State, the citizens of the Republic of China may acquire mining right in accordance with the present Law. These provisions in the Mining Law, together with Article 17 of the Land Law (No farm land, forest district,

pastoral land, fishery water, salt field, mining area, fortified zones and military areas and land on the frontier borders shall be transferred or leased to foreign nationals), make it sufficiently clear that foreign nationals in China could not acquire mining rights as well.

But apparently, for the purpose of developing the mining industry in the country, the Chinese Mining Law makes some exceptions. Section 2 of Article 5 provides: After the mining right is decided, foreign shares may be admitted to organize a mining company with limited liabilities for the exploitation of mines. But such admission of foreign shares shall first be approved by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, and further permitted by the Executive Yuan. The same provision further provides the following details governing a mining company with foreign shares:

1. The majority of the total shares of the company shall be owned by the citizens of the Chinese Republic.
2. The majority of the members of the board of directors of the mining company shall be Chinese.
3. The chairman of the board of directors as well as the managing director of the mining company shall both be Chinese.

These provisions are apparently intended to protect Chinese mining rights from exploitation by unscrupulous foreign industrialists. On the one hand, the Chinese Mining Law permits the admission of foreign shares, but on the other, provisions are made to prevent the manipulation and usurpation of the rights by foreign nationals.

The Chinese Land Law was first promulgated on June 30, 1930, and was revised on March 1, 1936. The Chinese Mining Law was first promulgated on May 26, 1930, and was revised on January 23, 1933. As was remarked by a foreign observer (Dr. W. W. Willoughby, former adviser to the Chinese Government) some time ago, many provisions of the Chinese laws remained "theoretical only." But now China will see to it that all her laws and regulations will go into effect, and that all these laws and regulations will govern and regulate the readjustment of our economic relations.

Foreign Steamship Companies.—After the abolition of the unequal treaties, the Chinese are fully aware that China finds herself confronted with several practical problems, for example, the question of river shipping. With their inland navigation rights abolished, foreign-owned steamships will no longer be able to sail the waterways of China. This means that China will have to secure a large fleet of river steamers to ply her waterways. Some ships might be purchased from foreign steamship companies, but a larger number of new ships must also be built, and more steamship and navigation companies will have to be organized. The question may not be very acute now, but it will become more serious when peace is restored. Again, for the purpose of developing the ship building industry and inland navigation, China will need foreign assistance. But while welcoming foreign participation, China will put the whole arrangement under Chinese laws, and will apply her Maritime Law, promulgated on March 30, 1929, and revised on January 1, 1931. Article 3

of the Law provides *inter alia* as follows:

The following ships shall be considered as owned by the Chinese:

- (1) Those owned by the Chinese government offices.
- (2) Those owned by the citizens of the Chinese Republic.
- (3) Those owned by the following companies organized in China in accordance with Chinese laws:
 - (a) Companies with unlimited liabilities, the shareholders of which are Chinese.
 - (b) Limited partnership or joint stock limited partnership, the shareholders of which are Chinese.
 - (c) Companies with limited liabilities, two-thirds of the members of the board of directors are Chinese, and two-thirds of the capital are owned by the Chinese.

Thus, it is clear that according to the Chinese Maritime Law, the ownership of ships in the Chinese waters will not be decided by the nationality of their constructors, nor by the nationality of their captains and pilots, but by the nationality of the steamship companies which own them. This is obviously due to the fact the ship building industry in China is still in its infant stage, and that the training of pilots has only just begun.

From the application of this theory, it is clear that it is the intention of the Chinese authorities to purchase foreign-owned steamships, and to reorganize foreign steamship companies in China into limited partnerships or joint

corporations in accordance with the Chinese Maritime Law and Company Law. Both the reorganized and new navigation companies with foreign shares will likely be organized along the same line of organization of the China National Aviation Corporation, a Sino-American joint corporation, with the Chinese holding majority of its shares, with a Chinese as its managing-director who really manages the whole business of the corporation, with the operation of business under the control of the Chinese law, and with the Americans assuming more duties on technical matters. To many Chinese observers, the China National Aviation Corporation stands as a symbol of Sino-American cooperation, financial as well as technical, governmental as well as commercial.

China's Foreign Trade.—After the war, will China adopt a policy of protective tariff, or a policy of free trade, in regulating her foreign trade? According to the Atlantic Charter, both Great Britain and the United States agree to tear down tariff wall and trade barriers, and to invoke free trade. But according to the present state of the Chinese industry, every layman knows that the policy of free trade will prove too suicidal to the Chinese infant industries. In order to find a way out, some general principles are advanced by some competent Chinese economists, and they may be enumerated as follows:

1. China should, first of all, have a balance of trade. In the case that import is greater than export, the portion of import exceeding the export from any country should only be the materials which are most needed by China, and which should be

covered by loans or credit facilities to be agreed upon between China and the exporting country concerned.

2. China should make more careful selection of imports, and should impose more strict restrictions on the importation of commercial commodities of less importance and less use to China, and should prohibit their importation in case of necessity.

Ever since the opening of China to foreign trade a century ago, and with the exception of one or two years throughout the whole period, China had always had an unfavourable balance of trade. Chinese economists considered it as one of the cardinal principles to have a balance of trade in regulating her foreign trade after the war. In addition, they proposed that China should conclude with friendly powers commercial pacts of short duration, renewable each year, so as to suit the changing economic conditions in the country.

Some Chinese experts have already advanced a Three-Year Post-War Economic Reconstruction Plan for China, part of which deals with exclusively China's foreign trade. This plan calls for a sum of from \$436,000,000 to \$5,931,000,000 a year for the development, purchase, storage, standardization, transportation and exportation of 13 principal agricultural and mineral exportable products which usually make up 70% of the total national export. They are: \$1,440,000,000 to \$1,920,000,000 for soy beans and bean products, \$440,000,000 to \$660,000,000 for raw silk, \$480,000,000 to \$600,000,000 for egg products, \$360,000,000 to \$480,000,000 for tung (wood) oil,

\$240,000,000 to \$360,000,000 for peanuts, \$276,000,000 to \$345,000,000 for tungsten, \$264,000,000 to \$330,000,000 for bristles, \$216,000,000 to \$288,000,000 for sesamum, \$180,000,000 to \$240,000,000 for skins and leather, \$180,000,000 to \$240,000,000 for handicraft and embroidered piece-goods, \$144,000,000 to \$192,000,000 for tea, \$144,000,000 to \$180,000,000 for tin, and \$72,000,000 to \$96,000,000 for wool. These figures, together with other expenses for the sales of these products abroad, will require an aggregate of more than \$15,000,000,000 in three years. But behind this move is the intention to balance the trade. The Chinese economists know that after the war, the economic reconstruction in the country will be in full progress, and that China will have to import machineries and other needed materials amounting to enormous sums. Therefore, one of the ways to repay them is to develop and promote the Chinese export trade.

Field for Foreign Investment.

Those who have read *China's Destiny* by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek will know that China has an elaborate economic reconstruction plan which she intends to inaugurate after the war. This plan calls for the completion at the 10th year of railways of 20,000 kilometers out of a total of 140,000; highways of 225,000 kilometers out of 1,500,000; inland navigable lines of 219,000 kilometers out of 535,000; harbours accommodable to ships of 100,000,000 total tonnage out of 186,000,000; irrigation channels capable of watering 100,000,000 *shih mow* of farm land out of 250,000,000; commercial steamships of 3,043,300 tons out of 14,417,400 tons; 12,000 civil planes out of 120,000; 3,000 loco-

motives out of 24,000; 44,000 freight cars out of 352,000; 451,570 other vehicles out of 7,667,210; electric and hydroelectric power of 6,200,000 watts out of 20,000,000; motor power of 10,700,000 h.p. out of 40,000,000; water power of 2,000,000 watts out of 10,000,000; telegraphic lines of 36,000,000 kilometers; 3,000 radio stations; 18,000,000 radio receivers; 1,650,000 pieces of machineries of various kinds out of 11,500,000; cotton mills with 3,000,000 spindles out of 10,000,000 and 96,000 machines out of 320,000; wool mills with 174,000 spindles out of 580,000 and 4,950 machines out of 16,500, and other textile mills with 83,100 spindles out of 277,000 and 198,880 machines out of 662,960. By the end of the 10th year, China will produce 150,000,000 tons of coal, 1,774,000 tons of petroleum, 5,560,000 tons of steel and iron, 25,000 tons of copper, 13,000 tons of lead, 2,000 tons of zinc, 11,500 tons of aluminium, 25,000 tons of tungsten, 20,000 tons of pure antimony, 30,000 tons of fine tin and 500 tons of fine mercury. By the end of the same period, China will have to train a total of 2,464,200 technicians.

Chinese experts estimate that for the first three years of the Chinese post-war economic reconstruction, the total capital requirements will be in the neighbourhood of \$52,300,000,000; \$30,000,000,000 for the development of industry, \$7,009,000,000 for the development of agriculture, \$318,100,000 for the development of forestry, and \$15,000,000,000 for the development of China's foreign trade.

Agricultural development during the first three years will include the propagation of improved seeds, the multiplication of better livestock, the extension of farm irrigation, the

improvement of fertilizers and farm implements, the prevention of insect pests, the development of rural economy, and the increase in the acreage of cultivated farm land. For the first year, a total of \$1,665,500,000 is needed; \$2,405,900,000 for the second year, and \$2,938,400,000 for the third year, thus making a total of \$7,009,000,000 for the whole period. Of this total, \$448,300,000 is to be used for the propagation of improved seeds and livestock, \$2,39,500,000 for the extensive promotion of better varieties, \$2,366,000,000 for farm irrigation, \$43,000,000 for the improvement of fertilizers, \$40,000,000 for the improvement of farming implements, \$73,000,000 for the control of insect pests, \$1,257,000,000 for the development of rural economy, and \$390,000,000 for the extension of cultivated farm land. Of this total, \$899,280,000 may come from the National Treasury, \$480,860,000 from provincial agricultural and forestry bureaus under the provincial governments, \$5,445,333,000 from other financial organs, leaving \$184,330,000 from other sources.

The development of forestry calls for, among others, wide establishment of nurseries in every hsien with a capital of \$50,000,000 for the first three years; construction of three lumber yards to be located in the most suitable place along the most important railways in the Northwest and Southwest to be capitalized at \$20,000,000 each, or \$60,000,000 for all; and construction of one paper mill and one wood distillation plant in one of the natural forest fields in the West to be capitalized at \$50,000,000, or \$100,000,000 for both. In three years, a total of \$318,100,000 is required, \$174,500,000 of which may

come from the National Treasury, \$96,600,000 from local governments, and \$47,000,000 from other sources.

The cost for the construction of railways and highways in China varied from time to time. Ten years ago, on average, it cost \$100,000 for the construction of one kilometer of railway. The Hankow-Canton and Hunan-Kwangsi Railways were completed at from \$140,000 to \$150,000 per kilometer. But recent estimate reveals that while the cost for the construction of highways is now put at \$100,000 per kilometer, that for the construction of the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway is estimated at \$1,500,000, or more, per kilometer. Therefore, competent observers estimated that after the war, the construction of 63,000 kilometers of railways and 100,000 kilometers of highways, together with 6,300,000 tons of railway equipment, 113,000,000 sleepers, 1,260,000 tons of railway track, 63,000,000 barrels of cement, 12,600 locomotives, 308,000 freight cars, and others, will cost more than \$20,000,000,000.

That is to say, during the first three years of the post-war economic reconstruction, China will need \$52,300,000,000 for the development of industry, agriculture, forestry and foreign trade, and another \$20,000,000,000 for the development of communications.

Turning to the national income of the Chinese people, most experts—Chinese as well as foreign—put it between \$53,750,000,000 and \$69,040,000,000. The average national savings for 1933, 1934 and 1935 is only \$554,580,000. It is, therefore, physically impossible for the people with such a low income and small savings to put up such a huge capital.

A study of the Chinese national budget, principally of 1934, reveals that in the pre-war days, about \$500,000,000 including government appropriations, imports diverted for reconstruction purposes, and bank savings went to economic development each year. Some Chinese economists planned to increase this sum to \$1,800,000,000 by taking 20% out of the increased taxes of \$2,000,000,000, amounting to \$400,000,000; by increasing home production and diverting 70% of the Chinese purchases, or \$700,000,000, to buy machines, tools and other materials for the industrialization of the country; and by encouraging and increasing more savings to the amount of \$1,000,000,000, and diverting 70% of which sum, or \$700,000,000, for reconstruction investments. This is probably all the Chinese can go. Assuming that this sum (\$1,800,000,000), equivalent to \$30,000,000,000 in terms of the dollar's purchasing power in Chungking in December, 1942, could be realized and devoted for national economic reconstruction, it would *not* meet the demand for a rapid industrialization of the country. Therefore, viewed from the national income, the people's savings, terms and marginal utility of capital investments and distribution of funds on an equitable and well-balanced basis, no Chinese economist will view the post-war economic reconstruction with optimism. But in a desperate attempt to raise sufficient amount of capital to carry on the many projects, the Chinese always conclude that the capital for the post-war national economic reconstruction must be supplemented by foreign investments. Here is another reason which demands the early readjustment of our economic relations, so as to

encourage more foreign investments in the Chinese industrial undertakings and to make such investments profitable to both.

China as a Potential Market. To employ foreign capital and technical assistance in the industrial development of China is an avowed policy of the Kuomintang. At the outset of the inauguration of China's famous "Two-R (Resistance and Reconstruction) Program," the Chinese leaders already made repeated appeals to friendly powers for financial and technical assistance. China contends that she possesses a wealth of agricultural products and mineral resources which are not only sufficient for her own use but are also sufficient to supply the needs of many other countries. Secondly, as a result of the industrialization of the country, a higher standard of living of the people will be attained, and their purchasing power will be increased. Before the war, China had a foreign trade of only 1,800 million Chinese dollars. But any slight increase in our purchasing power, say, of two dollars *per capita*, would mean an increase of \$900,000,000 to our annual trade with friendly powers. No commercial nation in the world could afford to neglect the Chinese market. To make China economically strong and prosperous is not simply of benefit to China alone. It is also the only way by which the rich natural resources of this country can be made available to the world.

The Chinese could still remember that shortly after the first World War the late leader Dr. Sun Yat-sen proposed to ship the dismantled foreign machineries and equipments to China and to employ foreign unemployed

technicians in the Chinese service, partly to assist in the industrialization of China, and partly to avert a world economic crisis after the war. What was proposed by Dr. Sun after the last war is still applicable after the present war.

Synthetical Form of Investment.

From the point of view of historical instances, the Chinese economists are also convinced that capital investment in Free China after the war would produce results upon the American economic life as stimulating as the earlier American investments in Europe did. Not only that, after the war, America will find China as the much needed new industrial frontier which can absorb the idle capital that threatens American economic stability. After her victory over Japan, China's capacity to absorb capital investment will be unprecedented. Therefore, many Chinese economists cherish the idea that after the war a huge industrial loan to China may solve the British and American major economic problems as well as meet China's urgent needs for capital to finance many of her economic reconstruction projects. This loan can be secured and repaid by China's export of her principal agricultural products very much in the same way as the repayment of the first American loan made to wartime China in 1938, which loan, by breaking down the tradition, was not secured on the Chinese Customs or salt revenue but on China's export of her *tung* oil, and for this reason, this loan is now more popularly known as the "Sino-American *Tung* Oil Loan" which stands as another symbol of genuine Sino-American friendship and cooperation.

In the course of the discussion, we

also find that some Chinese economists and leaders have expressed their apprehension that a larger portion of American capital would again likely flow to the European countries as it was the case following the last war. But permit us to remind them of their painful lesson, which we believe most American economists can still remember. It is true that the enormous sums of capital which the American exported to Europe after the last war were to a large extent responsible for America's greatest productive period. But it must be remembered that Germany used the American loans to revive her stagnant foreign trade, and to repay the American loans in the main with the same type of industrial commodities which the American were manufacturing. If that investment seemed to have lost beyond recall, it was not because the policy itself was wrong, but because America lent money to the wrong country. After the present war, the same mistake might not be repeated. China is the right place and an immense field for American investment.

But after the war, China is likely to adopt a *planned* economy in the promotion of her national economic reconstruction. China would, therefore, welcome foreign investment in a *synthetical* and organized form. For example, as it is proposed by some Chinese economists, for the construction of railways, China will just organize one railway construction corporation which will arrange for foreign loans, and which will use loans at its disposal for the construction of any of the railways which the Chinese Government may decide, so that China does not have to contract loans each time for railway construction. The

same may be true of the construction of harbours, water conservancy works and other big projects where Chinese capital has to be supplemented by foreign capital. This system has many advantages over the piecemeal investment in the pre-war days when China did not have concrete planning, and when efforts in national economic reconstruction were not organized and coordinated. Through the synthetical form, the Chinese economists believe that the utilization of foreign capital will also be put on a more rational basis, and more security will be given to foreign investment.

This synthetical form of investment does not mean the end of free investment in China. China has already established stock market in Chungking and in other places. The Chinese economists predict that after the war the Chinese financial authorities will undoubtedly take more steps to develop and open capital market and stock exchange where stocks of leading companies and industrial bonds are open to public subscription. As pointed out by some experts, what is then important is to establish direct and close contact between the Chinese capital market and foreign capital markets.

Conclusion.—To sum up, China, during the period of her economic reconstruction, welcomes foreign capital and technical assistance in the true spirit of international cooperation to assist her in industrialization. China, in regulating and readjusting her relations with the friendly powers after the conclusions of new treaties, will not depart herself from the well-established principles of international law. China, while mindful, as she should, of her own national economy

and interests and infant industries, will accord "national treatment" to foreign nationals in China as far as possible. China, as a sovereign State, will not permit her laws and regulations to remain "theoretical only," but will enforce them rigidly. China, as one of the United Nations in this anti-Axis war and an important member of the family of nations, is most anxious to do her part in the post-war world economic reconstruction and recovery by absorbing foreign capital, particularly, idle capital, which would otherwise threaten the economic stability of the foreign countries after the war, by utilizing their surplus products and technical staffs, and by supplying the world with her rich products and raw materials through her own internal industrial development.

Although these general principles come mostly from unofficial sources, and principally from Chinese writers, experts and economists for the readjustment of our economic relations, they are, nevertheless, fairly representative of the Chinese popular opinion. What they have said now will undoubtedly have much influence on government actions and decisions in the future.

From these general principles, it is very clear that the readjustment will be made in the spirit of mutual goodwill, mutual understanding and mutual assistance, based not on a narrow nationalistic path, but on open and international mindedness. The readjustment is intended to further cement the friendly relations which have already happily been existing, and to exert full effort together in the economic reconstruction of the world.

But in the course of the readjustment, the Chinese observers predict,

not with probability but with certainty, that difficulties have to be met, oppositions have to be overcome, and inconvenience and loss may occur to foreign nationals in China. This is probably something psychological as well as inevitable. Foreign nationals in China were accustomed to the many special privileges which they enjoyed for a long century in the past. The

sudden and total abolition of these privileges is bound to produce some reaction which may have retarding effect in the readjustment. But the Chinese have confidence that the sense of rationalism and the feelings of comradeship will prevail, and that statesmanship in the three countries will bring about a successful readjustment of our economic relations.

OVERSEA CHINESE AFFAIRS

CHEN SHU-JEN¹ (陳樹人)

THE footprints of the overseas Chinese, numbering more than 10 millions, can be traced all over the more populous parts of the globe. The history of their expansion has been a long one. At the outset, no thought was given by the Government to such a thing as overseas affairs, not to say its administration. The Ching dynasty, entirely ignoring the welfare of the Chinese people living overseas, established in its last decades emigration inquiry offices at Canton, Tientsin, Amoy, and Ningpo, with a view to lending an impulse to emigration. During the formative years of the Republic, the Peking Government set up an Oversea Labour Bureau and a Board of Oversea Affairs; but these existed merely in name. In 1922, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, founder of the Republic, realizing the importance of overseas affairs, created an Oversea Affairs Bureau, one of the component parts of the Headquarters at Canton. The Revolutionary Government at Canton established a Commission on Oversea Affairs in 1924. In 1927, when Nanking was made the capital of China, the management of overseas affairs was temporarily taken up by the Waichiaopu. In 1928, the Commission on Oversea Affairs was re-instituted under the National Government and it was subsequently transferred under the Central Headquarters of the Kuomintang. The course of

events reveals that however eager its wishes and however stupendous its efforts were, the Government had not gone far enough in promoting the interests of the overseas Chinese, mainly due to the frequent reorganization of responsible administration at a time of revolutionary activities. The advent of the year 1932 distinctly opened up a new vista. As a result of reorganization, the present Oversea Affairs Commission emerged under the Executive Yuan with the avowed purposes of furthering emigration and overseas education. It is in the past 10 years and under the direction of the Central authorities that the cornerstone of overseas affairs administration was laid.

In the history of China, administration of overseas affairs is without many precedents. Any achievement along this line must be backed up by initiatives and devotion. The great number of the overseas Chinese, the vast areas they have traversed and the wide scope of their activities, all make certain that the Commission will have a tremendously arduous task to perform. It came into existence in April 1932, only half a year after the Mukden incident and immediately after the Shanghai war. Fully realizing the fact that it had its birth in days of grave national exigencies, the founders of the Commission restricted the scope of its organization and

reduced its expenditure to a minimum amount. During the period under review, enlargement of the organization has not been made except in cases of absolute necessity in the interest of the well-being of the overseas Chinese.

The chairman at the head of the Commission assumes the responsibilities for all its activities, and is assisted by a vice-chairman. The routine work is ordinarily performed by three departments, namely, the Secretariat, the Department of Oversea Affairs and the Department of Oversea Education. With the nucleus of the organization well formed, other organs have been set up since 1929. These are: (1) Oversea Teachers Training Institute, (2) Oversea Correspondence School, (3) Modern Oversea Chinese Association, (4) Oversea News Agency, (5) Returned Oversea Students Hostel, (6) Preparatory Committee for the Organization of the Federation of Oversea Chinese Education, and (7) Institute of Oversea Affairs.

Under the control of the Oversea Affairs Commission are the overseas affairs bureaus in the important sea ports and the overseas affairs departments in a number of provinces. At the present time, overseas affairs departments have been established in only three provinces: Kwangtung, Fukien, and Yunnan. Oversea affairs bureaus were set up at Shanghai, Amoy, Swatow, Kongmoon, etc., but these have been temporarily closed.

When the Sino-Japanese war started, in certain parts of the world the relations of the overseas Chinese with their mother country were in danger of being completely severed, with their lives and properties made insecure. In 1941, the Executive Yuan promul-

gated a set of regulations protecting overseas Chinese in the period of emergency to be observed by Chinese embassies, legations and consulates in foreign countries in case of the arising of situations which call for the application of such measures. In accordance with article III of the said regulations, an Oversea Chinese Assistance Committee was organized. It consisted of 10 members, appointed by the Executive Yuan and representing the various branches of the Government that had anything to do with overseas affairs. The chairman of the committee was concurrently the director of the Oversea Affairs Commission. It was the duty of the committee to help and guide the returned overseas Chinese who wished to start some sort of enterprise at home. In the execution of this task, a number of steps were taken by the committee. Two "returned overseas Chinese villages," one at Lungchow of Kwangsi and the other at Tungshing of Kwangtung, were built up in order to rally them for productive work. Returned Oversea Chinese Temporary Services were also wisely established at Changchow, Suichi, Tungshing, Shanwei, Suitung, Hsiakwan, etc. to provide facilities for the reception, registration, guidance, and relief of the returned overseas Chinese. Further in this direction, guides were stationed at Suikow, Yoyu, Kunming, Kweiyang, Liuchow, Nanning, Lungyen, Yamhsien, Waichow, Lupao, Chinchengkiang, etc. to assist in the obtaining of transportation facilities.

There are two main principles which have guided the Oversea Affairs Commission in its administrative activities. First, the establishment and maintenance of close contact between the overseas Chinese and their mother country, so that the deep-rooted

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Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Wang

patriotism and confidence can be preserved and augmented. In the second place, respect for local authorities and laws in foreign countries on the part of our oversea nationals should be encouraged so that friendly relations and close cooperation with other governments and peoples can be attained. In one word, all oversea Chinese are instructed to try their best to be well-behaved residents at the places where they live. The Chinese Government aims to show traditional magnanimity befitting a great nation. In the absence of such a spirit, the Japanese government on the contrary, urged their oversea nationals to join in espionage work or to stir up local disturbances. These malignant and abominable intentions and conducts have given rise to international anti-pathology and repugnance.

The southwestern Pacific area has borne the brunt of the Japanese attack since the outbreak of the Pacific war. To this area where so many of our oversea nationals are residing, the Oversea Affairs Commission has given the closest attention. War spread rapidly, menacing that area with increasing magnitude. In December 1941, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek urged the oversea Chinese to offer whatever assistance they can to their local governments. He stressed, in more concrete terms, the necessity for the oversea Chinese voluntarily and enthusiastically to enlist in the army of their respective residing countries in order to make up, in a measure, the shortage of manpower which is badly felt by China's Allies in carrying the war against the numerically superior Japanese forces. The Chinese Government considers the service rendered by its oversea nationals just as valuable as that done by their fellow country-

men at home. To realize this idea, the Oversea Affairs Commission directed the oversea Chinese in America and Australia to serve in the land or naval forces of both countries. The Pacific war has enormously increased and intensified the activities of the Commission. The following pages are devoted to a brief survey of its outstanding achievements after the outbreak of the present war.

Encouragement of Oversea Contributions.—The Lukouchiao incident plunged China and Japan into the sanguinary war which has lasted for six years and is still proceeding. During wartime, the main task of the Oversea Affairs Commission is to make known to all oversea Chinese the policy of the National Government. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek has defined the basic aim of our war against Japan as the preservation of our national existence. On August 13, 1937, the day the war in Shanghai broke out, and on the next day, the Commission sent two circular telegrams to all oversea Chinese calling them forth for the salvation of their fatherland. Later, a series of messages was issued telling them about our all-out resistance, and notices were dispatched urging them to offer either pecuniary aids or physical efforts to the Government, which were preparing for a long-term war.

The Government issued the National Defence Bonds, the Liberty Bonds, and the National Reconstruction Gold Bonds. The Commission pushed the sale of these bonds among the oversea Chinese. The writer visited the Philippines in the winter of 1937 soliciting the oversea Chinese there to buy war bonds. Ten members of the Commission visited various parts of

the world taking upon themselves the mission of comforting and encouraging the oversea Chinese and at the same time to set up oversea Chinese national salvation organizations. These organizations were to undertake the task of promoting charity sales and other activities, the proceeds of which were to be used as contributions to the fatherland.

Collection of Oversea Contributions.—

Since the beginning of the war of resistance, oversea contributions including the purchase of war bonds and cash offerings have accumulated to an amount of several hundred millions. Before the War, there were many governmental agencies charged with the responsibility of receiving oversea contributions. It was not until August 13, 1937 that by an order of the Executive Yuan the Oversea Affairs Commission alone was charged with this duty. Since September, 1937, all oversea contributions have been remitted to the committee soliciting the purchase of the national salvation bonds and later to the Ministry of Finance. During the short period of its effort, the Commission collected \$5,000,000 and handed this sum to the Executive Yuan. To make open to the public the names of the oversea Chinese and associations who had made the contributions, the Commission published in December 1937 and in April 1938 two reports, entitled "The First and Second Reports on National Salvation and Charity Contributions Made by the Oversea Chinese during the War of Resistance." Numerous copies of the reports were sent to all parts of the world and no mistake has ever been found in the said reports either by the oversea Chinese or by the Ministry of Audit.

There are two particular cases worth mentioning. The first is that in March 1942, a leader of the oversea Chinese at Singapore, after arriving in the wartime capital and having attended the meeting of the People's Political Council, contributed on the spot a sum of \$2,000,000, which was presented to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek through the writer. The second case is that the Hua-Sheng Company, under the most difficult circumstances and even at the risk of their lives and property, offered anonymously from abroad a total of more than \$400,000 on seven occasions to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Such actions represent the high tide of the patriotic feeling of the oversea Chinese. To encourage this kind of spirit, Generalissimo Chiang bestowed full honours upon them at the instance of the writer.

Conveying War Situations Abroad.—

(1) Periodicals under the title of "Oversea Chinese Mobilization" were published monthly from March, 1938 to March, 1940. Since the latter date, they have been renamed "Modern Oversea Chinese." (2) Broadcasts were made concerning political affairs of the Central Government, anti-Japanese and anti-puppets statements, and solicitation for national salvation contributions and savings. Aside from these, problems of the national spiritual movement, oversea education, etc. were discussed. (3) Special news articles were despatched to help the oversea Chinese understand more clearly and accurately the important national or international events. (4) Publicity pamphlets concerning the war of resistance, national rehabilitation, and anti-Japanese and anti-puppets facts were despatched abroad in great numbers.

(5) Oversea Chinese organizations were directed to prohibit and destroy publications of iniquitous propaganda.

Encouragement of Technical Personnel to Work at Home. In the first period of the war of resistance, a good number of the oversea Chinese, under the impact of patriotic feelings, voluntarily applied themselves to work at home. The Oversea Affairs Commission urged them to continue their present business or industries and to accelerate the development of oversea enterprises so as to enable them to send more material aids to the Government. However, in case there were aeronautic mechanics and experts on air defence, anti-gas work, chemistry, communications, and engineering who wished to work at home, they might obtain from the Chinese Embassy or consulate at the place where they were staying, certificates and recommendations, with which they could return and serve in government departments wanting in technical assistance. The Oversea Affairs Commission sent out oversea technicians investigation forms to all the Chinese embassies, consulates, and chambers of commerce in foreign countries, in the hope of getting these technicians returned.

The returned oversea Chinese working groups include the following: (1) overseas Chinese relief corps organized by the Chinese chamber of commerce at Batavia; (2) returned overseas Chinese graduates from aeronautical schools, who had been sent to foreign aeronautical schools by a Chinese chamber of commerce in Indo-China; (3) engineering volunteers corps returned from Burma; (4) medical relief corps returned from Thailand; (5) automobile engineering corps

from Penang; (6) China charity relief corps, etc. etc.

Three thousand returned mechanics and drivers from Malaya took charge of the transportation of ammunitions on the Burma Road. Many of them came from wealthy families. Prompted alone by the atrocities of the brutal Japanese forces, they came back to serve under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, in complete disregard of physical hardships which they had to suffer in straitened circumstances.

Encouragement of Investment in Productive Enterprises. China's existing supplies would not be sufficient for the prosecution of a long-term war unless production and reconstruction be proceeded on a grand scale. The Oversea Affairs Commission writing to Chinese embassies and consulates and Chinese organizations in foreign countries, emphasized the importance of national reconstruction and expected overseas Chinese leaders to return to their mother country. With an eye to developing the resources of the interior, the Oversea Affairs Commission, after consulting with the provincial governments of Hunan, Kwangtung, and Kwangsi, worked out a plan of inviting the oversea Chinese to promote industries at home. Statistic tables of the products of the various provinces were appended to the plan, which were sent abroad for reference for oversea Chinese investments in industries at home.

Approving the petitions made by the oversea Chinese for the allotment of land to be developed by them, the Oversea Affairs Commission consulted with the Ministry of Economic Affairs and drafted regulations governing land development by oversea Chinese.

The oversea Chinese at various parts of the world were profoundly interested in developing industries at home, and they knew precisely also what was in store for them there. The inconveniences which were unavoidable in war time did not hamper their continuous investments in interior industries. Instances worth mentioning are the setting up of the South China Rubber Co. and the Overseas Chinese Enterprise Co.

It is chiefly because of financial restrictions in foreign countries that the investment of oversea Chinese capital to their mother country became increasingly difficult. After the outbreak of the Pacific war, the influx of oversea Chinese capital became phenomenal. The Oversea Transportation Company, which was accorded facilities by the Burmese Government, the Great China Shoes Co., which also obtained the privilege of exemption from tax in importing raw materials, the Oversea Chinese Industrial Co., the Ta Cheng Industrial Bank, etc. were organized in rapid succession. The Chieh Ho Steel Manufactory, on account of its losses in Hongkong, set up its branch in the interior. The Hongkong Shing Chung Firm also established its branch in Chungking. A number of oversea Chinese wished to have their machines, which were kept in Indo-China, transferred to the mother country for industrial development. This was made possible under the guidance and protection of the Commission.

In 1940, the Commission collected a large amount of industrial data in this country and compiled a new index of industries in China. This index was widely used as a reference for oversea investments. A new edition

is being compiled and will be published soon.

Supervision of National Salvation Organizations Abroad.—The control of ordinary oversea Chinese organizations is one of the regular activities of the Oversea Affairs Commission. Statistics up to the end of August, 1942, show that there were 388 oversea Chinese organizations which had registered and 2,578 not yet registered, making a total of 2,966. On the other hand, oversea Chinese organizations at home number 39 registered and two to be registered.

Since the Lukouchiao incident of July 7, 1937, oversea Chinese have set up numerous national salvation organizations to raise money and to perform other services for the home Government. In accordance with the provisional regulations governing the national salvation organizations abroad the Commission has made numerous efforts to strengthen them. Up to the present, there are 38 such organizations already registered and 881 not yet registered, making a total of 919.

Distinction of Native and Enemy Goods.—The Commission formulated plans and instructed all Chinese consulates and chambers of commerce abroad to enforce the regulations for the prohibition of enemy goods. The Ministry of Economic Affairs compiled lists of enemy goods and the prohibited products of the Northeastern Provinces and distributed these lists among Chinese merchants abroad. However, discriminations were often wrongly made on goods from the guerilla areas, which goods were not prohibited. This resulted in losses on our side. In order to avoid such mistakes, the Ministry of Economic Affairs requested

the Commission to distribute abroad tables of goods of the guerrilla zones.

Fostering the Thrift and Savings Movement. After the National Thrift Movement was initiated, the Oversea Affairs Commission immediately distributed copies of the Outline of the National Thrift Movement among the oversea Chinese organizations. Later, regulations governing the issue of the National Reconstruction Savings Notes were promulgated. Thereupon, the Haiwaipu, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Oversea Affairs Commission and the Joint Administration of the Four Government Banks were authorized for the promotion of the oversea Chinese thrift movement and savings campaign. Representatives of the above mentioned government organizations held a meeting subsequently and decisions were reached to the effect that a circular be sent to all the oversea organs of the Kuomintang, overseas Chinese organizations and Chinese consulates, urging them to call meetings of the oversea leaders to decide upon measures for the promotion of the Thrift and Savings Movement. The offices for the sale of the National Reconstruction Savings Notes in foreign countries were subsequently increased in numbers. Since December 1941 the progress of this movement has been rendered impossible in the southeastern Pacific area. Despite the unfavourable circumstances, the Commission is continuing its effort in this direction wherever possible.

Facilitating of Oversea Remittances. The amount of money which the oversea Chinese remitted to their mother country cannot be ignored. Families of many an individual oversea Chinese live on the remittance. Indirectly it helps to balance the foreign

exchange of China. Since the war, special measures have been provided to prevent the increase of difficulties for oversea remittances to reach home. The Japanese militarists in the occupied territories, especially at Amoy, Swatow, Canton, and the Hainan Island, have endeavoured to get hold of the oversea remittances. First, they made a list of all the people in the guerrilla areas who were the relatives of Chinese abroad. Then they sent agents to induce the oversea Chinese in the southwestern Pacific countries to remit money home through their hands. In view of this situation, the Oversea Affairs Commission called the attention of the oversea Chinese to the enemy intrigue and advised them to take precautions against it. The Commission, having consulted the various government departments concerned adopted the following measures to facilitate oversea remittances:

(1) More government banks are to be established abroad with a view to absorbing oversea remittances.

(2) Close connections among the banks, private post agencies, and postal remittance offices are to be maintained in order to open the ways for remittances.

(3) The postal remittance office should set up a network of agencies and private agencies should be accorded privileges for drawing oversea remittances.

(4) Facilities should be provided for the families of oversea Chinese to receive remittances.

Before the Pacific war, though governments of the southwestern Pacific countries laid restrictions upon remittances, the ways of remittances still remained open. Since the advance of the Japanese southward, it became impossible to remit money

to or from the Japanese occupied territories. Remittances from America were also made difficult. The Oversea Affairs Commission has tried various means to remedy the situation. Some of the measures are as follows:

(1) The money which the oversea Chinese at Honolulu wish to send back to their mother country can be remitted from local banks to the Bank of China in New York, and from there to the postal remittance offices in China.

(2) Regulations governing the registration and clearing of oversea remittances were carried out by the Bank of China in New York and also by its branches in New Zealand, Australia, and Europe.

(3) The Bank of China at Kungong and the Provincial Bank of Kwangtung agreed to the measure that when oversea Chinese sent their money to Kwangtung through the Bank of China abroad, and, if the remittee was living in the Japanese occupied parts of Kwangtung, the Provincial Bank of Kwangtung should charge the local commercial firms with remitting the money to the said remittee.

(4) If the oversea Chinese in India intended to come back to Free China, they could remit all their deposits in local banks to the banks in China, and they were allowed to bring precious possessions valuing no more than 3,000 rupees with them while departing India. Remittances for family uses in Free China were accorded conveniences.

(5) The transfer of capital of oversea Chinese within the sterling pounds countries was to be free from restrictions.

(6) Oversea Chinese holding deposit accounts in the Bank of China at Hongkong and Kulangsu could draw them from the Bank of China in

the interior, at 20% discount.

(7) After the fall of Hongkong, the remittances from America to the Bank of China at Hongkong were payable elsewhere on the evidence of the draft. The Bank of China was also required to be accountable for the remittances of foreign banks, and half of the remitted sum might be paid in advance.

(8) The savings certificates held by oversea Chinese who were identified by any organization concerned with oversea affairs, were payable at the responsible offices. If the notes were not due, they might be held in pledge for cash paid.

(9) In the branches of the four government banks in Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Fukien and Chekiang, oversea remittances less than \$5,000 were free from remittance charge.

(10) To comply with the request of the returned oversea Chinese, the deadline for the exchange of Hongkong notes into Chinese currency was postponed to the end of October 1942. The amount to be exchanged by one person was limited to 250 Hongkong dollars. The date for the exchange of Burmese rupee was also to be expired at the end of October 1942.

Directing the Influx of Oversea Chinese Capital.—Before December 1941, situations in the southwestern Pacific countries were getting increasingly precarious as the Japanese southward advance became more and more manifest. To safeguard the lives and properties of the oversea Chinese in that area became the urgent duty of the Oversea Affairs Commission. The immediate task was to guide the influx of the capital of the oversea Chinese to Free China. Incidentally the money would serve greatly to stimulate pro-

duction at home. But the difficulty was how to transfer the capital home. We have stated above the measures adopted to cope with the Japanese attempt to get hold of overseas remittances and measures for the setting up of a network of organizations to facilitate those remittances. These efforts, although having been carried out, were not complete and effective enough. On this problem long discussions were carried on among the governmental departments concerned.

Generally speaking, overseas capital flowed back home either from places where foreign exchange were not controlled or from places where it was controlled. In the former case, there was no difficulty. In the latter case, negotiations between the Chinese diplomatic representatives and the governments of the concerned countries were necessary. In March, 1941, the problems of the limitation of overseas remittances, of the absorption of overseas capital, of the use of the overseas capital for the purchase of bonds and certificates and of the despatch of personnel to direct the influx of overseas capital, were all comprehensively discussed by the Oversea Affairs Commission, the Haiwaipu and other departments concerned. Many decisions were made. The Ministry of Finance was charged with the duty of carrying out these decisions in the light of other regulations which had been previously made.

Promoting Wartime Oversea Education.—Overseas education is one of the most important overseas affairs. Measures adopted by the Commission for the promotion of wartime overseas education were as follows:

(1) The draft of measures for promoting overseas education had been

worked out and was later approved by the Seventh Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

(2) Overseas Chinese students were guided to enter local military academies, or were recommended to the Central Military Academy at home: overseas Chinese schools were directed to set up wartime educational research institutes.

(3) The Commission agreed with the Ministry of Education upon measures for the appointment of overseas educational commissioners.

(4) A committee on overseas educational subsidies was organized and decisions were made to the effect that the subsidies to overseas schools for general purposes should be used exclusively to expand the libraries and laboratories of overseas schools, to pay the living allowances for overseas teachers, and to help the returned overseas students.

(5) Directions were given to establish overseas vocational night schools.

(6) The overseas teachers training class was continued.

(7) Overseas organizations were directed to establish popular schools for overseas Chinese.

(8) Overseas correspondence schools were established.

(9) Three national middle schools and two national normal schools for overseas Chinese were established under the Ministry of Education. A large number of returned overseas students were admitted.

(10) Gifted overseas students selected through examinations were recommended and supported by the Government to study in the universities or colleges at home.

(11) The provisional requirements for the registration of the overseas

schools in Hongkong and Macao were published jointly by the Commission and the Ministry of Education.

(12) The work of compiling text books for overseas middle and primary schools was resumed.

(13) Various publications guiding overseas education were printed.

There were a few more measures adopted to meet the immediate requirements of the time, such as:

(1) In collaboration with the Ministry of Education, the Commission appointed experts to form an overseas education planning committee.

(2) In cooperation with the Ministry of Education, the Commission formulated regulations governing the conferring of honors on overseas schools.

(3) Overseas schools were examined and reorganized in the hope of raising the level of overseas education.

(4) Overseas schools were encouraged to get registered so as to make it easier for their guidance and improvement.

(5) Temporary services for returned overseas students were established to help them continue to study at home.

Unemployment Relief.—The lot of the returned unemployed overseas Chinese was certainly not enviable. To relieve their distress, the Overseas Affairs Commission sent them to the Chiao-Lo Village at Shuiyang of Anhwei and directed the local overseas affairs bureaus and the provincial overseas affairs departments to give returned overseas students all the facilities which were needed. Upon the petition of the Commission and the Foreign Ministry, the Executive Yuan ordered the Ministry of Finance to allot £1,000 for helping out the 200

Chingtien peddlers who were stranded in Belgium and Holland. In October 1941, the Commission and the Foreign Ministry again petitioned the Executive Yuan to appropriate 529,800 francs for repatriating overseas Chinese from France.

As to the protection of Chinese carrying on trade abroad, the Commission adopted measures providing that those who had got the required identification were allowed to re-emigrate and not to be subjected to the regulations restricting the emigration of the able-bodied in wartime. The Ministry of Interior as well as the provincial governments of Kwangtung and Fukien were informed of the plan.

Wartime Emergency Relief.—Not more than half a year after the outbreak of the Pacific war, Hongkong, the Philippines, Malaya, the Dutch East Indies and Burma fell into enemy hands in succession. This gave rise to the urgent need for the relief of the overseas Chinese living in these countries. In dealing with the abruptly changed situations, the Ninth Relief District, drawing money deposited in Kowloon, carried out a series of emergency relief measures. After the fall of Hongkong and Kowloon, the Commission appropriated a large sum of money for relief. It organized the Council for Emergency Relief of Overseas Chinese. It worked out detailed plans for the relief of Chinese marooned in war areas abroad, as well as regulations governing the making of loans to relatives of overseas Chinese at home. At the same time, committees for the emergency relief of the returned overseas Chinese were established in Yunnan, Fukien, Kwangsi and relief services were given at various transportation centres. Before the withdrawal of

PART IV
FINANCE AND ECONOMY

Allied troops in Burma, a committee for the evacuation and assistance of oversea Chinese was set up at Lashio to take care of the returning oversea Chinese passing through Burma. According to reports received, since the outbreak of the Pacific war, more than 1,000,000 oversea Chinese have been helped by reliefs given by the Commission and returned to their mother country. In undertaking this task, the Commission has spent \$10,000,000 immediately after the Japanese southward advance, and a little later, spent \$12,000,000 for the relief of the returned oversea Chinese in Yunnan, \$10,000,000 for those in Kwangtung, \$5,000,000 each for those in Fukien and Kwangsi, and \$1,000,000 for those in Kweichow. As loans to the dependants of the oversea Chinese, \$30,000,000 each have been paid by the Commission to the two provinces of Kwangtung and Kwangsi.

Emergency Relief of Teachers and Students.—After the outbreak of the war at the end of 1941, \$2,000,000 were assigned by the Government for the relief of oversea teachers and students. The returned oversea students, whose source of pecuniary support had been cut by the war, all received a special allowance of \$150 and a boarding allowance given by the Ministry of Education. Oversea teachers and students evacuated from Hongkong, Macao, Burma and other places were given travelling and boarding expenses and they were all recommended to serve or to study in the schools at home. The third national middle school for oversea Chinese was set up in Kwangtung and the second national middle school as well as the first and second national normal schools for oversea Chinese

were subsidized to take in more students. The oversea schools withdrawn from Hongkong and Burma were subsidized to reopen in the interior. In August 1942, \$250,000 were given to the schools in Kwangtung to add 50 classes for the returned oversea students. Subsidies to oversea teachers and students in Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Yunnan, were directly paid by the committee for the emergency relief of returned oversea Chinese in these provinces.

From March to August 1942, special allowances were made by the Commission to 1,574 oversea students and more than 1,000 applications are still under examination. Over 400 oversea students received travelling expenses, allowances for incidental losses, or assistance to enter schools at home. There were also some 400 oversea teachers who received relief and assistance. Twelve oversea schools were subsidized and reopened in safety zones. One middle school in which only oversea students were admissible was established. Three schools were subsidized to add classes for oversea students. During this six months, the Commission spent more than \$1,700,000 for the relief of oversea teachers and students. In the latter part of the year 1942, the Commission petitioned the Executive Yuan to appropriate another \$2,000,000 for their relief, and to increase the special allowance to oversea students to \$30 *per capita*.

Conclusion.—The items enumerated above are a cursory review of the wartime oversea affairs as undertaken by the Oversea Affairs Commission. It is because of want of space here that we cannot give a detailed account of them. In conclusion, we want to

say a word or two on the following two points.

(1) The patriotism of the oversea Chinese has always been intense. In the earlier history of the Chinese revolution, they played an important part. To the Republic of China, their contributions were invaluable. Particularly in the present war of resistance, their enormous contributions to the country in respect of both manpower and material assistance and their high morale when they were in time of distress, all tend to write a new page in the history of overseas Chinese affairs. In the past, the divergence of views and partisan strifes were rife among the oversea Chinese. Since the outbreak of the war, they have united themselves under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and the National Government.

(2) In the past, to oversea affairs little attention was paid by the general public. But circumstances have changed rapidly. At present oversea problems have become increasingly important. Organizations aimed at the improvement of oversea affairs have been set

up in succession. In almost every meeting of national importance, such as the plenary sessions of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and the various sessions of the People's Political Council, motions concerning oversea affairs were made. As a rule, a circular telegram was sent abroad to comfort and encourage the oversea Chinese at the adjournment of such meetings. The oversea Chinese are regarded as no less important than the soldiers at the front. Even the bogus organization at Nanking established an "Oversea Affairs Commission." Recently the Tokyo government has set up a committee for the establishment of relations with the oversea Chinese, which committee is composed of representatives of the War, Navy, and Foreign Ministries of Japan. The bogus "Oversea Affairs Commission" is under the control of that committee. It is evident that the reason for the enemy and the bogus organization in Nanking to pay so much attention to the oversea Chinese is that the latter have played and are playing an important part in the present war of resistance.

PUBLIC FINANCE

HSIA CHIN-HSIUNG¹ (夏晉熊)

On the occasion of the fifth war anniversary, July 7, 1942, Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Finance, in a review on China's financial situation, addressed the nation with the following words:

"There are two fronts in modern warfare, one military and the other financial. Although armies, navies and air forces figure conspicuously in the public eye, yet the less spectacular weapons of warfare in the financial field are of equal importance in the conflict of modern nations. Especially in the case of a long drawn-out conflict, which is a contest in the power of endurance, the prospects of ultimate victory depend on a nation's financial staying power as much as on its military prowess.

"At the outbreak of the present hostilities in the Far East, Japan's military chieftains arrogantly predicted that China could be beaten to her knees within three months, while its financial strategists wishfully foretold that China's war finance would collapse within a year. Even some neutral observers entertained serious doubts as to the financial power of China's resistance for any length of time.

"Admittedly, the problems and difficulties confronting China's wartime finance are as enormous as they are numerous. Immediate ways and means have to be found for meeting a

war budget several times larger than peacetime expenditures. Heavy outlays are required for war relief purposes arising from the enormous destruction of life and property both at the front and in the rear. Still greater funds have to be provided for accelerating various reconstruction projects essential to national defence and rehabilitation. Strenuous efforts have to be made for mobilizing and coordinating the nation's financial and economic resources and for overcoming the wartime difficulties hampering the normal development of trade, industry, mining, agriculture and communications. Sound measures have to be adopted for maintaining the stability of the nation's currency and credit structure, especially in face of the enemy's plots to undermine it."

Thanks to the important financial and monetary reforms brought about before and during the war, the dual task of financing the war and simultaneously executing the reconstruction projects has been carried out with satisfaction. Inasmuch as the monetary reform of 1935 has laid the foundation of China's controlled currency, the reforms enforced during the war such as the strict enforcement of the public treasury system and budgetary system, the amalgamation of provincial finance into national finance, the re-demarcation of allocation of national and local revenue and expenditure, the unification of collecting and dis-

¹ Senior Secretary, Executive Yuan.

bursing systems, the centralization of collection, the readjustment of provincial indebtedness, have greatly strengthened China's war finance. Moreover, the enforcement of new taxes and monopolies, and the readjustment of tax sides with the object of developing revenue sources and regulating the prices have equally helped build up a sound war financial structure.

Reorganizations and readjustments were also made in the Ministry of Finance in order to meet the new requirements arising from the war. The organic law of the Ministry of Finance was again revised and promulgated in 1942. Among the new organizations created were the Commission for the Control of Foreign Assets, established in September 1941, the Farm Tax Readjustment Commission, established in August, 1941, which was reorganized into the Farm Tax Commission in May, 1942, and the Government Bonds Subordinate Commission established in May, 1942. The Taxation Department was reorganized into the Local Finance Department in July, while the Smuggling Prevention Bureau was transformed into the Smuggling Prevention Administration in August, 1942. The Monopoly Enterprises Department created in July, 1942, the reorganization of the Direct Tax Bureau into the Direct Tax Administration, the Internal Revenue Administration into the National Revenue Administration, were among the important changes.

PUBLIC TREASURY SYSTEM

The National Treasury was inaugurated on October 1, 1939 for the centralization of national and provincial finance.

The Government promulgated the Public Treasury Law on June 9, 1938 and announced the regulations governing its enforcement on June 27, 1939. The national treasury was formally inaugurated in October 1939.

The Central Bank of China was authorized as the main institution for the operations of disbursement, safe-keeping and transfer of cash, notes and bonds, as well as the safe-keeping of title deeds of property.

The other three government banks, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China act as the clearing bank treasuries. The first 600 provincial banks and other banks may be authorized to act as agents in places where the Central Bank of China has no branches. Treasuries were successively formed in the provinces of Szechuan, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Shensi, Hunan, Chekiang, Kiangsu and Kiangsi. The system is also in forming in war and guerrilla areas. Two months after the inauguration of the national treasury, 150 branch treasuries were formed and 208 new branches, sub-branches and agencies were successively established in 1940.

Since the convenion of the Third National Financial Conference, the Government has taken four measures in regard to the treasury system. Firstly, beginning from 1942 the network of at least one treasury in every hsien district must be completed within two years and half of the projected treasuries should be in function in the first year. Secondly, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank should establish more branches and agencies with a view to facilitating the execution of the treasury program. In places where such treasuries are

still lacking, the neighbouring branches of any bank acting for public treasuries should handle the receipt and disbursement of Central Government funds. Thirdly, in accordance with the agreement between the Ministry of Finance and the Central Bank of China all provincial and local banks may be designated as public treasury agents. Fourthly, the measure of financial gamation of provincial finance and national finance should not affect the proper functioning of all the three banks as treasury agents.

Since there are 1,200 treasuries in Free China, including the branches in

vinces and war areas, at least 1,200 national treasuries, according to the program, should be established. By the end of 1942, 719 national treasuries and branches had been established in Free China, a record considered very satisfactory. It is with reason to expect that the program could be completed at the end of 1943. The treasury drafts were to be circulated as bank notes and regulations governing the circulation of treasury drafts were promulgated by the Government. Table 1 shows the distribution of national treasuries among the government banks and provinces of China.

TABLE 2. GOVERNMENT BANKS HANDLING NATIONAL TREASURY ACTIVITIES, 1941

Banks	National Treasury	Branches	Sub-branches		Agencies		Total
			Established	Under Preparation	Established	Under Preparation	
Central Bank of China	1	17	86	8	11	7	130
Bank of China	—	1	27	17	—	—	45
Bank of Communications	—	1	15	5	—	—	21
Farmers' Bank of China	—	1	20	3	—	—	24
Kwangsi Provincial Bank	—	—	29	—	—	—	29
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	—	—	67	—	—	—	67
Fukien Provincial Bank	—	—	50	—	—	—	50
Szechuen Provincial Bank	—	—	41	—	—	—	41
Shensi Provincial Bank	—	—	33	—	—	—	33
Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank	—	—	25	—	—	—	25
Kansu Provincial Bank	—	—	22	—	—	—	22
Anhui District Bank	—	—	34	—	—	—	34
Post Office	—	—	13	—	—	—	13
Shanghai Commercial & Savings Bank	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
TOTAL	1	20	462	33	12	7	535

LOCAL FINANCE

While the war has unavoidably impaired the largest portion of national receipts as a result of the occupation by the enemy of practically all the important industrial and commercial coastal cities, local finance has, on the other hand, assumed greater importance due to the influx of population and the reconstruction programs launched relentlessly by the Government. In accordance with the resolutions of the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and the Third National Financial Conference held in 1940 the Government divided the country's financial system into two principal parts, i.e., the national

financial system, composed of central government finance and provincial finance, and the hsien autonomy financial system. The establishment of a local budgetary system, with hsien budgeting forming the backbone, has made the hsien financially more independent in the distribution of expenses, development of revenue sources, reform in financial administration and readjustment of imposts. As a matter of fact, the local budgeting system was first introduced in 1934 following the conclusion of the Second National Financial Conference. Every hsien, according to the resolution, should complete the preparation of its budget before the opening of the fiscal year and submit the same to the

provincial government concerned and thence to the Ministry of Finance for approval.

The main receipts and expenditures of hsien autonomy finance are as follows:

A. Receipts:

1. A portion of the land tax (in areas where the Land Tax Law is not yet enforced the Ministry of Finance still uses the name farm tax).
2. House tax.
3. Stamp tax, 30% of the total receipts (the other 70% goes to national receipts).
4. Inheritance tax, 25% of the total receipts.
5. Business tax, 30%—50% of the total receipts.
6. Butchery tax.
7. Business licence tax.
8. Special operations licence tax.
9. Banquet and entertainment tax.

B. Expenditures:

1. Administration expenses.
2. Education expenses.
3. Reconstruction expenses.
4. Medical and hygiene expenses.
5. Relief expenses.
6. Policing expenses.

The portions of the land tax, business tax, stamp tax, and inheritance tax appropriated to hsien and municipal governments by the Central Government amounted to N.C.\$290,000,000 for the fiscal year of 1941. In addition, the different hsien and municipal governments received N.C.\$350,000,000 from the Central Government in the form of subsidies. The expansion of hsien budget clearly indicates the growing importance of local finance in Chinese financial

history and the preliminary success of the hsien autonomy system, which is, however, still in the making.

For the collection of both national and local taxes, taxation bureaus directly under the supervision and administration of the Ministry of Finance have been established in hsien and municipalities.

The Ministry of Finance has laid down three principles in connection with the program of readjustment of taxation. Firstly, mindful of the burden of the suffering population in the guerrilla areas, all taxes are in principle to be exempted there. Secondly, in the war areas the provincial authorities concerned are authorized to decide, according to the circumstances, the partial or total exemption of the local taxes and abolition of miscellaneous and exorbitant levies. Thirdly, local taxes shall be duly levied in the areas near the war zones.

Provincial indebtedness would inevitably cause impairment to local finance and a resolution calling for its readjustment was passed at the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee. According to this resolution, beginning from 1942 issuance of bonds by provincial governments was to be banned. The capital and interest of all bonds due before the end of 1941 were paid while the unsold bonds up to the end of 1941 were turned over to the branches or agencies of the National Treasury. The Ministry of Finance would be responsible, beginning from 1942, for the amortization of capital and payment of interest.

Since the outbreak of the present war, the total bonds issued by the provinces amount to N.C.\$304,820,000. The following is a tabulation of the

tax, inheritance tax and stamp tax are as follows:

TABLE 4. EXCESS PROFIT TAX RATES ON RENTAL OF REAL PROPERTY

Excess Profit	Tax Rate
15%—20%	10%
20%—30%	15%
30%—40%	20%
40%—50%	30%
50%—60%	40%
60% and above	50%

TABLE 5. EXCESS PROFIT TAX RATES ON CAPITAL OF PROFIT-SEEKING BUSINESS ENTERPRISES

Excess Profit	Tax Rate
20%—25%	10%
25%—30%	15%
30%—40%	20%
40%—50%	30%
50%—60%	40%
60% and above	50%

TABLE 6. INCOME TAX RATES

- A. On profits of profit-seeking business enterprises:
- 2% on profits less than 5% of actual capital.
 - 4% on profits between 10% and 15% of actual capital.
 - 6% on profits between 15% and 20% of actual capital.
 - 8% on profits between 20% and 25% of actual capital.
 - 10% on profits above 25% of actual capital.
- B. On earnings of business establishments, which earnings cannot be calculated on the basis of actual capital.
- Incomes not exceeding \$100 are exempted.
 - 3% on earnings of \$100 to \$1,000.
 - 4% on earnings of \$1,000 to \$2,500.
 - 6% on earnings of \$2,500 to \$5,000.
 - 1% for every \$1,000 above \$5,000.

C. On monthly emoluments and salaries:

Salary	Tax Rates
(a) \$ 30—60	5 cents on every \$10.
(b) \$ 60—100	10 cents on every \$10 above \$ 60.
(c) \$100—200	20 cents on every \$10 above \$100.
(d) \$200—300	30 cents on every \$10 above \$200.
(e) \$300—400	40 cents on every \$10 above \$300.
(f) \$400—500	60 cents on every \$10 above \$400.
(g) \$500—600	80 cents on every \$10 above \$500.
(h) \$600—700	\$1 on every \$10 above \$600.
(i) \$700—800	\$1.20 on every \$10 above \$700.
(j) Above \$800	20 cents on every \$1 of first \$100 above \$800 until it reaches \$2 on every \$10.

D. A flat rate of 5% on interest accruing from government bonds, corporation debenture and banking deposits.

TABLE 7. INHERITANCE TAX RATES

Value of Property	Rates
\$ 5,000— 50,000	1%
\$ 50,000— 100,000	1%
\$ 100,000— 250,000	2%
\$ 250,000— 500,000	3%
\$ 500,000— 750,000	4%
\$ 750,000— 1,000,000	5%
\$ 1,000,000— 1,500,000	7%
\$ 1,500,000— 2,000,000	9%
\$ 2,000,000— 3,000,000	12%
\$ 3,000,000— 4,000,000	15%
\$ 4,000,000— 5,000,000	20%
\$ 5,000,000— 6,000,000	25%
\$ 6,000,000— 7,000,000	30%
\$ 7,000,000— 8,000,000	35%
\$ 8,000,000— 9,000,000	40%
\$ 9,000,000—10,000,000	45%
\$10,000,000 and above	50%

EXEMPTIONS FROM INHERITANCE TAX

- Property under \$5,000 of value.
- Properties belonging to officers and of the army, navy and air force, who have their lives in action or as a result of injury received in action.

3. Special literary articles that have a cultural, historical or art value when they are registered with the Legacy Tax Office. But on such articles legacy tax must be paid when they are subsequently transferred to some other person or persons.

4. Properties donated to the various grades of government.

5. Properties donated to institutions of education, culture, charity or public welfare which do not exceed a total value of \$500,000.

6. Copyrights of authors, patent rights for scientific inventions and articles of original arts.

TABLE 8. STAMP TAX RATES

Group 1:

Class (a) bills, receipts for goods deposited, receipts for goods leased, pawn-tickets of the value of \$4 and upwards, etc. (one-cent stamp);

Class (b) invoices, agreements for hire, receipts for advance orders, etc. (one-cent stamp if the value is between \$1 and \$10; otherwise two-cent stamp);

Class (c) bank pass-books and account books of business houses (each book, 10-cent stamp).

Group 2: bills of lading, insurance policies, deposit receipts, share certificates, cheques, drafts, loan agreements, etc. (one-cent stamp if the value is between \$1 and \$10; two cents if over \$10 and under \$100; four cents, over \$100 and under \$500; 10 cents, over \$500 and under \$1,000; 20 cents, over \$1,000 and under \$5,000; 50 cents, over \$5,000 and under \$10,000; \$1, over \$10,000 and under \$50,000; \$1.50 for \$50,000 or upwards).

Group 3: passports, certificates, testimonials, permits, licences, charters, etc., for which the stamp duty varies from one cent to \$10.

Group 4: comprising four kinds, to be affixed on foreign wine and aerated water bottles, alcohol containers, fireworks, etc., ranging from two cents for aerated water, to \$10 for alcohol.

With the exception of those to be affixed on the articles included in Group 4, the stamps will have the following five colours: buff (1-cent), green (2-cent), red (10-cent), purple (50-cent), and blue (\$1).

The penalty for non-affixing of stamps is a fine, for each document concerned, of from 10 to 100 dollars, and that for affixing insufficient stamps, a fine of from five to 50 dollars.

All stamp duties have been doubled after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese hostilities.

STAMP TAX EXEMPTIONS

According to the latest revision of the Stamp Tax Law, the following are exempt from stamp duty:

1. Books and documents used by government offices.

2. Bonds and stocks issued by the Government.

3. Account books for family use, for philanthropic and cultural organs, and cooperative societies.

4. Bills and certificates concerning the internal working of organizations.

Commodity Tax.—Commodity tax is collected by the Internal Revenue Administration and consists of four main items, viz., consolidated tax, mining tax, tobacco and wine tax, and wartime consumption tax. The consolidated tax used to include 10 articles, viz., rolled tobacco, flue-cured tobacco leaves, foreign-style wine and beer, aerated water, alcohol, matches, sugar, flour, cement and cotton yarn. The consolidated tax, being composed of the largest number of taxes collected by the Internal Revenue Administration, was first levied in January 1928, and the principle underlying the introduction of the tax is that a commodity should be subject to only one tax levied at one place, generally at the source, and subsequently should be free from further duty. The rate is based on the quantity of goods. The volume of revenue has increased from year to year since the introduction of the tax.

The present war has had a serious effect on the collection of the consolidated tax in particular. With the occupation of the coastal provinces and destruction of most of the rolled tobacco factories and cotton mills, the revenue declined considerably.

The Ministry of Finance had to

provincial bonds issued since the outbreak of war:

TABLE 3

Province	Year	Total	Interest
N.C.S.			
Kiangsu ...	1940	10,000,000	6%
Chekiang ...	1937	10,000,000	6%
Anhui ...	1937	10,000,000	6%
Kiangsi ...	1938	20,000,000	6%
Hupch ...	1937	13,000,000	6%
Szechuen ...	1937	6,000,000	6%
"	1938	7,800,000	6%
"	1940	7,500,000	6%
"	1940	40,000,000	6%
"	1941	35,000,000	6%
Fukien ...	1938	9,300,000	6%
"	1939	1,860,000	6%
"	1940	20,000,000	6%
Kwangtung ...	1938	15,000,000	4%
"	1939	4,800,000	6%
"	1940	15,000,000	6%
Kwangsi ...	1939	8,000,000	6%
Sikang ...	1940	5,000,000	6%
Kansu ...	1938	2,000,000	5%
Shansi ...	1938	8,000,000	6%
Honan ...	1938	5,000,000	6%

Since land tax forms the backbone of local finance the discussion on local finance is not complete without mentioning land registration which is a *sine qua non* condition for land tax reforms. The reform aims at reducing the burden of the people and increasing local revenue. There are two ways to carry out the reform, one immediate—land registration, and the other fundamental—land measurement. The immediate measure is land registration by landowners which was begun before the outbreak of hostilities. In spite of the war, 128 hsien up to the present have completed land registration and readjustment of the tax scale, 114

hsien are going on with the work and 128 hsien are ready to commence the work in the immediate future. So far, taking the existing unfavourable conditions into consideration, land registration and land measurement have produced gratifying results.

TAXATION

Direct Taxes. Prior to the outbreak of the present war, the Chinese Government had already taken measures to improve taxation methods, notably direct taxation. The collection of income tax, for instance, was first promulgated on July 21, 1936 and enforced on January 1, 1937. The war, as a matter of fact, has helped to ameliorate China's national direct taxation system. Partly for realizing an equitable distribution of the burden of tax on the people and partly for meeting the mounting war expenditures, the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee adopted important measures with a view to enlarging the scope of collection and augmenting the rates of direct taxes.

Income tax is under five categories, namely, business profit, remuneration, interests, lease and sale of property. For reinforcement of the direct taxation system an excess profit tax and an inheritance tax have been instituted respectively since January, 1939 and July 1, 1940. Two other important taxes, i.e., stamp tax and business tax, were incorporated into the direct taxation system on June 1, 1940, and January 1, 1942 respectively. Taking the fiscal year 1936 as 100, the increase in direct tax revenue was 310 in 1937; 127 in 1938 (only a period of six months, on account of the change of China's fiscal year from January

to December beginning from 1939), 310 in 1939; 1,282 in 1940 and 2,709 in 1941. It represents 3.89% in China's national revenue in 1938, and was increased to 20.01% in 1939; 27.37% in 1940 and 27.39% in 1941. The percentage of collection expenses is comparatively low, around 5% on the average. It was 7.13% in 1936; 5.25% in 1937; 6.74% in 1938; 4.09% in 1939; 5.05% in 1940 and 5.80% in 1941.

Business tax, after its transfer from the provincial collection offices to the national administration in accordance with a resolution of the Eighth Plenary Session of the C. E. C., has been constantly improving both in administration and in returns. With a view to strengthening the finance of hsien, 3% of the net returns of the business tax is appropriated to the hsien and municipal governments as a subsidy from the Central Government.

To simplify the system of collection, taxpayers pay their direct taxes to the national treasury and its branches or agents. There are 535 branches of the national treasury, 177 authorized banks, and 871 authorized post offices collecting taxes for the administration. Direct tax collectors are selected through competitive examinations from college or senior middle school graduates. All qualified collectors are to receive a special training before they are sent to their posts. In 1942 there were 8,777 trained collectors in service.

In accordance with the decision of the Third National Financial Conference, the Ministry of Finance established a special training school in 1942 and branch schools are expected to be established at different important cities. All tax collectors should receive by rotation a special training of

three months in this training school. In the year 1942, 2,681 tax collectors received by rotation special training from this training school.

The *Inheritance Tax Law* was promulgated on December 30, 1939 and its enforcement was announced on July 1, 1940. In order to acquaint the people with the working of a new tax, a simplified collection system is more advisable and practical. The Chinese inheritance tax is levied upon the estate as a whole and on a progressive basis while the distributive shares are not to be imposed. In 1942, more than 200 assessment offices were organized in important cities for the valuation of property. In the initial stage and owing to the unsettled conditions brought forth by the war, the receipts of the inheritance tax reached only 15% of the estimates.

The returns of the *stamp tax* being not very satisfactory, the Ministry of Finance took measures in 1942 to improve the system of collection and inspection. The project consists of the employment of 3,778 inspectors in all the hsien and municipal governments and the appointment of two tax collectors from each tax collection bureau for general inspection. The receipts of the stamp tax of 1942 attained only 60% of the estimates.

The *Excess Profit Tax Law* was promulgated in July 1938 and enforced in July 1, 1939. This tax is levied on a progressive basis.

Returns from the direct taxes are growing every year. The income tax and the excess profit tax form the backbone of China's direct taxation system. The total receipts of these two taxes for the year 1942 exceeded the budgetary estimates by 19%. The rates of the excess profit tax, income

adopt drastic measures to cope with the new situation. Firstly, it extended the scope of collection by establishing more collection agencies at different points, paying particular attention to commodities coming from war areas. Secondly, in places where the Internal Revenue Administration had no tax bureau, the responsibility for the collection of the consolidated tax fell on customs offices. On account of the rising prices of commodities the Government, with the object of augmenting the national revenue, announced in September 1941 that the consolidated taxes would be levied according to the changed value of the commodities. Thereupon the rates of consolidated tax on rolled tobacco, cotton yarn, matches, cement, flour, and alcohol were accordingly increased during the period from March to July 1942. Official statistics indicate that the receipts from rolled tobacco formed 35.84% of the total, cotton 26.31%, sugar 13.90%. Four more articles have been added to the list of consolidated taxes, i.e., fur, wood, china-ware and paper.

The Executive Yuan adopted on June 30, 1942, a set of provisional regulations governing the collection of the consolidated tax in kind on cotton yarn and flour by resident representatives of the Internal Revenue Administration directly at the mills.

In accordance with the Mining Law of 1930, a *mining tax* is imposed on mining concessions and mineral products which are divided into four classes: coal, iron, other metals, and other non-metallic minerals. The collection system is similar to that for consolidated taxes, with the exception of the small mines, where the products are taxed according to the average of

their monthly output and no resident representatives are posted.

Shortly before the outbreak of the war, the rate of the *wine-tobacco tax* was increased. In face of the rising commodity prices, the Government deemed it necessary to bring some readjustment on the rates of the tax as well as on the collection system. New regulations governing the collection of the wine-tobacco tax was promulgated in July 1941. Since then the tax has been collected *ad valorem* in places of production. The rate for the tax on tobacco leaf is 30%, tobacco 15%, and wine 40% of the total value.

Table 9 gives the rates of the taxes collected by the Internal Revenue Administration.

Wartime Consumption Tax.—In accordance with the resolution of the Third National Financial Conference the Government announced the enforcement of the Wartime Consumption Tax Law in April 1942. Customs offices were designated to collect the tax and meanwhile the interport duty was abolished. All the commodities subject to the levy should be taxed only once by any customs office and subsequently be free elsewhere. Based on the value of the goods, the rate varies from 5% to 20% according to the categories of the commodity.

Land Tax in Kind.—The reason for the collection of land tax in kind is manifold. Financially speaking, with the curtailment of customs, salt and consolidated tax revenues on one hand and the growing expenditures for war and reconstruction on the other, the Government had to resort to every possible means for the development of revenue sources. The collection of land tax in kind constitutes an effective

TABLE 9. TAXES COLLECTED BY THE INTERNAL REVENUE ADMINISTRATION, OCTOBER 1942

Categories	Names of Articles	Rates	Means of Collection	Centres of Collection
Mineral Products Tax	Coal, Iron, Petrol and Other Products.	5-10%	Collected at places of production if amount is big; otherwise collected at tax offices.	Szechuen, Yunnan, Hunan and Kiangsi.
Consolidated Taxes	Rollod Tobacco	80%	Collected at places of manufacture	Sian, Chungking.
	Flue-Cured Tobacco Leaves	25%	Collected at places of production	Honan, Szechuan.
	Foreign-Style Wine and Beer	60%	Collected at factories.	
	Aerated Water	20%	Collected by resident representatives	Szechuen, Kwangtung, Hunan, Shensi.
	Alcohol (ordinary)	20%	Collected at distilleries.	
	" (refined)	10%		
	" (for liquid fuel)	5%		
	Matches	20%	Collected by resident representatives	Szechuen, Yunnan, Kiangsi.
	Sugar	15%	Collected at refineries	Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Fukien.
	Cement	15%	Collected at factories	Szechuen, Hunan.
Tobacco-Wine Taxes	Cotton Yarn	3.5%	Collected at mills	Various ports of entry and Chungking.
	Flour	2.5%	Collected at mills	Shensi, Szechuen, Hunan.
	Tobacco Leaf	30%	Collected at places of production	Fukien, Kwangtung, Kansu.
	Tobacco	15%	Collected at places of production	Fukien.
	Wine (fixed-rate)	50%	Collected at places of production	Chekkiang.
	" (increased-rate)	20%		Kiangsi.

TABLE 10. DOMESTIC GOODS LAYED UNDER WARTIME CONSUMPTION TAX SCHEME AND TARIFF RATES

* Represents goods taxed in that province.

Goods	Tariff Rates Ad Valorem	Provinces													
		Szechuen & Sikiang	Hubei	Hunan	Kiangsi	Chekiang & Kiangsu	Fukien	Kwang- tung	Kwangsi	Kweichow	Yunnan	Kansu, Ninghsia & Suiyuan	Shensi & Shansi	Honan	Anhui
Cotton	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Raw Silk	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Ramie	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Linen Cloth	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Vegetable Oil	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Paper	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Pottery	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Raw Hides	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Bamboo	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Lumber	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Lacquer	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Silk Piece Goods	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Ham	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Medicinal Plants and Spices	10%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Leather Goods	15%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Rugs	15%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Paper Money	20%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Firecrackers and Fireworks	20%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dried Sea Products	10-20%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
TOTAL	...	12	9	10	10	14	6	13	5	4	7	5	8	10	8

Remarks: Under dry sea products item, awabi, bicho de mar, conpoy, sharks fin, fish maw, and fish skin are taxed 20% ad valorem. All other kinds of sea products, with the exception of salted fish, dried fish, shrimps, shrimp skins, shells and crushed shrimps which are not taxed, are taxed 10% ad valorem.

measure of food control which not only solves the army and civilian food problem but saves a great deal of banknotes from circulation as well. Moreover, in a period when prices of rice and wheat are constantly rising, the collection of land tax on monetary basis would actually mean a reduction of tax rates. So the collection of land tax in kind is to render justice to taxpayers in general. The Government, in conformity with the resolution of the Eighth Plenary Session of the C. E. C., took over as from July 1, 1941 the land tax from the provincial governments and decided to collect it in kind.

During the Third National Financial Conference, the land tax formed the main topic of discussion and majority of the proposals were focussed on the problem of the collection of this tax. On the basis of the resolutions of the conference pertaining thereto, the Ministry of Finance drew up a complete and detailed project on the collection of land tax in kind. A Land Tax Commission was instituted in the Ministry of Finance. The first thing it proposed to do was to place the administration on a national and unified basis by creating a number of provincial and hsien land tax administrations. In 1941, 22 provincial land tax administrations and 1,363 hsien and municipal administrations were established which operated chains of collecting offices numbering some 9,596 in busy months and 7,191 in slack months. Its second important task was to unify the calculation of the rates of land tax which, in monetary terms, vary according to localities. Uniform rates are applied to all Free China, with the exception of a few provinces where the conditions for the time being are not yet ready for

such a change. In the non-rice-growing areas, wheat, kaoliang and barley are to be collected in lieu of rice.

As a step to further strengthening food control, the collection in kind was accompanied by compulsory purchases of grain by the Government. After a portion is allotted for the army and public functionaries the surplus food is sold to the public at regulated prices. Under the compulsory purchases system, the Government pays 70% of the price in food treasury notes and 30% in cash. The food treasury notes, divided into many denominations and bearing interest, resemble government bonds.

The collection and purchase for 1942 began from September and will end in the fall of 1943. The quota was set at 80,000,000 piculs for 1942, roughly one third of which was from government purchases.

When the system of collection of land tax in kind was first introduced in 1941, the work of compulsory purchases was entrusted to the Food Ministry. In accordance with a resolution of the Ninth Plenary Session of the C. E. C., the Land Tax Commission, beginning from 1942, took charge of both collection and purchases, while the Food Ministry handled the storage and distribution of the grain thus collected and purchased.

Taxes on Land Value and Land Increment Value.—With the influx of population from the occupied and war areas into the interior provinces, the land value, rural as well as urban, has been constantly increasing. Consequently the revenues of the land owners, particularly from unearned increment, grow unprecedentedly. In conformity with the land policy of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the Father of the

Republic, the Government created in 1942 the Land Administration whose principal task is to put into operation the land value tax and land increment tax schemes and continue with accelerated vigour the work of land registration and land measurement taken over from the Ministry of Interior. The land value tax and land increment tax were first collected in the first and second districts of Chungking in July 1, 1942, and gradually extended to other cities and now 46 hsien have started collection of the new taxes. The rate is from one to two per cent. The total annual receipts from these two taxes estimated by the Ministry of Finance amount to N.C. \$300,000,000. With the rapid increase in land value in the interior provinces, the prospect of the revenue from these two new taxes is promising.

NATIONAL MONOPOLY OF DAILY NECESSITIES

For the adjustment of supply and demand of consumption goods and regulation of their prices, the Eighth Plenary Session of the C. E. C. decided to institute monopoly over six important articles—salt, sugar, tobacco, wine, matches and tea. The Ministry of Finance established a committee for the study of ways and means to enforce such monopolies. A new Department of Monopolistic Enterprises was created in 1942. Inauguration of wine and tea monopoly was postponed because of the production and distribution conditions under which the operation of the monopoly would encounter certain difficulties.

Salt Monopoly.—Salt monopoly, administered by the Salt Administration under the Ministry of Finance, was

inaugurated on January 1, 1942. Beginning from this date all previous systems of monopoly or "free trade" were abolished. The principle of the national monopoly is production by the individuals, purchase and transportation by the Government, and distribution by commercial organizations.

The purchase of the entire production of salt in Free China requires tremendous capital which is, financially speaking, an impossible operation in war time. For this purpose a large portion of private capital has been mobilized. For better assurance of distribution and control of transportation, the Government, in addition, entered into partnership with commercial agents for salt shipment. In other cases, the businessmen act as freight agents for the Government. Emphasis has been laid on the improvement of the quality of salt and the method of production. Refined salt is being produced in Szechuen and Sikang provinces and iodine is added to table salt in the province of Yunnan to reduce the goitre trouble among the population.

As a result of salt monopoly the Salt Administration of the Ministry of Finance has undertaken some important reorganizations notably along the line of personnel training in order to meet the new requirements of nationalized enterprises.

After its inauguration on January 1, 1942, all salt producers in the salt-producing areas were to change their old licences for new ones before the end of June 1942, and a set of regulations governing the issuance of licence for salt production was promulgated on December 27, 1942.

For the storage of the purchased salt, the Ministry of Finance built a

number of storehouses in different salt producing centres while the private storehouses were placed under strict government control. In 1942, the Ministry of Finance established 326 salt supplying centres and a network of more than 17,000 salt sales agents to facilitate distribution. In addition, a great number of consumers' cooperative societies were authorized to act as salt sales agents. The Government simplified the monopoly operation by reducing the categories of salt from 18 to 6, a method aiming at tightening the control and equalizing the burden of consumers.

Sugar Monopoly.—Owing to the difference in the methods of manufacturing and distributing sugar, the Ministry of Finance set up in the beginning a regional sugar monopoly bureau in the Szechuen-Sikang area on February 15, 1942 and two more regional bureaus in the Kwangtung-Kwangsi and Fukien-Kiangsi areas on August 16 and September 1, 1942 respectively. The operation of sugar monopoly began with the registration of all the sugar in stock, raw materials and sugar-cane planters, entrepreneurs and sugar factories in the areas. Sugar owners were to report the quantity of their sugar in stock before March 15 which was later extended to the end of June. Based on the cost of production, plus a legitimate profit of 20% in the Szechuen-Sikang area and 15% in the Kwangtung-Kwangsi area, the special committees of the monopoly organization under the Ministry of Finance fixed the buying price. The Government, by regulating the prices, assured a legitimate profit to those engaged in the trade. Besides the purpose of enriching the war chest, emphasis was also laid by the Ministry

of Finance on the improvement of the quality and increasing of the production of sugar. The Farmers' Bank of China is authorized to extend loans to sugar-cane planters. For the control of supply and prices of sugar, supplying centres were established and transportation and storage systems were reorganized. The Szechuen-Sikang Area Sugar Monopoly Bureau has at present 24 branches, 67 business offices and two transport offices.

Match Monopoly.—The match monopoly organized as a business corporation was first inaugurated on May 1, 1942, in the Szechuen-Sikang area and later in Kweichow and Yunnan on September 15, and in Fukien on October 1, 1942. The wartime provisional regulations governing the match monopoly were promulgated in May 1942. This monopoly, operating on a corporative basis, aims more at the development of revenue sources than the nationalization of the enterprise. The production and manufacture of matches are still in the hands of private factories and the Government only advises on or supervises their method of production and supply of raw materials. The Central Match Corporation is in Chungking and branch corporations are established in different places. The main functions of the match corporation are not confined to regulating the prices and adjusting the supply and demand of matches but also include the standardizing and distributing of raw materials. The Government entered into an agreement with a raw materials factory with the object of assuring the proper supply of such raw materials at regulated prices. A network of retail agents was formed and more than

400,000,000 match monopoly stamps were sold in 1942. The operation of regulating the prices was based on the cost of production and transportation charges plus a legitimate profit of the wholesale merchants (maximum of 20%). Much success was reported since its institution.

Tobacco Monopoly.—The tobacco monopoly is, in many respects, similar to that of match monopoly. A tobacco monopoly bureau was formed at Chungking on May 1, 1942 and nine branch offices were successively established in the areas of Szechuen-Sikang and West Hupeh. A set of regulations governing the registration of all tobacco manufacturers, wholesale and retail traders was promulgated by the Government and its enforcement began from July 1, 1942. The operation of tobacco monopoly was based on the principle that the Government should undertake its purchase and distribution and private individuals, its manufacture. The monopoly organization, however, buys only a portion of the stock if necessary, because such an undertaking requires a tremendous capital. The monopoly organization bought 7,000 cases of cigarettes in July; 8,000 cases in August, September and October; and 49,000 cases in November and December. The prices of cigarettes were regulated and adjustments were made from time to time as circumstances required. The tobacco monopoly areas were later extended to Honan, North Hupeh, North Anhwei and the date of enforcement for all the areas was December 10, 1942.

The receipts from the monopolies for the national budget of 1942 were listed at N.C.\$1,600,000,000, with the revenue from salt monopoly playing

the leading role and revenue from tobacco monopoly in the second place. Judging from the amount of revenues derived from the monopolistic enterprises and the stabilized prices of the monopolized articles, the monopolies will certainly contribute much towards China's wartime finance.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING MONOPOLY OF SALT IN WARTIME

(Promulgated on May 26, 1942)

ARTICLE 1. The right for the monopoly of salt is vested in the National Government.

All profits from the monopoly of salt should go to the National Treasury.

ARTICLE 2. These regulations govern salt, salt water, salt mines and other kinds of salt products containing more than 25% of sodium chloride.

ARTICLE 3. Salt may be divided into four categories according to their functions:

- (a) Alimentary salt.
- (b) Fishery salt.
- (c) Industrial salt.
- (d) Agricultural salt.

Alimentary salt includes sauce, salted products and salt for manufacturing foodstuffs.

ARTICLE 4. The quality of salt is divided into three kinds according to the content of sodium chloride:

- (a) Class A salt containing over 90% sodium chloride.
- (b) Class B salt containing over 85% sodium chloride.
- (c) Class C salt containing over 70% sodium chloride.

Class A salt shall not have moisture of more than 5%.

Class B salt shall not have moisture of more than 8%.

Class C salt shall not be used as alimentary salt.

ARTICLE 5. No importation of salt abroad or from non-monopolized areas is allowed without permission from the Government.

ARTICLE 6. Any one of the following is to be treated as illegal dealing in salt:

- (a) Manufacture or re-manufacture of salt without permission from the Government.
- (b) Sale of salt without permission from the Government.
- (c) Possession of salt without government license or with improper government license.
- (d) Transportation of salt in areas where the Government enforces rationing of salt.

ARTICLE 7. The enterprise of salt monopoly is entrusted to the Directorate-General of Salt Administration of the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 8. All purchases and sales of salt shall be made according to standard weights and measures.

ARTICLE 9. No manufacture of salt is allowed unless by the Government itself or with government permission. Regulations governing the permission for the manufacture of salt will be promulgated separately by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 10. A manufacturer of salt shall not suspend his operations without permission from the Government.

ARTICLE 11. A manufacturer of salt who is ordered by the Government to suspend his entire or partial operation within the authorized period of operation may receive monetary compensation from the Government.

ARTICLE 12. The production of salt each year and the number of salt

works shall be decided by the Government according to the national demand and supply.

ARTICLE 13. The Government shall apportion the production to the salt works and salt manufacturers according to their producing capacity, cost of production and transportation facilities.

ARTICLE 14. The Government may order salt manufacturers to form co-operative organizations to amalgamate their productive means and improve their production.

ARTICLE 15. The Government shall establish salt depots at convenient places. Private godowns shall be controlled by or leased to the Government. If necessary, the Government may buy them.

ARTICLE 16. Manufacturers of salt shall deliver their goods to the depots or other places designated by the Government within a limited period of time.

ARTICLE 17. The monopoly organization shall buy salt from the manufacturers according to the quotas required of them. The quality of salt to be purchased shall be fixed by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 18. The monopoly organization shall examine the quality of salt delivered to the depot. It has the right to order the stock to be re-processed if its quality is not up to the standard.

ARTICLE 19. The price at which the monopoly organization purchases salt from salt works shall be fixed by the Ministry of Finance according to its different grades on the basis of the standard cost of production plus profit.

The standard cost of production shall be calculated on the basis of actual observations by the repre-

representatives of the monopoly organization at the salt works.

ARTICLE 20. The monopoly organization shall transport its own salt, and may secure the help of merchants or transportation organizations whenever necessary.

ARTICLE 21. Transportation of salt in areas adjacent to salt works may be undertaken by cooperatives or small traders. Regulations pertaining thereto shall be promulgated by the monopoly organization according to the conditions in different areas.

The price paid by the cooperatives and small traders at the salt works shall be based on the depot price as provided in Article 25.

ARTICLE 22. No transportation of salt shall be allowed without a monopoly permit and government license.

The monopoly permit and government license shall be kept at the same place where salt is stored.

ARTICLE 23. All salt by-products such as bitter brine, bittern blocks, salt peter-crystals, "kan-pa," salt cake, shall be examined by the monopoly organization when removed from the salt works.

ARTICLE 24. The monopoly organization shall establish depots for the sale of salt. In the case of fishery, industrial and agricultural salt, the monopoly organization may designate special places for sale.

Regulations governing the sale of fishery, industrial and agricultural salt will be promulgated by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 25. The price quoted by the monopoly organization at selling depots is called depot price. It shall be fixed by the Ministry of Finance on the basis of the prices for different grades of salt at salt works, plus transportation and other expenses and

profit on monopoly. No tax or levy of any kind shall be collected.

ARTICLE 26. Cooperatives or merchants engaged in selling and distributing salt shall be authorized by the Government. Similar procedure shall be followed when they suspend operation.

ARTICLE 27. The monopoly organization shall handle the sale of salt.

ARTICLE 28. The wholesale and retail prices of salt in different hsien and municipalities shall be fixed by the monopoly organization on the basis of actual cost of production plus profit. The prices should be reported to the Ministry of Finance for reference.

ARTICLE 29. Salt shall be distributed according to the density of population. The Government may enforce rationing of salt whenever necessary.

ARTICLE 30. The monopoly organization should deposit at different places emergency supplies of salt for sale in periods of maladjustment of demand and supply.

ARTICLE 31. Illicit traders or sellers of smuggled salt, in addition to the confiscation of their stock and equipment, are subject to a fine of between one and five times of the equivalent value of the smuggled salt according to the prevailing local price.

ARTICLE 32. If the smuggled salt is more than 500 catties, the offender, in addition to the punishment as indicated in Article 31, shall be subject to one of the following penalties:

- (a) Not more than one year of imprisonment or hard labour for more than 500 catties.
- (b) Not more than three years of imprisonment for more than 3,000 catties.

- (c) Not less than six months and not more than five years of imprisonment for more than 5,000 catties.

ARTICLE 33. If a salt manufacturer is guilty of the offences mentioned in Articles 31 and 32, his salt-manufacturing equipment and materials may be confiscated and his operation license revoked in addition to the penalties prescribed in Articles 31 and 32. Unsuccessful attempts to violate Articles 31 and 32 are dealt with by fines only.

ARTICLE 34. If the salt manufacturer employs arms and resorts to force in killing or wounding persons in the act of committing these offenses, he shall be subject to severe punishment according to criminal law.

ARTICLE 35. Anyone guilty of deliberate transportation, possession or in any way taking advantage of or making use of smuggled salt shall forfeit the same upon being discovered.

If the smuggled salt is more than 500 catties, the offender, in addition to the confiscation of the same, shall be subject to a lighter punishment than prescribed in Article 32.

ARTICLE 36. If the salt manufacturer sells or mortgages his salt in the depot before price is quoted on it or before the Government gives him permission to do so, in addition to the confiscation of his salt, he shall be subject to a fine of between one and three times the equivalent value of the offending stock according to the prevailing local price.

ARTICLE 37. Anyone who violates Article 5 by importing or transporting salt is considered to be smuggling salt. Anyone who exports or removes salt but is not considered to be smuggling,

is subject to a fine of between one and five times the value of the offending stock at the price prevailing at the port of export, in addition to the confiscation of the goods.

ARTICLE 38. Anyone who violates Article 9 is subject to a fine of between one and five times the value of the offending stock according to the prevailing local price, in addition to the confiscation of the finished salt product and salt-manufacturing equipment.

ARTICLE 39. If salt sold under government monopoly is manufactured with a view to making profit, the offender shall have to forfeit his goods and equipment. If smuggled salt is used in re-manufacturing, in addition to the confiscation of the offending stock and equipment, similar penalties as against smuggling of salt shall be imposed.

ARTICLE 40. A salt manufacturer who violates Article 10 is subject to a fine of not less than \$300 and not more than \$1,000.

ARTICLE 41. If the salt manufacturer falls short in delivering his stock to the Government, a fine of not less than \$100 and not more than \$500 may be imposed. If the reasons for his shortage are beyond human power of resistance, the fines may be waived.

ARTICLE 42. If the salt manufacturer produces or exceeds his quota of production, but violates Article 16 in failing to deliver the required amount to the Government at the depots or other designated places within a specified time, he is subject to a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000.

ARTICLE 43. If the merchant engaged in the transportation of salt is guilty of secretly selling or adulterating salt, he is subject to a fine of between one and three times the value of the

offending stock according to the price prevailing at the place where the offense is committed. If no exact place can be located, the fine shall be based on the highest price level on the route through which the salt has travelled.

Offenders, in addition to the above penalties, shall be punished in accordance with criminal law.

The salt monopoly organization may sell the adulterated salt at a reduced price. If the stock is harmful to public health, it should not be used as alimentary salt and must be destroyed.

ARTICLE 44. Anyone who sells or distributes salt in violation of Article 26 is subject to a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000, in addition to the confiscation of the goods and equipment. In the case of suspension of operation without permission, a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000 may be imposed.

ARTICLE 45. A salt merchant guilty of increasing the price or selling short-weighted salt with a view to making illegal profit is subject to a fine of not more than \$1,000 in addition to turning over the illegal profit. If the offense is a serious one, he may be sentenced to imprisonment or hard labour of not more than three years.

ARTICLE 46. A salt merchant guilty of adulteration by mixing salt with that of an inferior quality or water is subject to a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000, and his business license shall be revoked.

In addition to the above penalties, the offender may be punished in accordance with criminal law.

The salt monopoly organization may sell the adulterated salt at a reduced price. If the stock is harmful to public health, it should not be used

as alimentary salt and must be destroyed.

ARTICLE 47. A salt merchant refusing to allow government representatives to examine his accounts and stock or found guilty of making false or inaccurate reports is subject to a fine of not more than \$300.

ARTICLE 48. A merchant selling fishery, agricultural or industrial salt for alimentary salt is subject to a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000, and must forfeit the profit made from the differences of prices.

ARTICLE 49. Any act of counterfeiting, forgery or imitation of monopoly permits or transportation certificates as provided in Article 22 is punishable by a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000. The salt of the offender shall be confiscated and he shall be punished in accordance with criminal law.

ARTICLE 50. A government employee of the salt monopoly, communications or other organizations or anyone of the military or police forces guilty of one of the following offences is subject to life imprisonment or a term of not less than five years :

- (a) Violating the provisions in Articles 31, 32 and 46.
- (b) Abetting others' violation of Articles 31, 32, 43 and 46, with a view to making illegal profit.

Fines only are imposed on those who unsuccessfully attempt to violate these articles.

ARTICLE 51. Fines and penalties as provided in these regulations shall be decided by the proper court.

The defendant may appeal to a higher court within five days after the

decision is made. The decision of the higher court is final.

The court shall fix the date for the defendant to pay the fine. Failing to do so, compulsory action may be taken against the defendant.

ARTICLE 52. With effect from the date of the introduction of these regulations, all monopoly or "free trade" or similar arrangements shall become null and void.

ARTICLE 53. In areas where these regulations are applied, all former laws and orders concerning salt smuggling and preventive measures shall be abolished.

ARTICLE 54. Provisions concerning the enforcement of these regulations shall be decided by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 55. An order shall announce the date and area of the enforcement of these regulations.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE MONOPOLY OF SUGAR IN WARTIME

(Promulgated on May 13, 1942)

ARTICLE 1. Monopoly of sugar by the Central Government includes :

- (a) White sugar.
- (b) Red sugar, yellow sugar and black sugar.
- (c) Orange sugar.
- (d) Sugar cubes and sugar lumps.
- (e) Refined sugar.
- (f) Crystallized sugar.
- (g) Other kinds of sugar approved by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 2. No importation of sugar from abroad or from non-monopolized areas shall be allowed without permission from the Government.

ARTICLE 3. No sale of sugar, sugar products or by-products of sugar shall

be allowed without the same being first offered to the Government or permission to sell being obtained from the Government.

ARTICLE 4. Monopolized sugar shall be taxed according to law. Sugar imported from abroad or from non-monopolized areas shall be subject to a special tax upon entry.

ARTICLE 5. The Sugar Monopoly Bureau of the Ministry of Finance shall undertake the sugar monopoly enterprise of the country. Its organization is outlined in a separate law.

ARTICLE 6. Producers and manufacturers of and dealers in sugar should form their own trade guilds under the supervision of the government offices directly in charge. The guilds may be called upon to assist the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 7. All purchases or sales of monopolized sugar should be made according to standard weights and measures.

ARTICLE 8. Growers of sugar-cane, sweet vegetables or other kinds of sugar-making raw materials are required to report to the monopoly bureau or its authorized organizations for free registration of the following information one month before they begin cultivation. The information must be kept up to date.

- (a) Name and address.
- (b) Kinds of crop.
- (c) Area and location.
- (d) Rotation or one-crop system.
- (e) Time of ripening.
- (f) Estimate of production.
- (g) Cost of production.

ARTICLE 9. The monopoly bureau should approve the extent of area, the size of production and kinds of crop to be grown. It has the right to reduce

an over-supply if the production is such that it affects the food crops.

ARTICLE 10. The monopoly bureau, upon recommendation of the trade guilds, fixes and announces standard prices of sugar-cane, sweet vegetables and other sugar-making raw materials.

ARTICLE 11. The Government guarantees the sale of registered raw materials at standard prices. The provision is not applicable if the raw materials are not up to the standard.

ARTICLE 12. Registered growers shall organize themselves into co-operatives to apply for, if necessary, production loans from the monopoly bureau. Regulations governing the extension of the loans shall be made by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 13. The monopoly bureau may establish experimental stations to improve the varieties, teach new methods of planting and insect-prevention and provide other forms of assistance.

ARTICLE 14. Sugar producers must apply for registration with the monopoly bureau before they begin production. They must give the following information which must be kept up to date :

- (a) Name and address.
- (b) Capital.
- (c) Method of production and equipment.
- (d) Kinds and amount of production every year.
- (e) Period of operation and non-operation every year.
- (f) Other items required by the monopoly bureau.

Notice should be given to cancel such registration if work on sugar-making is suspended or terminated.

ARTICLE 15. Sugar producers are under obligation to buy sugar-making

raw materials at prices fixed in accordance with Article 10.

ARTICLE 16. Sugar producers are required to enter into their daily entry books the following information :

- (a) Kinds, quantity, date, price and place of the raw materials purchased.
- (b) Kinds and quantity of raw materials used.
- (c) Kinds and quantity of finished products.
- (d) Places of storage for finished products.
- (e) Other items required by the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 17. The monopoly bureau may examine at any time the accounts and bills of sugar producers covering every process of refining and storing.

ARTICLE 18. Sugar producers are required to report the kinds and quantity of their production to their respective trade guilds, which in turn should supply such information to the monopoly bureau for record.

ARTICLE 19. Sugar producers are not allowed to mix the registered finished product with inferior qualities or to dissolve the contents thereof.

ARTICLE 20. Sugar producers are required to abide by the rules set by the monopoly bureau concerning the manner of packing and standardization of the finished product. No change in packing or standardization of the product is allowed without permission from the bureau.

ARTICLE 21. Articles 14 to 20 apply to all extra processes for making refined sugar.

ARTICLE 22. All monopolized sugar must be stored at the bureau's depots or designated godowns within 10 days after manufacture.

ARTICLE 23. The monopoly bureau

shall establish depots at production and transportation centres for the collection and distribution of monopolized sugar.

ARTICLE 24. If the sugar producers possess their own godowns or other suitable structures for storing sugar, they may, upon permission from the bureau, store sugar in their own premises. But the administration of such warehouses should be turned over to the bureau.

ARTICLE 25. Depots and godowns operated by the bureau must issue proper receipts for the sugar or sugar products stored. Regulations governing the control of depots shall be drawn up by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 26. No transportation of monopolized sugar from the depots is allowed without monopoly sales and transportation permits issued by the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 27. The monopoly bureau shall purchase monopolized sugar at prices approved by the Ministry of Finance.

The price is fixed on the basis of the cost of production plus a legitimate profit by a price regulating committee established in each locality by the bureau. The Ministry of Finance, taking into consideration the local conditions prevailing at that time, shall announce the approved prices.

ARTICLE 28. The bureau shall fix the date and place for the producers to deliver their finished products.

ARTICLE 29. If the finished products are inferior in quality or their packing or weight is not up to the standard, the bureau may order them to be re-processed before they can be accepted.

ARTICLE 30. Importers of sugar should obtain special licenses from the monopoly bureau. Upon importation,

the stock shall be sold to the bureau according to the regulations.

The same regulations are applicable to sugar shipped in from non-monopolized areas.

ARTICLE 31. Wholesale merchants and retail traders of monopolized sugar must register with, and apply for certificates from, the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 32. The wholesale price of monopolized sugar shall be fixed by the monopoly bureau on the basis of the purchasing price and government profit on monopoly. The bureau shall then report the price to the Ministry of Finance for approval and announcement.

ARTICLE 33. The retail price of monopolized sugar shall be fixed by the local trade guilds with the approval of the bureau, which in turn, shall report the same to the Ministry of Finance for reference.

ARTICLE 34. The bureau may inspect the business conditions of wholesale merchants and retail traders by examining their account books and bills.

ARTICLE 35. Violation of Articles 2 and 30 regarding importation or transportation of sugar is subject to a fine, in addition to the confiscation of the offending stock, of not less than two times and not more than three times the equivalent value of the entire stock in question.

ARTICLE 36. Negligence of proper registration as prescribed in Article 8 is subject to a fine of not more than \$100.

ARTICLE 37. Failure to apply for registration as prescribed in Article 14 is subject to a fine of not more than \$500.

ARTICLE 38. Any omission or improper entry of the accounts or false

or inaccurate report of such accounts to the authorities is an offence punishable by a fine of not more than \$300. Anyone attempting at counterfeiting or imitation shall be prosecuted in accordance with criminal law.

ARTICLE 39. Any act of mixing, dissolving or changing the shape or content of sugar is an offence punishable by a fine of not more than \$200. Adulterated sugar shall be confiscated.

ARTICLE 40. Hoarding of sugar or any act in violation of Article 22 and 24 is an offence punishable by a fine of not more than \$500, in addition to the confiscation of the offending goods. In case of a serious offense, the license of the guilty party may be revoked.

ARTICLE 41. Failure to deliver the finished product at a fixed date and place as prescribed in Article 28 is an offence punishable by a fine of not more than \$300.

ARTICLE 42. Shipping of sugar by sugar producers and dealers without authorization is an offence punishable by a fine of not more than \$1,000, in addition to the confiscation of the goods. In case of a serious offense, the license of the guilty party may be revoked. If the goods cannot be found, a fine equivalent in value may be imposed.

ARTICLE 43. Fines and penalties as provided in these regulations shall be decided by the court.

The defendant may appeal to a higher court, whose decision shall be final.

The court shall fix the date for the defendant to pay the fine. Failing to do so, compulsory action may be taken against the defendant.

ARTICLE 44. All acts of forgery, counterfeiting or imitation of all papers as required by these regulations shall be dealt with by criminal law, in

addition to the confiscation of the goods.

ARTICLE 45. Sugar producers and dealers shall register with the monopoly bureau for the sale of their goods within one month of the enforcement of these regulations. Detailed provisions shall be decided upon by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 46. Provisions concerning the enforcement of these regulations shall be made by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 47. An order shall announce the date and area for the enforcement of these regulations.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE MONOPOLY OF MATCHES IN WARTIME

(Promulgated on May 13, 1942)

ARTICLE 1. Monopoly of matches shall be taken care of by a monopoly organization established by the Ministry of Finance.

This monopoly organization shall be organized according to law.

ARTICLE 2. No importation of matches from abroad or from non-monopolized areas shall be allowed without permission from the Government.

ARTICLE 3. Monopoly sales stamps shall be affixed to all monopolized matches.

ARTICLE 4. Monopolized matches shall be taxed according to law. A special tax on matches imported from abroad or from non-monopolized areas must be paid upon entry.

ARTICLE 5. Match producers, manufacturers and dealers shall form their own trade guilds under the supervision of the government offices directly upon to assist the monopoly organization.

ARTICLE 6. No manufacture of

matches is allowed without permission from the Government and registration with the monopoly organization.

ARTICLE 7. The site of match factories, production figures and standard of quality shall be fixed by the monopoly organization, which shall report same to the Ministry of Finance for publication.

ARTICLE 8. The monopoly organization shall have the right to examine the processes of match manufacture, storing, accounts and bills from time to time.

ARTICLE 9. Match manufacturers shall report the kinds and quantities of their products to the monopoly organization for record.

ARTICLE 10. The Government may purchase or limit the production of match manufacturers whose products are too little and/or inferior in quality.

ARTICLE 11. For promotion purposes, the monopoly organization may establish government-operated or standard match factories at convenient places.

ARTICLE 12. No manufacture or importation of machines or chief raw materials for making matches is allowed without permission from the Government.

ARTICLE 13. All matches the manufacture or importation of which is permitted by the Government shall be purchased by the monopoly organization.

ARTICLE 14. The monopoly organization shall establish depots for the storage of matches.

ARTICLE 15. The purchasing price shall be fixed by the committees established under the monopoly organization on the basis of the actual cost of production of similar products from government-operated or standard factories plus a legitimate profit. The

price shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance for approval and announcement. Similar procedure shall be followed in the case of any change of price.

Price fixing committees shall be organized according to the provisions made by the Ministry of Finance.

The purchasing price of imported matches shall not exceed that of similar products from government-operated or standard factories.

ARTICLE 16. The monopoly organization may petition the Ministry of Finance to purchase at a reduced price or destroy by burning such matches whose quality is not up to the standard.

ARTICLE 17. The monopoly organization shall standardize the package and its contents and fix the place and date for delivery.

ARTICLE 18. The monopoly organization shall transport its own matches or may ask the help of merchants or transportation organizations whenever necessary.

ARTICLE 19. Wholesale merchants of matches shall register with, and receive sales certificates from, the monopoly organization.

ARTICLE 20. The selling price of matches shall be fixed and announced by the Ministry of Finance on the basis of the purchasing price plus government profit on monopoly.

ARTICLE 21. Wholesale merchants and retail traders shall be required to sell their matches at prices fixed by the Ministry of Finance. No increase in price shall be allowed.

ARTICLE 22. The monopoly organization may examine the business conditions, the stock, the account books and bills of wholesale merchants from time to time.

ARTICLE 23. Anyone who imports or delivers matches in violation of

Article 2 is subject to a fine of not less than two times and not more than three times the value of the entire stock in question, which is liable to confiscation.

ARTICLE 24. Anyone who illegally manufactures matches or manufactures matches at unauthorized places in violation of Article 6 is subject to a fine of not more than \$5,000, and the offending stock and equipment shall be confiscated. If the stock has already been distributed, a fine equivalent in value may be imposed.

ARTICLE 25. Anyone who illegally manufactures or imports raw materials or machines for match-making in violation of Article 12 is subject to a fine of not less than two times and not more than three times the equivalent value of the entire stock in question, which is liable to confiscation.

ARTICLE 26. Anyone who violates Article 17 is subject to a fine of not more than \$300.

ARTICLE 27. Any one who illegally sells matches without first registering with and obtaining permits from the monopoly organization, in violation of Article 19, is subject to a fine of not more than \$2,000, in addition to the confiscation of the goods.

ARTICLE 28. Any one who increases the price of matches without authorization, in violation of Article 21, is subject to a fine of not more than \$1,000 in the case of wholesale merchants and not more than \$100 in the case of retail traders.

ARTICLE 29. Fines and penalties as provided in these regulations shall be fixed by a proper court.

The defendant may appeal to a higher court within five days after the decision is made. The decision of the higher court shall be final.

The court shall fix the date for the

defendant to pay the fine. Failing to do so, compulsory action may be taken against the defendant.

ARTICLE 30. Provisions concerning the enforcement of these regulations shall be decided upon by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 31. An order shall announce the date and area for the enforcement of these regulations.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE MONOPOLY OF TOBACCO IN WARTIME

(Promulgated on May 13, 1942)

ARTICLE 1. Monopoly of tobacco by the Central Government includes:

- (a) Cigarettes.
- (b) Cigars.
- (c) Processed tobacco leaves.
- (d) Other kinds of tobacco made by machines or similar processes.

Paper for cigarette-making is also monopolized.

ARTICLE 2. No importation of tobacco from abroad or from non-monopolized areas is allowed without permission from the Government.

ARTICLE 3. Monopolized tobacco shall be taxed according to law. A special tax on tobacco imported from abroad or from non-monopolized areas must be paid upon entry.

ARTICLE 4. The Tobacco Monopoly Bureau shall undertake the tobacco monopoly enterprise of the country. Its organization shall be outlined in a separate law.

ARTICLE 5. Producers and manufacturers of and dealers in tobacco shall form their own trade guilds under the supervision of the government offices directly in charge. The guilds may be called upon to assist the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 6. No ownership, consumption or transfer of tobacco shall

be allowed without sales permit slips of the monopoly bureau. Exception is made if the tobacco is manufactured prior to the purchasing order of the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 7. All purchases or sales of monopolized tobacco shall be made according to standard weights and measures.

ARTICLE 8. Tobacco growing areas in the country shall be designated by the monopoly bureau according to the soil, climate and demand in different provinces. If the production is too small and the quality very poor in a certain area, the monopoly bureau may order stoppage of tobacco-growing in such an area.

ARTICLE 9. The monopoly bureau may establish experimental stations to improve varieties, teach new methods of planting and insect prevention and give other forms of assistance.

ARTICLE 10. Tobacco producers shall make reports to the monopoly bureau concerning areas, varieties and location of cultivation and shall apply for free registration at an early date.

ARTICLE 11. The monopoly bureau shall have the right to reduce an oversupply if the production is such that it affects the food crops.

ARTICLE 12. Registered growers shall organize themselves into co-operatives or joint cooperatives to apply for, if necessary, production loans from the monopoly bureau. Regulations governing the extension of loans shall be made by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 13. In addition to the factories established by the Government for the manufacture of monopolized tobacco, all private factories shall apply to the monopoly bureau for free registration. They must give

information concerning trade marks, names, specifications on packing and manufacture, cost of operation, annual demand for raw materials and annual production figures to the monopoly bureau when applying for free registration.

ARTICLE 14. The monopoly bureau may examine at any time the accounts and bills of tobacco producers covering every process of manufacturing and storing.

ARTICLE 15. Tobacco producers shall be required to abide by the rules set by the monopoly bureau concerning the packing and standardization of the finished product. No change in the packing or standardization of the product shall be allowed without permission from the bureau.

ARTICLE 16. The monopoly bureau may cancel the registration of the tobacco factories or reorganize and strengthen them if their products are below the standard.

ARTICLE 17. The monopoly bureau shall establish markets at producing centres according to Article 10 and purchase the tobacco supply according to prices for different grades.

ARTICLE 18. Tobacco producers shall sell their entire supply to the monopoly bureau. If the product is below the standard, the bureau may order it to be re-processed before it can be accepted.

ARTICLE 19. The monopoly bureau shall organize price fixing committees for purchasing tobacco. The committees, in fixing the purchasing price of the bureau, shall take into consideration the cost of production, quality of the product and the legitimate profit. Such prices shall be first approved and announced by the Ministry of Finance. The same pro-

cedure shall be applicable when there are changes of prices.

ARTICLE 20. The manufacture, purchase, distribution or storage of cigarette paper other than that manufactured by government factories or imported from abroad shall be approved by the monopoly bureau and reported to the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 21. The manufacture, purchase, distribution or storage of tobacco-making machines or other special equipment shall be approved by the monopoly bureau and reported to the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 22. With the exception of the Government's own purchase of tobacco from abroad, merchants importing tobacco according to Article 2 shall receive special permission from the Ministry of Finance. The imported product shall be sold to the monopoly bureau according to the Customs' price evaluation.

ARTICLE 23. The monopoly bureau shall transport its own tobacco leaves and tobacco products, or may ask the help of merchants or transportation organizations whenever necessary.

ARTICLE 24. The monopoly bureau shall establish depots or designate godowns at production and transportation centres for the collection and distribution of tobacco.

ARTICLE 25. A sales permit stamp shall be affixed to each package of monopolized tobacco on sale. Special permits shall be given when stock is released from a depot or godown.

ARTICLE 26. Wholesale merchants and retail traders of monopolized tobacco must register with, and receive sales certificates from, the monopoly bureau.

ARTICLE 27. The wholesale price of monopolized tobacco shall be fixed by the monopoly bureau on the basis of

the cost of purchase and government profit of monopoly. The bureau shall then report the price to the Ministry of Finance for approval and announcement.

ARTICLE 28. Retail traders of monopolized tobacco shall be required to sell their tobacco at prices announced by the monopoly bureau. The retail price shall be fixed by local trade guilds with the approval of the bureau.

ARTICLE 29. The bureau may inspect the business conditions of wholesale merchants and retail traders by examining their account books and bills.

ARTICLE 30. Anyone who violates Articles 2 and 22 concerning the importation or transportation of tobacco shall be subject to a fine of not less than two times and not more than three times the value of the entire stock in question, which is subject to confiscation.

ARTICLE 31. Anyone who violates Article 6 concerning tobacco ownership, consumption or trading is subject to a fine of not more than \$3,000, in addition to the confiscation of the offending stock.

ARTICLE 32. Anyone who neglects to register properly or fails to obtain the necessary permission as prescribed in Articles 10, 13, 15 and 26 is subject to a fine of not more than \$500.

ARTICLE 33. Anyone hoarding tobacco or violating Article 18 is subject to a fine of not more than \$500, in addition to the confiscation of the offending goods. In the case of a serious offense, the license of the offender may be revoked.

ARTICLE 34. Tobacco manufacturers found guilty of illicit delivery or trading of tobacco are subject to a fine of \$1,000, in addition to the con-

fiscation of the goods. In the case of a serious offense, the license of the offender may be revoked.

ARTICLE 35. Anyone who violates Articles 20 and 21 by illegally manufacturing, purchasing or storing cigarette paper, tobacco-making machines or other special equipment is subject to a fine of not less than two times and not more than three times the value of the entire stock in question, which is subject to confiscation.

ARTICLE 36. Anyone who violates Article 28 by increasing prices without authorization is subject to a fine of not more than \$3,000, in addition to the cancellation of his license.

ARTICLE 37. Fines and penalties as provided in these regulations shall be decided by a proper court.

The defendant may appeal to a higher court within five days after the decision is made. The decision of the higher court shall be final.

The court shall fix the date for the defendant to pay the fine. Failing to do so, compulsory action may be taken against the defendant.

ARTICLE 38. All acts of forgery, counterfeiting or imitation of all papers as required by these regulations is punishable by criminal law, in addition to the confiscation of the goods.

ARTICLE 39. Tobacco manufacturers and dealers shall register with the monopoly bureau for the sale of their goods within one month of the enforcement of these regulations. Detailed provisions shall be decided upon by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 40. Provisions concerning the enforcement of these regulations shall be decided upon by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 41. An order shall an-

nounce the date and area for the enforcement of these regulations.

CUSTOMS REVENUE

Before the war, the annual Customs revenue receipts totalled N.C.\$300,000,000, constituting 40% of the total national revenue. Chinese Maritime Customs duty was, before the reform in 1942, divided into import tax, export tax and interport tax. Following the invasion of the enemy of most of the coastal provinces, a marked decline of the Customs revenue was registered in the national budget. But the Ministry of Finance lost no time in establishing a number of freight inspection offices in the vicinity of war areas and at different communication centres for the control of exports and imports. In January 1942 Customs stations were formed at Shanghaio, Kungong, Sian, Loyang and Lanchow and the inspection offices were abolished. All the activities of the Chinese Customs were entrusted to the Inspectorate-General of Customs but under the direction and supervision of the Customs Administration of the Ministry of Finance.

Before the restoration of tariff autonomy in 1929, the unequal treaties dictated that all import duties were taxed on a uniform rate of 5% *ad valorem*. After 1929, the Government promulgated a set of tariff rates ranging from 7.5% to 27.5% for seven categories of goods. Since then a few revisions were made on the import duties, notably that of 1930, by means of which 12 different rates ranging from 5% to 50% were announced. The change of tariff unit from Haikwan taels into Customs gold units and a maximum rate of 80% *ad valorem* for imported goods were among the important revisions. All revisions were

TABLE 11. PERCENTAGE OF CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE LOST IN OCCUPIED PORTS IN RELATION TO CHINA'S WHOLE

Month	1937		1938		1939		1940		1941	
	Revenue (N.C.\$)	%	Revenue (N.C.\$)	%	Revenue (N.C.\$)	%	Revenue (N.C.\$)	%	Revenue (N.C.\$)	%
January	—	—	7,071,604	42.15	26,970,456	79.55	37,321,081	88.60	47,244,507	85.16
February	—	—	8,214,835	52.75	17,461,483	76.45	28,137,449	91.73	33,122,368	86.65
March	—	—	13,344,684	54.92	24,414,511	81.04	40,459,294	91.82	36,170,789	85.81
April	—	—	11,654,837	49.30	23,827,810	81.01	43,860,435	89.50	44,531,823	87.40
May	—	—	12,104,502	55.43	30,296,039	83.80	49,535,082	90.51	42,587,941	84.51
June	—	—	12,745,006	62.24	26,716,111	83.26	38,835,156	88.75	42,163,230	89.49
July	126,652	—	14,703,845	68.11	24,256,698	85.39	40,094,304	91.66	46,198,484	89.36
August	1,023,013	5.33	16,360,109	68.40	26,777,664	88.58	37,810,084	92.93	37,863,666	87.36
September	1,163,127	8.30	15,851,678	62.68	20,296,583	87.75	29,736,210	88.88	38,525,548	88.91
October	1,210,051	7.65	17,369,528	69.59	20,307,628	86.34	31,778,770	87.13	—	—
November	5,407,067	9.26	18,456,652	82.72	19,848,201	84.95	26,743,080	81.79	—	—
December	5,379,018	36.44	11,454,138	79.20	16,285,523	87.21	21,372,027	80.38	—	—
TOTAL	14,308,928	4.17	159,271,424	62.57	277,369,688	83.72	423,685,072	89.06	368,408,416	87.16

Source: Statistics Section of Maritime Customs Administration.

TABLE 12. TARIFF RATES OF CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS

Taxes	Groups of Goods	Tariff Rates C.G.U.	Explanations
Import Tax	1. Cotton and Cotton Piece Goods	2.5—50%	The present customs tariffs were revised in 1934. Beginning with July 1, 1939, certain products were prohibited from importation. All prohibited goods and non-necessities were taxed on their full value. Those goods formerly taxed according to their quantity were all taxed <i>ad valorem</i> beginning from January 1, 1942. Goods not falling under the prohibited list were taxed only one-third of the original tariffs either according to their quantity or <i>ad valorem</i> beginning from September 2, 1939. Because of the increase of the pure gold content in the Customs Gold Unit and the fixing of the ratio between national dollars and C.G.U. at 20 to 1, <i>ad valorem</i> taxes were levied at only one-third of, and taxes on quantity of goods, only one-sixth of, their original tariffs from April 1, 1942.
	2. Flax and Manufactures Thereof	7.5—50%	
	3. Wool and Manufactures Thereof	15—70%	
	4. Silk and Manufactures Thereof	15—80%	
	5. Metals and Manufactures Thereof	5—40%	
	6. Food, Beverages and Medicinal Plants	10—80%	
	7. Tobacco	15—50%	
	8. Chemicals and Dyes	5—35%	
	9. Candles, Soap, Oils, Fats, Gums and Resins	10—30%	
	10. Books, Maps, Paper and Wood Pulp	7.5—30%	
	11. Hides, Leather, and other Animal Substances	7.5—40%	
	12. Wood, Bamboos, Rattans, Coir, Straw, and Manufactures Thereof	7.5—35%	
	13. Coal, Fuel, Pitch and Tar	10—15%	
	14. China-ware, Enamelled Ware, and Glass	20—50%	
	15. Stone, Earth, and Manufactures Thereof	10—20%	
	16. Sundry	10—40%	
	N.C.\$		
Export Tax	<i>Ad Valorem</i> By Quantity	7.5% 5.0%	The export tariff rates were revised and promulgated in 1934.
	<i>Ad Valorem</i> By Quantity	7.5% 5.0%	The interport tariff rates were revised and enforced in October, 1937, and abolished on April 15 1942.
Interport Tax	Ordinary Daily Necessities with Exception of Those That Are Duty-Free	5%	Tariffs rates of wartime consumption tax were promulgated in April, 1942. Collection on imported goods were made by the Customs at the time of importation together with the imposition of import tax.
	Non-Necessities	10%	
	Semi-Luxuries	15%	
	Luxuries	25%	

necessitated by the domestic requirements of developing revenue sources and protecting home industry and guided by the changing conditions of international trade. As a measure to further replenish the national treasury, revenue surtax and flood surtax of 5%, in addition to the import duties, were collected.

Pressed by the need of materials to rebuild the interior provinces, the scope for the reduction and even exemption of import duties was further enlarged by the announcement in September 1939 of a regulation by means of which all imported goods, with the exception of those prohibited, enjoyed a reduction of two-thirds of the original tariff. The Government announced in July, 1939, 168 categories of goods to be prohibited for import.

For the export duty, a uniform tariff of 5% *ad valorem* was also enforced due to the restrictions of unequal treaties. The tariff of export duties of 5% *ad valorem* plus 2.5% surtax was still in practice however for some time after the tariff autonomy. The revision of tariff in May, 1931, increased the rates of all goods based on quantity to 5% and the *ad valorem* rates remained at 7.5%. The revision in 1934 announced the lists of goods taxed at reduced rates or free from duty. In addition, the 5% revenue surtax and flood relief surtax were also collected together with the export duty.

The interport tax was instituted in 1931 and was substituted by the wartime consumption tax in April 1942. All native goods not listed in the consolidated taxes and imported luxuries on which import duties are paid are subject to the wartime consumption tax which is collected only once throughout the country. The

rate ranges from 5% on daily necessities to 20% on luxuries. All duty-free or duty-reduced imported daily necessities, raw materials necessary for manufacture which have to be transported from the factories to cities, and all goods essential to the livelihood of the people such as rice, cereals, charcoal, wheat, firewood, and vegetable are exempted from the wartime consumption tax. The Customs collect the tax and issue the permits. The evaluation of home-made goods is based on the average of the latest three-month wholesale price at the centre of production while that of imported goods on the import duties collected.

In August 1942, a revision of the tax was made in accordance with the instructions of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. The number of taxable goods was reduced from 245 to 19 which were taxed in the provinces according to the quantity of their production. In a period of six months since its enforcement the total returns of this new tax amounted to more than N.C. \$300,000,000.

LOANS

Regarding China's internal loan situation, Dr. H. H. Kung, Minister of Finance, stated on the occasion of the fifth war anniversary: "An important corner-stone of China's war finance which was laid before the war is the consolidation of its internal debt structure. During the years under review, loans were issued only on adequate securities while debt services were meticulously met... Undoubtedly, the solid basis of the internal debt structure and the confidence it has inspired among the people is largely responsible for the singular success with which the Government has

floated enormous amounts of internal loans to replenish the war chest during the past five years."

Prior to the outbreak of the present hostilities, a scheme of loan consolidation was put into effect in 1936, whereby five series of consolidated bonds totalling N.C. \$1,460,000,000 with an extended period of principal payments were substituted for 33 former loans. This conversion saved about N.C. \$85,000,000 internal debt charges yearly for the national treasury.

With regard to external loans, it has always been the policy of the financial authorities to establish confidence in China's credit by the fulfillment of its obligations despite the severe strain on China's war finance. In this connection, Dr. H. H. Kung stated in "The Fifth Year of China's Financial Front," a pamphlet issued on that occasion: "No better evidence of the National Government's honourable record could be furnished than by its conscientious and courageous efforts in recent years to settle the mess of defaulted debts inherited from the former Peking Regime." "When I took over the financial reins of the country in 1933," he continued, "I made it a primary object to settle these debts in arrears so as to rehabilitate China's credit."

The Japanese detained the Customs revenues and salt tax collected in the war zones despite their assurances and all efforts to induce them to allow remittances in respect of all China's financial obligations that were secured thereon at the time of the outbreak of the war. In 1938 the Chinese Government was constrained to defer payment on principal then due on the Anglo-French Loan of 1908 and the Crisp Loan of 1912, both of which are secured on salt revenue. But the

Chinese Government, forced by circumstances, had to decline as a last resort to make further advances beginning from January 15, 1939, and instruct the Inspectorate-General of Customs to open special accounts in the Central Bank of China in which periodically are deposited different sums in respect of loans secured on Customs duties.

The following statement made by Dr. H. H. Kung on the occasion of the fifth war anniversary clearly explains the loan situation in China: "China's scrupulous anxiety to honour her obligations continued even in war time. Despite the seizure by the enemy of the pledged revenues, without any provision to applying them to debt service, China maintained her foreign currency debt payments right up to 1939. Payments were temporarily suspended only with the greatest reluctance when the situation became patently anomalous and the remaining foreign currency funds had to be conserved for war purposes and for currency support.

"The granting of the American wood oil credit of U.S. \$25,000,000 in December, 1938 was a major step in a series of wartime events whereby friendly countries manifested their realization of the importance of supporting China's cause against aggression. There were also the series of barter agreements with the Soviet Union, additional American credits for purchases secured by exports of minerals, the British stabilization credit of 1939, the British export guarantee credits and the Sino-American-British stabilization credits of 1941, culminating in the American lend-lease arrangement and the large American and British cash loans lately concluded. While China has relied

above all on her own financial efforts, the extension of external aid greatly assists her in financing war needs and maintaining economic stability."

Since the outbreak of the war, the Chinese Government had issued a number of domestic loans for financing the war and executing the reconstruction projects. The first loan, National Liberty Bonds, amounted to N.C.\$500,000,000 which bears an annual interest of 4% and the repayment of capital began from 1941 and will extend over a period of 30 years. Another loan of N.C.\$500,000,000 called the 27th Year National Defense Loan was issued in May 1938. It bears an interest of 6% per annum payable semi-annually on April 30, and October 31 and is secured on income tax collections. For the attainment of marketable foreign securities and attracting and exchanging gold bullion, the 27th Year Gold Loan was issued at the same time. The amounts were C.G.U.100,000,000; £10,000,000; and U.S.\$50,000,000.

The 27th Year Relief Loan was issued in July 1938. The amount authorized was N.C.\$100,000,000 but only the first instalment of N.C.\$30,000,000 was floated.

In 1939, the 28th Year War Supplies Loan of N.C.\$600,000,000 and the 28th Year Reconstruction Loan of N.C.\$600,000,000 were simultaneously issued. In 1940, the 29th Year War Supplies Loan amounting to N.C.\$1,200,000,000 and the Reconstruction Loan of £10,000,000 and U.S.\$50,000,000 were floated. In 1941, two more loans were issued, the 30th Year War Supplies Loan and the 30th Year Reconstruction Loan, each of N.C.\$1,200,000,000. After the formation of the bloc of United Nations, China issued in 1942 the Allied Victory Loan of N.C.\$1,000,000,000 and the Allied Victory Gold Loan of U.S.\$100,000,000, totalling N.C.\$2,700,000,000. In addition, China secured a U.S.\$500,000,000 loan from the United States in March 1942. The result of the subscriptions of the loans was, on the whole, satisfactory. For the promotion and propaganda of the subscriptions of bonds, a Wartime Government Bonds Promotion Commission was established in March 1941 under the Ministry of Finance. The Commission was reorganized into the Wartime Government Bonds Subscription Commission in May 1942.

TABLE 13. INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED BY THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT
BETWEEN JULY, 1937 AND 1942

Kinds	Date of Issuance	Amount	Interest	Discount
National Liberty Bonds	Sept. 1937	NC\$ 500,000,000	4%	0
26th Year Kwangsi Currency Readjustment Loan	Dec. 1937	" 17,000,000	4%	0
27th Year National Defense Loan	May, 1938	" 500,000,000	6%	0
27th Year Gold Loan	May, 1938	CGU 100,000,000	5%	0
	May, 1938	£ 10,000,000	5%	0
	May, 1938	US\$ 50,000,000	5%	0
27th Year Relief Loan	July, 1938	NC\$ 30,000,000	4%	08
28th Year Reconstruction Loan	April, 1939	NC\$ 600,000,000	6%	0
28th Year War Supplies Loan	June, 1939	NC\$ 600,000,000	6%	0

29th Year Reconstruction Loan	Mar., 1940	£ 10,000,000	5%	98
	Mar., 1940	US\$ 50,000,000	5%	98
29th Year War Supplies Loan	Mar., 1940	NC\$ 1,200,000,000	6%	94
30th Year War Supplies Loan	Feb., 1941	NC\$ 1,200,000,000	6%	0
30th Year Reconstruction Loan	Feb., 1941	NC\$ 1,200,000,000	6%	0
31st Year Allied Victory Loan	May, 1942	NC\$ 1,000,000,000	6%	0
31st Year Allied Victory Gold Loan	May, 1942	US\$ 100,000,000	4%	83.33
31st Year Thrift-Savings Gold Certificates	May, 1942	US\$ 100,000,000	3%	0

TABLE 14. INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED BY THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Name of Loan	Amount Issued	Amount Outstanding June 30, 1938
1. 21% Surtax Treasury Bonds, 1st Issue	\$ 30,000,000.00	Fully repaid
2. 24% Surtax Treasury Bonds, 2nd Issue	40,000,000.00	"
3. 17th Year Short-Term Currency Loan	30,000,000.00	"
4. Rolled Tobacco Tax Treasury Bonds, 1st Issue	16,000,000.00	"
5. 17th Year Military Loan	10,000,000.00	Converted
6. 17th Year Short-Term Rehabilitation Loan	40,000,000.00	Fully repaid
7. Tientsin Customs 24% Surtax Treasury Bonds	9,000,000.00	"
8. 17th Year Long-Term Currency Loan	45,000,000.00	\$ 34,875,000.00
9. 18th Year Famine Relief Loan	10,000,000.00	Converted
10. 18th Year Disbandment Loan	50,000,000.00	"
11. Rolled Tobacco Tax Treasury Bonds, 2nd Issue	24,000,000.00	Fully repaid
12. Haiho Improvement Short-Term Loan ¹	4,000,000.00	\$ 400,000.00
13. 19th Year Customs Revenue Treasury Notes	40,000,000.00	Converted
14. 18th Year Reorganization Treasury Notes	70,000,000.00	"
15. 19th Year Customs Revenue Loan	20,000,000.00	"
16. 19th Year Rolled Tobacco Treasury Notes	24,000,000.00	Fully repaid
17. 19th Year Customs Revenue Short-Term Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	Converted
18. 18th Year Rehabilitation Short-Term Treasury Notes	50,000,000.00	"
19. 20th Year Rolled Tobacco Treasury Notes	60,000,000.00	"
20. 20th Year Customs Revenue Short-Term Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	"
21. Kiangsu and Chekiang Silk Loan	6,000,000.00	"
22. 20th Year Consolidated Tax Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	"
23. 20th Year Salt Revenue Treasury Notes	80,000,000.00	"
24. 20th Year Flood Relief Loan	30,000,000.00	"
25. 20th Year Short-Term Currency Loan	80,000,000.00	"
26. Patriotic Loan	20,000,000.00	"
27. 22nd Year Customs Revenue Treasury Notes	100,000,000.00	"
28. North China War Relief Short-Term Loan ²	4,000,000.00	"
29. 23rd Year Customs Revenue Treasury Notes ³	50,000,000.00	"
30. Railway Construction Bonds, 1st Issue	12,000,000.00	\$ 6,750,000.00
31. Yuping Railway Loan	12,000,000.00	8,400,000.00
32. 23rd Year 6% Boxer Indemnity Sterling Loan	£ 1,500,000.00	£ 1,102,000.00
33. 24th Year Currency Loan	\$ 100,000,000.00	Converted
34. 23rd Year Customs Revenue Loan ⁴	\$ 100,000,000.00	"
35. 24th Year Relief Loan	20,000,000.00	"
36. 24th Year Szechuen Currency Treasury Notes ⁵	30,000,000.00	"

PUBLIC FINANCE

37. 24th Year Szechuen Rehabilitation Loan ^a ...	70,000,000.00	\$ 54,000,000.00
38. 24th Year Electric Bonds ...	10,000,000.00	6,700,000.00
39. Railway Construction Bonds, 2nd Issue ...	27,000,000.00	20,575,000.00
40. Italian Boxer Indemnity Loan ...	44,000,000.00	Converted
41. Russian Boxer Indemnity Notes ...	120,000,000.00	"
42. Consolidated Tax Notes ^b ...	120,000,000.00	"
43. 25th Year Short-Term Notes ^c ...	100,000,000.00	"
44. Consolidated Loan:		
A ...	150,000,000.00	\$ 145,650,000.00
B ...	150,000,000.00	147,000,000.00
C ...	350,000,000.00	343,000,000.00
D ...	550,000,000.00	539,000,000.00
E ...	260,000,000.00	254,800,000.00
45. Recovery Loan ...	340,000,000.00	339,200,000.00
46. 25th Year Szechuen Rehabilitation Loan ...	15,000,000.00	13,800,000.00
47. Railway Construction Bonds, 3rd Issue ...	80,000,000.00	74,000,000.00
48. 25th Year Kwangtung Currency Readjustment Loan ...	120,000,000.00	115,200,000.00
49. 26th Year Nanking-Kiangsi Railway Loan ...	14,000,000.00	13,300,000.00
50. 26th Year U.S. Dollar Loan for Engineering Projects and Harbour Development in Kwangtung ...	G.\$ 2,000,000.00	G.\$ 1,920,000.00
51. 26th Year Kwangtung Province Railway Development Loan ...	£ 2,700,000.00	Withdrawn

^a Not included in the consolidation scheme of 1936. Amortization and interest payments met from Haiho surtax.

^b Not included in the consolidation scheme of 1936. Amortization and interest payments met from Changlu (North China) surtax.

^c Original amount issued \$100,000,000. Later reduced to \$50,000,000, balance replaced by equal amount of 23rd Year Customs Revenue Loan.

^d Half of amount issued to replace 23rd Year Customs Treasury Notes.

^e Secured on wine and tobacco taxes of Szechuen province.

^f Secured on salt tax of Szechuen area.

TABLE 15. LOANS SECURED BY CUSTOMS REVENUE

Loans	Outstanding December 31, 1940	In Arrears	
		Principal	Interest
4½% Loan of 1898 ...	£ 3,606,650	£ 700,400	£ 186,501
5% Reorganization Loan ...	£ 10,691,880	£ 1,048,460	£ 1,451,319
1925 French Indemnity ...	\$ 24,919,500	\$ 2,921,950	\$ 1,587,200
1928 Belgian Indemnity ...	\$ 1,102,000	\$ 649,500	\$ 55,473

TABLE 16. RELATION OF MARITIME CUSTOMS REVENUE TO FOREIGN LOANS AND INDEMNITIES AND INTERNAL LOANS CHARGED THEREON

Year	Average Exchange	Combined Maritime Customs Gross Revenue		Combined Maritime Customs Net Revenue		Total Amounts Paid from Combined Maritime Customs Revenue Towards Foreign Loans and Indemnities Charged Thereon		Total Amounts Paid from Combined Maritime Customs Revenue Towards Internal Loans Service	
		St. \$	£ Sterling	St. \$	£ Sterling	St. \$	£ Sterling	St. \$	£ Sterling
1937 ...	1 2½ (nom.)	310,508,584	18,759,894	275,758,423	16,660,405	76,911,283	4,646,723	129,141,463	129,121,249*
1938 ...	1 2½ "	233,309,273	14,095,769	77,260,408	4,666,360	77,958,876†	4,710,003	15,101,301*	15,101,301*
1939 ...	1 2½ "	301,760,363	18,231,355	31,178,409	1,883,696	15,229,943‡	920,142	9,132,633§	539,485
1940 ...	1 2½ "	434,964,774	26,279,122	18,359,176	1,109,290	8,029,413	539,485	8,603,204	441,401
1941 (Jan.-Sept.) ...	1 2½ "	389,338,864	23,522,557	47,711,186	2,882,551	7,305,940	441,401		

* Of this amount of St. \$77,958,876 the sum of St. \$77,260,408 (or @ 112½ = £4,668,360) was provided for from the Customs net revenue and the sum of St. \$689,268 (or @ 112½ = £41,643) advanced by the Chinese Government.

† Whole amount was advanced by the Chinese Government.

‡ Of this amount St. \$2,379,679 (= £141,293,814) representing two monthly instalments of the Anglo-German loan of 1898 were paid in full while the remainder, St. \$12,850,294, was placed on deposit in special accounts with the Central Bank of China pending future application towards service of the foreign obligations.

§ Placed on deposit in special accounts with the Central Bank of China pending future application towards service of the loans.

* Including St. \$808,978 representing surplus revenue during 1940 applied towards making up part of the deficiencies of quotas outstanding at the end of 1939.

TABLE 17. CAPITAL REDEEMED AND INTEREST PAID OF GOVERNMENT INTERNAL LOAN, 1940

Loans	Amount Issued	Amount of Capital Outstanding	Capital and Interest to be Paid			Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid		
			Capital	Interest		Capital	Interest	
17th Year Long Term Currency Loan	\$ 45,000,000	\$ 32,625,000	\$ 2,250,000	\$ 773,438		—	—	
Consolidated Loan	1,400,000,000	1,412,450,000	29,510,000	83,457,300		—	—	
Recovery Loan	340,000,000	329,800,000	3,400,000	19,625,300		—	—	
25th Year Kwangtung Currency Readjustment Loan ...	120,000,000	105,600,000	3,600,000	4,344,000	\$	3,600,000	\$ 4,344,000	
26th Year U.S.\$ Loan for Engineering Projects and Harbour Development in Kwangtung	G\$ 2,000,000	G\$ 1,880,000	80,000	G\$ 106,800		—	—	
National Liberty Bonds	\$ 500,000,000	\$ 500,000,000	—	\$ 20,000,000	\$	—	\$ 20,000,000	
26th Year Kwangsi Currency Readjustment Loan	17,000,000	15,980,000	\$ 340,000	649,400		340,000	649,400	
27th Year National Defense Bonds	500,000,000	494,000,000	4,000,000	20,820,000		4,000,000	20,820,000	
27th Year Gold Loan	CGU 100,000,000	CGU 99,100,000	600,000	CGU 4,977,500	CGU	600,000	CGU 4,977,500	
27th Year Gold Loan	\$ 10,000,000	\$ 9,910,000	60,000	\$ 497,750	\$	60,000	\$ 497,750	
27th Year Gold Loan	G\$ 50,000,000	G\$ 49,550,000	300,000	G\$ 2,488,750	G\$	300,000	G\$ 2,488,750	
28th Year Construction Loan	\$ 600,000,000	\$ 600,000,000	—	36,000,000	\$	—	36,000,000	
28th Year War Supplies Loan	600,000,000	600,000,000	—	36,000,000		—	36,000,000	
29th Year War Supplies Loan	1,200,000,000	1,200,000,000	—	18,000,000		—	18,000,000	
29th Year Construction Gold Loan	\$ 10,000,000	\$ 10,000,000	—	\$ 125,000	\$	—	\$ 125,000	
29th Year Construction Gold Loan	G\$ 50,000,000	G\$ 50,000,000	—	G\$ 625,000	G\$	—	G\$ 625,000	
Yuping Railway Loan	\$ 12,000,000	\$ 4,680,000	1,080,000	\$ 356,400	\$	1,080,000	\$ 356,400	
23rd Year 6% Boxer Indemnity Sterling Loan ...	\$ 1,500,000	\$ 972,000	141,000	\$ 52,170		—	—	

24th Year Szechuen Rehabilitation Loan	\$ 70,000,000	\$ 33,600,000	\$ 8,400,000	\$ 2,394,000	\$	8,400,000	\$ 2,394,000
24th Year Electricity Bonds Railway Construction Bonds	10,000,000	6,900,000	1,400,000	249,000		—	—
3rd Issue	\$ 80,000,000	\$ 77,382,500	\$ 4,000,000	\$ 4,080,000		—	—
25th Year Szechuen Rehabilitation Loan	15,000,000	12,300,000	600,000	765,000		600,000	765,000
26th Year Nanking-Kiangsi Railway Loan	14,000,000	13,200,000	1,400,000	684,000		—	—
27th Year Relief Loan	30,000,000	30,000,000	—	600,000		—	600,000

TABLE 18. CAPITAL REDEEMED AND INTEREST PAID OF GOVERNMENT FOREIGN LOAN, 1940

Loans	Amount Issued	Amount of Capital Outstanding	Capital and Interest to be Paid		Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid	
			Capital	Interest	Capital	Interest
Anglo-German Loan of 1808	\$ 16,000,000	\$ 2,996,425	\$ 700,400	\$ 119,081	—	—
Reorganization Loan of 1913	25,000,000	19,691,880	537,020	959,022	—	—
Anglo-French Loan of 1908	5,000,000	250,000	—	11,250	—	—
Crisp Loan of 1912	5,000,000	3,666,971	—	183,349	—	—
Vickers-Marconi Loans	2,403,000	2,403,000	—	57,076	—	—
Hukuang Loan of 1911	5,656,000	5,656,000	—	282,800	—	—
Wheat and Cotton Loan of 1931, 1933	G\$ 26,200,199	G\$ 10,500,000	—	G\$ 4,200,000	—	G\$ 4,200,000
Chicago Continental Bank Loan of 1919	5,500,000	5,500,000	—	275,900	—	—
Pacific Development Corporation Loan	4,900,000	4,900,000	—	147,000	—	—
Hsiangkwei Loan of 1938	\$ 144,000	\$ 144,000	—	\$ 10,000	—	\$ 5,040
"AnLee" Company Treasury Notes	Fr. 180,000,000	Fr. 180,000,000	—	Fr. 12,600,000	—	Fr. 6,800,000
	\$ 1,916,000	\$ 1,460,000	\$ 120,000	—	\$ 120,000	—

The Boxer Indemnity. The original sum of the Boxer Indemnity was 450 million Kuping Taels, plus an annual interest of 4%. This obligation was converted into pound sterling amounting to £146,518,585, based on the rate of exchange of three shillings per tael.

The portion of the indemnity for the United States was U.S.\$53,348,000, a sum which the United States authorities found unjustified. Therefore in 1908 the indemnity was modified to U.S.\$13,655,192 and remit the balance in favour of China. The fund thus obtained was devoted to educational purposes by the Chinese Government as a response to the friendly gesture displayed by America. In accordance with the decision of the United States Senate in May 1924, the balance of the American Boxer Indemnity share totalling U.S.\$6,137,552 was used for the promotion and development of educational and cultural activities of China. The instalments are administered by a board which decides the allotment of the fund for educational purposes. America has waived all claims against China from this source.

The share for Russia was the largest, namely £42,476,000. In 1924 the U.S.S.R. relinquished unconditionally all claims to further payments. But China continued to use the funds as security for two internal loans until February 1936 when China's domestic loans were converted into one group and were secured by Customs revenue.

Britain's claim was £16,573,000. The payment was postponed for five years during the first World War. In 1922, the sums due to Great Britain under "Boxer Indemnity" were £6,935,319 principal and £4,251,228 interest, totalling £11,186,547 payable

by 1945. In accordance with the British Parliamentary Act of June 30, 1925, the entire balance accumulated since December 1922 and everything due until 1945 was to be remitted to China for the development of cultural activities. The distribution of the available funds was 30% for agricultural education, 23% for scientific research, 17% for public health and medicine and 30% for other educational purposes. An advisory committee of 11 was formed for handling the affairs. The British Indemnity Act of 1925 was replaced by an Indemnity Bill introduced in December, 1931 providing for the reservation of one-half of all sums derived from the Boxer Indemnity for a newly created Purchasing Commission in London, while the other half was to be used for educational purposes.

The Chinese Government had made use of the Boxer Indemnity to secure two loans, namely, the Chinese Government 23rd Year 6% Indemnity Loan of £1,500,000 floated by the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China and the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation for the completion of the last stage of the construction of the Canton-Hankow Railway, and the 6% Sassoon Loan of January, 1937 to the Huai River Commission totalling £238,000.

In 1928, the unused part of the Belgian Boxer Indemnity was converted into a special loan of U.S.\$5,000,000. The original share for Belgium was Frs. 69,447,000 or £2,759,000. Proceeds from the special loan were distributed as follows: 40% for the extension and repairs of the Lunghai Railway, 35% for the construction of new railroads in China and the remaining 25% for educational and charitable purposes. At the time

when foreign loan service was suspended, the balance of approximately U.S.\$1,000,000 was still outstanding.

Holland's original share in the Boxer Indemnity was Guilders 3,066,000 or £225,000 and in 1934 the balance of the outstanding amounts was used for conservancy work in China.

France's original share in the Boxer Indemnity was Frs. 580,000,000 or £23,023,000. During the first World War, payments were postponed for a period of five years. In 1925, the total amount then outstanding was used to satisfy the claims of the Far Eastern creditors of the Banque Industrielle de Chine. A separate loan of U.S.\$43,893,000 was floated in 1925 for this specific purpose.

Italy's share was Frs. 218,868,000 equal to £8,659,000 and converted later into U. S. currency. In 1933 Italy agreed to remit the outstanding balance of the Boxer Indemnity, amounting to about U.S.\$20,000,000, and to be a creditor of China under certain conditions. Secured upon the remitted balance of the Italian Boxer Indemnity, China floated a loan of N.C.\$44,000,000 from Chinese banks.

The original claim of Japan aggregated Yen 106,854,000, or £10,899,000. During the first World War, Japan also agreed to a postponement of payment for five years. Beginning from 1923 the negotiations between the two countries on the disposal of the outstanding balance, though continued for some years, never reached a conclusion. China, therefore, continued the payments in sterling. In 1938, the Chinese Government stopped the payment of instalments due to Japan.

Germany's share originally amounted to Marks 600,271,000, or £29,442,000 and was cancelled when China and Germany signed a peace treaty. When China declared war against Germany in 1917, the outstanding balance was £22,920,000.

Austria's original claim was Kronen 31,418,000, equal to £1,313,000 and in 1917, when China joined the Allies, the sum due to Austria totalled £1,022,000. It ceased to exist when the war closed.

Portugal claimed £30,203, Sweden £20,568, and other small international claims totalled less than £50,000. Most of them had been liquidated.

TABLE 19. CAPITAL REDEEMED AND INTEREST PAID OF BOXER INDEMNITY, 1940

Country	Amount Issued	Amount of Capital Outstanding	Capital and Interest to be Paid	
			Capital	Interest
Great Britain	£ 7,593,082	£ 2,282,689	£ 573,499	£ 22,962
Japan	5,014,226	1,228,842	378,720	15,176
Portugal	13,888	3,391	1,045	42
Norway and Sweden	9,423	1,397	712	29
U.S.A.	G\$ 24,440,779	G\$ 5,942,018	G\$ 1,815,091	G\$ 73,796
France	Fr. 265,793,400	Fr. 14,835,910	Fr. 3,873,567	Fr. 155,229
Belgium	31,816,291	1,148,687	463,678	18,581
Netherlands	Fl. 1,404,652	Fl. 208,300	Fl. 106,092	Fl. 4,202
Spain	Fr. 507,131	Fr. 75,248	Fr. 38,326	Fr. 1,336

APPENDIX I

REVISED ORGANIC LAW OF THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

(Promulgated by the National Government on March 26, 1940)

ARTICLE 1. The Ministry of Finance shall govern the financial affairs of the entire country.

ARTICLE 2. The Ministry of Finance shall direct and supervise the highest administrative authorities of various localities in the execution of all financial affairs.

ARTICLE 3. In regard to orders issued and penalties imposed by the highest administrative authorities in various localities in the execution of all financial matters, the Ministry of Finance may, upon discovering their violation of law or usurpation of power, suspend or cancel them upon the decision of the Executive Yuan at a general meeting.

ARTICLE 4. The Ministry of Finance shall have the following administrations, departments and bureaus:

1. Maritime Customs Administration.
2. Internal Revenue Administration.
3. National Treasury Administration.
4. General Affairs Department.
5. Salt Revenue Department.
6. Taxation Department.
7. Government Bonds Department.
8. Currency Department.
9. Direct Taxation Bureau.
10. Accounting Bureau.

ARTICLE 5. Acting upon the decision of the Executive Yuan and the

Legislative Yuan, the Ministry of Finance may establish, cancel and combine the various administrations, departments, bureaus, commissions and other institutions.

ARTICLE 6. The Maritime Customs Administration shall have charge of the following:

1. Supervision over the execution of tariff policy and the formulation and enforcement of the tariff schedule.
2. Supervision over the formulation, inspection, explanation and enforcement of Customs laws and regulations.
3. Matters in relation to tariff schedule and international trade under the provisions of treaties and agreements between China and foreign countries.
4. Prevention of and taxation on the dumping of foreign goods in the Chinese market.
5. Examination of cases of the exemption, reduction or refunding of taxes on imports and exports.
6. Establishment of Customs stations, enforcement of prohibition orders as well as prevention against tax evasion.
7. Auditing of the Customs receipts and disbursements.
8. Handling of tariff disputes and Customs petitions.

9. Supervision over the appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of all the members of the Chinese Customs service.
10. Supervision over the construction of buildings for subordinate offices of the Ministry.
11. Other affairs of maritime Customs administration.
(The organic law of the Maritime Customs Administration shall be separately drafted).

ARTICLE 7. The Internal Revenue Administration shall have charge of the following:

1. Management and collection of taxes on various kinds of commodities as well as the planning of reform measures thereon.
2. Management and collection of new taxes in addition to customs duties, salt tax, stamp tax, and direct taxes as well as the planning of reform measures thereon.
3. Study and determination of various tax rates under the jurisdiction of the Internal Revenue Administration.
4. Supervision over the formulation, inspection, explanation and enforcement of laws and regulations concerning various taxes under the jurisdiction of this Administration.
5. Handling of cases of exemption, reduction and refunding of taxes under the jurisdiction of this Administration.
6. Inspection of certificates on taxable commodities as well as the restriction and prevention of tax evasion.
7. Collection, remittance, inspection and report of all receipts

from various taxes under the jurisdiction of this Administration.

8. Handling of tax rate disputes and taxation petition cases.
9. Printing, custody, issue and inspection of all bills and certificates for various taxes under the jurisdiction of this Administration.
10. Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of all taxation workers under the jurisdiction of this Administration.
11. Supervision over administrative matters on various taxes under the jurisdiction of this Administration.
12. Other matters of internal revenue administration.
(The organic law of the Internal Revenue Administration shall be separately drafted).

ARTICLE 8. The National Treasury Administration shall have charge of the following:

1. Receipt, payment, custody and transfer of all treasury notes and certificates.
2. Inspection of receipts and payments of the National Treasury.
3. Report on receipts and payments of the National Treasury.
4. Supervision over the administration of the Special Sinking Funds.
5. Inspection of the receipt and disposal of the Special Sinking Funds.
6. Estimate of national revenue and expenditure and the auditing of actual receipts and disbursements of the National Treasury.
7. Management of state-owned properties.

8. Inspection of receipts and payments of state-owned properties.
9. Supervision and direction of banks acting as fiscal agents.
10. Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of staff members in charge of receipts and disbursements of the National Treasury.
11. Other matters of the National Treasury.
12. Formulation, inspection and explanation of the Public Treasury System.
13. Supervision over the administration of the Public Treasury System in various grades of local government.
(The organic law of the National Treasury Administration shall be separately drafted).

ARTICLE 9. The General Affairs Department shall have charge of the following :

1. Receipts, dispatch and safe-keeping of official documents.
2. Promulgation of orders and instructions of the Ministry.
3. Custody of official seals.
4. Record-keeping of the appointment and dismissal of the staff members of the Ministry.
5. Editing and publication of the official gazette of the Ministry.
6. Cataloging and circulation of books and periodicals.
7. Registration and management of property and articles used by the Ministry.
8. Receipt, payment and safe-keeping of cash, bills and securities possessed by the Ministry.
9. Designing and printing of all papers and certificates used by the Ministry.
10. Sundry affairs and other matters

not belonging to other administrations, departments and bureaux.

ARTICLE 10. The Salt Revenue Department shall have charge of the following :

1. Planning and reform of salt affairs.
2. Inspection of and decision on the permission for salt-making and the regulation of salt production.
3. Erection and management of warehouses and the inspection of other engineering projects.
4. Inspection of the testing and improvement of the quality of salt.
5. Inspection of salt collected and distributed and prices charged thereon.
6. Examination and explanation of salt tax rates and salt tax regulations.
7. Inspection of certificates required of salt and nitre mines.
8. Inspection of cases of exemption and reduction of taxes on salt and its by-products.
9. Inspection of the receipt and payment of the salt tax.
10. Inspection of the organization of the salt police force.
11. Planning and regulation for reclamation and surveying in salt-producing areas.
12. Improvement in the production and sale of nitre mines and determination of a fair charge thereon.
13. Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of the staff members in the Salt Administration.
14. Other matters of salt administration.

ARTICLE 11. The Taxation Department shall have charge of the following :

1. Study, planning and preparation of taxes not under the direct control of the Maritime Customs Administration, Internal Revenue Administration, and Direct Taxation Bureau.
2. Supervision and inspection of public properties.
3. Demarcation of revenues between Central and local governments.
4. Inspection and improvement of local taxation systems.
5. Inspection of the reduction and exemption of local taxes.
6. Supervision and inspection of the receipts and payments of local financial authorities.

ARTICLE 12. The Government Bonds Department shall have charge of the following :

1. Flotation, reimbursement and readjustment of Central Government bonds.
2. Appropriation, management and utilization of the sinking funds of Central Government bonds.
3. Supervision over the formulation, inspection, explanation and enforcement of laws and regulations governing various issues of Central Government bonds.
4. Formulation, inspection and custody of regulations governing Central Government bonds and agreements for long-time borrowing and lending.
5. Registration of the names, or change of names, of Central Government bond-holders.
6. Sealing, numbering and issuing of Central Government bonds

and other loan certificates as well as the custody of unissued government securities.

7. Cancellation of Central Government bonds and other loan certificates.
8. Registration, report and periodic announcement of Central Government bonds and other long-term loan certificates.
9. Supervision over the purchase and sale of government bonds and government shares in the market.
10. Supervision over the amortization of principal and payment of interest on Central Government bonds and other long-term loan certificates.
11. Registration of actual issue prices of Central Government bonds and the periodic registration of their buying and selling quotations.
12. Other matters on Central Government bonds.
13. Inspection, supervision and investigation of local government bonds.

ARTICLE 13. The Currency Department shall have charge of the following :

1. Planning and regulation of the monetary system as well as the testing and analysis of metallic currency.
2. Inspection of metallic currency, gold and silver imported into and exported from the country.
3. Supervision and direction of the government mint and printing office.
4. Inspection and supervision of note issue as well as the inspection and announcement of currency reserves.

5. Supervision of and restrictions on commercial banks, savings banks and trust companies.
6. Supervision of and restrictions on stock exchanges, insurance companies, and other special financial institutions.
7. Regulation of financial credit within and outside the country.
8. Control of domestic and foreign exchange.
9. Statistical investigation of conditions and problems of currency and finance.
10. Supervision of and restrictions on various kinds of lottery tickets.
11. Other matters of currency and finance.

ARTICLE 14. The Direct Taxation Bureau shall have charge of the following :

1. Imposition and collection of the national income tax, the inheritance tax and other direct taxes as well as the stamp tax.
2. Study, improvement and formulation of the various tax systems and tax rates under the jurisdiction of this Bureau.
3. Handling of cases of the reduction, exemption and refunding of taxes under the jurisdiction of this Bureau.
4. Calculating, accounting, auditing and reporting of all the tax receipts under the jurisdiction of this Bureau.
5. Formulation, examination and explanation of laws and regulations governing the taxes under the jurisdiction of the Bureau as well as the handling of cases of tax payment disputes.
6. Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of staff

members of various tax administrations under the jurisdiction of this Bureau.

7. Other matters concerning direct taxes.
(The organic law of the Direct Taxation Bureau shall be separately drafted).

ARTICLE 15. The Accounting Bureau shall have charge of the following :

1. General auditing of the revenues and expenditures of the Central Government.
2. Examination and formulation of the accounting systems used by the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
3. Planning and compilation of estimated and actual figures of the receipts and payments of the Ministry.
4. Collection, inspection and readjustment of the estimated and actual figures of receipts and payments of the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
5. Approval of the distribution of the budget among the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
6. Inspection and registration of actual expenditure of the subordinate offices of the Ministry.
7. Approval of the petition, receipt, appropriation and remittance of funds by subordinate offices of the Ministry.
8. Auditing of statements of receipts and payments submitted by subordinate offices of the Ministry.
9. Auditing and registration of the accounts as well as the compilation of accounting reports submitted by the subordinate offices of the Ministry.

10. Inspection of all documents and papers of subordinate offices of the Ministry transferred from one responsible official to another.
11. Appointment, dismissal, transfer and efficiency of all accounting chiefs and clerks of subordinate offices of the Ministry.
12. Handling of all statistical work of subordinate offices of the Ministry. The statistical work mentioned in Section 12 shall be undertaken by the Statistical Division of the Accounting Bureau.

ARTICLE 16. The Minister of Finance shall have full power in the administration of all affairs of the Ministry and the supervision of all subordinate offices and officials.

ARTICLE 17. The Political Vice-Minister and the Administrative Vice-Minister shall assist the Minister in administering the affairs of the Ministry.

ARTICLE 18. The Ministry of Finance shall have from six to eight counsellors whose duty is to formulate and approve laws and orders relating to the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 19. The Ministry of Finance shall have from 12 to 16 secretaries to keep the records of general meetings of the Ministry, compile various reports and handle all other affairs assigned by their superior officials.

ARTICLE 20. Besides the appointment of the chief accountant under separate regulations, the Ministry of Finance shall have three directors-general, one assistant director-general, five directors and one superintendent in charge of the affairs of respective

administrations, departments and bureaus.

ARTICLE 21. Besides the appointment of officials of various administrations and bureaus under separate regulations, the Ministry of Finance shall have from 18 to 20 division chiefs, from 180 to 220 clerks, from 50 to 70 clerical assistants, from two to four chief technicians, from six to eight technicians and from 10 to 12 technical assistants in charge of various affairs under the direction of their superior officials.

ARTICLE 22. The Ministry of Finance shall have six to eight editors to handle the editing and translation of papers and documents on currency and finance under the direction of their superior officials.

ARTICLE 23. The Ministry of Finance shall have from six to 10 inspectors to inspect the achievements of various subordinate offices in the field of taxation, the suppression of smuggling and other activities. They shall be sent to various provinces and municipalities to investigate the financial conditions of the localities as well as the faithful handling of all affairs assigned by the Ministry.

ARTICLE 24. The Minister of Finance shall be appointed by a mandate of the National Government, with the "special appointment" rank. The vice-ministers, the counsellors, the directors-general, the assistant director-general, the directors, the superintendent and four secretaries shall be appointed by the National Government, with the "selected appointment" rank.

All other secretaries, division chiefs, chief technicians, editors, inspectors and four technicians shall be appointed upon the recommendation of the

Minister, with the "recommended appointment" rank.

All other technicians, technical assistants, clerks and clerical assistants shall be appointed directly by the Minister, with the "delegate appointment" rank.

ARTICLE 25. The Ministry of Finance may, in case of necessity, solicit the service of from two to four advisers and from five to nine experts.

ARTICLE 26. The Ministry of Finance may, owing to urgent requirements of its affairs, employ additional staff members.

ARTICLE 27. The Ministry of Finance shall have one chief accountant with the "selected appointment" rank, one statistical division chief and four division chiefs with the "recommended appointment" rank, from 40 to 50 clerks and from six to 10 clerical assistants with the "delegated appointment" rank in charge of affairs prescribed in Article 15 under the super-

vision and direction of their superior officials. They are also directly responsible to the Comptroller-General's Office of the National Government in accordance with the Organic Law of the said office.

The Accounting Bureau and Statistical Division of the Ministry may employ additional staff members, if they are urgently required.

ARTICLE 28. The organization of subordinate institutions of the Ministry in charge of the imposition and collection of the Customs duty and the salt tax as well as the National Tariff Commission shall be separately determined according to law.

ARTICLE 29. The detailed regulations governing the routine activities of the Ministry of Finance shall be drafted and enacted by order of the Ministry.

ARTICLE 30. This Organic Law shall come into force from the date of its promulgation.

APPENDIX II

THE GOVERNMENT TREASURY LAW

(Promulgated by the National Government Mandate on June 9, 1938)

ARTICLE 1. All public treasuries of Central, provincial and local governments in the Republic of China shall be administered in accordance with the present law.

ARTICLE 2. Public institutions handling cash, bonds and stocks, and other properties on behalf of the Government are to be called government treasuries. The government treasury of the Central Government is called the National Treasury under the control of the Ministry of Finance; the government treasuries of the provincial governments are called the provincial treasuries under the control of the departments of finance of the provincial governments; the government treasuries of the municipalities and (the treasuries of) hsien governments are called the municipal treasuries and the hsien treasuries, respectively, both under the control of the bureaus of finance of their respective local governments. In case no such bureaus of finance have been established, their control shall remain in the hands of local authorities.

For local governments similar in character to provincial, municipal and hsien governments, the aforesaid regulations shall be also applicable to their respective treasuries.

ARTICLE 3. Deposits, transfers, receipts and payments of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks, as well as the safe-keeping of records of government treasury property shall be handled by

banks appointed to act as agents of the government treasury unless otherwise stipulated in separate regulations.

The National Treasury affairs shall be handled by the Central Bank of China as chief agent. Affairs of other grades of government treasuries are to be handled by banks appointed as their agents, whose appointments shall be approved by the superior authorities of the subordinate treasuries. In localities where no banks have been established the local post offices shall be appointed as treasury agents.

ARTICLE 4. With regard to the following receipts, government institutions may collect funds within the specified period and deposit them under their own care:

1. Petty receipts.
2. Receipts of government institutions located beyond the specified distance from the agent banks of government treasuries or the post offices.
3. Receipts collected and payments made in localities upon the approval and with facilities of the superior authority.
4. Receipts of government institutions with no definite locations.

ARTICLE 5. With regard to the following payments, government institutions may draw in advance from the government treasury within a specified period required funds for safe-keeping and meeting payments:

1. Payments of government institutions located beyond the specified distance from the agent banks of government treasuries or the post offices.
2. Payments of government institutions with no definite localities.
3. Other payments for hired labour approved by law.

ARTICLE 6. The highest amount of the receipts mentioned in Article 2 as well as other restrictive conditions, with the exception of those otherwise stipulated by law, are to be decided by the government treasury authorities. The accounting and auditing offices concerned shall also be notified of the decisions.

ARTICLE 7. Aside from the provisions in Article 4 and Article 5 as well as other stipulations approved by law, government institutions cannot handle upon their own initiative matters regarding receipts, payments, transfers of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks, or the safe-keeping of property documents; such matters are to be managed by the agent banks of government treasuries or the post offices.

Article 8. The receipts of cash and collection of bills and bonds due by the agent banks on behalf of the government treasuries are to be credited to the latter's accounts. The rights and obligations of the two parties, except restrictions under law, are to be ascertained by mutual agreement. The agreement shall be presented by the government treasuries to their superior authorities for approval.

Post offices acting as agents of government treasuries shall perform such functions according to the same regulations.

ARTICLE 9. When banks acting as agents for government treasuries go into liquidation or bankruptcy, the respective government treasuries shall have the first prior claim on their assets.

ARTICLE 10. The funds of government treasuries shall be deposited under the following separate headings:

1. Total receipts.
2. Various public expenses.
3. Various special sinking funds.

The total receipt account represents the total amount of the common sinking fund specified by the National Budget Law.

ARTICLE 11. All receipts outside the scope of the government budget, except those to be credited to the special sinking fund account, shall be credited to the total receipts account, but separate treasury receipts accounts are to be kept by the authorities of government treasuries.

ARTICLE 12. The receipts mentioned in Article 11 in the form of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks are all to be collected by the agent banks or the post offices on behalf of the government treasuries or by the banks' or post offices' staffs at the collecting offices. A report shall be submitted to the collecting offices and the auditing offices in charge about the type of receipts and the grade of government institutions. The agent banks or post offices of government treasuries as well as the collecting offices shall separately report same to the authorities of government treasuries.

ARTICLE 13. All expenses shall be transferred from the total receipts account either to the public expenses account or the special sinking fund account, according to the budget, before payments can be made. It is

permissible to transfer the credits of total receipts account to the public expenses account for payment under emergency law, and payments made under such arrangements must be inserted in the budget for future sanction.

ARTICLE 14. The transfer of public expenses must be made according to the appropriations of the approved budget. Government treasury authorities shall notify the agent banks or the post offices to transfer the respective expenses from the total receipts account to the public expenses account for individual government institutions. At the time when the transfers of the aforesaid expenses are made, the government treasury authorities and the agent banks or the post offices must notify the accounting and auditing offices as well as the government institutions applying for the expenses.

ARTICLE 15. Government institutions must draw funds from the public expenses account by means of cheques. With the exception of those payments mentioned in Article 5, cheques are used only for payments to government creditors, or for advance payments of contractual obligations. Regarding the payments of salaries of military and police officers, cheques may be made out for the whole amount for the group to be presented by the respective group representatives for immediate payment. Cheques are to be signed by the responsible heads of the institutions or their authorized delegates and counter-signed by the accountant; and, in case there are auditors attached to the institutions, cheques must be verified and signed by the auditor. Otherwise, these cheques will not be honoured by the agent banks or the post offices.

ARTICLE 16. The public expenses accounts of government institutions are to be kept by the respective authorities of government treasuries. All transfers, safe-keeping, receipts and payments effected by government institutions must be reported to the treasury separately by the agent banks, the post offices and the institutions responsible for the expenses.

ARTICLE 17. At the end of each fiscal year, if there is any balance in favour of the public expenses account, it should be credited to the total receipt account, with the exception of those items otherwise specified by law.

Article 18. In case of financial necessity, governments may secure temporary loans, either by overdrawing on bank accounts, or giving short term bonds and stocks or bills due before the end of the fiscal year as security for temporary loans. All receipts therefrom shall also be credited to the total receipts account, and the same account shall be debited at the time of repayment.

Such temporary loans and their repayment shall be made by government treasury authorities under the supervision of their respective auditing offices.

ARTICLE 19. The special sinking funds and their receipts must be placed to the credit of the respective special sinking fund accounts. The transfer, payments and management of such funds must be governed by the provisions of law, contract or will in respect to the individual sinking funds. In the absence of instructions to such effect, the regulations governing the public expenses account shall be applicable.

ARTICLE 20. All subsidies and contributions with definite instructions as regards their use shall be treated as

- (8) Stamp tax.
 - (9) Customs revenue.
 - (10) Salt revenue.
 - (11) Mining tax.
 - (12) Factory production tax.
 - (13) Taxes on banned goods.
 - (14) Wartime Consumption tax.
 2. Revenue from government monopoly.
 3. Special assessments.
 4. Fines and compensation.
 5. Income from government administration.
 6. Fees.
 7. Income from administration of trusts.
 8. Income from national property.
 9. Profit from government commercial enterprises.
 10. Income from government-operated enterprises.
 11. Quotas remitted by the provinces and municipalities.
 12. Contributions and gifts.
 13. Receipts from selling of immovable property and rights.
 14. Receipts from cancelling or reducing invested capital.
 15. Income from government bonds.
 16. Proceeds from borrowing.
 17. Other revenues.
- B. National Expenditures :
1. Party expenses.
 2. National Government expenses.
 3. Administrative expenses.
 4. Expenses for legislative administration.
 5. Expenses for judicial administration.
 6. Expenses for administration of examinations.
 7. Expenses for control administration.
 8. Expenses for education and culture.
 9. Expenses for economic reconstruction.
 10. Expenses for sanitation and public health.
 11. Expenses for child welfare and relief.
 12. Capital investments.
 13. Expenses for national defense.
 14. Public safety expenses.
 15. Diplomatic expenses.
 16. Loans service.
 17. Expenses for migration and reclamation.
 18. Expenses for financial administration.
 19. Pensions and retirement allowance.
 20. Losses.
 21. Expenses for administration of trusts.
 22. Subsidies.
 23. Other expenses.
- C. Local Revenues :
1. Tax receipts :
 - (1) Farm tax.
 - (2) Butchery tax.
 - (3) Business licences.
 - (4) Special operations licences.
 - (5) Punitive tax.
 - (6) Portion of land tax (in areas where the new Land Tax Law is not enforced the names of farm tax and tax on title-deed are still used).

- (7) 25% of inheritance tax from Central Government.
 - (8) 30% to 50% of business tax from Central Government.
 - (9) 30% of stamp tax from Central Government.
 2. Special assessments.
 3. Fines and compensation.
 4. Fees.
 5. Receipts from administration of trusts.
 6. Income from property and rights.
 7. Profits from public commercial enterprises.
 8. Income from public enterprises.
 9. Subsidies.
 10. Local donations and gifts.
 11. Receipts from selling of immoveable property and rights.
 12. Receipts from cancelling or reducing invested capital.
 13. Income from loans.
 14. Proceeds from borrowing.
 15. Other revenues.
- D. Local Expenditures :
1. Party expenses.
 2. Administrative expenses.
 3. Legislative expenses.
 4. Expenses for education and culture.
 5. Expenses for economic reconstruction.
 6. Expenses for sanitation and public health.
 7. Expenses for child welfare and relief.
 8. Capital investments.
 9. Expenses for national defense.
 10. Expenses for financial administration.
 11. Loans service.
 12. Pensions and retirement allowance.
 13. Losses.
 14. Expenses for administration of trusts.
 15. Contributions and subsidies.
 16. Other expenses.

the ordinary public expenses, and payments and transfers thereof are subject to the terms of Article 14 of the present law. For those with no directions for definite use the government treasury authorities and auditing offices shall notify the agent banks or the post offices to make payment directly from the total receipts account to government treasuries entitled to subsidies and contributions.

ARTICLE 21. The reimbursements of funds received by, and of funds paid to, the government treasury must be recorded within the scope of the original account according to their nature. Such procedures are to be determined by the government treasury together with the collecting and paying offices as well as the accounting and auditing offices.

ARTICLE 22. The receipts, payments, and transfers of cash, bills, and bonds and stocks of those institutions either with no definite locations or situated in foreign countries, except otherwise stipulated in Article 4 to Article 6, may be handled by a person appointed by the government treasury. The said person or persons must deposit a cash bond or other reliable securities with the government treasury.

ARTICLE 23. The government treasury and agent banks or post offices must keep detailed records of all government documents, important contracts regarding government assets and liabilities, and bonds and stocks on hand; and in case of need, all

duplicate or photographed copy of each item should also be kept.

ARTICLE 24. All accounting of the government treasuries is to be done by the accounting and auditing offices.

ARTICLE 25. The auditing work of government treasuries shall be done by their respective auditing offices. The auditing work of the banks or post offices acting as agents of government treasuries shall be done by the same offices.

ARTICLE 26. Government treasuries and their agents, banks and post offices, shall report their daily balances to the accounting and auditing offices.

ARTICLE 27. Any breach of the present law regarding receipts to be made shall be dealt with according to law.

ARTICLE 28. Any breach of the present law regarding payments to be made shall be dealt with according to law; and the law-breaker shall be held responsible for the loss sustained by the government treasuries, agent banks and post offices. In case such indemnities are found insufficient to meet the actual losses sustained by the government treasuries, the banks and post offices shall be jointly held responsible for the deficiency.

ARTICLE 29. With regard to the management of properties separate regulations to the effect shall be formulated.

ARTICLE 30. The regulations regarding government institutions embodied in the present law are applicable to all public bodies organized under Chinese law.

APPENDIX III

RE-DEMARCATON OF NATIONAL AND LOCAL FINANCE

ARTICLE 1. The nation's finance is divided into national finance and local finance (the demarcation is shown in the accompanying table).

ARTICLE 2. National finance includes all revenues and expenditures of the Central Government, provinces and municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan (not otherwise included in the local finance).

ARTICLE 3. Local finance includes all revenues and expenditures of the municipalities, hsien, towns and villages.

ARTICLE 4. National government tax receipts to be apportioned to hsien and municipalities are based on the following standard:

- (a) 30% of net stamp tax receipts to hsien and municipalities;
- (b) 25% of net inheritance tax receipts to hsien and municipalities;
- (c) 30% to 50% of net business tax receipts to hsien and municipalities;
- (d) the portion of land tax (in areas where the Land Tax Law is not enforced the name farm tax is still used) originally belonging to the provinces is turned over to the National Government, while the hsien and municipal governments still retain their original shares. During the period when land tax is collected in kind, the National Government collects

the entire amount in kind. The hsien and municipal government portion is paid back by the National Government in cash;

- (e) the portion of tax on title-deeds, originally belonging to the provinces, is turned over to the National Government while the hsien and municipal governments still retain their original shares;
- (f) the entire butchery tax, separated from the business tax, goes to hsien and municipal governments.

ARTICLE 5. The entire income tax goes to the National Government.

ARTICLE 6. Subsidies to hsien and municipal governments are decided by the National Government.

DEMARCATON OF NATIONAL AND LOCAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

A. National Revenues:

1. Tax receipts:

- (1) Land tax (in areas where the Land Tax Law is not enforced the name farm tax is still used).
- (2) Income tax.
- (3) Inheritance tax.
- (4) Excess profit tax.
- (5) Business tax.
- (6) Special business profit tax.
- (7) Special business Operation tax.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

C. Y. W. MENG¹ (孟 友 法)

INTRODUCTION

MODERN banking in China has a history of about 40 years. In the past, the banks were generally unregulated, and they were unfitted to meet the financial needs of the country. But the establishment of the Central Bank of China in 1928, with its head office in Shanghai, marked an important step toward the development of modern banking and currency reform in China. Dr. T. V. Soong, the first governor of the Central Bank of China, in its inaugural speech, said that the aims of the Central Bank of China were the uniformity of currency throughout the country, the unification of government depositories, and the readjustment of domestic finances. He concluded that "the ultimate aim of the Central Bank of China is to be a bankers' bank." Dr. H. H. Kung, the present governor of the Central Bank of China, once said that "this bank (the Central Bank of China) was intended to be a lever to the entire monetary system for the reform of Chinese banking and currency." This initial stage of the Chinese modern banking and currency reform ended with the abolition of the Tael system in 1934.

The year 1935 witnessed a vital change in China's currency system. After having been on a metallic basis for thousands of years, China at last decided to abandon the silver standard,

and to embrace a foreign exchange standard, and to adopt managed currency. Prior to the adoption of the managed currency, a reorganization of the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications had already taken place in the spring of the same year (1935), which brought these two foremost banks in the country into a community of interests with the Central Bank of China. Since then these three leading banks, although still remaining as three separate banks, had been in fact under one and the same direction. In addition, the appointment of general managers for the National Industrial Bank of China, the Ningpo Commercial and Savings Bank and the Commercial Bank of China by the Ministry of Finance brought another three banks of considerable strength within the influence of the Central Bank of China. The Government gave to each of these three banks \$5,000,000 as capital stock in August, 1935. The establishment of the Joint Reserve Board in 1932 at the suggestion of the Shanghai Bankers' Association, which had greatly strengthened the reserve of the member banks, and the establishment of a clearing house to take up the activities formerly performed by the *wei wa* office of the native banks were all important measures which had resulted in centralizing financial power, in strengthening considerably the position of the Central Bank of China in the

money market, and in paving the way for the adoption of the managed currency at the end of 1935.

With the adoption of the managed currency and the nationalization of silver, effective from November 3, 1935, the prerogative of private banks to issue notes was automatically abolished. The liability on the part of commercial banks relative to the notes circulated by these banks was taken over by three government banks upon the issuing commercial banks handing over to the government banks their metallic and securities reserves. The arrangement was as follows: the Ningpo Commercial and Savings Bank, the Chung Nan Bank and the Agricultural and Industrial Bank of China by the Central Bank of China; the Commercial Bank of China and the Agricultural and Commercial Bank by the Bank of China, and the National Industrial Bank of China, the Chekiang Industrial Bank and the Land Reclamation Bank by the Bank of Communications. Henceforth only three government banks were authorized to issue bank notes. The private issues, as far as they were handed over to the care of the government institutions, were to be withdrawn in a comparatively short space of time. Actually by the beginning of June, 1937, out of an amount of \$200,000,000 private banks' notes obligations, two-thirds had definitely been withdrawn from the market. Apart from these three government banks, however, the Farmers Bank of China was also authorized to issue bank notes, the reason, as stated, being that the Farmers Bank of China had branches in the interior where other government banks could not function.

The significance of the Reform of 1935 was well explained by Dr. Author

Young, Adviser to the Central Bank of China, when he said *inter alia* as follows:

Unquestionably, China's adoption of a managed currency in November, 1935, was a major event in the recent history of the Orient... The heavy outlays required by the war could not have been financed on a hard money basis; and under conditions as they existed, a transition from the silver standard to a paper currency could scarcely have been made without a serious shock to confidence... All these developments provided effective resources and financial machinery without which China's stubborn resistance to Japan's invasion would have been impossible... The opening of the hostilities found China's public finance in good shape, with revenues at record figures and a strong foundation laid for her fiscal and currency system... Had not China achieved the degree of financial stability and economic development which she had on the eve of the hostilities, she would not have been in as good a position to withstand the strain of a major war as she has been during the past years.

It was further decided that two years after the adoption of the managed currency, the Central Bank of China should be converted into a Central Reserve Bank of China. A Central Reserve Bank Law was actually drafted, and was scheduled to be promulgated and enforced beginning from the second half of 1937 when greater reform in currency and banking system was to take place. Indeed, China was striving hard towards the centralization of her finance, the improvement of her currency, the organization of her banking system, and the institution

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of a national bank system in the country.

However, owing to the outbreak of the war in July, 1937, these reform measures were ordered to be postponed. Beginning from the middle of the same year, everything has been put on a wartime basis, so with China's banking and currency system. Shortly after the war broke out, Summary Regulations Governing National Financial Stability and Summary Regulations Governing Wartime National Financial Structure were promulgated by the National Government on September 8, 1939. The Joint Administration Office of Four Government Banks (The Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications and the Farmers Bank of China) was organized for the purpose of carrying out the wartime financial and economic policies of the National Government. The present high degree of coordination and co-operation in the management and regulation of currency and exchange and in the financing of commercial, industrial and mining enterprises in wartime China is due, to a considerable extent, to the formation of the Joint Administration Office.

JOINT ADMINISTRATION OFFICE OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

Organization. The Joint Administration Office has a board of directors composed of the governor and deputy governor of the Central Bank of China, chairmen and general managers of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers Bank of China, and the Ministers of Finance, Economic Affairs, Communications, and Food. This board of

directors has one chairman and one vice-chairman. The National Government appointed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and Vice-President H. H. Kung as chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors, respectively. The chairman and vice-chairman are in full charge of all affairs of the Joint Administration Office. The Ministry of Finance may authorize the Joint Administration Office to take all necessary steps on its behalf, or on behalf of the four government banks to cope with financial conditions in the country during the war period.

The Joint Administration Office has a Wartime Finance and Economic Committee to work out various plans. This committee has the following sub-committees:

1. Note-issue sub-committee.
2. Savings deposits sub-committee.
3. Loans and discounts sub-committee.
4. Farm loans sub-committee.
5. Domestic and foreign exchange sub-committee.
6. Special sub-committee.

The Joint Administration Office has a number of experts, inspectors and auditors, appointed by the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors. In case of necessity, the Joint Administration Office may establish branch offices and sub-branch offices in various localities in accordance with financial conditions.

Functions. In order to explain the functions of the Joint Administration Office, we can do no better than to refer to Vice-President H. H. Kung's "Eight-Point Financial Program" which he advanced to the nation following the Chinese withdrawal from Hankow in the latter part of 1938, and which now forms the basic prin-

ciples of the national financial policy, and therefore, the guiding principles of the operation of the Joint Administration Office. This financial program may be summed up as follows:

1. To complete a currency network in the Southwest and Northwest and to accelerate the establishment of more branch banks and offices in local districts by provincial banks.
2. To encourage savings and to promote the institution of national reconstruction savings accounts in order to absorb idle capital for productive purposes.
3. To improve the facilities for overseas remittances and to open a remittance network for the overseas Chinese.
4. To permit provincial and local banks in the war-affected provinces to issue a limited amount of one-dollar and subsidiary notes in order to restrict the issue of the legal tender notes and to prevent the Japanese from absorbing the Chinese national currency.
5. To purchase raw materials in the war areas through provincial and local banks, to prevent them from falling into Japanese hands, to increase China's foreign exchange funds, and to meet the needs in the rear.
6. To intensify the collection of gold and silver, and to develop gold and silver mines.
7. To establish an organization for the enforcement of economic and currency measures in war areas in order to resist the Japanese economic aggression.
8. To take all steps to prevent and suppress the circulation of the

Japanese and bogus bank notes, and to frustrate the Japanese attempts to seize China's foreign exchange.

According to its Revised Organic Law, the functions of the Joint Administration Office are as follows:

1. The planning and distribution of the financial network throughout the country.
2. The training, examination and adjustment of the personnel in the four government banks, the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank and the Central Trust of China.
3. The approval of the expenses and the auditing of budget of the four government banks, the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank and the Central Trust of China.
4. The adjustment of note issue and the approval of note reserves.
5. The direction for and examination of the absorption of deposits and the promotion of savings business.
6. The approval and investigation of the investment and the extension of loans by the four government banks, the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank and the Central Trust of China.
7. The approval and investigation of the extension of farm loans by the four government banks, the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank and the Central Trust of China.
8. The approval of remittances handled by the four government banks, the Postal Savings and

Remittance Bank and the Central Trust of China.

9. The enforcement of financial control measures as enacted by the Ministry of Finance.
10. The promotion of the wartime financial policy.

Everyday the Joint Administration Office and the head offices of the four government banks are required to submit to the Ministry of Finance for official examination a report on receipts and disbursements, amount of note issue and interest rates in the money market. A monthly statement of assets and liabilities at the end of the previous month must be made before the 10th day of each month.

The Joint Administration Office may from time to time submit to the Ministry of Finance confidential reports and proposals relating to important questions of wartime currency and finance. The office is obligated to carry out immediately in strict accordance with instructions of the Ministry of Finance any such measures already approved by the Ministry.

Under the direction of the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors, the Joint Administration Office has been carrying into effect various important financial and currency measures. In case of the inspection and report of note issue, the Joint Administration Office invites representatives from chambers of commerce, leading banks in important cities in the provinces and municipalities to participate in the periodic examination of national currency reserves. Such public inspection of the reserves held against notes issued is conducted once a month. The actual conditions of note reserve, the total amount of cash and security reserves

and the ratio of reserves against notes are all publicly announced at the end of each month.

Other principal activities of the Joint Administration Office include the establishment of a financial network in the country, the promotion of loans and discounts and the investment in special wartime productive enterprises. The Joint Administration Office has also made steady progress with regard to applications for foreign exchange and their approval, and the collection and exchange of gold and silver. It has also accomplished much in encouraging exports, in facilitating domestic remittances, and in stabilizing commodity prices. It has likewise achieved considerable success in centralizing capital funds and in fostering special savings deposits so that more money is available for wartime productive purposes, and at the same time, the habit of thrift will be widely cultivated among the people.

Operations: 1. *Loans and Discounts Operation.*—For the purpose of assisting the National Government to promote the national financial policy, to accelerate national economic reconstruction, to develop raw materials in the rear, and lastly, to strengthen the power of resistance, the Joint Administration Office has been handling the loans and discounts operations as part of its activities ever since its organization. In 1940, loans extended by the Joint Administration Office for various purposes amounted to \$566,642,475 which, together with loans extended in the last few months of 1939, totalled \$730,950,000. This amount was increased and totalled \$1,550,534,595.70 in 1941, and totalled \$889,767,359.88 for the first half year of 1942.

Every application for loans and discounts to the Joint Administration Office is always carefully studied by experts, and is then submitted to, and decided by, the board of directors. There are some special features of the loan and discount operations of the Joint Administration Office, which may be discussed briefly as follows:

First, the loan procedure of the Joint Administration Office is characterized by its simplicity and responsiveness. In case the applicant and his plant are located outside of Chungking, branch office of the Joint Administration Office or branch bank, sub-branch, or office of any of the four government banks is immediately instructed to conduct an investigation and the Joint Administration Office will decide and act on the application in the light of the result of the investigation. In some cases, the Joint Administration Office gives only general principles of loan negotiations and agreement, leaving details, such as, amount of loans or overdrafts, interest rate, duration of payment of the principal and interests, the securities, and the custody of securities, etc., to be worked out by its designated agent. In others, the designated agent is given full power to handle the case in accordance with local conditions. *Bona fide* applicants whose applications for loans or discounts are still under discussion may receive loans or discounts in advance in order to enable them to start operation.

Secondly, in case of a public or private industrial enterprise, investigation is always centred on the following points, namely, first, its history, management, capital and

personnel; secondly, its equipment and construction, and thirdly, its production, financial conditions and marketing of products. Rationalism in the management, ability of the managing staffs, adequacy in its equipment and construction, and operation of business are always studied and answered.

The procedure further provides no less than four ways to conduct investigation of this kind, including the investigation by the officials of the Joint Administration Office, by the officials of the auditing and inspection office of the Joint Administration Office in the same locality, by the reconstruction department of the provincial government acting on behalf of the Joint Administration Office, and by collecting various reports and information from official and private sources.

Thirdly, in the loan agreement, it is always provided that the Joint Administration Office shall have the right to appoint and send its official to reside in the factory to act as an inspector of the operation and production. The principal purpose is to encourage and direct production and to exercise some control over the operation, and to see to it that the production is always up to the terms of the agreement, and that the factory does not take part in hoarding and speculative activities.

Lastly, in extending loans and discounts, the Joint Administration Office is always guided by the principles of "necessity first," "national defence industries first," "people's daily necessities first," and "produce more first." Any industrial undertakings coming under any of these categories can always count upon the Joint Administration Office for

BANKING AND CURRENCY

loans, discounts and subsidies. Their applications will have the preference over all others.

2. *Classification of Loans.*—Generally speaking, loans extended by the Joint Administration Office may be divided into seven categories, namely, industrial and mining loans, loans for

development of communications, for loans, salt loans, loans for the stabilization of commodity prices and for the collection and purchase of principal commodities, local financial and currency adjustment loans and educational and cultural loans. Tables 1—4 show the details.

TABLE 1. EXTENSION OF LOANS, 1940
(In National Dollars)

Loans	Amount
1. Industrial and Mining Loans :	
Public Enterprises	96,402,000
Private Enterprises	43,145,000
	100,547,200
2. Communication Development Loans :	
Highways	6,350,500
Railways	9,500,000
Navigation	500,000
Telegraphic Lines	200,000
	16,550,500
3. Food Loans :	
Civilian Food Loans	27,465,000
Army Food Loans	23,423,625
	50,888,625
4. Salt Loans :	
Government Organs	148,300,000
Salt Dealers	3,690,000
	151,990,000
5. Commodity Loans :	
Stabilization Loans	21,600,000
Collection and Purchase Loans	150,020,000
	171,620,000
6. Local Financial and Currency Adjustment Loans :	
Finance	45,625,000
Currency	9,900,000
	55,525,000
7. Educational and Cultural Loans	6,200,000
8. Others	4,321,150
	4,321,150
TOTAL	506,642,475

SOURCE : Annual Report of 1940 of the Joint Administration Office.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 2. EXTENSION OF LOANS, 1941
(In National Dollars)

Loans	No. of Cases	Amount
1. Industrial and Mining Loans ...	151	215,644,000
2. Communication Development Loans ...	12	193,340,000
3. Food Loans ...	23	172,450,000
4. Salt Loans ...	10	826,320,000
5. Commodity Price Stabilization and Collection and Purchase Loans ...	23	104,588,595
6. Local Financial and Currency Adjustment Loans ...	13	24,480,000
7. Educational and Cultural Loans and Others ...	17	13,712,000
TOTAL ...	258	1,550,534,595

SOURCE : Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint Administration Office. Figures in this Table as well as in Table 1 refer to the approved amounts of loans as decided by the board of directors. In reality, as revealed by the reports, only \$435,248,939.20 and another H.K.\$900,000 were loaned out in 1940, and only \$1,225,702,238.01 and another H.K.\$900,000 were loaned out in 1941. The explanation is that in some cases, loans were not utilized in full during the agreed period, while in others, only part of the loans was utilized by the applicants.

TABLE 3. EXTENSION OF LOANS TO PRIVATE ENTERPRISES, 1941
(In National Dollars)

Category of Industry	No. of Factories	Amount of Loans
Metallurgical Enterprises ...	10	9,725,000
Machine Manufactories ...	6	4,450,000
Electric Apparatus Manufactories ...	4	1,500,000

Chemical Industry ...	24	9,000,000
Weaving, Spinning and Silk Filatures ...	9	31,535,000
Food Industry ...	7	7,380,000
Educational and Cultural Apparatus Manufactories ...	9	3,135,000
Electric Power Plants ...	4	2,882,000
Mining ...	5	5,220,000
"Development Corporations" ...	9	23,750,000
Others ...	5	13,127,000
TOTAL ...	98	111,704,000

SOURCE : Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint Administration Office.

TABLE 4. EXTENSION OF LOANS, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1942
(In National Dollars)

Loans	Amount
Food Loans	111,750,000.00
Salt Loans	226,750,000.00
Communication Development Loans	110,150,000.00
Industrial and Mining Loans	343,622,000.00
Commodity Price Stabilization and Purchase and Marketing Loans	82,500,000.00
Others	14,995,359.88
TOTAL	889,767,359.88

SOURCE : An Economic Survey of China for 1942 (January to June), compiled by the Economic Research Department of the Central Bank of China.

In addition, loans upon which payment was due but was postponed in order to continue the projects amounted to another \$242,891,000 and

H.K.\$900,000 in 1941. Table 5 shows the details.

TABLE 5. POSTPONEMENT OF LOAN PAYMENT, 1941

Loans	No. of Cases	Amount
1. Industrial and Mining Loans ...	33	\$ 38,702,200
2. Communication Development Loans...	2	3,694,000
3. Food Loans ...	7	44,200,000
4. Silt Loans ...	4	8,700,000
5. Commodity Price Stabilization and Collection and Pur-		
chase Loans ...	13	136,777,000 H.K.\$900,000
6. Local Financial and Currency Adjustment Loans ...	4	6,567,800
7. Educational and Cultural Loans ...	2	450,000
8. Other Loans ...	5	3,800,000
TOTAL ...	70	\$242,891,000 H.K.\$900,000

SOURCE: *Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint Administration Office.*

In 1941, the redemption of various matured loans amounted to \$365,545,970.78. Table 6 shows the details.

TABLE 6. REDEMPTION OF LOANS, 1941

(In National Dollars)

Month	Mortgage Loans	Overdrafts	Guaranteed Loans	Discounts	Total
January ...	15,122,250.30	100,000.00	—	—	15,222,250.30
February ...	2,476,641.05	1,000,000.00	—	—	3,476,641.05
March ...	7,700,754.38	20,762,000.00	—	—	28,462,754.38
April ...	10,314,151.80	1,800,000.00	1,400,000.00	—	13,514,151.80
May ...	4,869,439.04	2,213,732.82	—	—	7,083,171.86
June ...	6,454,751.80	8,054,052.90	1,000,000.00	4,000,000.00	19,508,804.79
July ...	7,471,531.30	6,977,782.93	7,000,000.00	—	22,449,314.23
August ...	4,311,151.80	—	134,800,000.00	1,000,000.00 160,000.00	139,271,151.80
September ...	23,274,180.67	4,500,000.00	15,500,000.00	—	43,274,180.67
October ...	4,625,157.40	19,148,000.00	—	—	23,773,157.40
November ...	4,047,000.00	41,000,000.00	—	—	45,047,000.00
December ...	2,772,692.50	1,690,700.00	—	—	4,463,392.50
TOTAL ...	93,439,702.04	107,246,268.74	159,700,000.00	5,160,000.00	365,545,970.78

SOURCE: *Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint Administration Office.*

From the above, it will be seen that both the scope and amount of loan operations of the Joint Administration Office have been keeping on expanding and increasing. It has been extending loan facilities to various enterprises, national, provincial, public and private, ranging from industrial, commercial to financial, and even to educational and cultural enterprises. Secondly, the amount of these loans in 1941 was nearly three times the amount of the preceding year.

3. *Collection and Exchange of Gold and Silver.*—To make extensive collection of gold and silver to replenish reserves against note issue is another important financial measure in the wartime. In reviewing China's wartime finance and currency, Dr. H. H. Kung, Finance Minister, said *inter alia* as follows:

As a result of the strenuous efforts to collect gold and silver by the four government banks and local financial organs, there is already an accumulation of large quantities of gold and silver. Summary Regulations Governing the Collection and Exchange of Gold and Silver for Legal Tender Notes were promulgated on January 17, 1939. The gold and silver collection and exchange office of the Joint Administration Office was instructed to take more vigorous steps to collect and exchange gold and silver. Agents are sent to gold producing districts to buy over gold at a higher price. At the same time, the smuggling of gold to foreign ports and to the occupied areas is strictly prohibited. Travellers and passengers are restricted from carrying gold and silver ornaments.

Further, Regulations Governing Restrictions on the Collection and Exchange of Gold and Regulations Governing Restrictions on Mortgage Loans on Gold at Pawnshops and Banks were all promulgated. Only the four government banks are authorized to buy over gold and silver, and all other public organs and individuals are prohibited from engaging in the same business. All silversmith shops in all places are ordered to hand out gold and silver in exchange for the legal tender notes. The making of gold and silver ornaments is strictly prohibited, and all banks and pawnshops are not permitted to accept gold and silver articles as mortgage.

A Gold Mining Administration was established some time ago to plan the expansion of the exploitation of gold mines by the State, and to give assistance to the existing private gold mining companies so as to increase gold production in the country. All gold mines are exempted from tax payment. Every fraction of gold and silver thus collected goes to make up the reserve against note issue. With abundance of gold and silver reserve under the ground together with greater and continuous efforts in the collection and exchange, larger quantity of gold and silver will be collected to strengthen our reserve.

According to the plan as decided in 1939, Szechuen and other provinces were divided into 10 big collection and exchange districts in the country where extensive collection and exchange of gold and silver were to be made. In 1940, the plan was, however, revised. Branch banks, sub-branches and offices of the four govern-

ment banks in the provinces were divided into units. No less than 158 units were established in 1940 which marked an increase of 27 over the number in the preceding year. In 1941, the number of these units was further increased to 196.

Each province was again divided into smaller districts. To each of these districts, one banking institution was designated and was held responsible for the collection and exchange of gold and silver within the district. The same banking institution had also to establish more exchange agents in the gold producing districts and other important towns and villages. No less than 475 agents were established in 1940.

In some places, subsidiary offices of the National Gold Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs were entrusted with the collection and exchange, while in others, provincial and local banks were instructed to carry out such activities. In some places, provincial or local cooperative banks were designated as agents, while in others, branches and offices of the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank were appointed. By the end of 1940, the formation of a network for the collection and exchange of gold and silver in the country was almost completed with the exception of Chinghai, Ninghsia, Sikang and Yunnan where such network was completed in 1941.

The collection and exchange of gold and silver is now extended to every corner of the country, including important cities and towns, war areas and guerrilla areas. Various measures have been used, including the offering of encouragement, the suppression of black market and smuggling, the prohibition of the use of gold and silver as personal effect, and the development

of gold and silver mines by the State and private concerns. In 1940, a loan of \$3,000,000 was extended to the National Gold Administration for the exploitation of some gold mines in the famous gold mining districts. On the remote and frontier districts, the barter system is also applied by exchanging food and cloth for gold with the natives who mine and produce gold by primitive methods.

In general, however, the collection of gold and silver in 1941 was smaller than that of 1940 which, in turn, was again smaller than that of 1939. The reason was that the collection which was at its height in 1939 was slowed down as large quantities of the precious metal were already collected by the four government banks and their designated banks and agents.

4. *Operation of Domestic Remittances and Foreign Exchange.*—The Joint Administration Office approved the handling of domestic remittances to the amount of \$2,345,384,000 in 1940, and \$5,710,490,000 in 1941, for various government organs, public and private industrial and commercial concerns, and cultural and philanthropic organs, and of foreign exchange to the amount of £2,867,951-6-2 in 1940, and £2,058,292-13-11 for the first eight months in 1941, for various legitimate purposes.

Remittances from the overseas Chinese have always constituted a large portion of China's invisible exports. The branches and offices of the Bank of China handled such remittances amounting to \$151,000,000 from January, 1939 to June, 1940; those of the Bank of Communications to \$6,000,000 from September, 1939 to June, 1940; and those of the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank

to \$110,000,000 from July, 1938 to June, 1940.

By June, 1941, remittances from the overseas Chinese, principally in Singapore, New York and Rangoon, handled by the branches and offices of the Bank of China amounted to \$70,290,000. By August of the same year, remittances from the overseas Chinese in the Philippine Islands handled by the Bank of Communications amounted to N.C. \$37,317,750.84, representing an increase of N.C. \$9,828,899.46 over the amount of remittances of N.C. \$27,488,851.38 for the whole year of 1940, and still greater increase of N.C. \$23,815,695.62 over the amount of N.C. \$3,673,155.76 in 1939, thus making a total of N.C. \$68,479,757.97 from the overseas Chinese in the Philippine Islands alone from January, 1939 to August, 1941.

From January to November, 1941, the branches and offices of the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank handled remittances from the overseas Chinese in other parts of the world, which sum, when converted into the Chinese national currency, amounted to \$170,203,940, or, on average, \$15,473,055 per month, representing an increase of \$43,000,000 over the amount of \$126,900,000 in the preceding year. This monthly average of the remittances of \$15,473,055 from the overseas Chinese in 1941 represents an increase of \$4,900,000 over the monthly average in 1940, and an increase of \$11,270,000, in 1939, and an increase of \$14,360,000, in 1938, when the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank first began to handle remittances from the overseas Chinese.

As to the other activities of the Joint Administration Office, such as the extension of farm loans, etc., they will be discussed presently.

PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS

With the enforcement of the national economic reconstruction program, the importance of provincial and local banks has been greatly enhanced. Many of them are now playing an important role in the economic development of the provinces. These banks devote themselves mainly to such activities as consolidation of wartime provincial finance, development of resources in the provinces, promotion of local industrial enterprises, assistance to the development of the means of communications and transportation in the provinces, and development of agricultural production and rural economy. Loans of varying amounts are advanced to other districts for the purpose of readjusting rural finance in order to promote production. By the end of 1942, nearly each province has one provincial or local bank. Tables 7—11 give a full list of provincial and local banks together with their activities and other details.

Measures governing the control of the issue of one-dollar notes and subsidiary notes by provincial and local banks were promulgated by the Ministry of Finance on May 11, 1940. One of the important features is that reserves against note issue shall be paid up to the requirements. Secondly, three months after the promulgation and enforcement of these regulations, each provincial and local bank shall begin to make regular detailed reports to the Joint Administration Office which will, in turn, forward the same to the Ministry of Finance for examination and approval. By 1941, payment of the reserves by 11 provincial and local banks was generally up to the requirement, as confirmed by the *Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint*

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 7. PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS, MAY, 1942

Name of Bank	Date of Registration	Licence Number	Capital Stock (in \$)	Capital Paid-up (in \$)	Location of Head Office
Kiangsu Bank ...	July, 1936	Yin 261	6,000,000	6,000,000	—
Kiangsu Farmers Bank ...	Oct., 1931	" 277	4,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Anhui Local Bank ...	May, 1942	" 441	5,000,000	5,000,000	—
Hopei Provincial Bank ...	Mar., 1940	" 312	1,000,000	500,000	Loyang
Sikang Provincial Bank ...	Sept., 1941	" 369	3,500,000	3,500,000	Kangtung
Fukien Provincial Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 321	5,000,000	5,000,000	Yunan
Kiangsi Yu Ming Bank ...	Sept., 1935	" 273	2,000,000	2,000,000	Kunghsien
Kansu Provincial Bank ...	July, 1940	" 325	5,000,000	3,500,000	Lanchow
Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank ...	Dec., 1936	" 265	3,000,000	2,000,000	Loyang
Kwangsi Bank ...	Sept., 1939	" 305	8,000,000	6,512,500	Kweilin
Kwangtung Provincial Bank ...	Oct., 1937	" 286	10,000,000	10,000,000	Kukong
Hupoh Provincial Bank ...	July, 1940	" 318	5,000,000	5,000,000	Enshih
Chekiang Local Bank ...	June, 1933	" 143	3,000,000	3,000,000	—
Suiyuan Provincial Bank ...	Mar., 1942	" 419	1,000,000	500,000	Shenpa
Kweichow Bank ...	Dec., 1940	" 400	6,000,000	3,000,000	Kweiyang
Szechuen Provincial Bank ...	—	—	4,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Hunan Provincial Bank ...	—	—	5,000,000	3,600,000	Laiyang
Shensi Provincial Bank ...	—	—	5,000,000	5,000,000	Shan
Yunnan New Fu Tien Bank ...	—	—	20,000,000	16,000,000	Kunming
Yunnan Hsing Wen Bank ...	—	—	4,000,000	—	Kunming
Shensi Provincial Bank ...	—	—	—	—	—
Ninghsia Provincial Bank ...	—	—	—	1,500,000	Ninghsia
Shantung Ming Sen Bank ...	—	—	6,000,000	3,200,000	—
Kiangsi Reconstruction Bank ...	—	—	1,000,000	500,000	—
Sinkiang Provincial Bank ...	—	—	—	—	—

Source: Currency Department of the Ministry of Finance.

NOTES: Capital of the Yunnan New Fu Tien Bank is in the Yunnan local currency. The registration of other banks with the Ministry of Finance is also under way, while some of their applications for registration have already been approved and granted by the end of 1942.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 8. NOTE ISSUE, GOVERNMENT BANK NOTES APPLIED FOR CIRCULATION AND CASH AND SECURITY RESERVES OF PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS (In National Dollars)

Name of Bank	Notes in Circulation	Reserves			Government Bank Notes Applied for Circulation			Total
		Cash	Securities	Total	Cash	Securities	Total	
Szechuen Provincial Bank ...	9,704,821.50	—	—	9,704,821.50	20,316,282.79	—	20,316,282.79	—
Sikang Provincial Bank ...	999,887.25	—	—	999,887.25	1,000,000.00	—	1,000,000.00	—
Shensi Provincial Bank ...	5,900,000.00	—	—	5,900,000.00	7,000,000.00	—	7,000,000.00	—
Kansu Provincial Bank ...	9,219,844.64	3,200,000.00	4,800,000.00	8,000,000.00	10,000,000.00	—	10,000,000.00	—
Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank ...	7,216,458.96	3,891,195.58	3,325,263.38	7,216,458.96	2,550,960.00	1,408,948.55	853,011.45	2,550,960.00
Hopel Provincial Bank ...	300,000.00	—	—	300,000.00	—	—	—	—
Hunan Provincial Bank ...	20,616,370.00	10,148,922.00	10,467,448.00	20,616,370.00	2,900,000.00	1,360,000.00	—	2,900,000.00
Hupoh Provincial Bank ...	21,616,370.00	9,574,000.00	12,236,000.00	21,616,370.00	4,800,000.00	—	—	4,800,000.00
Kwangtung Provincial Bank ...	730,000.00	—	—	730,000.00	46,312,528.00	—	—	46,312,528.00
Kwangsi Bank ...	39,960,927.40	—	16,984,370.96	39,960,927.40	10,000,000.00	1,000,000.00	8,000,000.00	9,000,000.00
Fukien Provincial Bank ...	32,944,003.20	15,706,192.64	17,628,516.00	33,332,708.64	—	—	—	—
Anhui Local Bank ...	10,500,000.00	4,700,000.00	5,800,000.00	10,600,000.00	—	—	—	—
Chekiang Local Bank ...	15,294,072.00	8,095,433.38	8,080,000.00	16,175,433.00	5,077,000.00	—	—	5,077,000.00
Kiangsi Yu Ming Bank ...	37,990,085.72	—	—	37,990,085.72	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan Provincial Bank ...	300,000.00	275,000.00	—	300,000.00	—	—	—	—

NOTES:—Notes issued by the Sikang Provincial Bank was in the local or Tibetan currency: one dollar local currency for 0.488 one national dollar. The amount of 730,000 notes in circulation issued by the Hupoh Provincial Bank was the silver dollar notes. With the exception of 1,200,000 notes in circulation which were issued in the national currency, the rest of notes issued by the Kwangtung Provincial Bank was in the local currencies, namely, 238,898,758 in "provincial coin notes," 22,800,000 in "provincial coin notes 'B'," and 11,920,767 in "big money notes." Figures in this Table as well as in Tables 9, 10, and 11 are compiled mostly from the Annual Reports for 1941 of these banks.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 9. EXTENSION OF LOANS BY
(In National

Name of Bank	Current Loans Secured	Fixed Loans Secured	Due From Banks	Discounts
Szechuen Provincial Bank	—	2,105,424.16	87,989,479.14	—
Sikang Provincial Bank	870,398.80	670,520.00	1,933,993.01	262,000.00
Shensi Provincial Bank	—	1,812,400.00	17,967,705.81	2,362,440.80
Kansu Provincial Bank	—	—	—	—
Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank	3,756,024.47	503,432.00	18,898,004.38	630,000.00
Hopei Provincial Bank	—	466,000.00	2,878,782.91	100,000.00
Hunan Provincial Bank	—	—	—	—
Hupei Provincial Bank	6,780,943.55	20,000.00	13,153,462.72	1,782,165.70
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	—	8,928,230.80	58,560,582.56	172,000.00
Kwangsi Bank	12,106,015.52	2,374,143.28	13,698,636.82	2,371,000.00
Kiangsi Yu Ming Bank	66,016,671.52	4,279,830.04	47,519,149.90	—
TOTAL	89,539,713.80	21,159,980.28	262,809,797.34	8,279,606.50

TABLE 10. DEPOSITS IN
(In National

Name of Bank	Current	Fixed	Special	National Treasury
Szechuen Provincial Bank	—	—	—	—
Sikang Provincial Bank	207,495.34	1,292,161.76	9,210,870.07	108,510.49
Shensi Provincial Bank	—	—	10,180,596.00	14,137,284.24
Kansu Provincial Bank	3,263,401.43	3,021,329.58	—	32,792,362.28
Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank	—	56,275.50	7,900,593.40	9,169,665.54
Hopei Provincial Bank	1,612,565.08	400.00	—	—
Hunan Provincial Bank	—	—	—	—
Hupei Provincial Bank	—	50,362.88	43,516,034.34	3,114,584.68
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	—	3,782,978.57	211,819,356.33	—
Kwangsi Bank	824,030,421.67	2,815,321.69	—	—
Kiangsi Yu Ming Bank	99,428,853.41	220,545.60	—	—
TOTAL	928,551,736.93	11,248,375.67	282,696,450.20	59,412,407.17

BANKING AND CURRENCY

PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS

(Dollars)

Industrial and Agricultural Loans	Fixed and Current Loans Unsecured	Overdrafts Unsecured and Secured	Documentary Bills	Other Loans	Total
—	—	—	—	50,170,374.38	149,265,277.68
8,140.00	3,173,170.02	2,280,716.94	—	—	9,190,798.77
—	2,545,600.00	13,811,792.20	—	—	39,108,078.81
—	—	—	—	48,375,421.94	48,375,421.94
868,320.00	—	—	—	—	24,656,380.85
—	—	399,601.80	—	—	3,844,384.71
485,950.00	6,451,000.01	3,903,940.00	177,625.00	39,995,836.80	39,995,836.87
177,925.70	8,326,986.52	43,475,391.05	511,680.00	—	33,064,095.98
—	—	—	—	—	120,152,796.63
—	—	—	—	—	30,549,795.62
—	—	—	—	—	117,815,651.55
1,540,335.70	20,496,765.55	63,871,441.99	689,305.00	147,541,633.19	616,018,579.41

PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS

(Dollars)

Sundry	Bankers'	Cashiers Notes	Other Deposits	Total
—	27,242,830.05	—	172,630,005.52	199,872,841.57
2,154,910.07	2,416,956.05	112,995.00	—	15,593,807.78
—	—	—	—	24,317,880.30
—	498,016.87	—	—	39,574,508.27
—	446,909.93	—	—	17,642,444.46
16,952.37	50,144.66	36,000.00	—	1,716,062.11
6,022,344.62	1,476,999.84	—	143,040,218.21	143,040,218.81
24,371,297.85	9,280,831.96	—	—	54,189,326.26
2,053,504.43	312,385,285.80	—	—	249,254,464.71
—	9,574,453.12	—	—	1,139,240,029.16
34,619,018.34	363,372,434.28	148,995.00	315,670,224.33	111,277,356.56
—	—	—	—	1,995,718,939.99

TABLE 11. INVESTMENT IN NEGOTIABLE SECURITIES BY PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS

Name of Bank	Negotiable Securities
Szechuen Provincial Bank	\$21,408,995.00
Sikang Provincial Bank	885,700.00
Shensi Provincial Bank	4,434,467.88
Kansu Provincial	658,949.00
Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank	1,708,371.63
Hopei Provincial Bank	1,000.00
Hunan Provincial Bank	8,792,039.10
Hupeh Provincial Bank	13,552,688.00
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	11,395,863.51
Kwangsi Bank	20,724,643.11
Kiangsi Yu Ming Bank	782,852.22
TOTAL	\$84,490,100.44

Administration Office of Four Government Banks. Table 12 shows the details together with the names of the custodians of the reserves.

In addition, the Joint Administration Office is also undertaking to issue and distribute subsidiary notes to provinces in accordance with local needs; and at the same time, it is adjusting provincial subsidiary notes, principally the Kwangtung coin and subsidiary notes which were in a chaotic state.

The exchange of dilapidated notes is another activity of the Joint Administration Office. To remote places where no branch bank, sub-branch or office of the four government banks has been established, such activity is generally entrusted to the branches of the postal remittance and savings bank in the locality. In 1940, the Joint Administration Office had arranged with the Anhwei Provincial Bank, Honan Agricultural and Industrial Bank, Hunan Provincial Bank, Hupeh Provincial Bank, Kwangtung Provincial Bank, Szechuen Cooperative Bank,

Kweichow Cooperative Bank and Kwangsi Provincial Bank to undertake such activity in the locality for the benefit of the people. In 1941, additional arrangements were made with other provincial banks, such as the Szechuen Provincial Bank, the branch of the Joint Administration Office in Ninghsia and the Suiyuan Provincial Bank to undertake similar activity. Shantung had, perhaps, the largest amount of dilapidated notes. For this reason, the Joint Administration Office had exerted more efforts in the exchange of these dilapidated notes in the province. The Ming Sen Bank in Shantung was authorized to increase the note issue for circulation and for exchange of these dilapidated notes with loans and facilities extended by the Joint Administration Office.

HSIEN BANKS

The establishment of hsien (or district) banks is another important step toward the improvement of the

TABLE 12. PAYMENT OF RESERVE FUNDS BY PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL BANKS
(Up to the End of 1941)

Name of Bank	Notes in Circulation	Cash Reserves	Other Security Reserves	Total Reserves	Month of Report	Custodian of Funds
Szechuen Provincial Bank	7,967,857.00	1,593,521.40	4,780,714.20	6,374,285.60	Dec.	Bank of Communications
Suiyuan Provincial Bank	300,000.00	275,000.00	2,500.00	300,000.00	"	Suiyuan Currency Reserve Board
Hupeh Provincial Bank	21,810,000.00	9,574,000.00	12,236,000.00	21,810,000.00	"	Bank of Communications
Hunan Provincial Bank	20,616,370.00	10,143,920.00	10,467,448.00	20,616,370.00	"	Central Bank of China
Shensi Provincial Bank	5,192,000.00	2,548,800.00	2,643,200.00	5,192,000.00	"	"
Chekiang Local Bank	15,294,072.00	8,095,433.38	8,080,000.00	16,175,433.38	Sept.	Bank of China
Kwangtung Provincial Bank	238,896,758.80	104,970,632.10	62,257,099.06	167,227,731.16	Oct.	Currency Reserve Board
	22,800,000.00	8,488,888.89	7,471,111.11	15,960,000.00	"	"
	11,920,767.00	6,039,855.28	3,973,588.00	10,013,444.28	"	"
	1,200,000.00	720,000.00	480,000.00	1,200,000.00	"	"
Sikang Provincial Bank	1,999,774.50	268,800.00	179,200.00	448,000.00	Sept.	Central Bank of China
Anhwei Local Bank	10,500,000.00	4,700,000.00	5,800,000.00	10,500,000.00	Aug.	"
Kansu Provincial Bank	9,227,608.95	6,177,046.65	3,050,562.30	9,227,608.95	July	"
Fukien Provincial Bank	32,944,003.20	15,706,192.64	17,628,516.00	33,332,708.64	June	"

SOURCE: Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint Administration Office.

Chinese banking system. The Hsien Bank Law was promulgated by the National Government on January 20, 1940. Beginning from the same year, China's Three-Year Program of Reform in Local Government has been in full operation. Acting on the resolutions adopted by the Third National Finance Conference held in June, 1941, the Chinese finance system is divided into national finance and hsien finance. The creation of hsien banks is apparently for the promotion

of both the program and the new national financial system to place local finance on an independent footing. For the promotion and development of hsien banks, the Central Bank of China has established a special hsien banks direction and supervision committee for the development, direction, and supervision of the activities of the hsien banks throughout the country. Table 13 gives an enumeration of hsien banks duly registered with the Ministry of Finance.

TABLE 13. HSIEN BANKS REGISTERED WITH THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE
(Up to May, 1942)

Banks	Date of Registration	Licence Number	Capital Stock	Capital Paid-up	Location of Head Office
<i>Szechuen Province:</i>					
Nanchuen Hsien Bank	July, 1941	Yin 347	\$ 200,000	\$ 200,000	Nanchuen
Nanchung Hsien Bank	Mar., 1942	.. 418	1,000,000	543,600	Nanchung
Kwangan Hsien Bank	Dec., 1940	.. 333	150,000	150,000	Kwangan
Tungnan Hsien Bank	Oct., 1940	.. 322	200,000	100,000	Tungnan
Welyuan Hsien Bank	April, 1941	.. 341	250,000	125,000	Welyuan
Hsintu Hsien Bank	May, 1941	.. 344	100,000	50,000	Hsintu
Yinhlsen Hsien Bank	June, 1941	.. 348	200,000	200,000	Yinhlsen
Pahlsen Hsien Bank	Sept., 1941	.. 373	500,000	500,000	Pahlsen
Chenshou Hsien Bank	Oct., 1941	.. 375	200,000	100,250	Chenshou
Tungliang Hsien Bank	Oct., 1941	.. 379	200,000	100,000	Tungliang
Lunchang Hsien Bank	Oct., 1941	.. 383	300,000	151,050	Lunchang
Kalhsien Hsien Bank	Oct., 1941	.. 387	200,000	200,000	Kalhsien
Tatsu Hsien Bank	Oct., 1941	.. 388	200,000	120,000	Tatsu
Omei Hsien Bank	Nov., 1941	.. 396	100,000	100,000	Omei
Pengehl Hsien Bank	Nov., 1941	.. 397	80,000	42,500	Pengehl
Hochuen Hsien Bank	Nov., 1941	.. 398	200,000	200,000	Hochuen
Chunghsien Hsien Bank	Dec., 1941	.. 424	200,000	100,000	Chunghsien
Wuehl Hsien Bank	Dec., 1941	.. 408	250,000	250,000	Wuehl
Santal Hsien Bank	Jan., 1942	.. 413	100,000	100,000	Santal
Meishan Hsien Bank	Mar., 1942	.. 420	100,000	52,400	Meishan
Tienklang Hsien Bank	Mar., 1942	.. 421	200,000	200,000	Tienklang
Chienwei Hsien Bank	April, 1942	.. 440	100,000	50,000	Chienwei
Kiangpei Hsien Bank	May, 1942	.. 444	400,000	200,000	Kiangpei
Yungchang Hsien Bank	May, 1942	.. 446	100,000	100,000	Yungchang
Chengtu Hsien Bank	May, 1942	.. 451	600,000	400,000	Chengtu
<i>Kwangtung Province:</i>					
Kaoyao Hsien Bank	Dec., 1941	.. 400	200,000	126,040	Kaoyao
<i>Hupei Province:</i>					
Sulhsien Hsien Bank	May, 1942	.. 449	100,000	100,000	Sulhsien
<i>Shensi Province:</i>					
Sanyuan Hsien Bank	May, 1942	.. 450	120,000	113,180	Sanyuan

Besides the 28 hsien banks which were registered with the Ministry of Finance, there are 131 others already in full operation or under preparation up to May, 1942. All of them have applied to the Ministry of Finance for registration. Table 14 shows the establishment of hsien banks in 12 provinces.

TABLE 14. ESTABLISHMENT OF HSIEN BANKS IN TWELVE PROVINCES, MAY, 1942

Province	Registered	In Full Operation	Under Preparation	Total
Szechuen	25	9	31	65
Kwangtung	1	—	11	12
Hupei	1	—	—	1
Kiangsi	—	—	1	1
Shensi	1	23	16	40
Kansu	—	—	1	1
Honan	—	19	13	32
Chengkang	—	—	1	1
Fukien	—	—	2	2
Kweichow	—	—	1	1
Shansi	—	—	1	1
Sikang	—	—	2	2
TOTAL	28	51	80	159

PRIVATE BANKS AND TRUST COMPANIES

Up to May, 1942, there were 104 private banks and 14 trust companies in China, 88 of them were duly registered with the Ministry of Finance. Of the 104 industrial, commercial and savings banks, nearly half of them conduct trust business as well; while

of the 14 trust companies, five accept ordinary savings deposits. As such a situation is generally considered unsatisfactory, many Chinese economists have proposed a specialization of the business of government and private banks and trust companies. Table 15 gives the details of the private banks and trust companies in China.

TABLE 15. PRIVATE BANKS AND TRUST COMPANIES
(Up to May, 1942)

Name of Bank	Date of Registration	Licence Number	Capital Stock	Paid-up Capital	Location of Head Office
National Industrial Bank of China	June, 1937	Yin 283	\$4,000,000	\$4,000,000	Chungking
Manufacturers Bank of China	Nov., 1929	—	20,000,000	5,000,000	Hongkong
Ningpo Commercial & Savings Bank	Feb., 1937	.. 279	4,000,000	4,000,000	Shanghai

Commercial Bank of China ...	April, 1937	Yin 274	4,000,000	4,000,000	Shanghai
Agricultural & Industrial Bank of China ...	Mar., 1930	" 114	10,000,000	5,000,000	"
Chung Hui Bank ...	Feb., 1937	" 269	3,500,000	3,500,000	"
China Enterprise Bank ...	Nov., 1931	" 103	2,000,000	1,000,000	"
China & South Seas (Chung Nao) Bank ...	July, 1935	" 233	7,500,000	7,500,000	"
Chung Yung Commercial Bank ...	Jan., 1941	" 338	500,000	500,000	"
Chung Mao Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 380	3,000,000	3,000,000	"
Chung Hwa Industrial Bank ...	—	—	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
China Land Reclamation Bank ...	—	—	2,500,000	2,500,000	"
Chung Hwa Commercial & Savings Bank ...	—	—	500,000	500,000	"
Chung Tai Bank ...	Jan., 1941	" 410	500,000	500,000	"
Chung Foo Commercial & Savings Bank ...	—	—	2,000,000	2,000,000	"
Mei Feng Bank of Szechuen ...	Dec., 1941	" 402	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Szechuen Reconstruction Bank ...	April, 1935	" 225	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Savings Society of Four Banks ...	Aug., 1930	—	1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Szechuen Salt Industry Bank ...	Jan., 1942	" 411	6,000,000	6,000,000	Chungking
Szechuen-Sikang People's Savings Bank ...	Feb., 1942	" 414	10,000,000	10,000,000	"
Ta Chuen Bank ...	April, 1942	" 432	3,000,000	3,000,000	Chengtu
Tatsu Hsien Agricultural & Industrial Bank ...	June, 1939	" 209	200,000	200,000	Tatan
Ta Kang Bank ...	Aug., 1939	" 188	500,000	500,000	Shanghai
Continental Bank ...	Mar., 1929	" 11	5,000,000	4,000,000	"
Ta Kung Commercial & Savings Bank ...	June, 1941	" 354	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Ta Chung Bank ...	—	—	4,000,000	—	"
Ta Mou Commercial Bank ...	—	—	1,000,000	500,000	Yunnanling
Ta Tung Commercial Bank ...	May, 1937	" 281	—	250,000	Chungming
Ta Lai Bank ...	—	—	—	—	Shanghai
Chung Ho Commercial & Savings Bank ...	June, 1931	" 81	500,000	500,000	"
Shanghai Ta Ya Bank ...	Aug., 1934	" 197	500,000	500,000	"
Shanghai Silk Industry Bank ...	Oct., 1930	" 237	1,200,000	1,200,000	"
Shanghai Commercial & Savings Bank ...	May, 1935	" 151	5,000,000	5,000,000	"
Shanghai Chien Hwa Bank ...	Jan., 1935	" 216	500,000	500,000	"
Shanghai Iron Industry Bank ...	Nov., 1941	" 393	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Shanghai Coal Industry Bank ...	Aug., 1932	" 123	800,000	400,000	"
Shanghai Citizen's Bank ...	—	—	250,000	—	"
Shanghai Women's Commercial & Savings Bank ...	—	—	—	—	"
Kiang Hui Bank ...	Feb., 1934	" 258	1,000,000	1,000,000	Chungking
Kiangching Agricultural & Industrial Bank ...	May, 1942	" 443	5,000,000	5,000,000	Kiangching (Szechuen)

Kiangsi Industrial Bank ...	Jan., 1942	Yin 409	1,000,000	1,000,000	Chi-an (Kiangsi)
Chekiang Commercial Banking Corporation ...	May, 1934	" 183	4,000,000	4,000,000	Shanghai
Chekiang Industrial Bank ...	June, 1929	" 14	2,000,000	2,000,000	"
Eastern Chekiang Commercial Bank ...	—	—	500,000	500,000	Ningpo
Chekiang Construction Bank ...	—	—	500,000	500,000	Shaoan
Kuo Hwa Bank ...	Feb., 1940	" 311	3,050,000	3,050,000	Shanghai
Kuo Hsin Bank ...	Feb., 1935	" 217	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Kuo Foo Commercial & Savings Bank ...	Mar., 1941	" 403	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Yu Hsi Industrial Bank ...	Nov., 1940	" 330	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Bank of Asia ...	Aug., 1934	" 298	1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Ho Cheng Bank ...	April, 1912	" 439	5,000,000	2,000,000	Chungking
Ho Tai Commercial Bank ...	June, 1941	" 357	500,000	500,000	"
Kwang Chung Commercial Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 374	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Kwang Hwa Bank ...	—	—	500,000	500,000	"
Kwang Yu Bank ...	April, 1942	" 431	5,000,000	5,000,000	"
Chenghsien Agricultural & Industrial Bank ...	Jan., 1931	" 66	106,900	106,900	Chenghsien (Chekiang)
Cheng Hsin Local Bank ...	—	—	102,700	62,120	"
Yung Heng Bank ...	Sept., 1931	—	700,000	700,000	Shanghai
Yung Tai Commercial Bank ...	June, 1941	" 352	700,000	700,000	"
Yung Ta Bank ...	Aug., 1934	" 200	1,000,000	500,000	"
Yu Shang Bank ...	May, 1937	" 275	500,000	500,000	Tzukung (Szechuen)
Yu Ching Bank ...	—	—	600,000	600,000	Tientsin
Yung Feng Commercial Bank ...	Dec., 1941	" 407	1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Pa Chuen Bank ...	April, 1942	" 437	1,000,000	500,000	Tungliang (Szechuen)
Chungking Bank ...	Mar., 1940	" 314	5,000,000	5,000,000	"
Tung Lai Bank ...	Nov., 1940	" 330	5,000,000	5,000,000	Shanghai
Chengtu Commercial Bank ...	Oct., 1940	" 323	1,000,000	500,000	Chengtu
Hui Chung Commercial and Savings Bank ...	Nov., 1941	" 395	1,500,000	1,500,000	Shanghai
Young Brothers Banking Corporation ...	Dec., 1940	" 236	4,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Reconstruction & Industrial Bank ...	May, 1942	" 445	2,000,000	2,000,000	Hengyang
Foochow Commercial Bank ...	May, 1935	" 228	500,000	250,000	Foochow
Shaohing Commercial Bank ...	May, 1935	" 227	250,000	250,000	Shaohing
Shen Hsu Commercial Bank ...	July, 1941	" 359	500,000	500,000	Shanghai
Wenchow Commercial Bank ...	June, 1935	" 229	200,000	200,000	Yunchia
Salt Industry Bank ...	June, 1929	" 210	10,000,000	7,500,000	Shanghai
Hsin Hwa Trust & Savings Bank ...	Jan., 1932	" 111	2,000,000	2,000,000	"
Tung Hui Industrial Bank ...	Mar., 1941	" 340	3,000,000	3,000,000	Chungking

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Chin Cheng Banking Corporation	July, 1935	Yin 233	10,000,000	7,000,000	Shanghai
Shensi Yu Hwa Bank	Sept., 1941	" 371	5,000,000	5,000,000	Tientsin
China Reconstruction Bank	April, 1941	" 347	2,000,000	1,330,000	Chungking
Kunming Bank	June, 1941	" 356	4,000,000	2,033,000	Kunming
Yangtze Industrial Bank	June, 1941	" 358	2,000,000	2,000,000	Chungking
An Hwa Commercial Bank	July, 1941	" 361	500,000	500,000	Shanghai
Chi Kang Bank	Aug., 1941	" 366	5,000,000	3,500,000	Yuan
Putung Commercial Bank	Oct., 1941	" 377	1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Kai Yuan Bank	Oct., 1941	" 385	2,000,000	1,000,000	Chungking
Hwa Mao Commercial Bank	Nov., 1941	" 392	500,000	500,000	Shanghai
Hwa An Commercial & Savings Bank			500,000	500,000	"
Cheng Ming Commercial & Savings Bank	Feb., 1934	" 170	500,000	500,000	"
Mao Hwa Commercial Bank	Dec., 1941	" 405	1,200,000	1,200,000	"
Tung Yuan Commercial & Savings Bank	June, 1937	" 284	1,117,500	1,117,500	"
Heng Li Bank	Nov., 1940	" 328	707,280	707,280	"
Agricultural & Commercial Bank			3,000,000	3,000,000	"
Ming Foo Commercial & Savings Bank			500,000	500,000	"
Hsin Tai Bank			1,000,000		"
Ou Hai Industrial Bank			250,000		Yungchia
Chih Chung Commercial & Savings Bank			1,000,000		Shanghai
Hankow Commercial & Savings Bank			1,000,000		Hankow
Chien Tai Commercial Bank	Oct., 1940	" 324	1,000,000	500,000	Shanghai
Tai Ho Hsin Bank	Oct., 1940	" 326	1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Tung Hsin Bank	Mar., 1942	" 423	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Nanking City Commercial Bank			250,000		Nanking
China Reconstruction Finance Corporation			10,000,000	10,000,000	Hongkong
Kwang Hsin Banking Corporation	Dec., 1940	" 331	1,000,000	500,000	Shanghai
Chung Yi Trust Company			3,000,000	3,000,000	"
Central Trust of China	Nov., 1930	" 207	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Shanghai Trust Company			1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Southeastern Trust Company			1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Ta Sen Trust Company					"
Sen Ta Trust Company	Oct., 1941	" 386	3,000,000	3,000,000	"
Northwestern Tung Chi Trust Company	Dec., 1940	" 335	250,000	250,000	Sian
Tung Hui Trust Company	Aug., 1936	" 263	1,000,000	500,000	Shanghai
Fu Yuan Trust Company	Feb., 1941	" 339	500,000	500,000	"
Ho Hsiang Trust Company	April, 1941	" 343	500,000	500,000	"

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Hwa Feng Trust Company	July, 1941	Yin 363	1,000,000	500,000	Shanghai
Fu Feng Trust Company	Dec., 1941	" 402	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Kuo An Trust Company		" —	500,000	—	"
Tung Yi Trust Company	Mar., 1938	" 287	1,360,000	1,360,000	"

NOTES: China Industrial Bank, Manufacturers Bank of China, Ningpo Commercial and Savings Bank, and Commercial Bank of China have also government shares.

By location of head offices, it is meant only the location as stated in their applications for registration. Since the fall of Shanghai and Hongkong, nearly all Chinese banks and trust companies have removed their head offices to Chungking or other places in the interior.

Savings Society of Four Banks includes: Salt Industry Bank, Chin Cheng Banking Corporation, China & South Seas (or Chung Nan) Bank and Continental Bank.

THE CENTRAL TRUST OF CHINA

The establishment of trust companies is only of recent development in China. The oldest trust companies in China made their appearance in Shanghai in 1921. In 1926, 20 more trust companies were organized in that city, but most of them were short-lived. In 1935, the establishment of the Central Trust of China, together with the opening of the Shanghai Development & Trust Company by the Municipality of Greater Shanghai in 1932, marked the beginning of government-owned trust companies in China.

Started with a capitalization of \$50,000,000, the Central Trust of China has been making progress by

leaps and bounds. At present, its main activities are the handling of deposits and savings operation, underwriting of insurance, undertaking of printing business, acting as agency for the purchase and sale of products, collecting of materials to fulfil barter agreements, and, lastly, as agency for the transshipment of cargoes. By January of 1942, five branches of the Central Trust were already established, namely, in Kunming, Chengtu, Kweilin, Kweichow and Hengyang, with the establishment of two others in Sian and Lanchow, respectively, under preparation.

Table 16 shows the operation of deposits, loans and investments of the Central Trust from 1935 to 1942:

TABLE 16. DEPOSITS AND LOAN OPERATION OF THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1935—1942
(In National Dollars)

Year	Deposits in Trust	Loan Operation	Investment
1935	6,054,233.92	139,951.39	901,000.00
1936	33,345,796.19	15,679,714.25	7,470,124.61
1937	25,599,093.66	33,218,501.10	20,024,410.73
1938	40,365,084.35	26,731,655.61	22,213,889.46
1939	58,299,020.32	30,029,517.48	24,954,951.52
1940	89,965,788.27	21,732,446.05	29,395,896.18
1941	155,861,608.00	122,062,657.28	102,262,116.12
1942	380,278,754.68	310,530,725.05	163,793,615.01

SOURCE: Eight Years of the Operation of the Central Trust of China.

The plan for 1943 includes the promotion of deposits through an increase of interest rates, inauguration of special deposits and encouragement of investment in trust so as to direct more idle capital into the productive channel, opening of stock market, and issuance of certificates of investment in trust and preferential shares and bonds. The estimate of deposits in trust for 1943 amounts to \$400,000,000 as against \$380,278,754 in 1942, industrial and mining loans to \$150,000,000 as against \$125,000,000, and discounts to \$80,000,000 as against \$53,000,000.

The amount of savings deposits handled by the Central Trust amounted to \$362,501,657 in 1942, which included \$221,004,045 from national reconstruction savings accounts, \$75,117,000 from national thrift and reconstruction and gold certificates, \$61,459,190 from ordinary savings, and \$5,921,422 from other sources. Table 17 shows the handling of premium savings bonds from 1935 to 1942:

TABLE 17. HANDLING OF PREMIUM SAVINGS BONDS BY THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1935-1942

Year	Amount
1936	\$ 1,955,076
1937	3,475,052
1938	5,891,983
1939	7,967,697
1940	13,000,554
1941	39,855,128
1942	63,241,805

For the year 1943, estimates of the various savings deposits amount to

\$253,000,000 for national reconstruction savings accounts, \$147,000,000 for national thrift and reconstruction and gold certificates, \$115,000,000 for ordinary savings, and \$60,000,000 for premium savings bonds.

The Central Trust also underwrites insurance of various kinds, though about 90% are marine and fire insurance. Table 18 shows the operation of the insurance business of the Central Trust.

TABLE 18. OPERATION OF INSURANCE BUSINESS OF THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1935-1942

(In National Dollars)

Year	Marine and Fire Insurance	
	Sum Insured	Premium Received
1935	37,023,000	75,559
1936	583,830,000	1,237,969
1937	1,016,503,000	2,079,001
1938	717,138,000	2,454,589
1939	813,195,000	4,592,106
1940	1,738,700,000	3,901,780
1941	2,578,087,000	7,900,295
1942	53,239,104,000	20,020,549

Year	War Risks On Cargoes in Transit	
	Sum Insured	Premium Received
1935	—	—
1936	—	—
1937	17,230,000	731,576
1938	168,793,000	6,408,445
1939	270,174,000	10,330,098
1940	446,710,000	16,410,266
1941	956,970,000	34,228,326
1942	2,027,758,000	37,173,403

As to life insurance, the premium received by the end of 1942 amounted to \$184,970,000. For the year 1943, further development of life insurance business of the Central Trust is planned. Table 19 shows the details.

For 1943, further development of the insurance business of the Central Trust is planned. Table 20 shows the details.

In the spring of 1941, on instruction of the Ministry of Finance, the Central Trust began to undertake the printing

Year	Land War Risks	
	Sum Insured	Premium Received
1935	—	—
1936	—	—
1937	—	—
1938	—	—
1939	8,111,500	96,915
1940	1,007,165,600	13,541,900
1941	2,826,288,734	32,070,557
1942	4,701,827,118	39,410,440

TABLE 19. DEVELOPMENT OF LIFE INSURANCE BUSINESS OF THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1943

(In National Dollars)

Kind of Insurance	Estimate of	
	Sum to be Insured	Premium to be Received
People's Life Insurance	100,000,000	3,400,000
Group Insurance for Government Employees	150,000,000	4,500,000
Endowment Insurance	1,500,000	70,000
Whole Life Insurance	1,000,000	30,000
Compulsory Life Insurance	40,000,000,000	12,000,000,000
Life Annuity	—	50,000
Life Re-Insurance	10,000,000	200,000

TABLE 20. DEVELOPMENT OF INSURANCE BUSINESS OF THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1943

(In National Dollars)

Insurance	Estimate of	
	Sum to be Insured	Premium to be Received
Fire	62,182,400,000	11,200,000
Marine	3,905,500,000	10,700,000
Hull	7,700,000	700,000
Motor Car	12,500,000	500,000
Land War Risks	6,480,000,000	54,000,000
War Risks on Cargoes in Transit	1,973,456,000	36,000,000

of bank notes. In the winter of the same year, the Central Trust bought and took over the Kienhua Printing Company and Lungchang Paper Mill, two big industrial undertakings, with the latter renamed the Central Paper Mill. Since then the activities of the Central Trust has been kept on expanding to include the printing of the Central Premium Savings Bonds, special savings coupons, National Thrift and Reconstruction Certificates, government bonds, Food Treasury Notes, revenue stamps, match-sales permits, postal stamps, and Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Stamps. While the cost of printing of all these printed matters was put at \$411,997 for 1941 and \$30,556,445 for 1942, the profit was estimated at \$452,322 and \$42,084,782 for these two respective years.

Acting as an agency for various government organs for the collection and purchase of various vital materials, the Central Trust succeeded in collecting and purchasing materials worth no less than \$60,020,000 from Chungking, Chengtu, Yunnan and Kwangsi, shortly after the outbreak of the Pacific war in December, 1941. About 50% of these materials were valuable metals and machineries, with electric apparatus and communication vehicles constituting the next large portions. The trust also stored daily necessities worth another \$13,960,000, intended for the stabilization of commodity prices in 1942. In cooperation with the Fuel Control Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, the Central Trust sold oil, alcohol and other raw materials to various government organs to the amount of \$489,360,000 in the same year. By an order of the Executive Yuan, the Central Trust has been handling

transactions between various government organs and the Universal Trading Corporation in New York by forwarding the applications for purchase from the former to the latter and then arranging the actual purchase for these government organs.

In five years (1938-1942) the Central Trust had collected huge quantities of Chinese native products, particularly the principal exportable products, such as tea, *tung* (wood) oil, bristles, etc., amounting to \$91,992,373, which were shipped abroad as partial fulfilment of the barter agreements which China had concluded with some friendly powers. Table 21 shows the details.

TABLE 21. COLLECTION OF CHINESE NATIVE PRODUCTS BY THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1938-1942

Year	Amount
1938	\$3,707,074.62
1939	19,077,202.07
1940	12,367,269.52
1941	28,858,112.65
1942	27,582,714.27
TOTAL	\$91,992,373.13

As to the transportation business, the Central Trust had transhipped 4,770 tons of cargoes in 1939, 3,879 tons in 1940, 4,556 tons in 1941 and 1,771 tons in 1942, besides acting as the sole agency for the transshipment of bank notes and other printed matters.

NATIVE BANKS

At the time of the opening of Shanghai as a treaty port in 1843, there was not a single bank of the

modern pattern to be found in China. Native banks were flourishing. Their chief business was at first confined to money exchange, but with the expansion of trade in Shanghai following its openings as a port, the need for the supply and circulation of capital became more and more pronounced. As a result, the scope of operation of the native banks was extended and their number rapidly multiplied. An investigation made in 1876 revealed that there was in that year a total of 105 native banks in Shanghai, of which 42 were in Nantao, and the remaining 63 in the district north of the Yangkingpang. Although the several serious financial crisis that followed caused a gradual reduction in the number of these establishments, yet there was a steady improvement in the organization and conduct of their business, a strengthening of their relations with the various trades and industries, and a gradual growth of a feeling of solidarity among themselves. Until some 20 years ago, the position they occupied and the influence they wielded in the money market were far above those of the modern banks. In recent years, however, as a result of changed conditions, it is inevitable that signs of backwardness in native banking have become manifest.

During the war time, when commodity prices have been soaring, many people attribute the cause to currency inflation. However, more keen observers have pointed out five principal causes, among which is the "freedom of native banks." In Chungking alone, for example, it is said that there are no less than 50 native banks, whose aggregated capital is put at \$19,000,000. On the basis of \$3,000,000 each, these 50 native banks will have an accumulated savings of \$150,000,000.

This sum, together with their capital, will bring the total amount to about \$170,000,000. It is, therefore, opined that it is important to exercise a far more strict control over the activities of these native banks and the utilization of this sum of \$170,000,000. For, if a portion of the \$170,000,000 is used in hoarding and speculative activities, it will have the very effect of causing commodity prices to reach new heights.

The formation of a new currency and banking system is now under discussion, and the readjustment of the activities of both government and private banks is demanded. It is also suggested that steps should be taken toward the reorganization of the native banks and the readjustment of their activities. Under the new currency and banking system, there should be one banking system and a specialization of the whole banking activities. The existence of many native banks is, therefore, inconsistent with the purpose and spirit of currency and banking reform. The present policy is to reorganize these native banks into modern banks.

The exact number of native banks in the country is not known. Table 22 contains a list of native banks duly registered with the Ministry of Finance up to May, 1942.

FINANCIAL NETWORK IN THE SOUTHWEST AND NORTHWEST

To complete a financial network in the Southwest and the Northwest constitutes the first item of Dr. H. H. Kung's "eight-point financial program." At the Local Finance Conference held in June 1938, with the main objects of strengthening China's wartime financial structure in general

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 22. NATIVE BANKS REGISTERED WITH THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

(Up to May, 1942)

Name of Bank	Date of Registration	Licence Number	Capital Stock	Paid-up Capital	Location of Head Office
Ta Hsia Native Bank ...	Mar., 1940	Fin 313	\$1,000,000	\$1,000,000	Chungking
Ho Feng Native Bank ...	May, 1941	" 346	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Ho Hsing Native Bank ...	July, 1941	" 363	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Hwa Kang Native Bank ...	Aug., 1941	" 367	1,500,000	1,500,000	"
Szechuen Yung Mei Hou Native Bank ...	June, 1940	" 316	700,000	700,000	"
Fu Li Native Bank ...	Sept., 1941	" 372	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Yung Cheng Native Bank ...	Jan., 1942	" 412	3,000,000	3,000,000	"
Chen Yu Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 433	1,200,000	1,200,000	"
Chu Kang Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 428	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Tai Feng Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 436	500,000	500,000	"
Tung Hui Native Bank ...	July, 1941	" 362	400,000	400,000	Kiangch'ing
Kiangch'ing Chen Tai Native Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 390	600,000	600,000	"
Kwelyang Yi Hsing Chang Native Bank ...	July, 1939	" 308	100,000	100,000	Kwelyang
Iping Tsu Yuan Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 426	1,000,000	1,000,000	Iping
Tao Heng Native Bank ...	Mar., 1938	" 288	600,000	600,000	Canton
Hui Chung Native Bank ...	Aug., 1939	" 304	300,000	150,000	Shanghai
Chien Tai Native Bank ...	May, 1942	" 442	1,000,000	500,000	Chungking
Chuang Yeh Native Bank ...	May, 1942	" 447	500,000	500,000	Kiangch'ing
Tai Yu Native Bank ...	May, 1942	" 448	1,500,000	1,500,000	Chungking
King Yuan Native Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 382	1,000,000	1,000,000	Shanghai
Fu Li Native Bank ...	Aug., 1940	" 320	500,000	500,000	"
Chi Chang Native Bank ...	June, 1941	" 348	600,000	600,000	"
Hsin Ho Native Bank ...	June, 1941	" 350	500,000	500,000	"
Hsin Chung Native Bank ...	July, 1941	" 360	700,000	700,000	"
Yi Ho Native Bank ...	June, 1941	" 351	500,000	500,000	"
Sheng Teh Native Bank ...	June, 1941	" 353	500,000	500,000	"
Yung Lung Native Bank ...	June, 1941	" 355	500,000	500,000	"
Tun Yu Native Bank ...	Sept., 1941	" 370	500,000	500,000	"
Chia Chan Native Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 377	500,000	500,000	"
Tsun Cheng Native Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 378	600,000	600,000	"
Pao Chang Native Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 381	500,000	500,000	"
Tai Lai Native Bank ...	Oct., 1941	" 384	750,000	750,000	"
Tung Kang Native Bank ...	Nov., 1941	" 380	635,000	635,000	"
Tsu Kang Native Bank ...	Nov., 1941	" 391	1,052,000	1,052,000	"
Hui Ta Native Bank ...	Dec., 1941	" 399	500,000	500,000	"
Fu Hsin Yi Chi Native Bank ...	Mar., 1942	" 417	300,000	300,000	Chungking
Ho Tung Native Bank ...	Aug., 1941	" 368	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Ho Chi Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 438	500,000	500,000	"
Sheng Li Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 420	1,000,000	1,000,000	"

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Fu Yu Native Bank ...	Feb., 1942	Fin 415	1,000,000	1,000,000	Chungking
Hsin Tung Native Bank ...	Mar., 1942	" 424	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Yi Ming Native Bank ...	Mar., 1942	" 416	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Yi Feng Native Bank ...	Mar., 1942	" 422	2,000,000	2,000,000	"
Chu Feng Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 427	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Fu Yu Native Bank ...	Mar., 1942	" 425	1,000,000	1,000,000	"
Hsin Yuan Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 430	600,000	600,000	"
Chin Yu Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 430	600,000	600,000	"
An Kang Native Bank ...	April, 1942	" 434	500,000	500,000	"

NOTE: Banks in Shanghai and Canton have removed to the interior.

and of improving local financial conditions in particular, resolutions were adopted calling for an increase in the number of local banking institutions.

A two-year plan for the construction of a financial network in the Southwest and Northwest was approved by the National Government. The four government banks, together with provincial and municipal banks, were instructed to carry out the program which was scheduled to be completed by the end of 1940. When the Joint Administration Office was formed in the latter part of 1939, it was also instructed to accelerate the completion of the financial network in the nation. Principal features of the plan may be summed up as follows:

1. In any municipality, city, town or village in the rear that has now become a political or economic centre, or a centre for the collection and distribution of commodities, and yet where there is no banking institution, the Joint Administration Office shall be instructed to take immediate action to establish banking facilities. At least one of the four government banks shall establish its branch or office in the locality.
2. In more remote places where it may not be possible for any of

the four government banks to establish its branch or office within a short period, provincial banks shall be instructed to take immediate action to establish a branch bank or office. There shall be at least one branch of a provincial bank in each hsien.

3. Pending the establishment of branch and office in the municipality, hsien, *chen* and *hsiang*, local cooperative banks or societies or branches and offices of postal remittance and savings banks in the locality shall be instructed to administer local finances and to undertake other banking activities.

4. Branch banks, sub-branches and offices of the four government banks and provincial banks shall also be established near the war areas.

In February, 1940, the Joint Administration Office advanced an eight-point program which explains well the principal activities of the banking institutions within the financial network. This program may be summed up as follows:

1. To intensify the collection of gold and silver for the replenishment of the reserves against note

4

BANKING AND CURRENCY

issue, and for the strengthening of the credit of legal-tender notes.

2. To encourage and promote savings among the people for the absorption and utilization of idle capital in the national defence industries and other productive projects.

3. To adjust the amount of bank notes in transshipment and in custody for meeting local needs of civilians and for military purposes, to promote the circulation of subsidiary bank notes, and to undertake the exchange of dilapidated bank notes for the benefit of the people.

4. To extend loans and discounts in accordance with general principles governing loans and discount operations.

5. To facilitate remittances in the

interior and to prevent the flight of capital.

6. To extend loans to agricultural, forest, industrial and mining enterprises.

7. To study local economic conditions and index numbers of commodities, and to make constant reports to the head office.

8. To study the economic and financial conditions of the enemy, of the puppet regimes and of the occupied areas.

Before the war, the four government banks established 64 branches, sub-branches and offices in the south-western and northwestern provinces. Since the war, for the promotion of a financial network in the Southwest and Northwest, the number of branch offices has increased many folds. Tables 23--25 show the details:

TABLE 23. NUMBER OF BRANCH BANKS AND SUB-BRANCHES AND OFFICES ESTABLISHED BY FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS, 1937-1942

Year	Central Bank of China	Bank of China	Bank of Communications	Farmers Bank of China	Total
1937	1	1	—	1	3
1938	3	7	6	4	20
1939	23	31	16	12	82
1940	14	14	15	7	50
1941	11	20	6	12	49
1942	2	33	14	30	85
TOTAL	54	106	57	72	289

NOTE: This table is brought up to the end of 1942 with the assistance of Mr. Kuo Yung-sheng of the Economic Research Department of the Central Bank of China.

TABLE 24. ESTABLISHMENT OF BRANCH BANKS AND SUB-BRANCHES AND OFFICES BY FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

(Up to December, 1941)

Province	Central Bank of China	Bank of China	Bank of Communications	Farmers Bank of China	Total
Szechuen ...	28	29	13	38	108
Sikang ...	2	1	2	3	8
Yunnan ...	6	14	1	5	26
Kweichow ...	4	8	6	6	24
Kwangtung ...	3	10	2	10	25
Kwangsi ...	8	12	11	7	38
Fukien ...	7	19	7	10	43
Chekiang ...	3	14	7	12	36
Anhui ...	1	2	—	1	4
Kiangsi ...	5	13	4	8	30
Hunan ...	9	8	6	10	33
Hupeh ...	2	1	—	4	7
Honan ...	7	—	—	1	8
Shensi ...	7	19	8	5	31
Kansu ...	6	9	4	4	23
Ninghsia ...	1	1	—	1	3
Chinghai ...	1	1	—	1	3
(Foreign Countries)	—	17	2	—	19
TOTAL	100	170	73	126	469

SOURCE: Annual Report of 1941 of the Joint Administration Office.

TABLE 25. BRANCH BANKS AND SUB-BRANCHES AND OFFICES ESTABLISHED BY FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS AND OTHER BANKS IN 10 PROVINCES, 1937-1942

Province	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	Date Not Clear	Total
Szechuen	8	41	74	54	67	73	6	323
(Chungking)	3	11	26	10	25	18	2	95
Sikang	1	7	8	5	11	3	1	36
Kweichow	—	5	13	6	10	11	—	45
Yunnan	1	10	39	17	4	17	14	102
Kwangsi	1	7	19	28	23	17	—	95
Shensi	1	7	17	17	29	20	—	100

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Kansu	10	13	15	13	12	63
Ninghsia	1	1	1	7	1	11
Chinghai	1	1	1			3
Sinkiang					28	28
TOTAL	15	100	211	154	181	901

NOTE: This table is brought up to the end of 1942 with the assistance of Mr. Kuo Yung-sheng.

It will be seen that during these five year plan for the construction of a financial network in the southwest and northwest that was scheduled to be completed by the end of 1940. Efforts have been continued since 1941.

The above sums up the establishment and operation of the government, provincial, hsien, private and native banks in China. Tables 26-27 show the distribution of banks in the country.

TABLE 26. DISTRIBUTION OF BANKS, BRANCH BANKS, SUB-BRANCHES AND OFFICES IN THE SOUTHWEST AND NORTHWEST, DECEMBER, 1942

Province	No. of Banking Institutions*	No. of Hsien and Municipalities Having Banks	No. of Hsien and Municipalities in the Province	No. of Hsien and Municipalities Without a Bank
Szechuen	414	96	131	35
(Chungking)	119	1	1	—
Sikang	39	10	45	35
Kweichow	49	17	82	65
Yunnan	118	46	120	80
Kwangsi	124	49	100	51
Shensi	140	63	92	29
Kansu	80	44	68	24
Ninghsia	15	10	13	3
Chinghai	3	1	10	15
Sinkiang	37	37	65	28
TOTAL	1,138	374	730	365

* Throughout this chapter, by banking institutions is meant banks and their branches, sub-branches, offices and agents.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 27. NUMBER OF BANKING INSTITUTIONS IN THE SOUTHWEST AND NORTHWEST, DECEMBER, 1942

Bank	Szechuen	Chungking	Sikang	Kweichow
1 Central Bank of China	24	4	2	4
2 Bank of China	41	6	3	11
3 Bank of Communications	16	7	2	7
4 Farmers Bank of China	37	10	5	9
5 Szechuen Provincial Bank	87	5	2	—
6 Mei Feng Bank of Szechuen	29	5	1	2
7 Chungking Bank	17	4	3	1
8 Szechuen Salt Industry Bank	14	4	—	—
9 Young Brothers Banking Corporation	14	4	1	1
10 Shanghai Commercial & Savings Bank	7	1	—	1
11 Ho Cheng Bank	8	4	3	1
12 King Cheng Banking Corporation	7	5	—	1
13 Ya Hsi Industrial Bank	5	2	—	2
14 Chengtu Commercial Bank	2	—	—	—
15 Ta Chuen Bank	3	1	—	—
16 Hui Tung Industrial Bank	3	1	1	—
17 Peipei Rural Bank	3	1	—	—
18 Yangtze Industrial Bank	3	1	—	—
19 Kiangching Agricultural & Industrial Bank	9	1	—	—
20 Hupeh Provincial Bank	2	1	—	—
21 Sikang Provincial Bank	1	1	9	—
22 Shansi Yu Hwa Bank	1	1	—	1
23 Ta Tsu Agricultural & Industrial Bank	1	—	—	—
24 Yu Shang Bank	1	—	—	—
25 China Reconstruction Bank	1	1	—	—
26 Pa Chuen Bank	1	—	—	—
27 Szechuen Yi Feng Bank	1	—	—	—
28 Tien Kiang Rural Bank	1	—	—	—
29 Fu Chuen Bank	1	—	—	—
30 King Tung Farmers Bank	1	—	—	—
31 China & South Seas Bank	1	1	1	—
32 Chi Kang Bank	3	1	3	—
33 Kiang Hai Bank	1	2	—	—
34 Yunnan Hsing Wen Bank	1	1	—	—
35 Shensi Provincial Bank	1	1	—	—
36 Szechuen-Sikang People's Savings Banks	21	7	3	—
37 Hsien Banks	43	2	—	—
38 Tang Hsiang Rural Bank	2	—	—	—
39 National Industrial Bank of China	—	2	—	—
40 Szechuen Reconstruction Bank	—	2	—	—

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 27.—Continued.

Bank	Yunnan	Kwangsi	Shensi	Kansu	Ninghsia	Chinghai	Sinkiang	Total
1	4	8	7	6	1	1		61
2	20	16	14	9	1	1		122
3	3	11	9	5	1			61
4	7	10	7	9	1	1		96
5	1							95
6	1							38
7	1							20
8	1							19
9	1							21
10	3	2	2					16
11	1	1						18
12	3	2	2					20
13	1							10
14								2
15								4
16								5
17								4
18	1							6
19				1				10
20								3
21	1							12
22	1			1				6
23			1					1
24								1
25								2
26								1
27								1
28								1
29								1
30								1
31	1							4
32	1							8
33								3
34	15							17
35			48	2				52
36	1							32
37			30					84
38								2
39		1						3
40								2

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 27.—Continued.

Bank	Szechuen	Chungking	Sikang	Kweichow
41 Kiangsu Bank		2		
42 Kiangsu Farmers Bank		3		
43 Mao Hwa Commercial Bank		1		
44 Kai Yuan Bank		1		
45 Tung Hsin Bank		1		
46 Kwang Yu Bank		1		
47 China Industrial & Mining Bank		1		
48 Fu Hwa Bank		1		
49 Yung Li Bank		1		
50 Chinese Overseas Industrial Bank		1		
51 Kwangtung Provincial Bank		1		1
52 Hopei Provincial Bank		1		—
53 Anhwei Provincial Bank		1		—
54 Fukien Provincial Bank		1		—
55 Honan Agricultural & Industrial Bank		1		—
56 Hunan Provincial Bank		1		1
57 Kansu Provincial Bank		1		—
58 Kweichow Provincial Bank		1		4
59 Manufacturers Bank of China		1		—
60 Commercial Bank of China		1		—
61 Ningpo Commercial & Savings Bank		1		
62 Continental Bank		1		
63 Sait Industry Bank		1		
64 Chekiang Commercial Banking Corporation		1		
65 Hsin Hwa Trust & Savings Bank		1		
66 Reconstruction & Industrial Bank		1		1
67 Yunnan Industrial Bank		—		1
68 New Fu Tien Bank		—		—
69 Chuen Yeh Bank		—		—
70 Oriental Hui Li Bank		—		—
71 Agricultural & Industrial Bank of China		1		
72 Industrial Cooperative Bank		—		
73 Mining Bank		—		
74 Kuning Bank		—		
75 Yih Hwa Bank		—		
76 Kwangsi Bank				
77 Joint Office of Shensi Provincial Railway Bank				
78 Northern Shensi Local Industrial Bank				
79 Ninghsia Bank				
80 Suiyuan Provincial Bank				
81 Sinkiang Commercial Bank				
TOTAL	414	119	39	49

NOTES: This table is compiled with the assistance of Mr. Kuo Yung-sheng.

By the early part of 1943, the Central Bank of China had already opened a branch in Tihua, capital of Sinkiang.

CONTROL OF BANKING BUSINESS

The control of the activities of the banks had its inception in a provision of the Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction, adopted by the Emergency Session of the Kuomintang Congress held in March, 1938, Article 21 of which program reads: "The banking business shall be strictly controlled, so that commercial and industrial activities may be properly adjusted."

The Provisional Regulations Governing Wartime Control of Banks were promulgated by the Ministry of Finance in August, 1940, and revised in December 1941. The present revised regulations when compared with their predecessors are far more strict in the stipulations. The Chinese banks have since been placed under a stricter government control than ever before.

For one thing, with the exception of hsien banks and banks established with overseas Chinese capital, the Ministry of Finance are not issuing any more permits for the establishment of new commercial banks.

The ruling that all commercial banks must place 20% of their ordinary deposits with one of the four government banks as security is being enforced. These funds, of course, will yield an equitable interest, the chief purpose being to establish closer supervision.

Furthermore, freedom formerly enjoyed by Chinese banks in making loans has likewise been restricted. Funds at the disposal of these banks are to be used only as investments in productive and reconstruction projects, and as a means of increasing the supply of commodities. Any practice inconsistent with the Government's wartime financial policy is banned.

Concerning mortgage loans, the Government has now laid down more strict conditions. Such loans are made only to merchants who are *bona fide* members of their own business guilds. The duration of such loans, which shall be issued only on industrial materials, are also rigidly stipulated. It is hoped that the closing of these loopholes will place banking facilities beyond the reach of hoarders and speculators.

In addition, a system of periodic examination of bank accounts and bank godowns has been instituted and in force. It was reported that some of Chungking's banking houses were ordered to suspend business because of illegitimate practices which had an ill effect on commodity prices. Banks in other cities are being similarly inspected.

SPECIALIZATION OF BANKING BUSINESS

Since its establishment in 1928, the Central Bank of China has amply demonstrated its value as an institution for developing the functions generally performed by central banks in other countries. It has rendered invaluable service to government finance; it has played a dominant part in currency and banking reform; and it has taken a distinct leadership among banks in promoting China's national economic reconstruction program. In the latter part of 1934, the capital of the bank was increased from \$20,000,000 to \$100,000,000, partly by making use of reserve and accrued profits, and partly out of funds subscribed by the Government.

The enforcement of new measures to vest the right of note issue with the Central Bank of China alone, effective from July 1, 1942, is an important step

422

BANKING AND CURRENCY

toward financial centralization and elevation of the position of the Central Bank of China.

Of the advantages of the centralization of note issue by the Central Bank of China, the following may be noted:

1. Readjustment and Control of Banking Credits: The Central Bank of China will be in a position to work out a thorough plan for the increase or decrease of bank notes for circulation and allotment, and for the regulation of the extension of credits on a rational basis so as to avoid any possible crisis.
2. Promotion of National Financial Policy: When the right of note issue is centralized in the Central Bank of China, it will be possible for the latter to control the activities of other banks. When their activities are in violation of the national financial policy in respect to national defense and the people's livelihood, the Central Bank of China can at once exercise its control by refusing to extend them credits and discounts.
3. Increase of Efficiency in Note Issue: When the right of note issue is centralized, the cost of printing the notes will be made more economical, custody of notes will be made easier, transportation and allotment of notes will be made more speedy and adequate, and the registration procedure will be much simplified.
4. Creation of Currency Elasticity: The centralization of note issue is a condition for the creation of currency elasticity so that in case of commercial prosperity, more bank notes may be put in

circulation, while in the event of business depression, more bank notes will be withdrawn, thus balancing the supply and demand of notes in circulation and stabilizing the value of currency and commodities.

5. Nationalization of Profit and Taxes from Note Issue: When the right of note issue is centralized, taxes and profit from note issue will be nationalized and used principally for public welfare.

At the meeting held on May 28, 1942, the board of directors of the Joint Administration Office of the four government banks adopted measures governing the division of the business of the four government banks. These measures provide *inter alia* as follows:

1. The principal business of the Central Bank of China shall be as follows:
 - (a) Centralization of note issue.
 - (b) Control of receipt and disbursement of foreign exchange.
 - (c) Sole agent of the National Treasury.
 - (d) Remittance of military and administrative funds.
 - (e) Readjustment of the money market.
2. The principal business of the Bank of China shall be as follows:
 - (a) Receipt and disbursement of government foreign funds on instruction of the Central Bank of China.
 - (b) Investment in and extension of loans to enterprises for the development of foreign trade.

- (c) Handling of foreign exchange for imports and from exports and remittance from overseas Chinese on instruction of the Central Bank of China.
 - (d) Handling of remittance of domestic and commercial funds.
 - (e) Handling of savings deposits and trust business.
3. The principal business of the Bank of Communications shall be as follows:
 - (a) Investment in and extension of loans to industrial, mining, communication and other productive enterprises.
 - (b) Handling of remittance of industrial and commercial funds.
 - (c) Acceptance of company bonds and capital stocks.
 - (d) Opening of warehouses.
 - (e) Handling of savings deposits and trust business.
 4. The principal business of the Farmers Bank of China shall be as follows:
 - (a) Investment in and extension of loans to agricultural enterprises.
 - (b) Handling of land finance.
 - (c) Extension of loans to co-operative enterprises.
 - (d) Opening of granaries and handling of trust business and agricultural insurance.
 - (e) Absorption of savings and other deposits.

The Central Bank of China, which did not perform many of the important functions devolving upon central banks in many foreign countries, has now taken up such activities under the new system. The progress achieved during

the past 17 years since its establishment in 1928 gives ground for confidence that it will perform these important functions well.

Similarly, specialization of business of all private banks is also suggested. It is proposed that the establishment of new private banks hereafter shall be restricted to those which will meet a special demand. The names of the banks themselves shall at once indicate their special business. In addition, these banks, together with their branches, sub-branches and offices, shall be more rationally located and distributed in the industrial and commercial centres of the country.

Under the specialization of banking business, the operation of the Chinese trust companies is likely to undergo a fundamental change. With the exception of a few, most Chinese banks have established trust departments, but few of them has performed the true functions of a trust. When trust business is properly developed, more idle capital would be absorbed and invested in the productive channel.

Insurance business shall also be promoted. Funds derived from insurance are of a longer term and are suitable for financing national economic projects of a longer duration. Under specialization, insurance business shall be a business for insurance companies.

The details of the specialization of banking business will perhaps be made definite when the revisions of the Banking Law and the laws governing the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers Bank of China are completed and promulgated.

CLEARING OPERATION

Article 28 of the Law Governing the Central Bank of China, promulgated

TABLE 28. CLEARING OPERATION UNDER THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA IN CHUNGKING, JUNE TO DECEMBER, 1942

Month	No. of Days in the Month	Total	No. of Bills		Daily Average
			H.	L.	
June	25	46,455	6,653	831	1,858
July	24	44,904	6,791	1,010	1,871
August	25	48,520	7,957	900	1,911
September	26	49,941	7,278	909	1,921
October	26	52,438	7,797	1,251	2,017
November	24	49,663	7,462	1,112	2,060
December	26	51,841	8,666	741	1,994
Month	No. of Days in the Month	Total	Amount of Clearings		Daily Average
			H.	L.	
June	25	2,812,815,390	255,488,957	52,265,235	112,512,616
July	24	3,373,953,921	441,588,806	58,950,906	140,581,413
August	25	4,525,013,454	530,573,694	75,141,139	181,000,538
September	26	5,134,023,300	505,673,054	105,042,725	197,462,435
October	26	5,921,477,073	669,656,634	122,884,252	227,749,118
November	24	2,240,211,925	624,300,950	139,509,202	218,342,126
December	26	5,827,820,142	963,631,206	91,800,927	224,146,920
Month	No. of Days in the Month	Total	Balance of Clearings		Daily Average
			H.	L.	
June	25	635,847,678	61,370,165	11,621,392	25,433,907
July	24	685,580,094	68,822,297	16,433,253	28,565,837
August	25	872,793,093	90,517,214	16,565,533	34,911,724
September	26	1,087,493,539	91,132,643	21,155,881	41,528,676
October	26	1,263,356,983	96,111,778	23,736,521	48,609,883
November	24	1,161,377,051	126,052,770	23,409,456	48,390,710
December	26	1,344,001,486	128,347,613	25,854,533	51,692,365

NOTE: Table compiled with the assistance of Mr. Tan Shou-ching of the Economic Research Department of the Central Bank of China.

TABLE 29. BANKS PARTICIPATING IN THE CLEARING OPERATION IN CHUNGKING UNDER THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Central Bank of China, Banking Department :
(a) National Treasury Department.
(b) Branch in the Model District (Chungking).
(c) Central Trust of China. | 35. Salt Industry Bank, Chungking Office. |
| 2. Bank of China, Chungking Branch. | 36. Ta Chuen Bank, Chungking Branch. |
| 3. Bank of Communications, Chungking Branch. | 37. Hsin Hwa Trust & Savings Bank, Chungking Branch. |
| 4. Farmers Bank of China, Chungking Branch :
(a) Branch Agency in Chung VI Road.
(b) Trust Department of the Farmers Bank of China. | 38. Kwangtung Provincial Bank. |
| 5. Postal Savings and Remittance Bank, Chungking Branch :
(a) Office in Shang Ching Shih
(b) Office in Tuan Pai Fang | 39. Reconstruction and Industrial Bank, Chungking Branch. |
| 6. China & Southseas Bank, Chungking Branch. | 40. Industrial & Mining Bank of China. |
| 7. Commercial Bank of China, Chungking Branch. | 41. Tai Feng Native Bank. |
| 8. Continental Bank, Chungking Branch. | 42. Yung Sen Native Bank. |
| 9. Chekiang Industrial Bank, Chungking Branch. | 43. Hwa Kang Native Bank. |
| 10. Chin Cheng Banking Corporation, Chungking Branch | 44. Yi Feng Native Bank. |
| 11. Ningpo Commercial and Savings Bank, Chungking Branch. | 45. Ho Chi Native Bank. |
| 12. Tung Hui Industrial Bank. | 46. Yung Mei Hou Native Bank. |
| 13. Young Brothers Banking Corporation. | 47. Chu Feng Native Bank. |
| 14. Ya Hsi Industrial Bank. | 48. Chen Yu Native Bank. |
| 15. Mei Feng Bank of Szechuen :
(a) Office in Hsin Sheng Road. | 49. Ho Cheng Native Bank. |
| 16. China Industrial Bank, Chungking Branch. | 50. Ho Hsing Native Bank. |
| 17. Shanghai Commercial and Savings Bank, Chungking Branch. | 51. Hsin Li Native Bank. |
| 18. China Reconstruction Bank. | 52. Yi Ming Native Bank. |
| 19. Szechuen Salt Industry Bank. | 53. Chu Kang Native Bank. |
| 20. Ho Cheng Bank. | 54. Chih Chen Native Bank. |
| 21. Chungking Bank. | 55. Chin Yu Native Bank. |
| 22. Szechuen Reconstruction Bank. | 56. Ho Tung Native Bank. |
| 23. Shansi Yu Hwa Bank, Chungking Branch. | 57. Yung Cheng Native Bank. |
| 24. Kiangsu Farmers Bank. | 58. Cheng Ta Native Bank. |
| 25. Szechuen-Sikang People's Savings Bank :
(a) Branch in Tu Yao Road. | 59. Fu Li Native Bank. |
| 26. Hupeh Provincial Bank. | 60. Tung Hsin Native Bank. |
| 27. Szechuen Provincial Bank. | 61. Kiang Ching Native Bank. |
| 28. Yunnan Hsin Wen Bank. | 62. Ta Hsia Native Bank. |
| 29. Hunan Provincial Bank. | 63. Yung Li Native Bank. |
| 30. Manufacturers Bank of China, Chungking Branch. | 64. Tung Feng Native Bank. |
| 31. Kiang Hai Bank, Chungking Branch. | 65. Fu Yu Native Bank. |
| 32. Kiangching Agricultural & Industrial Bank, Chungking Branch. | 66. Hsin Tung Native Bank. |
| 33. Yangtze Industrial Bank. | 67. Fu Hsing Native Bank. |
| 34. Kai Yuan Bank. | 68. Yu Lieh Native Bank. |
| | 69. An Kang Native Bank. |
| | 70. Wen Yi Native Bank. |
| | 71. Yi Heng Native Bank. |
| | 72. Ho Feng Native Bank. |
| | 73. Fo Yu Native Bank. |
| | 74. Hsin Yuan Native Bank. |
| | 75. Cheng Ta Yung Native Bank. |
| | 76. Cheng Ho Native Bank. |

- 77. Chien Tai Native Bank.
- 78. Tai Yu Native Bank.
- 79. Tung Sen Fu Native Bank.
- 80. Kwang Yu Native Bank.
- 81. Ta Tung Native Bank.

- 82. Fu Hwa Native Bank.
- 83. Jen Yu Native Bank.
- 84. Tsung Feng Native Bank.
- 85. Yung Ching Native Bank.
- 86. King Yuan Native Bank.

NOTE: Some of the banks are not included in the lists produced in the preceding sections. The reason is that these banks were registered with the Ministry of Finance after May, 1942, whereas the foregoing lists generally include only banks registered before that date.

by the National Government on May 23, 1935, provides that the Central Bank of China shall be authorized "to act as a clearing bank of other banks." In the middle of 1942, with the enforcement of new measures for the centralization of note issue by the Central Bank of China, the banking department of the bank was authorized to establish a clearing section which has since been in full operation. Apparently, this will lead to the establishment of a full-fledged clearing house in Chungking. At the end of the same year, a clearing section was also established in the Chengtu branch of the Central Bank of China.

Tables 28-29 show the present clearing operation under the direction of the Central Bank of China in Chungking and name the member banks participating in the operation.

DEVELOPMENT OF LAND FINANCE

The establishment of a land finance department in the Farmers Bank of China has enabled the Government and tenant farmers to buy land for various purposes. This department is generally considered as a prelude to the establishment of a national land credit bank. With \$10,000,000 as capital, it has been issuing land bonds with government land and mines as securities. These land bonds, just as valuable as government bank notes, are helping farmers to own and culti-

vate land, promoting the development of waste land, developing irrigation and rural cooperatives as well as facilitating land administration.

A land finance planning committee has been organized by the board of directors of the Farmers Bank of China to map out plans and practical measures concerning the strengthening of land finances. Members of the committee include the general and assistant managers of the Farmers Bank of China, the director of the land finance department, the director of the currency department of the Ministry of Finance, the director of the land administration department of the Ministry of Interior, the director of the land reclamation bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, and a number of experts on land administration.

EXTENSION OF FARM LOANS

Before the war, the Agricultural Credit Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs was mainly responsible for lubricating the wheel of finance in China's villages. Since the war, however, three government banks, namely, the Bank of China, Bank of Communications and Farmers Bank of China, also took part. The total amount of farm loans extended by these four institutions aggregated, however, to only \$47,000,000 in 1938, and \$112,000,000 in 1939.

When the Joint Administration Office was organized, it began to undertake farm loans operations as part of its principal activities towards rural rehabilitation. A rural finance department, a rural finance planning committee and a committee for the examination of the extension of farm loans were at once established to make thorough planning and to undertake more activities in the extension of farm loans and credits to farmers in the country. The department of rural credit extension of the Agricultural Credit Administration was transferred to the Farmers Bank of China in October, 1940.

The 1942 revised regulations governing the extension of farm loans by government banks may be summed up as follows:

1. The government banks and the Central Trust shall extend farm loans only under certain conditions and for the purpose of directly increasing agricultural production. The extension of farm loans shall be made on the most rational way. These institutions shall undertake the task in close cooperation with other agricultural administrative and technical organs.
2. The amount of farm loans already granted shall be adjusted in accordance with the nature of these loans.
3. More efforts shall be made to increase and to develop rural cooperative banks which were organized with loans from the Joint Administration Office in 1941. No more loans of this kind shall be extended in 1942.
4. The government banks and the Central Trust shall extend their

activities and shall send staffs and workers to the interior to open *direct* contact with rural communities to direct the organization of farmers and rural cooperatives.

5. The extension of farm loans shall be made more effective and timely. The following points shall be observed:
 - (a) The extension of farm loans shall be made principally for the increase of agricultural production.
 - (b) More farm loans shall be extended to poor farmers.
 - (c) Farm loans shall be extended in accordance with the agricultural seasons.
 - (d) Loan procedure shall be further simplified.
6. The amount of farm loans in the recovered areas shall be decided in accordance with local circumstances.
7. The renewal of farm irrigation loans for the promotion of irrigation work now under construction shall be decided in accordance with the location of the construction work, the time for the completion of the construction, and the economic value of the work.
8. Efforts shall be concentrated to the extension of four kinds of farm loans, namely, agricultural production loans, agricultural extension loans, loans for the promotion of agricultural by-products, and loans for the transportation and marketing of agricultural products.
9. Farm loans for poor farmers for the purchase of land or paying off mortgage on their farms shall

BANKING AND CURRENCY

hereafter be extended by the land finance department of the Farmers Bank of China.

10. The extension of farm loans in kind may be put in force in accordance with local circumstances.

Classification of Farm Loans.

Table 30--35 show the details of farm loans extended by the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Farmers Bank of China, the Central Trust and the Agricultural Credit Administration.

TABLE 30. EXTENSION OF FARM LOANS, 1937--1942

(In National Dollars; Unit: \$1,000)

Year and Month	Farmers Bank of China		Bank of China		Bank of Communications		Central Trust of China		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
1937	19,604	57.6	12,095	35.5	2,344	6.9	—	—	34,043	100
1938	47,922	77.0	12,665	20.4	1,610	2.6	—	—	62,206	100
1939	64,473	72.3	17,365	19.5	7,341	8.2	—	—	89,179	100
1940	96,741	55.7	51,350	29.6	14,383	8.3	10,976	6.4	173,550	100
1941:										
Jan.	96,216	51.9	62,756	33.9	15,117	8.2	11,181	6.0	185,270	100
Feb.	93,061	49.9	66,089	35.5	15,776	8.5	11,444	6.1	186,372	100
Mar.	98,454	46.9	82,636	39.4	16,857	8.0	12,004	5.7	209,951	100
April	110,787	44.6	103,513	41.7	20,732	8.3	13,434	5.4	248,466	100
May	127,865	43.2	126,418	42.7	27,117	9.2	14,917	5.0	296,317	100
June	153,213	45.8	134,884	40.3	29,665	8.8	16,721	5.1	334,383	100
July	157,660	45.2	141,230	40.5	32,047	9.4	17,443	5.0	348,380	100
Aug.	182,147	47.0	151,211	39.1	34,972	9.0	18,821	4.9	387,151	100
Sept.	197,472	47.7	164,264	39.6	31,988	7.7	20,471	4.0	414,195	100
Oct.	199,011	46.3	173,200	40.3	33,588	7.8	23,783	5.5	429,582	100
Nov.	205,418	45.6	182,622	40.5	36,422	8.1	25,713	5.7	450,715	100
Dec.	220,380	47.4	181,830	39.1	36,240	7.8	26,856	5.8	465,306	100
1942:										
Jan.	222,048	48.9	176,330	38.8	33,089	7.3	22,086	5.0	454,402	100
Feb.	219,410	47.3	189,013	40.8	31,026	6.8	23,614	5.1	463,063	100
Mar.	217,666	55.5	192,753	41.2	32,865	7.0	24,403	5.3	467,687	100
April	220,231	45.4	202,692	41.8	35,907	7.4	25,798	5.4	484,628	100
May	239,814	44.6	229,199	42.6	42,534	7.9	26,036	4.8	537,583	100
June	256,589	45.2	239,275	42.1	44,910	7.9	27,600	4.8	568,374	100
July	263,623	46.0	242,353	42.2	42,146	7.3	25,557	4.5	573,684	100
Aug.	283,816	48.5	230,584	39.4	44,639	7.6	26,949	4.4	586,038	100

NOTES: 1. The amount of \$45,639,000 transferred from the Agricultural Credit Administration to the Farmers Bank of China in March, 1941, was not included in this table.

2. Figures of the Bank of China for 1939 are up to the end of October.

3. Some figures in this table are smaller than those given in Tables 31-32. The reason is that while these figures represent the actual amount of loans made, the other figures represent the amount of loans approved by the authorities and are larger than the actual amount.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 31. EXTENSION OF FARM LOANS, 1940
(In National Dollars)

Province	Central Trust		Bank of China		Bank of Communications		Farmers Bank of China		Agricultural Credit Administration		Total		%
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	
Szechuen	5,110,000	...	20,893,000	...	6,811,700	...	31,484,000	...	16,377,676	...	80,746,385	...	38.54
Sikang	...	...	...	...	40,000	...	847,000	...	...	...	847,000	...	0.40
Kweichow	630,000	...	281,000	...	574,999	...	7,527,000	...	5,725,389	...	14,223,589	...	6.79
Kwangsi	131,000	...	3,280,000	...	30,000	...	2,680,000	...	5,912,798	...	12,578,797	...	6.00
Ninghsia	30,000	...	100,000	...	8,132	...	3,235,000	...	...	...	406,000	...	0.19
Kwangshai	...	...	4,032,000	...	1,322,600	...	4,804,000	...	578,881	...	7,874,033	...	3.76
Yunnan	...	...	7,880,000	...	1,922,600	...	8,608,000	...	4,199,742	...	18,306,342	...	8.74
Hunan	15,000	...	1,320,000	...	103,600	...	268,000	...	1,273,840	...	11,365,440	...	5.43
Hubei	...	...	218,000	...	118,444	...	2,196,000	...	...	...	804,444	...	0.29
Kiangsi	...	...	2,030,000	...	647,041	...	2,610,000	...	713,531	...	4,873,041	...	2.33
Kwangtung	...	...	1,252,000	...	...	...	8,803,000	...	1,774,690	...	4,575,531	...	2.18
Chekiang	...	...	650,000	...	1,924,093	...	8,271,000	...	...	...	13,151,783	...	6.28
Honan	...	...	1,440,000	...	83,545	...	2,501,000	...	...	...	9,711,545	...	4.64
Shensi	...	...	1,628,000	...	...	...	7,216,000	...	...	...	1,961,545	...	0.94
Kansu	...	...	1,223,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8,499,000	...	4.03
Kiangsu	...	...	1,414,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,414,000	...	0.63
Anhui	...	...	3,226,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57,000	...	1.34
Hopei	...	...	57,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,226,000	...	3.85
Suiyuan	...	...	196,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8,061,685	...	0.57
Shantung	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,192,000	...	0.10
Hupoh	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	202,000	...	0.32
Fukien	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	665,602	...	2.39
Shansi	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,000,000	...	...
Other Provinces	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Szechuen-Kweichow-Shensi-Hunan	5,000,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL	10,976,000	...	51,350,000	...	12,579,785	...	96,741,000	...	37,855,382	...	209,502,167	...	100.00
PER CENT	5.24	...	24.51	...	6.00	...	48.18	...	18.07	...	100.00	...	...

NOTE: Figures of the Agricultural Credit Administration represent loans outstanding at the end of October, 1940, after which date its Department of Rural Credit Extension was transferred to the Farmers Bank of China.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Shansi	War Areas	1,000,000
Ninghsia	Ordinary Areas	1,000,000
Hunan	Ordinary Areas	20,000,000
Hupei	Ordinary Areas	10,000,000
	War Areas	10,000,000
Honan	Ordinary Areas	10,000,000
	War Areas	5,000,000
Anhui	Ordinary Areas	5,000,000
	War Areas	7,000,000
	Irrigation Loans	1,000,000
Chekiang	Ordinary Areas	10,000,000
	War Areas	500,000
Fukien	Ordinary Areas	20,000,000
Kwangtung	Ordinary Areas	10,000,000
Kiangsu	War Areas	500,000
Kwangsi	War Areas	500,000
TOTAL		322,000,000

NOTE: Figures in this table are taken from loan agreements which are not all in conformity with the actual figures, while figures in Table 31 represent the approved amount of farm loans.

TABLE 35. CLASSIFICATION AND AMOUNT OF FARM LOANS, 1941

(In National Dollars: Unit: \$1,000)

Province	Agricultural Production Loans							
	War Area		Frontier Area		Ordinary Area		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Szechuen	—	—	—	—	138,976	100.0	138,976	88.1
Sikang	—	—	200	1.8	10,891	98.2	11,091	100.0
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	18,148	100.0	18,148	100.0
Yunnan	—	—	—	—	29,658	100.0	29,658	88.1
Kwangsi	15,000	30.5	—	—	34,191	69.5	49,191	96.8
Kwangtung	—	—	—	—	12,994	100.0	12,994	100.0
Hunan	100	0.2	—	—	55,300	99.8	55,300	99.3
Hupei	50	1.1	—	—	4,657	98.9	4,657	100.0
Kiangsi	1,500	8.0	—	—	17,230	92.0	18,730	94.2
Anhui	762	9.2	—	—	7,538	90.8	8,300	100.0
Kiangsu	396	100.0	—	—	—	—	396	100.0
Chekiang	—	—	—	—	26,769	100.0	26,769	95.4
Fukien	—	—	—	—	3,737	100.0	3,737	100.0
Honan	—	—	—	—	8,770	100.0	8,770	100.0
Shensi	—	—	600	2.0	30,889	98.0	31,489	86.3

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Kansu	—	—	2,238	5.5	38,510	94.5	40,757	92.0
Ninghsia	—	—	—	—	1,514	100.0	1,514	100.0
Sulyuan	1,103	100.0	—	—	—	—	1,103	100.0
Shansi	850	100.0	—	—	—	—	850	100.0
TOTAL	19,761		3,038		440,231		463,030	
WEIGHTED AVERAGE		4.2		0.7		95.0		92.9

Province	Farm Irrigation Loans		Agricultural Extension Loans		Land Reclamation Loans		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Szechuen	17,000	10.8	1,550	1.0	—	—	157,526	100
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,091	100
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	—	18,148	100
Yunnan	4,000	11.9	—	—	—	—	33,858	100
Kwangsi	1,000	2.0	600	1.2	—	—	50,791	100
Kwangtung	—	—	—	—	—	—	12,994	100
Hunan	—	—	—	—	400	0.7	56,300	100
Hupei	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,657	100
Kiangsi	45	0.2	520	2.6	600	3.0	19,895	100
Anhui	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,300	100
Kiangsu	—	—	—	—	—	—	396	100
Chekiang	—	—	1,292	4.6	—	—	26,061	100
Fukien	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,737	100
Honan	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,770	100
Shensi	5,000	13.7	—	—	—	—	36,489	100
Kansu	3,324	7.5	200	0.5	—	—	44,281	100
Ninghsia	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,514	100
Sulyuan	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,103	100
Shansi	—	—	—	—	—	—	830	100
TOTAL	30,369		4,162		1,000		498,561	
WEIGHTED AVERAGE		6.1		0.8		0.2		100

NOTES: 1. Agricultural production loans include loans for the promotion of agricultural production, production of agricultural by-products, supply and marketing loans, loans for the purchase or redemption of cultivated farms, and loans for the promotion of small-scale farm irrigation projects.

2. Agricultural extension loans include nine other loans, such as wheat loans, bone powder loans, fertilizer loans, cotton loans, livestock breeding loans, seed loans, etc.

Farm Irrigation Loans.—Farm irrigation loans extended by the Joint Administration Office, the Central Trust and the provincial governments of Szechuen, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Shensi and Kansu amounted to \$33,991,915 in 1941. Fifteen big irrigation projects and 1,786 smaller ones were completed in the year. No less than 390,090 *shih mow* of farm land were benefited. In 1942, this amount was further increased to \$97,376,302 for construction of 46 big irrigation projects and 212 smaller ones. More than 1,930,000 *shih mow* of farm land were benefited. Tables 36—39 show the details.

TABLE 32. EXTENSION OF FARM LOANS, 1941
(In National Dollars : Unit : \$1,000)

Province	Central Trust		Bank of China		Bank of Communications		Farmers Bank of China		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Szechuen ...	2,333	14.7	61,993	31.8	10,257	26.3	82,943	32.0	157,526	31.6
Sikang ...	30	0.2	50	—	30	0.1	10,981	4.2	11,091	2.2
Kweichow ...	—	—	1,800	1.0	3,935	13.9	12,413	4.8	18,148	3.6
Yunnan ...	690	4.3	13,749	7.0	701	2.5	18,518	7.1	33,658	6.8
Kwangsi ...	4,215	26.5	18,470	9.5	1,437	5.1	26,669	10.3	50,791	10.2
Kwangtung ...	1,725	10.9	8,440	4.3	135	0.5	2,694	1.0	12,994	2.6
Hunan ...	557	3.5	31,865	16.3	1,021	3.6	22,557	8.8	56,300	11.3
Hupeh ...	285	1.8	712	0.4	—	—	3,660	1.4	4,657	0.9
Kiangsi ...	361	2.3	5,875	3.0	483	1.7	13,176	5.1	19,895	4.0
Anhui ...	352	2.2	6,020	3.4	29	0.1	1,299	0.5	8,300	1.7
Kiangsu ...	—	—	—	—	30	0.1	366	0.1	366	0.1
Chekiang ...	1,580	9.9	13,350	6.8	42	0.2	13,089	5.1	28,061	5.6
Fukien ...	274	1.7	216	0.1	210	0.7	3,037	1.2	3,737	0.7
Honan ...	59	0.4	5,460	2.8	62	0.2	3,189	1.2	8,770	1.8
Shensi ...	870	5.5	10,578	5.4	3,255	11.5	21,786	8.4	36,489	7.3
Kansu ...	1,593	11.9	15,470	7.9	6,140	21.8	20,778	8.0	44,281	8.9
Ninghsia ...	292	1.8	170	0.1	146	0.5	906	0.4	1,514	0.3
Suiyuan ...	180	1.1	335	0.2	139	0.5	449	0.2	1,103	0.2
Shansi ...	290	1.3	—	—	200	0.7	450	0.2	850	0.2
TOTAL	15,896	100.00	195,153	100.00	28,252	100.00	252,260	100.00	498,561	100.00
PER CENT	3.2		39.1		5.7		52.0		100	

NOTE : Figures in this table and in Table 31 indicate the approved total of farm loans. Some portion of these loans were not utilized. Only \$205,810,000 out of \$299,503,167 were loaned out in 1940, and \$465,306,000 out of \$498,561,000 in 1941

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 33. EXTENSION OF FARM LOANS, 1937-1942
(In National Dollars : Unit : \$1,000)

(In National Dollars)

Province	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	
						July	August
Szechuen...	1,003	9,663	24,815	64,249	147,777	193,853	207,486
Kwangsi...	—	300	5,248	6,666	47,867	60,030	62,672
Kansu...	901	3,954	4,794	11,354	45,843	42,451	37,792
Hunan...	854	2,310	3,706	14,107	45,989	55,471	57,289
Yunnan...	—	—	496	7,295	20,145	37,635	33,636
Shensi...	5,530	8,822	8,448	11,434	24,139	41,281	44,301
Chekiang...	1,426	1,573	1,039	5,274	21,379	21,266	21,222
Kweichow...	349	4,646	6,413	8,498	20,751	18,640	17,432
Kiangsi...	2,965	4,062	5,337	10,106	20,175	25,268	24,659
Anhui...	4,015	5,429	8,251	8,439	14,404	18,935	15,451
Hupeh...	2,441	5,912	6,573	6,768	9,826	11,657	12,244
Kwangtung...	1,016	324	320	530	9,068	7,914	7,866
Sikang...	—	—	296	847	7,782	9,438	10,232
Honan...	3,370	3,388	2,906	3,862	7,456	10,794	12,560
Fukien...	1,904	1,352	1,969	1,192	3,492	6,315	6,523
Shantung...	3,227	3,226	3,226	3,226	3,226	3,226	3,289
Kiangsu...	1,915	5,064	1,930	1,958	2,079	2,102	2,564
Hopei...	1,414	1,414	1,812	1,414	1,414	1,414	1,845
Ninghsia...	—	—	—	406	1,048	2,932	2,911
Shansi...	2	2	2	202	1,002	1,001	1,001
Suiyuan...	7	7	7	57	780	1,347	1,349
Others...	804	758	691	5,666	664	664	664
TOTAL...	34,043	62,206	89,179	173,550	465,306	573,684	584,988

TABLE 34. CLASSIFICATION AND AMOUNT OF FARM LOANS, 1940
(In National Dollars)

Provinces	Farm Loans In				Amount of Loans
	Ordinary Areas	Ordinary Areas	Ordinary Areas	Ordinary Areas	
Szechuen	...	...	...	...	136,600,000
Sikang	...	...	...	...	6,000,000
Shensi	...	...	...	...	33,000,000
	Frontier Areas	...	...	...	4,000,000
Kansu	...	...	...	...	20,000,000
	Frontier Areas	...	...	...	2,000,000
Suiyuan	...	...	...	...	3,000,000
	War Areas	...	...	...	...

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 36. FARM IRRIGATION LOANS, 1941-1942
(In National Dollars: Unit: \$1,000)

Province		Irrigation Loans of 1941 Extended by		Approved Irrigation Loans of 1942							Total	
		Joint Office	Provincial Govern- ment	Balance of Unpaid Loans in 1941 Extended by		Loans for Unfinished Work in 1941 Extended by		Loans for New Irriga- tion Projects Extended by				
				Joint Office	Provincial Government	Joint Office	Provincial Government	Joint Office	Provincial Govern- ment			
Szechuen	...	...	17,000	1,000	18,000	—	2,400	9,000	—	600	12,600	
Sikang	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Kweichow	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Yunnan	...	...	4,000	500	4,500	6,000	2,000	—	4,000	1,000	8,000	
Kwangsi	...	...	1,000	—	1,000	7,000	2,000	—	—	—	9,000	
Kwangtung	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Hupeh	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	400	—	400	
Kiangsi	...	...	45	—	45	—	—	—	7,000	1,250	8,250	
Anhui	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,000	400	3,400	
Chekiang	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000	250	1,250	
Fukien	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,200	800	4,000	
Honan	...	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Shensi	...	...	5,000	500	5,500	—	—	—	4,000	800	4,800	
Kansu	...	...	3,323	1,623	4,946	676	—	7,200	4,800	1,200	15,000	
								800	220	4,780	25,676	
TOTAL	...	...	30,368	3,623	33,991	13,676	6,400	17,080	2,020	47,120	11,080	97,376

NOTE: The extension of farm irrigation loans.

NOTE: The extension of farm irrigation loans in the provinces of Sikang and Fukien was still under discussion when this table was compiled.

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 37. FARM IRRIGATION PROJECTS WITH LOANS FROM THE JOINT ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE AND THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1941

Province	No. of Irrigation System Constructed	Construction Cost (Estimate)	Amount of Loans Extended	Farm Benefited (in Shih Mow)	Cost of Construction (Average per Shih Mow)
Szechuen	1,046	\$7,854,107	\$7,517,217	232,046	\$32.40
Kweichow	4	122,049	425,583	11,900	35.76
Kwangsi	27	739,158	951,669	45,700	19.15
Kiangsi	123	816,300	353,525	88,864	3.98
Honan	1	45,842	97,910	8,580	11.41
TOTAL	1,801	\$9,578,356	\$9,345,904	391,090	
WEIGHTED AVERAGE					23.90

TABLE 38. FARM IRRIGATION PROJECTS WITH LOANS FROM THE JOINT ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE AND THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1941-1942

Province	No. of Irrigation System Constructed	Construction Cost (Estimate)	Amount of Loans Extended	Farm Benefited (in Shih Mow)	Cost of Construction (Average per Shih Mow)
Szechuen	7	\$21,029,000	\$9,812,326	206,000	\$102.08
Kweichow	6	5,477,227	397,667	102,880	53.24
Yunnan	5	11,910,000	5,049,880	92,760	121.37
Kwangsi	5	7,595,000	1,887,375	135,800	56.26
Kwangtung	1	855,360	—	15,000	57.02
Hupei	3	6,900,000	—	50,000	138.00
Kiangsi	1	1,200,000	—	44,000	27.27
Anhui	212	525,733	—	68,927	7.63
Honan	3	5,800,000	—	269,000	21.56
Shensi	5	20,924,486	7,239,876	570,376	52.46
Kansu	10	46,030,000	4,946,914	382,000	120.50
TOTAL	258	\$137,246,446	\$29,324,038	1,936,743	
WEIGHTED AVERAGE					70.86

TABLE 39. UTILIZATION OF FARM LOANS
(In National Dollars)

Province	Amount of Farm Loans	No. of Hsien Covered	Average Amount for Each Hsien	Farm Irrigation Loans and Projects			
				Construction Completed, 1941		Construction Completed, 1942	
				Amount of Loans	Farm Benefited	Amount of Loans	Farm Benefited
Szechuen	138,976,000	138	1,000,000	7,517,217	222,046	9,812,326	206,000
Sikang	10,891,000	28	390,000	—	—	—	—
Kweichow	18,148,000	82	220,000	425,383	11,900	387,667	102,880
Yunnan	29,658,000	30	980,000	—	—	5,049,880	92,760
Kwangsi	34,191,000	60	570,000	951,669	45,700	1,887,375	135,800
Kwangtung	12,994,000	7	1,850,000	—	—	—	—
Hunan	55,800,000	58	960,000	—	—	—	15,000
Hupeh	4,607,000	18	250,000	—	—	—	50,000
Kiangsi	17,230,000	38	290,000	333,525	88,864	—	44,000
Anhui	7,538,000	—	980,000	—	—	—	68,927
Kiangsu	396,000	34	780,000	—	—	—	—
Chekiang	26,769,000	34	100,000	—	—	—	—
Fukien	3,737,000	44	100,000	—	—	—	—
Honan	8,770,000	66	190,000	97,910	8,580	—	—
Shensi	30,889,000	—	460,000	—	—	—	—
Kansu	38,519,000	60	640,000	—	—	7,239,876	269,000
Ninghsia	1,514,000	—	—	—	—	—	570,376
Suiyuan	1,103,000	—	—	—	—	4,946,914	382,000
Shansi	850,000	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	440,231,000	712	9,345,904	391,090	29,324,038	1,936,743	

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Establishment of Rural Banks.— Besides the extension of various farm loans, the Joint Administration Office and the Central Trust are also pro-

moting and financing rural cooperative societies and banks, Table 40 shows the details.

TABLE 40. ESTABLISHMENT OF COOPERATIVE BANKS WITH LOANS FROM THE JOINT ADMINISTRATION OFFICE AND THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1941
(In National Dollars)

Province	No. of Cooperative Banks	Capital	Share of Office	Other Shares	Overdrafts Due to Joint Office	
					Agreed Amount	Drawn Amount
Szechuen	117	30,326,901	24,345,250	5,906,572	69,900,000	40,637,523
Kweichow	52	5,226,612	4,860,815	409,776	12,850,000	8,997,854
Kwangsi	43	4,323,270	4,155,644	211,824	15,370,000	11,809,914
Hunan	26	2,599,060	2,410,580	535,383	13,420,000	10,128,697
Kansu	19	2,050,000	1,663,518	243,032	6,000,000	2,781,098
Shensi	16	1,600,000	1,456,340	184,485	5,494,000	5,630,274
Sikang	10	1,000,000	690,850	9,150	4,300,000	3,052,000
Chekiang	15	4,278,650	1,775,393	2,550,187	10,800,000	1,741,840
Fukien	2	1,000,000	491,850	1,108,150	1,000,000	570,112
Kiangsi	2	5,000,000	1,850,000	2,499,575	7,400,000	3,687,075
Hupeh	6	600,000	556,760	56,299	2,600,000	1,117,799
Honan	2	—	—	—	2,000,000	—
Yunnan	7	700,000	391,970	317,110	6,190,000	5,233,134
TOTAL	317	59,304,403	44,648,970	13,731,543	157,324,000	95,387,320

NOTES: 1. Figures in this table are by no means complete. They are mostly brought up only to the end of November, 1941. No less than 20 cases of the actual overdrawn amounts had not been reported to the Joint Administration Office. This table is, therefore, reproduced for illustrative purpose only.

2. Among the 317 cooperative banks, four are provincial cooperative banks (Szechuen, Kiangsi, Chekiang and Fukien), one municipal cooperative bank (Chungking), and the rest are local cooperative banks.

3. "Share of Office" means shares of the Joint Administration Office (including the Central Trust).

To sum up, the increase in government financial assistance in the rural districts has resulted in considerably alleviating the pains of needy peasants from loan sharks. The many cooperative societies and banks established by local governments now handled 34% of the total credits extended to Chinese farmers in 15 provinces. This repre-

sented a 7% increase over 1940, and took the lead in financing China's rural communities in the year 1941. Loans from private sources, which in 1940 occupied the first place with 39% of the total, came second with a decrease of 12% from the 1940 percentage. Banks took the third place with 17%, and shops fourth with 11%, followed

y pawn shops and the money exchange shops.

As a result of these efforts, China has now more farm land under cultivation than before. By 1941, she had a total of 4,882,100 *shih mow* of farm land under cultivation as against a total of 1,397,646 *shih mow* in pre-war days. The many irrigation projects completed in Free China since the war began have brought water to 2,165,000 *shih mow* of otherwise arid land, and have made them productive. By 1942, another 1,936,743 *shih mow* were benefited, as the construction of more irrigation channels was completed

PROMOTION OF SAVINGS

By a decision of the board of directors of the Joint Administration Office, the four government banks, together with the Central Trust and the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank, were instructed to promote the various forms of savings as part of the government measures for the cultivation of the habit of thrift of the people, or the absorption of idle capital, for the adjustment and redemption of bank notes in circulation, for the prevention of the soaring of commodity prices, and for the development of productive enterprises. At a meeting of the board of directors held on July 10, 1940, an outline governing the promotion of the National Thrift and Reconstruction Savings by the government banks, the Central Trust and the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank was adopted which provided that these banks should devise means to absorb thrift and reconstruction savings amounting to \$200,000,000 for the second half year of 1940, \$150,000,000 of which by government banks and

the Central Trust, and \$50,000,000 by the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank. At the same meeting, the organization of the headquarters of the national committee for the promotion of the thrift and reconstruction savings under the board of directors was also authorized.

By the end of 1940, no less than 15 branch headquarters were established in important cities, such as Chungking, Chengtu, Kweilin, Kunming, Kweiyang, Sian, Hengyang, Shaokwan, Lanchow, Loyang, etc. More than 147 sub-branches were also established in other parts of the country. The National Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Promotion Campaign in Chungking has Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as its honorary president and Dr. H. H. Kung as its director-general. The amount of savings in 1940 totalled \$541,533,914. Table 41 shows the details.

In 1941, the amount of savings deposits was more than doubled. Table 42 shows the details.

In 1941, the National Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Promotion Campaign was most successful. The amount received reached \$725,420,000 or \$65,420,000 more than the original \$660,000,000-mark. Table 43 shows the details.

Chungking had the best record with an increase of \$70,000,000 over the original mark. Kwangtung with \$18,000,000 came the second, and Kwangsi with \$10,000,000, the third. The record of other provinces, such as Kiangsi, Kansu, Shensi, Hunan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Honan, Ninghsia, Hupeh, Anhwei, Shantung, etc., had also registered an increase of from \$8,000,000 to \$10,000. In spite of the most difficult conditions, Shanghai had

TABLE 41. AMOUNT OF SAVINGS DEPOSITS, 1940
(In National Dollars)

Name of Bank or Trust	Ordinary Savings	National Reconstruction Savings Accounts	National Thrift and Reconstruction Certificates	Total
Central Trust	35,085,354.04	530,538.23	31,337,523.48	67,553,416.68
Bank of China	157,951,754.45	3,004,337.11	25,657,670.81	187,413,762.37
Bank of Communications	93,340,000.00	329,000.00	15,102,000.00	108,870,000.00
Farmers Bank of China	11,881,541.33	1,801,561.01	20,227,668.14	33,910,767.48
Postal Remittance and Savings Bank	102,517,675.67	—	41,268,282.28	143,785,957.98
TOTAL	401,985,326.39	6,465,436.35	133,683,141.71	541,533,914.45

TABLE 42. AMOUNT OF SAVINGS DEPOSITS, 1941
(In National Dollars)

Name of Bank or Trust	Ordinary Savings	National Reconstruction Savings Accounts	National Thrift and Reconstruction Certificates	Total
Central Trust	58,397,000	1,221,000	77,031,000	135,631,000
Bank of China	182,070,000	26,081,000	144,822,000	352,982,000
Bank of Communications	84,921,000	479,000	84,663,000	170,063,000
Farmers Bank of China	27,330,000	1,138,000	79,947,000	108,413,000
Postal Remittance and Savings Bank	247,413,000	—	120,070,000	367,483,000
TOTAL	599,122,000	28,917,000	508,533,000	1,134,572,000

TABLE 43. NATIONAL THRIFT AND RECONSTRUCTION SAVINGS PROMOTION CAMPAIGN, 1941
(In National Dollars: Unit: \$1,000)

Unit	Objective of Campaign (1)	Result of Campaign (2)	(1) and (2) Compared (+) or (—)
Overseas Chinese	200,000	155,000	—45,000
Chungking	60,000	130,460	+70,460
Kwangtung	50,000	68,090	+18,090
Yunnan	50,000	52,000	+2,000
Szechuen	50,000	44,640	—5,350

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Kwangsi	25,000	35,000	+ 10,000
Fukien	45,000	33,950	- 11,050
Kansu	25,000	32,190	+ 7,190
Kiangsi	22,000	30,830	+ 8,830
Chekiang	30,000	29,130	- 870
Shensi	25,000	28,940	+ 3,940
Hunan	23,000	26,490	+ 3,490
Kweichow	15,000	18,300	+ 3,300
Honan	12,000	13,180	+ 1,180
Shanghai	11,000	11,000	-
Anhui	6,000	6,200	+ 200
Hupeh	5,000	5,500	+ 500
Ninghsia	12,000	1,000	- 1,100
Sikang	2,000	1,020	- 980
Suiyuan	600	500	- 100
Shansi	500	370	- 130
Chinghai	600	250	- 350
Shantung	100	220	+ 120
Mongolia-Tibet-Hopei-Kiangsu	200	210	+ 10
TOTAL	660,000	725,420	+ 65,420

also reached its mark. Owing to the outbreak of the Pacific war, the amount of savings from the overseas Chinese was \$45,000,000 short.

In the same year, the number of members of the National Thrift and

Reconstruction Savings Association who "agree to live up to their promise to save funds regularly" was also increased to 404,283, or 269,283 more than the original 135,000-mark. Table 44 shows the details.

TABLE 44. MEMBERSHIP CAMPAIGN OF THE NATIONAL THRIFT AND RECONSTRUCTION SAVINGS ASSOCIATION, 1941

Unit	Objective of Campaign (1)	Result of Campaign (2)	(1) and (2) Compared (+) or (-)
Chungking	5,000	116,754	+ 111,754
Szechuen	30,000	28,000	- 2,000
Kiangsi	10,000	77,400	+ 67,400
Kwangtung	15,000	75,000	+ 60,000
Hunan	15,000	50,124	+ 35,124
Kwangsi	10,000	20,569	+ 10,569
Fukien	15,000	12,000	- 3,000
Anhui	1,000	9,235	+ 8,235
Chekiang	6,000	8,000	+ 2,000

BANKING AND CURRENCY

Kansu	3,000	3,327	+ 327
Honan	5,000	1,700	- 3,300
Shensi	10,000	1,674	- 8,326
Yunnan	10,000	500	- 9,500
TOTAL	135,000	404,283	+ 269,283

Besides the various savings which, as stated above, amounted to \$541,533,914 in 1940 and \$1,134,572,000 in 1941, current and fixed savings accounts of the four government banks alone amount to another \$9,500,000,000 in 1941, which was \$2,200,000,000 more than \$7,300,000,000 in 1940.

In 1942, for the first five months, total savings amounted to \$1,542,-

755,114, representing an increase of \$340,000,000, or 29%, over the amount of the corresponding period in 1941. The Bank of China took the lead with a total of \$479,000,000, or 31.9% of the total, and the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank next with \$461,000,000, or 30% of the total. Tables 45-46 show the details.

TABLE 45. AMOUNT OF SAVING DEPOSITS, 1942

(In National Dollars)

Year and Month	Central Trust		Bank of Communications		Bank of China	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Dec. 1941 ...	194,071,118.47	16.3	170,637,000.00	14.3	352,982,000.00	29.5
Jan. 1942 ...	190,967,659.02	16.0	182,384,000.00	14.6	389,420,000.00	31.2
Feb. 1942 ...	205,127,165.17	16.0	182,279,000.00	14.1	391,161,000.00	30.3
Mar. 1942 ...	212,668,858.29	16.0	175,383,000.00	13.2	411,239,000.00	30.9
April 1942 ...	230,496,005.22	15.9	175,486,000.00	12.1	457,940,000.00	31.6
May 1942 ...	238,937,780.54	15.5	179,187,000.00	11.6	479,996,000.00	31.9
Year and Month	Farmers Bank of China		Postal Remittance and Savings Bank		Total Amount	
	Amount	%	Amount	%		
Dec. 1941 ...	108,413,115.00	9.1	367,482,875.19	30.8	1,194,586,108.66	
Jan. 1942 ...	108,372,974.00	8.6	369,636,237.16	29.6	1,249,730,870.18	
Feb. 1942 ...	120,092,604.00	9.4	391,940,726.99	30.4	1,289,600,496.16	
Mar. 1942 ...	121,265,479.00	9.1	407,238,763.18	30.7	1,327,775,100.47	
April 1942 ...	146,008,151.00	10.1	438,174,068.20	30.3	1,448,104,224.42	
May 1942 ...	167,097,953.00	10.8	461,764,771.55	30.0	1,542,755,114.06	

BANKING AND CURRENCY

TABLE 46. AMOUNT OF SAVINGS DEPOSITS, 1942

(In National Dollars : Unit : \$1,000)

Kind of Savings	1941	1942 (Up to May)	Increase or Decrease
Ordinary Savings	591,650	717,406	125,756
Thrift and Reconstruction Savings	24,917	32,244	7,326
Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Certificates	506,533	654,640	148,106
Gold Savings Certificates	-	16,072	16,072
Group Savings	411	428	17
Monthly Lottery Savings	28,440	41,730	13,350
Special Lottery Savings	30,000	45,000	15,000
Fixed Savings of Chinese Currency in Term of			
Foreign Currencies	5,926	6,141	1,215
Fixed Savings in Foreign Currencies	280	267	-13
Soldiers' Savings	7,061	-	-

In 1942, the National Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Promotion Campaign was not so successful. Owing to the outbreak of the Pacific

war, savings from the overseas Chinese amounted to only one-third of the estimate. Table 47 shows the details.

TABLE 47. NATIONAL THRIFT AND RECONSTRUCTION SAVINGS PROMOTION CAMPAIGN, 1942

(In National Dollars : Unit : \$1,000)

Unit	Objective of 1942 Campaign	Estimate for First Half Year	Actual Receipt up to June
Overseas Chinese	800,000	440,000	160,000
Chungking	440,000	278,000	276,519
Kwangtung	260,000	158,000	79,489
Yunnan	200,000	122,000	76,030
Szechuen	200,000	116,000	66,380
Kwangsi	120,000	70,000	69,000
Fukien	140,000	80,000	44,500
Kansu	120,000	72,000	45,000
Kiangsi	120,000	72,000	54,730
Chekiang	120,000	60,000	75,770
Shensi	120,000	60,000	47,920
Hunan	120,000	60,000	59,600
Kweichow	80,000	44,000	40,140
Honan	50,000	29,000	23,000
Shanghai	22,000	16,000	11,000

Anhui	32,000	17,600	10,000
Hubei	30,000	16,200	10,500
Ninghsia	9,000	4,800	1,900
Sikang	6,000	3,150	1,020
Sichuan	2,000	1,160	500
Szechuan	2,000	1,100	370
Shansi	5,000	2,300	250
Chinghai	800	470	220
Shantung	1,200	680	210
Mongolia-Tibet-Hopei-Kiangsi			
TOTAL	3,000,000	1,751,440	1,154,030

The institution of small amount savings is another important step in the promotion of savings among the people. In 1941, the Bank of China, Bank of Communications, Farmers Bank of China and the Central Trust established 197 offices to promote and handle small amount savings. Table 48 shows the distribution of the offices for handling small-amount savings deposits in the provinces.

TABLE 48. ESTABLISHMENT OF SMALL-AMOUNT SAVINGS OFFICES BY GOVERNMENT BANKS AND CENTRAL TRUST

Province	Central Trust	Bank of China	Bank of Communi- cations	Farmers Bank of China	Total
Szechuen	2	27	13	4	46
Yunnan	—	12	—	2	14
Kweichow	—	2	3	3	8
Kwangtung	—	—	11	6	17
Kwangsi	—	9	11	—	20
Fukien	—	4	2	1	7
Chekiang	3	10	10	6	23
Kiangsi	—	7	3	—	16
Hunan	—	9	14	2	25
Hubei	—	—	—	1	1
Shensi	—	3	4	1	8
Kansu	—	3	9	—	12
TOTAL	5	86	80	26	197

APPENDIX I

SUMMARY REGULATIONS GOVERNING NATIONAL FINANCIAL STABILITY

(Promulgated by the National Government on September 8, 1939)

A. Inspection and report on note reserve.

ARTICLE 1. In addition to gold, silver and foreign exchange, the following bills and securities shall be included as note reserves: (1) short-term commercial bills, (2) warehouse receipts and certificates, (3) corporate shares representing capital invested in productive enterprises, and (4) national government bonds. However, these securities shall not exceed 40% of the total amount of legal reserve against notes issued.

ARTICLE 2. The Currency Reserve Board shall invite representatives of chambers of commerce in principal provinces and municipalities to participate in the public inspection of note reserve and issue official reports on the total amount of notes in circulation as well as the actual conditions of cash and security reserves.

B. Standard of budget auditing.

ARTICLE 1. All unnecessary offices and superfluous expenses of government, military and party organizations shall be curtailed. The central offices

of these organizations shall take over the work of disbanded offices in order to cut down expenses and make necessary adjustments for increasing efficiency in administration.

ARTICLE 2. While the central offices of the various government, military and party organizations shall curtail unnecessary expenses as much as possible, the administrative expenses, such as salary and allowance of government employees, shall not be further reduced.

C. Absorption of idle capital and expansion of financial network.

ARTICLE 1. The Ministry of Finance shall urge all banking institutions to develop savings deposits business according to the law relating to savings banks, and invest their savings funds in various productive enterprises.

ARTICLE 2. All banking institutions shall be called upon to participate in the expansion of financial network in the northwestern and southwestern provinces by establishing a bank in each hsien with a view to improving local financial conditions and developing productive enterprises.

APPENDIX II

SUMMARY REGULATIONS GOVERNING WARTIME NATIONAL FINANCIAL STRUCTURE

(Promulgated by the National Government on September 8, 1939)

ARTICLE 1. The four government banks, namely, the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications, and Farmers Bank of China, shall be authorized to form a Joint Administration Office with a view to conducting all kinds of banking business relative to the wartime financial policy of the National Government. The said office shall be organized along the following lines:

(a) The Joint Administration Office shall have a board of directors to be composed of the governor and deputy governor of the Central Bank of China, the chairman of the board of directors and the general manager of the Bank of China, the chairman of the board of directors and the general manager of the Bank of Communications, the chairman of the board of directors and the general manager of the Farmers Bank of China and a special representative of the Ministry of Finance.

(b) The board of directors of the Joint Administration Office shall have one chairman and three executive directors to be officially appointed by the National Government. The chairman shall have general charge of all banking affairs,

while the executive directors shall assist the chairman in handling such affairs.

(c) The Joint Administration Office shall have one secretary-general to be appointed by the chairman.

(d) The Ministry of Finance shall authorize the Joint Administration Office to take the necessary steps on its behalf and on behalf of the four government banks to cope with financial conditions in war time.

(e) The organic law and other regulations of the Joint Administration Office shall be formulated by the board of directors and submitted to the Ministry of Finance for official approval.

ARTICLE 2. The four government banks shall continue to perform separately their respective functions and develop their banking business as specifically provided in their respective banking charters.

ARTICLE 3. In case any one of the four government banks has not yet moved its head office to the seat of the National Government, the board of directors of the Joint Administration Office shall be responsible for effecting such removal by fixing a date in the nearest future.

ARTICLE 4. The Joint Administration Office and the head offices of the

four government banks shall be required to submit to the Ministry of Finance for official examination a daily report on receipts and disbursements, amount of note issue and interest rate in the money market as well as a monthly statement of assets and liabilities as of the end of the previous month before the 10th day of each month.

ARTICLE 5. The Joint Administration Office and the head offices of the four government banks may from time to time submit to the Ministry of Finance confidential reports and proposals relating to important questions of wartime currency and finance.

As regards those measures already approved by the Ministry of finance for execution, the Joint Administration Office and the head offices of the four government banks shall immediately carry out such measures in strict accordance with the instructions of the Ministry of Finance without delay.

In doing so, they shall be required to appoint a special official to supervise the work at various sub-offices. Re-

ports on the work undertaken in different districts shall be prepared and submitted to the Ministry of Finance through the Joint Administration Office and the head offices of the four government banks.

ARTICLE 6. The board of directors of the Joint Administration Office shall have from 10 to 20 inspectors. They shall be sent to the head and branch offices of the four government banks to ascertain whether any banking office disobeys or delays the execution of the National Government's policies, and whether or not the banks conduct their affairs in full conformity with the wartime requirements. The inspectors shall submit to the Ministry of Finance from time to time confidential reports regarding the results of their inspection, so that reward may be granted to the deserving banks and proper penalties may be meted out to the delinquent institutions.

ARTICLE 7. The present summary regulations shall come into force upon the approval of the Supreme National Defense Council.

APPENDIX III

REVISED ORGANIC LAW OF THE JOINT ADMINISTRATION OFFICE OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

(Promulgated by the National Government on September 1, 1942)

ARTICLE 1. For the purpose of carrying out the wartime financial and economic policies of the National Government, the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications, and the Farmers Bank of China (to be hereinafter called the four banks) shall form a Joint Administration Office of four government banks (to be hereinafter called the Joint Administration Office) to be in charge of the supervision and direction of the business of the four banks concerned during the emergency period.

ARTICLE 2. The business of the Central Trust of China (to be hereinafter called the Central Trust) and the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank (to be hereinafter called the Postal Bank) shall also be under the supervision and direction of the Joint Administration Office.

ARTICLE 3. The functions of the Joint Administration Office shall be as follows:

1. Regarding the planning and distribution of the financial network throughout the country.
2. Regarding the training, examination and adjustment of personnel in the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust.
3. Regarding the approval of the expenses and the auditing of

budgetary estimate of the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust.

4. Regarding the adjustment of note issue and the approval of note reserves.
5. Regarding the direction and examination of the absorption of deposits and of the promotion of savings business handled by the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust.
6. Regarding the approval and investigation of the investment and the extension of loans by the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust.
7. Regarding the approval and investigation of the extension of farm loans by the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust.
8. Regarding the approval of remittances handled by the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust.
9. Regarding the enforcement of financial control measures as adopted by the Ministry of Finance.
10. Regarding the promotion of the wartime financial policy.

ARTICLE 4. The Joint Administration Office have a board of directors composed of the governor and the

deputy-governor of the Central Bank of China, the chairman and general manager of the Bank of China, the chairman and general manager of the Bank of Communications, the chairman and general manager of the Farmers Bank of China as well as the Ministers of Finance, Economic Affairs, Communications and Food.

ARTICLE 5. The board of directors of the Joint Administration Office shall have one chairman who shall have full charge of all affairs, and one vice-chairman who shall assist the chairman in the performance of his official duties. Both of them shall be appointed by the National Government.

ARTICLE 6. The chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors of the Joint Administration Office may be delegated with full authority by the Ministry of Finance to adjust the business of the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust; and in case of necessity, they may take discretionary steps and may perform other functions.

ARTICLE 7. The Joint Administration Office shall organize a wartime finance and economic committee to work out various plans. This committee shall be composed of a number of experts and high officials from the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust, appointed by the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors.

ARTICLE 8. The wartime finance and economic committee shall have the following sub-committees to study various related problems:

1. Note-issue sub-committee.
2. Savings deposits sub-committee.
3. Loans and discounts sub-committee.
4. Farm loans sub-committee.

5. Domestic and foreign exchange sub-committee.
6. Special sub-committee.

ARTICLE 9. The wartime finance and economic committee and sub-committees shall each have one chief-in-charge, one assistant chief-in-charge, and a number of members, to be appointed by the chairman and the vice-chairman of the board of directors. To the meeting of any of the sub-committees, the secretariat may invite those who are interested in the discussion to attend.

ARTICLE 10. The Joint Administration Office shall have a secretariat in charge of daily office work in accordance with the instructions of the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors. The secretariat shall have the following sections to be respectively in charge of their affairs:

1. Correspondence section.
2. Auditing section.
3. Statistics section.
4. Note-issue section.
5. Savings deposits section.
6. Loans and discounts section.
7. Farm loans section.
8. Domestic and foreign exchange section.

ARTICLE 11. The secretariat shall have a chief secretary and an assistant chief secretary to be appointed by the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors. The eight sections of the secretariat shall each have a section chief to be appointed by the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors upon the recommendation of the chief secretary.

ARTICLE 12. The secretariat shall have from two to four secretaries, and a number of experts, inspectors and auditors, to be appointed by the chairman and vice-chairman of the

board of directors upon the recommendation of the chief secretary.

ARTICLE 13. The eight sections of the secretariat may be divided into sub-sections, and may employ additional clerks and employees to be appointed by the chief secretary.

ARTICLE 14. In case of necessity, the secretariat may petition the chairman and vice-chairman of the board of directors to transfer some staff members from the four banks, the Postal Bank and the Central Trust. Their salaries shall be paid by the offices in which they have been on service.

ARTICLE 15. The Joint Adminis-

tration Office may establish its branch offices and sub-branch offices in various localities in accordance with local situations. Regulations governing the organization of these branch offices and sub-branch offices shall be formulated separately.

ARTICLE 16. In case any regulations now in force come into conflict with the present organic law of the Joint Administration Office, the latter shall prevail.

ARTICLE 17. The present organic law shall come into force upon the approval of the Ministry of Finance and the Supreme National Defense Council.

APPENDIX IV

REVISED LAWS OF THE FARMERS BANK OF CHINA

(Promulgated by the National Government on September 5, 1941)

ARTICLE 1. The Farmers Bank of China (to be hereinafter called the Bank) shall be organized in accordance with the organization of a corporation of limited liability with special approval from the National Government and for the purpose of extending loans to farmers for the revival of rural economy and for the improvement of agricultural production.

ARTICLE 2. The authorized capital of the Bank shall be \$20,000,000 national currency, divided into 200,000 shares of \$100 each, and to be paid in full at one time. With the exception of 125,000 shares undertaken by the Ministry of Finance, and other shares subscribed by the provincial and municipal governments, the remaining shares may be offered to the public for subscription.

When the authorized capital, as stated above, is fully paid up, and owing to the necessity of business operation an increase of capital is deemed necessary, the authorized capital may be increased upon the decision of the shareholders' meeting and with the approval of the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 3. The Bank shall have one general administration office. It may also establish branch banks and sub-branches and bank offices. It may enter into agreements with other banks, native banks and rural financial institutions to have them act as the agents of the Bank. But the estab-

lishment of branch banks and sub-branches and bank offices shall be approved by, and registered with, the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 4. The stock of the Bank shall all be registered stock inscribed with the names of the shareholders. The shareholders are limited to those of the Chinese citizenship.

ARTICLE 5. The Bank shall be allowed to conduct its banking activities within a period of 30 years beginning from the date on which this law shall become effective. At the end of the period, the Bank may apply to the Ministry of Finance for extension of the time limit upon the decision of the shareholders' meeting.

ARTICLE 6. The Bank shall have the following scope of activities:

1. To extend loans to the co-operative societies or joint co-operative societies organized by the farmers.
2. To extend loans to the enterprises for the development of agriculture.
3. To extend loans to the enterprises for the development of irrigation system and water works for the prevention of drought.
4. To conduct warehousing business, and to extend loans to the enterprises for the improvement of farm implements.
5. To extend loans secured on

movable and immovable properties and guaranteed credit loans.

6. To accept and discount commercial papers.
7. To receive various deposits and savings.
8. To act as agent for the collection and payment of funds.
9. To handle exchange and short-term accounts with other banks.
10. To buy and sell marketable securities.
11. To handle trust operation.
12. To conduct all other business within the scope of the activities of a farmers bank.

ARTICLE 7. The utilization of loans extended by the Bank shall be limited to the following ways:

1. To buy plowing cows, seeds, fertilizers, livestock and other agricultural raw materials.
2. To buy, or to conduct business in, machineries used in agriculture.
3. To take custody of, to transport and to manufacture, agricultural products.
4. To repair and construct agricultural stations and other buildings used in agricultural enterprises.
5. To undertake other activities closely related with the development of rural economy and the improvement of agriculture.

ARTICLE 8. The Bank shall be prohibited from extending any loan for a period of more than five years.

ARTICLE 9. The total amount of loans secured on immovable properties extended by the Bank shall not exceed the total of the combined paid-up capital and reserve fund of the Bank.

ARTICLE 10. The amount of agricultural loans extended by the Bank shall not be less than 60% of its total loans. Detailed items of these agricultural loans shall be adequately stated in the statement of assets and liabilities at the time of business settlement at the end of each fiscal year.

ARTICLE 11. The Bank shall establish a land finances department under general administration office to handle land finances. Its activities shall be determined separately by other regulations.

ARTICLE 12. The Bank may undertake note issue in accordance with the law.

ARTICLE 13. The Bank may, with special approval from the National Government, issue agricultural bonds. But the total amount of these agricultural bonds shall not be more than five times the paid-up capital of the Bank, and shall not be in excess of the total amount of loans extended by the Bank. The annual repayment of these agricultural bonds shall not be less than 60% of the redemption of the loans.

ARTICLE 14. The Bank shall be prohibited from conducting the following activities:

1. To buy shares of the Bank, or to grant loans with the Bank's shares as security.
2. To buy and sell immovable properties, except properties required for business operation.
3. To speculate on marketable securities.

ARTICLE 15. The Bank shall have a board of directors consisting of 15 members to be elected and appointed at the shareholders' meeting among the shareholders holding more than 100 shares. The members' term of

office shall be three years. One-third of the members shall be elected once a year. They are eligible for re-election and reappointment. But the term of office for members of the first board of directors shall be decided by drawing to be held at the first meeting of the board of directors.

ARTICLE 16. The Bank shall have seven managing directors to be elected among the members of the board of directors. These managing directors shall elect among themselves one managing director-general whose term of office shall be the same as that of the members of the board of directors.

ARTICLE 17. The Bank shall have five supervisors to be elected and appointed among the shareholders holding more than 100 shares at the shareholders' meeting. The members' term of office shall be one year. They are eligible for reelection and reappointment at the expiration of the term.

ARTICLE 18. The Bank shall have one general manager, and from one to three assistant general managers to be elected and appointed by the board of directors at the instance of the chairman of the board of directors. The appointment shall be submitted to the Ministry of Finance for approval and registration.

In case the general manager is, for some reason, unable to attend to his duties, the assistant managers shall act on his behalf.

ARTICLE 19. The shareholders' meeting of the Bank shall be of two kinds:

1. Annual shareholders' meeting.
2. Special shareholders' meeting.

ARTICLE 20. The annual shareholders' meeting shall be called by the board of directors, and shall be held once a year in the place where the

general administration office of the Bank is located.

ARTICLE 21. Whenever deemed necessary, the board of directors may call special shareholders' meeting.

ARTICLE 22. Whenever deemed necessary, and at the request of the majority of the members of the board of directors, of the supervisors, or of the shareholders holding more than one-twentieth of the total number of the shares, the board of directors may call a special shareholders' meeting.

ARTICLE 23. Shareholders intending to attend the shareholders' meeting shall register themselves 60 days before the holding of the meeting.

ARTICLE 24. Shareholders who are unable to attend the meeting may be represented by other shareholders.

ARTICLE 25. The Bank shall set aside 20% of its net profits as reserve fund, 45% as dividend, and the rest as special reserve fund and bonus fund for the employees of the Bank. But the amount assigned to the employees' bonus fund shall not exceed one-fourth of their total year salary.

The distribution of the net profits as stated above shall be approved by the shareholders' meeting, and shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance for registration.

ARTICLE 26. The reserve fund of the Bank as stated above may be used to make up the loss in its capital, and to maintain the usual rate of dividend.

ARTICLE 27. The Bank shall formulate detailed regulations in accordance with the present law, which, after being adopted by the shareholders' meeting, shall be submitted to the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry for approval.

ARTICLE 28. The present law shall come into force upon the date of its promulgation.

APPENDIX V

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE LAND FINANCE DEPARTMENT OF THE FARMERS BANK OF CHINA

(Promulgated by the National Government on September 5, 1941)

ARTICLE 1. The present regulations shall be formulated in accordance with Article 11 of the Law Governing the Farmers Bank of China (to be hereinafter called the Bank).

ARTICLE 2. The Land Finance Department of the Bank (to be hereinafter called the Department) shall handle land finance for the purpose of assisting the Government in the enforcement of the policy of equalization of land ownership.

ARTICLE 3. The activities of the Department shall be as follows:

1. To issue loans for the purchase of land in accordance with the value of land, including loans for the purchase of land in the districts where the land valuation tax is now in force, and where the local land office is to purchase land according to the reported land value.
2. To issue loans for the requisition of land, including loans for the requisition of private land by the State according to laws.
3. To issue loans for the re-demarcation of land, including loans to local land offices for re-demarcation purposes according to laws.
4. To issue loans for the improvement of land, including loans for the cultivation of uncultivated land by the Government, or for the development of farm irrigation system of longer duration, and loans for the reclamation of land by the reclaimers

or their agents according to laws.

5. To issue loans to farm owners, including loans where the Government intends to create by direct efforts more farm owners to purchase more land for cultivation, and loans to farmers to enable them to buy or redeem land for cultivation by themselves.

ARTICLE 4. The capital of the Department shall be \$10,000,000 national currency, to be paid in full from the stock subscribed by the Ministry of Finance. In case of necessity, the Department may petition the Ministry of Finance to make more appropriations to increase the capital.

ARTICLE 5. The accounting of the Department shall be made entirely independent.

ARTICLE 6. For the purpose of handling land finance, the Department may issue land bonds. The regulations governing land bonds shall be formulated separately.

ARTICLE 7. The Bank shall have a land finance committee under the board of directors of the Bank to discuss all matters relating to land finance.

ARTICLE 8. The Bank shall formulate separate regulations governing the routine work of the Department in accordance with the present regulations, and shall submit the same to the Ministry of Finance for approval.

ARTICLE 9. The present regulations shall come into force upon its promulgation.

APPENDIX VI

THE HSIEN BANK LAW

(Promulgated by the National Government on January 20, 1940)

ARTICLE 1. The hsien bank shall be established according to law by the hsien government with the public funds of the hsien and towns and voluntary contributions of the people. (This provision shall apply to municipal banks of ordinary municipalities and banks of other administrative districts.)

ARTICLE 2. The hsien bank shall be a business organization of limited liability. It shall be established by the petition of competent local authorities and upon the approval of the Ministry of Finance for registration. The purposes of the hsien bank shall be the regulation of local finance, participation in economic reconstruction and expansion of cooperative enterprises.

ARTICLE 3. (Omitted).

ARTICLE 4. The hsien bank may establish branch bank, sub-branches and bank offices within its business area. But such a step must be reported for record to the Ministry of Finance through the competent local authorities.

ARTICLE 5. The hsien bank shall be allowed to conduct its banking business within a period of 30 years. At the end of this period, the bank may apply for an extension of the time limit through the petition of the competent local authorities subject to the approval of the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 6. The hsien bank shall

have a total capital of not less than \$50,000 national currency. At least 50% of its capital shall be represented by private shares.

ARTICLE 7. The private shares of the hsien bank shall be solicited from persons living within the hsien. In case of inadequacy, persons living outside the area of banking operations may be approached as prospective shareholders.

ARTICLE 8. All legal persons and cooperative societies located within the area of banking operations shall be eligible as private shareholders of the hsien bank.

ARTICLE 9. The hsien bank shall be allowed to open for business when more than 50% of its capital has been collected and when through the petition of the hsien chamber of commerce, the Ministry of Finance has approved its registration and issued a business licence.

The unpaid portion of bank capital mentioned above shall be fully paid within five years from the date of registration. The payment of such capital shall be reported to the Ministry of Finance for record keeping.

ARTICLE 10. The hsien bank shall have the following scope of activities:

1. To receive deposits.
2. To extend loans against guaranteed securities.
3. To extend guaranteed credit loans.

4. To handle domestic exchange and documentary remittance.
5. To accept and discount commercial papers.
6. To act as agent for the collection and payment of funds.
7. To underwrite government bonds, corporate bonds and agricultural bonds.
8. To conduct warehousing business.
9. To keep custody of precious articles and marketable securities.

ARTICLE 11. The hsien bank shall confine its loan operations to the following categories:

1. Loans on local granaries and communications enterprises.
2. Loans on agricultural and mining products.
3. Loans on pawned articles.
4. Loans on sanitary equipment enterprises.
5. Loans on other local constructive projects.

ARTICLE 12. The hsien bank shall act as agent for public treasuries under the jurisdiction of the hsien government.

ARTICLE 13. The hsien bank shall be prohibited from extending any loan for a period of more than two years.

ARTICLE 14. The hsien bank may act as agent for provincial, municipal and other banks.

ARTICLE 15. The hsien bank may borrow funds from the provincial, municipal and other banks without security and repay the loan on an instalment basis.

ARTICLE 16. Whenever deemed necessary, the Ministry of Finance or the local authorities may restrict the loan extension and other activities of the hsien bank.

ARTICLE 17. The hsien bank shall be prohibited from conducting the following activities:

1. To purchase shares of the bank or grant loans with the bank's shares as security.
2. To buy and sell real estate, except properties required for business operations.
3. To buy and sell marketable securities.

ARTICLE 18. The directors and supervisors representing government shares shall be appointed by the hsien government; while the directors and supervisors representing private shares shall be elected at the shareholders' meeting according to law.

A list of the names and birth places of these directors and supervisors shall be reported for record keeping to the Ministry of Finance through local authorities.

ARTICLE 19. The fiscal year of the hsien bank shall be the same as the calendar year. The bank shall make a semi-annual settlement at the end of June of each year.

ARTICLE 20. At the end of the fiscal year the following documentary reports shall be compiled by the board of directors and inspected by the supervisors of the bank:

1. A report on the business conditions of the bank.
2. A statement of bank assets and liabilities.
3. A full list of bank assets.
4. A statement of bank profits and losses.
5. Proposals on the distribution of surplus, dividend, bonus, etc.

The above reports shall be submitted to the Ministry of Finance for examination and approval through

mortgaged commodities. The renewal of other mortgage loans on non-daily necessities shall also be limited to one time only.

ARTICLE 6. The duration of mortgage loans and the limitations of the renewal of these loans, as stated in the preceding Article, shall not be applicable to the loans mortgaged on raw materials for industry and mining, which have been verified by the Ministry of Economic Affairs as essential materials for production.

ARTICLE 7. The banks shall be prohibited from participation in any business undertaking or hoarding any kind of commodities. They shall also be prohibited from buying and selling commodities either on their own account or on behalf of their clients through the instrumentality of their "agency departments," "trading departments," "trust departments," or any such offices.

ARTICLE 8. In accepting funds for outport remittance, the banks shall confine this type of banking activities to funds definitely used for the purchase of important daily necessities, necessities for the war of resistance, and machineries and raw materials required in the productive and re-constructive enterprises.

ARTICLE 9. The banks shall be prohibited from purchasing and selling foreign exchange unless with special permission from the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 10. The banks shall submit to the Ministry of Finance for inspection a 10-day report in tabular form on the actual conditions of their deposits, loans and remittances. The official form of these report tables shall be decided separately by the Ministry of Finance.

ARTICLE 11. The Ministry of Finance shall appoint inspectors to examine the daily accounts, vault conditions and other related documents of the banks at any time without notice.

ARTICLE 12. The employees of the banks, whether government operated or jointly managed by the Government and private persons, shall be regarded as government employees and shall be prohibited from direct participation in any business undertaking.

ARTICLE 13. Any employee of the banks utilizing funds of the banks in any business undertaking shall be prosecuted as an embezzlement case.

ARTICLE 14. Any violation of the provisions of the present regulations shall, except otherwise stipulated in other laws and regulations, be punished as follows:

1. For any violation of Item 1 of Article 2, the manager of the bank shall be subjected to a fine of not more than \$10,000, besides the closing of the bank by force.
2. For any violation of Item 2 of Article 2, the bank shall be subjected to a fine of not more than \$10,000, besides the closing of the branch office or agency by force.
3. For any violation of Item 3 of Article 2, the bank shall be subjected to the penalty of the cessation of business.
4. For any violation of Articles 3 and 10, the violator shall be subjected to a fine of not more than \$10,000.
5. For any violation of Articles 5, 7, 8 and 9, the violator shall be subjected to a fine equivalent

to 50% of the total amount of business transactions.

For the violation of these Articles twice, accumulatively, the violator shall be subjected to the penalty of the cessation of business.

6. For refusal or obstruction in the performance of duties under Article 11, the violator shall be

subject to not only the penalty for obstructing the performance of official duties in accordance with the criminal law, but also liable to punishment for specific charges under the present regulations.

ARTICLE 15. The present regulations shall come into force from the date of their promulgation.

local authorities. The balance sheet and the profit and loss statement shall be published in the local newspapers.

ARTICLE 21. At the time of business settlement, the bank shall allocate at least 20% of its net profits toward the surplus account. But when the surplus has accumulated to twice the amount of the total capital, the rate of annual allotment may be reduced to 10% of its net profits.

The bank shall use the surplus to make up any loss in its capital and maintain the usual rate of dividend.

ARTICLE 22. In addition to the accumulation of surplus, the hsien bank shall declare an annual dividend. Such a dividend shall be paid to the private shareholders before the government shareholders are entitled to receive any dividend. The rate of dividend shall be specifically mentioned in the regulations of the bank; and

the dividend rate on private shares shall be from one to two per cent more than that on government shares.

ARTICLE 23. When a hsien bank violates the provisions of Article 2, the Ministry of Finance may order the bank concerned to suspend its operations and ask the court to impose thereon a fine of from \$500 to \$2,000.

ARTICLE 24. When a hsien bank violates the provisions of Articles 4, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, and 22, the directors and manager of the bank concerned shall be subjected to a fine of from \$10 to \$1,000.

ARTICLE 25. The Banking Law and other specific bank laws and regulations shall apply in matters not covered by the present law.

ARTICLE 26. The present law shall come into force from the date of its promulgation.

APPENDIX VII

REVISED PROVISIONAL REGULATIONS GOVERNING WARTIME CONTROL OF BANKS

(Promulgated by the Ministry of Finance on December 9, 1941)

ARTICLE 1. All banks, besides acting according to the present Banking Law and other regulations governing banking activities, shall carry on their business in accordance with the present regulations.

All financial institutions, operating under other names than "banks" and engaged in any of these functions, such as receiving deposits, granting loans or mortgage loans, discounting papers, and conducting exchange operations, shall be regarded as "banks" under the present regulations.

ARTICLE 2. (1) Beginning from the enforcement of the present regulations, with the exception of hsien banks and banks established with the capital of the overseas Chinese which has been remitted to the interior of China, no new bank shall be established.

(2) The opening of branch offices and agencies of the banks shall first be approved by the Ministry of Finance.

(3) Banks opened prior to the enforcement of the present regulations but remained unregistered shall apply to the Ministry of Finance for registration within one month beginning from the date of the promulgation and receipt of the present regulations.

ARTICLE 3. Every bank handling savings deposits, beside having to act in accordance with the Savings Bank Law, shall be required to forward and deposit 20% of its

total deposits as deposit reserve fund with any of the four government banks, namely, the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications and Farmers Bank of China, within the same locality. The latter shall give a reasonable rate of interest on such deposit reserve fund to the depositing banks.

ARTICLE 4. The banks shall utilize their capital and funds along the following general principles: investment in productive and reconstructive enterprises, documentary bills secured on native goods, increase in the supply of commodities, and execution of the Government's wartime currency policy.

ARTICLE 5. In granting loans on mortgage of commodities, the banks shall confine such loans to legitimate business and approved businessmen who are members of their own business guilds. The duration of mortgage loans shall not be more than three months. The amount of each mortgage loan shall not be in excess of 5% of the total amount of loans granted by each bank.

Upon the application for renewal of mortgage loans, the banks shall carefully scrutinize the nature of commodities involved. If the mortgaged goods are articles of daily necessities essential to the people's livelihood, the banks shall refuse the renewal of such loans, and shall insist the mortgagors to repay the loans and to sell their

FOREIGN TRADE

TSOU LIN¹ (邵 琳)

INTRODUCTION

SINCE the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war rapid and drastic changes have taken place in the whole structure of China's national economy. On account of the enemy's blockade of the coastal ports, the loss of the resources and trade in the occupied areas, the constant change of trade channels consequent upon the development of military operations, and the lack of transportation facilities to allow free movement of goods between the interior provinces and the shipping ports, the effect of war upon the nation's foreign trade has been particularly serious. For the purpose of surmounting wartime obstacles so as to maintain her trade relations with the friendly nations, China has adopted such policies as the institution of the system of foreign trade administration, the introduction of trade and exchange control, the adoption of national monopoly of the purchase and sale of leading exports, and the promotion of the import and export trade in general. During the past five years, these efforts have proved successful to a large extent and have thus laid a foundation for China's foreign trade in the future.

It is generally known that the highest principle of our wartime national policy is to carry on the war of resistance on the one hand and to engage in the gigantic task of economic reconstruction on the other. In pursuance of

this principle, the Government has, aside from adopting measures for trade and exchange control, taken steps to regulate industrial activities, to improve highway and aerial transportation, etc. in order to make possible the most effective use of the economic weapon for the prosecution of war. With regard to export promotion, it renders assistance to both public and private trading concerns by abolishing or reducing taxes, facilitating freight transportation, and guaranteeing their legitimate profit. For certain agricultural and mineral products designated for the purpose of barter, the Government further engages itself in their collection and marketing. Regarding the regulation of import trade, essentials of war and daily necessities are encouraged by reducing their customs duties; semi-essentials are permitted to enter subject to license; but the import of luxuries and non-essentials are either conditionally restricted or absolutely prohibited. In general, our wartime trade policy is to emphasize the promotion of export trade so as to secure for the country materials and equipments necessary for both war prosecution and economic reconstruction.

It is true that the war in the Pacific, which caused the closing of the Kunming-Hanoi railway and the Burma route, has had serious bearings upon the foreign trade of this country.

However, our wartime trade policy remains unaltered. The Government continues to encourage imports in order to make up our own deficiencies and to promote exports so as to meet the demand of our Allies. During the period subsequent to the Japanese occupation of Indo-China and Burma and other places in the southern Pacific, essentials of war as well as daily necessities are uninterruptedly brought in by means of aerial and overland transportation and the agricultural and mineral products of this country are shipped abroad by the same trucks and planes in their return trip.

ORGANIZATION

The history of China's trade administration is rather short and one has only to trace it up to the early years of the founding of the National Government in Nanking. It was in those years that China successfully revised her trade treaties with foreign countries and that tariff autonomy was eventually achieved. In view of the growing activities in foreign trade, the Government created in and after 1928 under the erstwhile Ministry of Industry the Department of Commerce, the Bureau of Foreign Trade, the Bureau of Trade Marks, the Bureau of Examination and Inspection of Commercial Commodities, and the Bureau of Weights and Measures to take charge collectively of the internal and external trade of this country.

Wartime Trade Administration: *Foreign Trade Commission.*—After the commencement of the war in July 1937, the Government was forced to take steps to bring the administration of both domestic and foreign trade on a war footing. To the growing list of

wartime organizations was added in October of that year the Trade Adjustment Commission, being at that time under the direction of the National Military Council. The prime duties assigned to it were to assist private exporters to finance, transport and market native products and to aid the distribution of Chinese manufactured goods for domestic consumption. In view of the fact that trade was closely related to matters concerning customs duties, foreign exchange, and the implementation of loan agreements, the commission was transferred in February 1938 to the Ministry of Finance under the present name "Foreign Trade Commission." The principle functions of this newly transferred commission were: (1) to regulate and control foreign exchange and the import and export trade, (2) to supervise the trading operations under government monopoly, (3) to give assistance to private exporters in the shipment of exports, (4) to take charge of government purchase of supplies and equipments and the implementation of barter agreements, (5) to regulate matters related to the supply and demand of various kinds of resources, and (6) to engage in the collection, transportation and marketing of leading exports. But in June 1940 when the commission was ordered to make demarcation between administrative functions and purely trading operations, the last-mentioned function was delegated to its affiliated trading companies. They are the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, the Fu Hua Trading Company, and the China National Tea Corporation.

The commission is composed of a certain number of commissioners, appointed by the Ministry of Finance. Nine of them form the standing com-

¹ Chairman, Foreign Trade Commission.

mittee which has a chairman and from three to five vice-chairmen. Under the chairman, there are the five departments of import trade, export trade, finance, research and general affairs, in addition to the secretaries' and inspectors' offices. Besides, there are under this commission a promotion commission for the production and marketing of agricultural exports and the three research institutes of tea, silk, and wood oil.

For purpose of regulating trade in different places and of collecting information of local market conditions, the commission has maintained branch offices in a number of provinces. At present, branch offices are functioning in the Chekiang, Anhwei, Shensi-Honan, Kansu-Ninghsia-Chinghai, and Hunan-Kwangsi provinces. The commission also established a resident commissioner's office in each of the following provinces, namely, Kiangsi, Kweichow and Fukien, which are considered as less important from the standpoint of foreign trade. With the development of transportation in the Southwest, Kunming became a transshipment centre. Therefore, the Yunnan Office was different not only in structure, but also in status in comparison with other branch offices.

Trading Companies.—In 1940, the commission was ordered to delegate all the business operations, including the collection, transportation, and marketing of commodities, to its affiliated trading companies. Thus, the commission itself was converted into a purely administrative organ. In January, 1942, the Fu Hua Trading Company was merged with the Foo Shing Trading Corporation under the name of the latter with a view to concentrating their personnel and to

securing maximum efficiency. The following is a brief sketch of the organization and the function of these trading companies.

1. *The China National Tea Corporation.*—This corporation was formerly under the direction of the erstwhile Ministry of Industry and was financed partly by the Government and partly by private merchants. In 1940 the Ministry of Finance bought it over and made it a government concern under the direction of the Foreign Trade Commission. At first, the capital of the corporation was \$10,000,000, invested by the national treasury, but was later increased to \$30,000,000. The primary functions of the corporation are to own, to manage, and to assist private owners to manage tea estates and factories; to promote tea plantation and production; to purchase, transport, and export tea; and to extend loans to tea planters. The corporation has a general manager who exercises full control over its activities and is assisted by three assistant managers. Under the general manager are the technical department, the departments of general affairs, business, and finance, and also an inspector's office. The head office is located at Chungking with branch offices in Chekiang, Fukien, Hunan, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow and Yunnan.

2. *The Fu Hua Trading Company.* This company was at first set up for handling the government's trade business in Hongkong and Shanghai. Its activities were those in connection with the promotion of freight transportation along the Yangtze and along the Hankow-Canton Railway. Its head office was at Hankow with branches at Shanghai, Chungking, Changsha, Canton, Lanchow, and

Hongkong. In May 1940, it was formally organized as another affiliated trading organization of the Foreign Trade Commission. It took charge of the purchase and marketing of all the leading agricultural products except tea and wood oil. Besides, it also acted as an purchasing agency for the Government. In 1940 and 1941, it had contributed much towards the purchase and collection of silk cocoons, eggs and egg products from the war zones in Kiangsi, Chekiang, Anhwei and Kwangtung provinces. Since February 1942, it has been incorporated with the Foo Shing Trading Corporation.

3. *The Foo Shing Trading Corporation.*—This corporation, with a capital of \$10,000,000, was organized after the conclusion of the Wood Oil Loan in 1938 with the United States. Its main function was to purchase and deliver the stipulated amount of wood oil each year in fulfillment of the loan agreement. After the amalgamation with the Fu Hua Trading Company, the corporation's capital has been increased to \$100,000,000. The important duties imposed upon it are to handle specific government purchases and to collect and export all leading agricultural exports under government control with the single exception of tea. They include wood oil, hog bristles, wool, silk, sheep skins, etc. This corporation has a general manager, an assistant manager and the four departments of general affairs, trading, finance, and storage and transportation. Its head office is located at Chungking with branch offices in the Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Hunan, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei-Kiangsu, and Shensi-Honan provinces. In consequence of the outbreak of the war in the Pacific, its Hongkong and Rangoon

offices were closed. Meanwhile with the development of the Sino-Soviet barter trade as well as the diversion of a part of the trade from the Southwest to the Northwest, the Lanchow office has become exceptionally important.

Promotion Commission for the Production and Marketing of Agricultural Exports.—Under barter arrangements with the United Kingdom, the United States, and the U.S.S.R., China is enabled to contract loans for the purchase of foreign supplies on the one hand and is obliged to deliver mineral and agricultural products for the liquidation of these loans on the other. The amount of native products to be delivered each year must, therefore, be comparable to the supplies received. In view of the growing demand of foreign supplies by this country as well as the urgent need of certain native products on the part of our Allies, it was anticipated that the volume of barter trade with our Allies would be substantially expanded. Thereupon, with the approval of the Ministry of Finance, the Foreign Trade Commission invited, in March 1940, experts from all over the country to form a planning committee to investigate and to make schedules for the promotion of the production and marketing of various leading agricultural exports, including raw silk, tea, cotton, wood oil, wool, animal products, eggs and egg products, hemp and ramie, sesame seeds, stich work and embroideries, etc. After several months of laborious work, the committee mapped out successfully a number of promotion programmes and working projects which were immediately approved by the Government. In August 1940, the committee

was made a permanent organization under the name "Promotion Commission for the Production and Marketing of Agricultural Exports." It is composed of 13 commissioners with a chairman, two vice-chairmen, and a small group of staff members to help them to discharge the regular office work. Its main function is to co-operate with the agricultural institutions of various provinces to carry out the promotion programmes by extending to them financial and technical assistance, assigning to them specific missions, auditing their accounts, examining their reports, and sending inspectors to visit different project centres. Since September, 1941, it set up, by order of the Ministry of Finance, three research institutes, i.e., those of tea, silk, and wood oil, to conduct research and experimental studies of these three commodities.

The Wood Oil Research Institute is located at Chungking and is divided into the following sections: biology, chemistry, mechanical, extension and general affairs. The main research projects include the selection and improvement of better tung seeds, the prevention of insect diseases, and the experimental studies of oil pressing. The Silk Research Institute is located at Nanchung, Szechuen, and is divided into the planning, sericulture, breeding, economic survey and general affairs sections. Its main function is to conduct research on the economic aspect of the raising of silkworms and the manufacture of silk. The Tea Research Institute is located at Chung-an, Fukien. Its activities are confined to the investigation and improvement of the method of producing and manufacturing better tea. In wood oil, silk, and tea producing districts, the three institutes either established

working stations under their direct supervision and control or cooperated with local institutions, public or private, agricultural or scientific, in putting into effect the various experimental projects.

CONTROL OF EXPORT TRADE

Government control of foreign trade is today found in practically all nations of the world. Whether it be a state monopoly of buying and selling or an executive control with freedom of individuals to carry on trade within the framework of government policies and regulations, it has been proved of service either to the protection of domestic industries, or to the safeguarding of the monetary system, or to the effective carrying out of an economic plan. When the nations are at war, the control is automatically tightened. Our war of resistance broke out first along the sea coast. Its effect upon the import and export trade was immediate and direct. As a consequence, the Chinese Government, in common with the wartime government of many other belligerent countries, was forced to take immediate steps to bring trade and exchange under effective control.

Government Monopoly of Leading Exports.

—When the loan and barter agreements were concluded with the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R., the Government found it necessary to extend monopoly over the collection and export of several leading exportable products including wood oil, tea, bristles, and a few minerals. The purpose is simply to centralize purchase and to insure prompt delivery in order to fulfill our contractual obligation and to meet the

urgent need of our Allies. Thence, individuals and private firms are forbidden to engage in the export of these specified products.

1. *Tea*.—Tea is the first commodity brought under government monopoly. By the regulations governing the control of tea export, promulgated in June 1938, all export business and marketing of this product came under the control of the Foreign Trade Commission. Thereafter, this commission has made purchases of tea for the Government, helped facilitate the shipment of old tea stocks held up by wartime exigencies, advanced funds to tea planters in order to stimulate tea production, and endeavoured to promote the sale of Chinese tea in the world market.

Since the outbreak of the war in Europe in 1939, tea market in the southern Pacific area became exceedingly active. With a view to meeting the heavy demand of the Chinese residents there, the Ministry of Finance promulgated in November, 1940, a set of rules, permitting private merchants to carry on export trade of tea to places like Indo-China, Burma, Thailand, the Philippine Islands, Malaya, Singapore, Hongkong and other Southsea Islands. However, exporters were required to sell the foreign exchange realized therefrom to the Government.

In June of the same year, another set of regulations was promulgated governing the control of tea for domestic consumption. The regulations permitted private merchants to make shipment of 16 varieties of tea within the country provided the shipment was accompanied by a special permit to be applied for at any local office of the China National Tea Corporation. But after the outbreak of the war in

the Pacific, this requirement was cancelled in order to help promote domestic distribution. Furthermore, for tea destined to the occupied areas like Shanghai and Tientsin, exporters were even exempted from paying the "price equalization tax" which were hitherto required.

2. *Wood Oil*.—The control of wood oil was motivated by the Wood Oil Loan concluded with the United States. The control was first entrusted to the Foreign Trade Commission in July, 1938. But in 1940, when demarcation was made between administration and trading operations, the commission further delegated the collection and marketing of this commodity to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, retaining for itself the authority to regulate the trading of oil. Under the regulations governing the control of wood oil promulgated by the Ministry of Finance in October 1940, registration was required of all oil firms, pressing plants, and wood oil cooperative societies; all consignments of oil from the producing centres to any other place were subject to special permission in order to prevent illegal trading or evasion of the regulations; and the purchasing price of the oil was to be fixed by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation on the basis of the cost of production, freight and overhead charges, and with due consideration to the market conditions abroad.

When the war broke out in the Pacific, the export of wood oil became increasingly difficult. In the meantime, on account of the shortage of gasoline in the interior, there was an urgent domestic demand of this commodity for the purpose of extracting liquid fuel. Consequently, the Gov-

ernment promulgated in July 1942 provisional measures governing the control of wood oil, making a number of revisions of the original regulations. First, the controlled zone is limited to the main producing areas and marketing and transportation centres, within which the price of wood oil, the maximum amount of each shipment and the amount of private stocks are to be regulated by this commission. Second, in non-controlled zones, the price of the oil is to be fixed by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, with the approval of the commission, on the basis of the production cost and market conditions. Third, the requirement for registration is limited to sales or consumption over 100 piculs. Fourth, for purpose of adjusting the supply and demand of this commodity, the commission is authorized to purchase or sell any amount of oil in the controlled zones at fixed prices. Public or private refineries are to be supplied by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation with sufficient quantity of oil for purpose of extracting liquid fuel provided the amounts requested have been approved by both the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Transport Control Bureau. Meanwhile, these refineries are required to report to the said corporation the amount of oil left over at the end of each month. They are not permitted to make purchases in the market unless they have obtained special permission from the said corporation. Fifth, a transshipment permit is required for shipment of oil over 10 piculs or of tung seeds, fruits, or nuts over 50 piculs from the controlled zones to non-controlled zones. The said permit is to be applied for at the commission, or its branch offices or any of its entrusted institutions. For shipments

destined for occupied areas or places bordering such areas, a domestic consumption permit is required which is to be applied for at this commission.

3. *Bristles*.—In common with tea and wood oil, hog bristles was also brought under government monopoly following the conclusion of the Sino-British Loan Agreement of 1938 which specified this commodity as one of the leading articles for the purpose of repayment. By measures governing the control of bristles promulgated in January 1939 and the revisions made in February 1942, all bristles firms, cooperative societies, and dressing plants are required to register with the commission and private stocks of bristles are limited both in amount and in the length of time.

The outbreak of the war in the Pacific has affected the exportation of a number of agricultural products and has consequently caused the Government to make moderate the measures of control. But bristles, being higher in unit price and smaller in size, has been uninterruptedly shipped abroad by means of aerial transportation. So regulations governing the control of this commodity such as the limitation on the amount and time of storage, etc. which were once suspended are now again put in force.

4. *Minerals*.—During these few years, China also exported several kinds of mineral products including tungsten, antimony, tin, quicksilver, bismuth, and molybdenum which are all essential raw materials for the manufacture of armaments and amunitions. With the world-wide expansion of war industries, the demand of such strategic resources increased from time to time. In view of this, the Government had at the very beginning of the war brought them

under effective control. According to the regulations, the control is entrusted to the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs which has the complete monopoly of the purchase and exportation of these minerals. In order to meet the demand of our Allies, these minerals have been continuously shipped abroad by means of land and aerial transportation.

Control of Foreign Exchange.—In March, 1938, the so-called "Federal Reserve Bank" was inaugurated in Peiping by the puppet government. The main function of this bank was to issue notes to replace the Chinese national currency then in circulation. By selling the Chinese national currency, acquired in exchange for new "Federal Reserve Bank" notes, the puppet government was enabled to obtain the necessary foreign exchange to support the new notes. In counteracting the operations of the puppet government, the National Government issued a mandate on March 14th centralizing the sales of foreign exchange in the Central Bank of China and established an Exchange Examining Committee, putting the exchange required for imports under full control.

In April, the Ministry of Finance further ordered that all payments for Chinese exports should be made in foreign currencies and that the foreign exchange so obtained should be sold to the Chinese government banks. Exporters of commodities subject to exchange control should first apply to the Foreign Trade Commission or its designated organizations for the approval of the amount of exchange to be sold to the government banks and then apply to the Bank of China or the Bank of Communications for certi-

ficate testifying that it had already accepted their exchange bills. Upon presentation of such certificates, shipping permits would be issued to authorize the customs authorities to allow the cargoes to be exported. After the products were sold in foreign markets, the exporters should sell 80% of the exchange to the government banks, retaining a balance of 20% to defray their expenses incurred in foreign currencies.

The list of commodities subject to the restrictions of exchange control was modified from time to time. According to the last revision made in March, 1941, it includes the following 12 groups: eggs and egg products, feathers, animal intestines, skins, hides and leather, dye-stuffs, medicinal substances, oils and wax, seeds, timber, silk and silk cocoons, and ramie. Although commodities under these categories are not under government monopoly, this commission had participated in their purchasing and then shipped them to Hongkong for sale. The prime purpose of this is but to facilitate export trade and to enrich the national treasury with more exchange.

In October, 1941, the Exchange Control Commission was founded under the Executive Yuan. Thereupon, the Foreign Trade Commission was ordered to turn over to this new organization all matters pertaining to exchange control.

Export Prohibition.—The export of essentials of war and daily necessities are absolutely prohibited. On basis of financial and cultural considerations, the export of a number of other commodities are also banned. The goods so affected are the following:

Silver and gold metals and manufactures thereof,

Chinese and foreign currencies,
 Iron, steel and other metals, and
 manufactures thereof,
 Rice and paddy, wheat, wheat flour,
 seed cake, bran, and other cereals,
 Beans and peas,
 Cotton and cotton waste (including
 fly cotton and yarn waste),
 Coins and coppers,
 Salt,
 Documents, and publications of
 historical value,
 Curious and antiques, and other
 articles specified as prohibited
 exports by special orders of the
 Government.

Besides, it is absolutely forbidden to
 ship commodities under government
 monopoly or control to places under
 enemy control.

Control of Exports Exempted from Prohibition.

Since the outbreak of the war in the Pacific, a number of regulations dealing with import and export control has become either unfit or inadequate under the changing conditions. Thereupon, the Government promulgated in May 1942, regulations governing wartime import and export control, making certain modifications in import and export prohibition. Consequently, a number of commodities the export of which was hitherto either restricted or controlled by the Government are thenceforth allowed to be exported with special permission from competent authorities. The products so affected may be classified into the following three categories:

1. Exports subject to special permission and exchange control, such as: animal intestines, buffalo and cow hides, goat-skins, silk cocoons, wool, camel

wool, vegetable tallow, hemp, jute and ramie. Exporters of these commodities shall first apply to this commission which shall examine the kinds and amount of the products to be permitted for exportation, then apply to the Import and Export License Commission of the Ministry of Finance for a special permit. Besides, they shall also apply to the Exchange Control Commission to pledge the sale of exchange before the shipment is made.

2. Exports subject to special permission, such as: salt, sugar, matches, resins, and living animals. Exporters of these commodities are required only to apply to the Import and Export License Commission for a permit.
3. Exports subject to special permission of respective organs in charge and subject to exchange control, such as: metal ores excluding tungsten, tin, antimony, quicksilver, bismuth and molybdenum, petroleum products, coal and charcoal, asbestos, alums, etc. Exporters of these products are required to apply to the Ministry of Economic Affairs for special export permits. But permits for the exportation of phosphorus, saltpetre, acid and soda, etc. are to be obtained at the Ministry of Finance. Furthermore, exporters of the products under this category are also required to apply to the Exchange Control Commission to pledge the sale of foreign exchange.

CONTROL OF IMPORT TRADE

Prohibition of Imports from Enemy Areas.

By regulations promulgated on October 27, 1938, all imports from enemy countries or from areas under their control are prohibited. Apparently, this is to prevent the enemy countries from dumping their manufactures. The regulations are applicable to:

1. Merchandise made in enemy countries, their colonies, or in their mandated territories,
2. Merchandise produced by factories and companies outside of the above-mentioned territories but owned or financed by the enemy, and
3. Merchandise produced by factories and companies outside of the above-mentioned territories but seized or controlled by the enemy.

In order to help the importers distinguish such articles from legitimate imports, the Ministry of Economic Affairs publishes from time to time the trade marks and the manufacturers' names of these commodities. The duty of prohibiting such imports is imposed upon the local and the customs authorities.

Restriction of Unnecessary Imports.

In order to conserve exchange for essential materials and supplies from abroad, countries generally impose limitations on the import of unnecessary commodities. For similar purpose, the Ministry of Finance published in June 1939 regulations governing import prohibition appended with a list of goods the import of which was prohibited except with permission of competent authorities. Importation of commodities for pur-

pose of facilitating the work of price control, for instance, is permitted. However, petitions for permits for such purchases are to be made only by government agencies and to be determined by the Ministry of Finance.

The list of restricted imports is as follows:

1. Luxuries which are neither daily necessities nor resources needed for economic reconstruction or war prosecution, such as: foreign wines and spirits, cigarettes, tobacco and cigars, perfumery and cosmetics, ornaments, toys and games, musical instruments, lace, trimmings and embroideries, etc.
2. Semi-luxuries which could not be considered as daily necessities in the time of war and for which substitutes of native products are available, such as: biche de mer, sugar, animal products, canned goods (except canned butter, milk, coffee, cocoa), fruits, seeds, vegetables, silk (including artificial silk) and its manufactures thereof, bamboo, wood, rattans and manufactures thereof, chinaware, hides and leather and other animal substances (except those for military or industrial uses), etc.
3. Commodities which though do not belong to luxuries but drain large amount of exchange every year and the volume of their importation tends to expand, such as: timber (except railway sleepers), paper (except bank notes paper and bond paper, tissue paper, paper for printing, newspapers, charts and maps), etc.

4. Kerosene which in the past was imported in huge quantity. With the introduction of electric lighting in cities and the use of vegetable oils as substitutes in small towns and villages, this commodity no longer belongs to daily necessities.
5. Cotton manufactures, 80% of which was in the past consigned from enemy countries although they belong to daily necessities.

License Control of Imports Exempted from Prohibition. Since the outbreak of hostilities in the Pacific difficulties arose in the importation of supplies from abroad. Thereupon, by regulations governing wartime imports and exports control promulgated in May 1942, the above-mentioned measures of prohibition were substantially revised. A number of commodities as listed below are exempted from import prohibition and are made as imports subject to special permission:

1. War materials and military supplies, aeronautical instruments and materials, narcotic drugs, injection syringes, explosives, radio sets and parts, bank notes, etc.
- However, it is specified that only government organizations or public institutions are entitled to file petitions with their superior authorities for importation of such commodities and to apply to the controlling organ for special shipping permits.
2. Fine wool, cotton and artificial silk, and manufactures thereof, tobacco, wines and spirits, luxuries papers, feathers, manufactures of elephant's tusk and other animal by-products, re-

fined timber and manufactures thereof, cosmetics, and sundries.

There are altogether eight groups including about 60 kinds of commodities. Importation of such commodities are permitted only on the ground that they are to be used either for purpose of price stabilization or for scientific, industrial, medical, sanitary, philanthropic, educational, cultural or religious purposes.

Importation of Essentials of War and Daily Necessities. The general principle upon which the regulations controlling imports are based is to give freedom and encouragement to the import of necessary or essential goods and to curtail the import of luxuries or non-essential goods. According to regulations governing exchange control, importers of essentials of war and daily necessities have little difficulty to obtain the amount of exchange required. The process is first to apply to the Ministry of Finance and then to approach either the Bank of China or the Bank of Communications in accordance with the instruction of the Ministry for the purchase of exchange according to the legal rate, provided that they pay also the "equalization charges" for the difference between the bank rate and the legal rate.

Since September 1939, all imports except those under prohibition were further encouraged by reducing two-thirds of their import duties during war time. By means of this, it is hoped that with more supplies from abroad, the work of price stabilization would be facilitated. By 1940, the importation of strategic resources including gasoline became increasingly difficult consequent upon the closing of the Indo-China and the Burma routes. In view of this, the Ministry

of Finance further ordered to permit free importation of gasoline by exempting also its import duties. Meanwhile, measures were adopted by the Ministry of Finance in cooperation with the Ministry of Economics to permit the importation of the following commodities without considering the countries of their origin: sugar, cotton, cotton yarn, cotton piece goods, iron and steel, metallic equipments, machines and instruments, transportation facilities and parts, cement, gasoline, diesel oil, lubricating oil, medical supplies, pharmaceuticals, chemicals, agricultural insect prevention medicines, salt, alcohol, electric materials and equipments, and other commodities needed for educational and cultural purposes.

Purchase of Foreign Supplies.

Since the outbreak of the war of resistance, this country has concluded barter agreements with the friendly nations for purpose of securing from them supplies and necessities. When the war in Europe broke out in 1939, the contracting parties subsequently agreed that the area in which purchases were to be made was extended to include Hongkong and Burma in order to facilitate deliveries and to avoid difficulties arising from distant ocean transportation. The purchases made were mostly confined to war materials, transportation facilities, machines and equipments, aeronautical materials and others for industrial, medical, and educational purposes. All purchases were made through special trading concerns or trade representations stationed abroad. Personnel of these agencies are either highly proficient in international trade

or technicians in the various lines of industries.

SURVEY OF TRADE, 1940-1941

General Conditions.—In the years of 1940 and 1941, China experienced a sharp upturn in the value of both imports and exports. Total imports during these two years were on the average valued at over \$2,000,000,000, being more than twice of the average for the first three years subsequent to the outbreak of the war. The upswing in the value of exports was even more phenomenal. According to the customs returns, it increased from less than \$1,000,000,000 in the period of 1937-1939 to \$1,976,000,000 in 1940 and to \$2,577,000,000 in 1941 which were respectively 2.8 and 3.8 times greater than the 1936 figure. However, the increase is to a great extent owing to the general rise of prices of imported and exported commodities. If the analysis is made on the basis of trade volumes, the condition will be totally different. Take for instance the imports of copper, iron and other metals in 1940 which amounted to 2,270,000 quintals in volume and 46,000,000 G.U. (gold unit) in value. Compared with those for 1939, the figures represented on the one hand an increase in value of more than 15,000,000 G.U. but they meant a decrease in quantity of 120,000 quintals on the other. The discrepancy is even greater if they are compared with the total volume of 8,780,000 quintals valued at 57,900,000 G.U. in 1937. Conditions in the export trade were much the same. In 1937, China exported 400,000 quintals of tea valued at \$30,000,000, while in 1940, though the exports of tea amounted to 340,000 quintals only the value shot up to \$105,000,000.

Exports of wood oil amounted to 1,000,000 quintals valued at \$89,800,000 in 1937, while in 1940, they, though decreased to 230,000 quintals in volume, were valued at \$56,400,000. The fact was that the price for tea in 1937 was merely \$75.72 per quintal, but in 1940 it rose to \$303.17. The price for each quintal of wood oil was only \$87.25 in 1937, but it rose to \$242.43 in 1940.

Exports of Principal Commodities.

The chief exports from this country during these years included wood oil, bristles, tea, minerals, eggs and egg products, animal hides and skins, raw silk, cotton yarn, ramie and hemp, etc. Most of these products were shipped abroad under government control. Others, being produced or manufactured in occupied areas, were controlled by the enemy. The following sections, arranged according to the order of importance of the various exports, merely serve to give the outstanding characteristics or general trends of the export trade.

Raw Silk.—In the first three years subsequent to the outbreak of the war, exports of silk slumped severely in consequence of the extension of military operations to silk producing centres. Some recovery was made after 1939 on account of the resumption of a number of mills in Kiangsu and Chekiang under the control of the puppet régime in Nanking. In 1940 and 1941, though the value of exports increased sharply to over \$200,000,000, the quantity still remained at something between 52,000, to 58,000 quintals, showing little progress in comparison with the position before the war. Shipments of this product were largely made to Hongkong, the United States, France, Japan, Italy,

and Indo-China. But if the production of Szechuen and Sikong alone is taken into consideration, India and Burma absorbed the most.

Cotton Yarn. Following the year 1937, the annual exports of cotton yarn amounted to more than 100,000 quintals valued at over \$22,800,000, showing a remarkable increase in comparison with the pre-war figures. This was apparently due to the gradual resumption of the cotton mills in the occupied areas. This product was mainly exported to Hongkong, the southern Pacific area, and India. But of the shipments to Hongkong, a large part was transhipped to the interior by way of Burma and Indo-China.

Bristles.—The export trade of bristles was not active before the war. Its prosperity in recent years was mainly due to the development of the war industries of the belligerent nations. Total export values increased from \$94,000,000 of 1940 to \$127,000,000 in 1941. The United States was the leading purchaser of this commodity. Other buying countries were, in their order of importance, the United Kingdom, Germany and Hongkong. Since the outbreak of hostilities in the Pacific, it has been uninterruptedly shipped to our Allies by means of aerial transportation.

Coal.—During these years, exports of coal grew steadily both in volume and in value. They increased from the pre-war level of about 1,000,000 metric tons valued at over \$10,000,000 to 4,900,000 tons valued at more than \$100,000,000 in 1941. This could be explained by the continued exploitation under enemy control of coal mines in North China and the shipments made to Japan and the Kwantung Leased Territory, because this country is itself short of coal and

has to import from India and Indo-China.

Wood Oil.—In 1936, China exported more than 800,000 quintals of wood oil. The amount increased in the next year to over 1,000,000 quintals. But the war has seriously affected the transportation of this commodity and has consequently caused a heavy falling-off in its export trade. In 1940 and 1941, the amount exported each year decreased to less than 240,000 quintals. In this connection, it may be mentioned that in fulfilment of her obligations under the Wood Oil Loan Agreement of 1938 concluded with the United States, China had completed the delivery of this commodity two years earlier than the date set forth in the said agreement. This fact may serve as an evidence of China's endeavour to live up to her international obligations.

Mineral Products.—China has during the time of war exported a few kinds of minerals including tin, tungsten, antimony, etc. Tin was exported in large quantities even before the war; annual shipments exceeded 100,000 quintals valued at more than \$40,000,000. In 1941, the amount shipped abroad decreased to 57,000 quintals, although the value shot up to \$90,000,000. Tungsten was insignificant in China's export trade before the war. It was after the spread of hostilities in Asia and in Europe that its annual shipments began to rise above 100,000 quintals valued at something between \$40,000,000 and \$50,000,000. These minerals are all essentials of war the export of which is generally restricted. However in order to meet the demand of her Allies, China has shipped and will ship them abroad continuously.

Cotton.—Fluctuations occurred most violently in the exports of cotton

after 1937. During the first three years subsequent to the outbreak of the war, annual exports of this commodity ranged from a minimum of a little over 300,000 quintals to a maximum of more than 1,000,000 quintals. Exports for 1940 abruptly dropped to around 38,000 quintals valued at only \$8,000,000. Some recovery was made in 1941; exports of that year amounted to 300,000 quintals valued at \$76,000,000. The shrinkage during these two years was largely owing to the resumption of a number of cotton mills in the occupied areas which absorbed a good deal of the production.

Eggs and Egg Products.—Exports from China of eggs and egg products were valued at \$82,000,000 in 1939 and at \$133,000,000 in 1940, being in both year only next in importance to raw silk among the export staples. But in 1941, they dwindled sharply to something between \$55,000,000 and \$56,000,000 in value.

Lace, Trimmings and Embroideries.—In 1939, the total value of exports under this heading amounted to approximately \$50,000,000. However, it rose to over \$77,000,000 in both 1940 and 1941.

Tea.—Annual exports of tea during the time of war averaged at something between 300,000 and 400,000 quintals valued at over \$30,000,000. The value of exports for 1940 increased to \$104,000,000, but it fell back immediately to a little over \$40,000,000 in 1941. Tea is one of the agricultural products exported in bulky quantities. Inevitably, its export trade was first affected by the war. However, with the transportation facilities at its command, the Government had successfully made shipments of this commodity to the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, the United

000,000 or 35% of the total imports of Free China. The group of oils and waxes came next with a value of \$29,060,000 or 10%. Cereals and cereal flour occupied the third place with a value of \$19,630,000 or 7.5%. Vehicles and vessels occupied the fourth place; chemicals and pharmaceuticals, the fifth; metal manufactures, the sixth; and machinery and tools, the seventh.

Import and Export Trade by Countries.

China's main trading countries during this period were the United States, Japan, the United Kingdom, Hongkong, Germany and British India. Since the outbreak of the war, China's trade relations with most of these countries were impeded in varying degrees on account of the fact that many coastal provinces were occupied by Japan and the trade of these provinces was under her control. With regard to the import trade, Japan was favoured by the military occupation of these provinces to monopolize their inward shipments and to make them her best market for manufactures. Consequently, she became by far the most important supplying country. The United States ranked second among the supplying countries due to the efforts of the Government and people of this country in the promotion of Sino-American trade relations. Hongkong, being a transshipment centre of both China's imports and exports, was able to occupy the third position. India ranked fourth, and Indo-China ranked fifth. Other suppliers were, in the order of their importance, Dutch East Indies, Australia, the United Kingdom, Germany, and Canada.

On the export side, Hongkong ranked highest in the list of China's

buying countries. This is due to the fact that most of the exports of this country were shipped there for transshipment to American and European countries. The United States ranked only next to Hongkong owing chiefly to the efforts of this country in promoting export to the New Continent. By means of forcible collection of resources in the occupied areas, Japan was able to occupy the third place even without counting the exports to that country of commodities like rice and salt which were considered by the Japanese military as war supplies and were thus not included in the customs statistics. The Dutch East Indies ranked fourth and British India ranked fifth. Next in order were Indo-China, the United Kingdom, Singapore, etc.

To further analyze the magnitude of trade of these countries with China, it is necessary to consider China's imports from and exports to these countries and their colonies as a whole. In dealing with our trade relations with the United Kingdom, for instance, we should include also our trade with British India, Burma, Hongkong, Australia, Singapore, etc. For similar purpose, we have to treat the United States and the Philippine Islands as a unit; to treat Japan, Taiwan, Korea, the Kwantung Leased Territory collectively, and to group together France and Indo-China; and Netherlands and Dutch East Indies. Altogether, these five trading groupings accounted for more than 80% of the total of China's foreign trade. Separately, the British Empire enjoyed the greatest share, the United States and the Philippine Islands ranked next, and the Japanese, French and Netherlands empires followed in the order of importance.

FOREIGN TRADE

TABLE 1. PRINCIPAL EXPORTS FROM CHINA, 1939-1941

Goods	Unit	1939		1940		1941*	
		Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)
Raw Silk	Quintals	81,896	142,351	57,639	280,941	51,998	232,334
Cotton Yarn	Quintals	118,005	31,767	134,780	70,780	159,686	136,741
Bristles	"	33,327	41,118	35,567	94,184	26,380	127,170
Coal	Tons	2,964,603	20,141	4,838,000	68,305	4,881,704	100,867
Wood Oil	Quintals	335,016	33,015	232,472	56,358	205,778	93,871
Tin Slabs	"	105,890	32,793	63,493	38,289	57,281	90,414
Wolfram	"	106,891	44,675	28,737	13,616	84,699	83,736
Lace, Trimming and Embroideries	"	—	49,550	—	76,912	—	76,048
Cotton	Quintals	328,780	19,042	37,999	8,402	308,525	75,900
Eggs and Egg Products	"	—	82,313	—	133,156	—	55,528
Tea	Quintals	225,578	30,386	344,925	104,571	81,356	40,761

* From January to October.

TABLE 2. PRINCIPAL IMPORTS TO CHINA, 1937-1941

Goods	Unit	1937		1938		1939
		Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity
Rice and Paddy	1,000 Quintals	3,457	40,781	4,961	58,390	3,202
Wheat Flour	"	304	6,183	2,548	52,985	3,573
Raw Cotton	"	153	16,005	166	12,735	2,477
Cotton Yarn	"	11	2,966	17	3,312	37
Cotton Piece Goods	"	—	14,660	—	22,540	—
Gasoline	1,000 Gallons	54,786	27,613	31,903	20,528	35,892
Kerosene	"	118,348	47,860	66,736	30,946	61,941
Liquid Fuel	"	258,997	14,968	165,976	10,723	168,685
Sugar	1,000 Quintals	—	22,031	—	19,363	—
Machinery and Tools	"	—	64,632	—	56,073	—
Paper	"	—	59,134	—	39,930	—
Coal	1,000 Tons	427	4,988	1,092	20,809	1,414

States, and North Africa in the war time. Exports to the Soviet Union were largely made through Hongkong. This is why the Soviet purchases were extremely small according to the customs statistics.

In 1940, total exports from this country amounted to \$1,976,070,000 of which Free China ports accounted for \$247,350,000 or 12.52% of the total. The amount handled by the ports under enemy occupation was much greater; it approximated \$1,728,710,000, representing 87.48%. With regard to the agricultural and mineral products under government control, exports from Free China ports were in excess of those from the ports under occupation. Exports of wood oil in 1940, for instance, amounted to \$56,350,000 of which Free China ports contributed \$32,370,000 or 57%. Others like tea and mineral ores, etc. were also largely shipped from Free China ports.

Imports of Principal Commodities.

Among the chief imports during the period under review, foodstuffs ranked first in importance. This group included rice, wheat, and wheat flour. Next in order was the group comprising cotton, cotton piece goods, and cotton yarn. Besides, imports of sugar, paper, machinery and tools, vehicles, kerosene oil, and gasoline were all outstanding.

Rice, Wheat and Wheat Flour.

Since the outbreak of the war in 1937 receipts of foodstuffs including rice, wheat, and wheat flour were fast expanding. The value of imports rose from \$50,000,000 of 1937 to more than \$500,000,000 in the years following. In 1940 imports of rice alone accounted for 6,500,000 quintals valued at \$171,000,000 which further rose in 1941 to 8,400,000 quintals with a

value of \$276,000,000. This was partly attributed to the enemy's collection in the crop producing areas for shipment to Japan and partly to the transportation difficulties between the rural districts and the seaboard. Thus, consumers of big cities like Shanghai, Tientsin, Peiping were forced to depend mainly upon foreign supplies. If otherwise, the production of Kiangsu and Chekiang which had enjoyed good harvest during these years would be sufficient for the consumption of the coastal provinces. There was a parallel advance in the imports of wheat flour during the time of war. Inward shipments amounted to 3,200,000 quintals in 1940 and nearly 4,000,000 quintals in 1941, the latter amount being valued at \$209,000,000. Rice was mostly received from Indo-China and Thailand; wheat flour was supplied mainly by Japan to the amount of more than 50% of the total. Other sources of supply of wheat flour were Australia and the United States.

Cotton, Cotton Piece Goods and Cotton Yarn. Imports of cotton did not amount to much in the first three years after the commencement of the war. Increase was registered only in and after 1939. Imports of this commodity in 1940 amounted to 2,400,000 quintals valued at \$262,000,000. In 1941, they fell back slightly, but still amounted to 1,600,000 quintals valued at \$240,000,000. The expansion was chiefly caused by the flood of the cotton producing areas in North China and by the heavy demand of the mills reopened both in the occupied areas and in the International Settlement in Shanghai. The leading sources of supply of this commodity were India, the United States, Egypt and Brazil.

Imports of cotton yarn and cotton piece goods were quite stable during the first three years of the war. Steady increases were effected after 1940. Imports of cotton yarn in that year amounted to over \$40,000,000 in value and rose to above \$81,000,000 in 1941. Receipts of cotton piece goods in 1940 amounted to \$56,000,000. The increase was accounted for by the outbreak of hostilities in Europe, cutting down thus the supply from the belligerent countries and offering the Japanese a splendid opportunity to dispose of their manufactures. According to the customs returns, main supplying countries of these two commodities were Japan and Hongkong. But Hongkong was a port of transshipment. A large part of the shipments from this port were also consigned from Japan.

Gasoline, Kerosene, and Liquid Fuel. Gasoline, kerosene and liquid fuel were usually important items under the group of oils and waxes. Since the outbreak of the war, imports of these mineral oils, though changed little in their total values, were substantially decreased in quantity. The average import values during the years between 1938 and 1941 were: gasoline from \$30,000,000 to \$40,000,000; kerosene from \$30,000,000 to 40,000,000; and liquid fuel around \$15,000,000. Analysis on the basis of their physical quantities show, however, that gasoline decreased from the pre-war level of over 50,000,000 gallons to about 30,000,000 gallons; kerosene from 110,000,000 to around 40,000,000 gallons and liquid fuel from 250,000 to 160,000 gallons. It is taken for granted that the amount of gasoline actually imported into this country was bigger than the figures given by the customs reports if we include also

imports by smuggling and other illegal processes. However, the amount received was still not sufficient to meet the demand of this country. Decrease in the amount of kerosene was partly due to enemy control in the occupied areas and partly to the use of vegetable oils as substitutes in the interior.

Other Imports.—Aside from the commodities enumerated in the foregoing paragraphs, imports of sugar, paper, iron and steel, machineries, coal and vehicles were also of importance. Imports of sugar in 1940 and 1941 were valued at something between \$70,000,000 and \$80,000,000 each year. But the rise in value was largely accounted for by the rising import price. The total amount imported was lower than the pre-war figures. Sugar was mainly shipped from Hongkong, Dutch East Indies, Japan, Taiwan, and absorbed by cities like Shanghai and Tientsin. Receipts of machineries in 1941 valued at over \$70,000,000, representing a gain of about \$20,000,000 over the pre-war figures. Imports of paper rose from the pre-war level of \$40,000,000 to \$80,000,000 in 1941. With regard to coal, the imports were valued at over \$26,000,000. These commodities were also largely absorbed by coastal cities like Tientsin and Shanghai.

Of the total amount of imports, the occupied areas took much more than places under the control of the Central Government. In 1940, for instance, the total imports were valued at \$2,044,360,000 of which Free China ports took only \$264,670,000 or 12.95% while the ports under occupation absorbed approximately \$1,780,000,000 or 87.05%. With regard to the imports of Free China in 1940, cotton and cotton manufactures headed the list with a value of \$92,-

FOREIGN TRADE

TABLE 2.—Continued.

Goods	Unit	1939		1940		1941*	
		Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity	Value (in \$1,000)	Quantity
Rice and Paddy	1,000 Quintals	55,142	6,495	171,283	8,354	276,205	
Wheat Flour	"	76,817	3,203	141,801	3,921	209,043	
Raw Cotton	"	172,857	2,444	261,877	1,631	240,036	
Cotton Yarn	"	7,166	105	40,939	235	81,488	
Cotton Piece Goods	"	15,598	—	56,464	—	227,106	
Gasoline	1,000 Gallons	24,760	34,105	33,148	28,816	42,767	
Kerosene	"	30,943	69,745	49,412	38,598	41,932	
Liquid Fuel	"	10,755	207,311	13,665	159,535	17,945	
Sugar	1,000 Quintals	52,151	—	70,102	—	80,789	
Machinery and Tools	"	60,484	—	75,074	—	53,383	
Paper	"	52,905	—	67,554	—	81,512	
Coal	1,000 Tons	25,313	2,008	49,647	1,012	26,240	

* From January to October.

TABLE 3. GROSS EXPORTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1939—1941

Countries	1939		1940		1941*	
	Value (in \$1,000)	%	Value (in \$1,000)	%	Value (in \$1,000)	%
Australia	6,393	0.62	14,704	0.74	10,336	0.40
Belgium	3,193	0.31	745	0.04	—	—
India	39,700	2.98	89,903	4.55	104,082	4.02
Burma	5,629	0.55	19,125	0.97	33,866	1.31
Canada	10,213	0.99	24,557	1.24	13,630	0.53
Formosa	6,891	0.67	39,897	2.02	59,738	2.31
Indo-China	71,046	6.90	45,222	2.29	92,605	3.58
Germany	45,097	4.38	4,099	0.21	19,969	0.77
Great Britain	90,863	8.82	196,798	9.96	90,252	3.49
Hongkong	222,099	21.56	367,502	18.60	619,436	23.95
Italy	2,293	0.22	6,634	0.34	120	—
Japan	66,621	6.47	126,408	6.40	215,694	8.34
Korea	5,598	0.54	12,495	0.63	23,417	0.90
Dutch East Indies	17,688	1.72	48,521	2.46	145,803	5.64
Straits Settlements & F.M.S.	33,786	3.28	64,805	3.28	91,489	3.54
Thailand	11,583	1.12	43,170	2.18	71,012	2.74
United States	225,873	21.92	565,669	28.63	566,179	21.89
France	32,641	3.17	31,819	1.61	7	—
Other Countries	142,152	13.78	273,938	13.85	429,084	16.59
TOTAL	1,030,359	100.00	1,976,071	100.00	2,586,809	100.00

* From January to October.

FOREIGN TRADE

TABLE 4. GROSS IMPORTS FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1939—1941

Countries	1939		1940		1941*	
	Value (in \$1,000)	%	Value (in \$1,000)	%	Value (in \$1,000)	%
Australia	68,680	5.11	85,762	4.20	105,386	4.83
Belgium	21,044	1.57	14,908	0.73	1,903	0.09
India	119,439	8.89	175,275	8.57	162,173	7.43
Burma	6,466	0.48	13,267	0.65	101,662	4.66
Canada	10,530	0.78	11,272	0.55	37,325	1.71
Formosa	28,649	2.13	29,105	1.42	32,600	1.49
Indo-China	28,508	2.12	138,126	6.76	146,059	6.69
Germany	87,167	6.49	55,033	2.69	44,910	2.06
Great Britain	77,860	5.80	81,609	3.99	44,001	2.02
Hongkong	35,416	2.64	146,972	7.19	338,678	5.52
Italy	11,108	0.83	6,766	0.33	790	0.04
Japan	313,398	23.34	466,289	22.81	382,841	17.54
Korea	20,827	1.55	15,958	0.78	21,355	0.98
Dutch East Indies	58,350	4.35	107,504	5.26	128,503	5.89
Straits Settlements & F.M.S.	12,032	0.90	22,876	1.12	16,732	0.77
Thailand	20,966	1.56	47,868	2.34	56,020	2.57
United States	214,100	15.94	435,486	21.30	425,935	19.52
France	11,307	0.84	7,815	0.38	2,835	0.13
Other Countries	197,171	14.68	182,474	8.93	132,463	6.06
TOTAL	1,343,018	100.00	2,044,365	100.00	2,182,180	100.00

* From January to October.

TABLE 5. NET VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1936—1941

Year	Imports			Exports			Excess of Import (—) Excess of Exports (+) \$
	G. U.	\$	Index No.	G. U.	\$	Index No.	
1936	417,837	944,523	100.0	312,630	706,791	100.0	—237,732
1937	420,607	956,234	100.7	369,029	838,770	118.7	—117,464
1938	388,739	893,500	93.0	351,688	763,731	108.1	—129,769
1939	542,505	1,343,018	129.9	408,958	1,030,359	145.8	—312,650
1940	755,214	2,044,365	180.7	729,986	1,976,071	279.6	—68,294
1941*	799,319	2,163,756	191.1	952,140	2,577,443	364.4	+413,687

* From January to October.

INDUSTRY AND COMMODITY CONTROL

PING-CHUN TSENG¹ (曾炳鈞)

I. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT BEFORE 1937 AND THE OUTBREAK OF WAR

BEFORE 1937 China had made long strides in her political and economic development under the National Government. Internal disturbances which had long been obstructing China's progress towards modernization had ceased with the strengthening of central authority all over the land. Economic activities following the currency reform in 1935 were intensified. There were unmistakable signs of increasing prosperity, and new enterprises were thriving. The Government on its own part was busy pursuing vast economic projects. Detailed plans were mapped out; many of them were soon put in operation. Over 100,000 kilometres of highways linking all the important trading centres and provincial capitals were completed with tens of thousands more under construction. Government railways also increased in mileage. The entire Canton-Hankow line was open to traffic in September, 1936. The new Chekiang-Kiangsi line connected the Shanghai-Hangchow Railway at Hangchow. It was extended first to Nanchang and then further west to Chuchow thus effecting a junction with the Canton-Hankow line and completing the rail traffic network south of the Yangtze. There were numerous other government activities in hydraulic works, agriculture, in-

dustry and mining. The Three-Year Plan of economic development inaugurated in July 1935, for instance, included: (1) the development of tungsten antimony and of tungsten steel, (2) construction of Ma-An-Shan iron and steel works (with a projected annual productive capacity of 300,000 tons), (3) erection of machine works for the production of motor power generating machines and machine tools, (4) construction of electrical supplies plant, ammonium-sulphate plant, etc., (5) development of the oil fields at Yenchuan, Yenchang, and Pahsien, and (6) development of a number of iron, lead, zinc, copper and coal mining projects. The plan was but the first of a series of plans forthcoming. In brief, China on the eve of the present war was bending on intensified economic reconstruction. The government efforts and policy, had they not been thwarted by invasion, would have changed the whole look of traditional China in not-to-many years' time.

Japan at the juncture, however, lost no time in preventing the growth of China's economic strength, and the islanders' invasion effectively stopped this progress at least temporarily. The superior armours of the invaders forced the Chinese army to retire to the interior. The major part of the coastal provinces after fierce struggle was soon lost to the enemy. The blow was double fold, for the reverse

suffered was both military and economic.

The economic implication of the military retreat then was not how much wealth China had lost with the loss of territory but with what economic means she could still go on in this prolonged war of attrition. Most of the industrial establishments in China, prior to this war, clustered around a few commercial centres in regions now fallen into the hands of the enemy. Out of the total coal production in 1937,—about 20,000,000 tons in round figures,—two-thirds were produced in Hopei, Shantung, and Shansi. The major portion of the 5,100,000 spindles which represented the total capacity of China's cotton mills before war were located in coastal and lower Yangtze ports. Flour mills had then an annual production of 27,600,000 bags. But all of them except a meagre proportion representing 2% of the total capacity again centred in cities near sea. Other manufacturing and machine shops mostly small in scale naturally gravitated in the industrially more advanced coastal regions where they could find their employment with profit. A number of new alcohol distilleries, for example, opened in Shanghai and the Yung-Li Ammonium-Sulphate Plant was operating at Pukow to be near to their market.

China's total industrial capacity was already poor; the conditions of the interior were unmeasurably worse. Modern industry with little exception was practically non-existent inland. The mountainous interior now constituting Free China produced in 1937 only 2,400,000 tons of coal, 600,000 bags of flour, and in cotton spinning possessed only 67,000 spindles.

The comparative industrial backwardness of the inland region was a

real handicap to the prosecution of war. But the difficulties presented have not been insurmountable. In fact the Government just at the start of hostilities had foreseen the day when Chinese army would have to fall back inland, when the facilities of Shanghai and other coastal industrial supply centres would have to be abandoned and when therefore all the military and civilian needs would have to be met eventually by the productive power of the vast rural interior. On that assumption the Government first set up a committee early in August, 1937, and then the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration soon after, to direct the moving of industrial plants from the war zones to the interior. Factories in Shanghai, Wusih, Tsinan, Chiaotso (in North Honan), Hankow, Tayeh, Kiukiang, etc. were thus removed. The metallurgical equipment of the well-known Han-Yeh-Ping Iron & Steel Works, which in peace time made important iron shipment to Japan, and which Japan had long coveted, stood high in the removing list.

The hazards of transportation in the midst of war cannot be exaggerated. In spite of all difficulties, the shipment of heavy and bulky machineries was, however, successfully carried out by steamboats and junks, by rail and on mule's back, over mountains and through the rapid stream of the Yangtze Gorges. The work was a long process. Losses and damages were unavoidable. Up to the end of 1940 there were altogether 450 industrial and mining establishments moved with government aid from war areas to the rear. The machineries thus salvaged reached a total of 116,375 tons excluding the factories operated by the National Resources Commission. Of

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the 450 plants, 181 were machine works, 29 for electrical supplies, 56 chemical works, 10 cotton mills, three metallurgical and five for coal mining. The rest were food factories, glass and pottery works and a host of miscellaneous manufacturing shops.¹ Over 90,000 of the 116,375 tons of machinery have now established their new factory sites in Szechuen.² These transplanted plants are contributing a very important part in China's present total industrial production.

II. ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION IN FREE CHINA

Conducting a prolonged war of attrition China has meantime increased her efforts in the inland economic reconstruction. In this the Chinese Government have combined two important tasks in one. For the develop-

ment of an industrial base for war supply has meantime contributed towards laying a foundation for industrialization. China has to win this war and she will have to save the multitude of her people from a poverty after peace. This war in a sense is for China a fight for economic liberty, liberty to attain a decent popular living standard. The Chinese people are well aware that the betterment of their life depends on increased productivity, and ultimately on their ability to develop their own natural resources by their own efforts free from foreign interference and control. Industrialization is henceforward China's settled policy. The war has only turned the attention of the Government to the development of the interior where agricultural products, water power, and underground wealth are plentiful. The factories salvaged from the war

¹The table below shows the number of factories and the tonnage of machinery moved in, classified by industries:

Industries	No. of Factories	Tonnage of Machinery
Coal	5	7,457
Metallurgical	3	37,242
Machine works	181	18,587
Electrical supplies	29	5,375
Cotton mills	10	32,116
Chemical works	56	9,756
Miscellaneous	166	6,842
TOTAL	450	116,375

²The distribution of transplanted machinery equipment inland is shown below:

Province	Tonnage of Machinery
Szechuen	80,045
Hunan	10,714
Kwangsi	3,428
Shensi	10,534
Other provinces	1,054
TOTAL	116,375

zones represent only a part of the industrial productive power in Free China. Today as a result of government efforts and under the stimulation of war we have seen a mushroom growth of new industries, work shops, manufacturing centres with the development of new roads, new services and other public works.

The present article will not cover China's wartime economy in all its aspects. It purports to show only her industrial progress and the principal steps taken by the Government in wartime economic control. The industries developed in Free China today fall in the main under eight categories: they are electricity, fuels, machinery, electrical appliance, metallurgical industries, chemical works, cotton and flour mills. To them we now turn.

Electricity.—Power supply is the basic need of all industrial manufacture. Electric utilities are now found in almost all the principal manufacturing centres in the interior. The new plants are mostly government owned. Five of them are in Szechuen; three in Shensi; one each in Yunnan, Kweichow, Sikang, Kansu, Chinghai, and Chekiang. Recently four more plants are started in addition to the 14 existing. The plants at Lungchi, Wanh sien, and Luchow use water power. Private plants are even more numerous and with greater capacity. They were mostly built before the war. But many have been expanded or overhauled. The Chungking Electrical Company alone has three plants in operation and the increased industrial demands of the city is still calling for further expansion. The power houses, like other manufacturing plants of the city, are built in dugouts for air-raid precaution. The power supply of the

electrical utilities in Free China as a whole has today increased 216% in comparison with 1937.

Fuels.—Oil production is a new industry created during the war. The Kansu oil fields discovered long before the start of hostilities are developed by a government agency organized for the purpose. Of the many wells the deepest has penetrated to a depth of 450 metres. Refineries are set up and extended. A new set of equipment with a refining capacity of 63,000 gallons daily purchased from the United States for the fields had just reached Rangoon before that port was occupied by the Japanese army. Part of the machineries was salvaged, but it is impossible owing to the heavy losses to complete the installation for cracking process as planned. More distilleries are consequently resorted to. Production has been rapidly increasing each month. Despite all handicaps, there can be no doubt on the fulfilment of the production schedule for this year, and surplus is likely. In fact production has to be curtailed owing to lack of storage facilities and the existence of a bottleneck in transportation. Efforts are being made for speedy shipments. This being solved, increase of output is expected in 1943.

Coal mines in western China were operated, before the war, by primitive methods. Both coal cutting and transportation were entirely by human labour; there were hardly any ventilation facilities. In consequence mines were not penetrated very deeply and had to be soon abandoned. Efficiency was out of the question. To promote coal production, the principal mines then had to be modernized by installation of modern machinery equipment

moved inland from the war zones. New mines were also opened up after extensive prospecting. Since the war began the production of coal by private mines in Free China has doubled and that by government mines has increased 107 times. The main purpose of government operation in this field has been to meet increased demands of industry and railways. In regions where government plants were to be established and market coal shortage could be foreseen, coal mines available on the spot were developed accordingly by the National Resources Commission in a coordinated effort. As a matter of fact raw materials and coal supply of the region had usually been prospected in full before the location of industry was chosen.

Iron and Steel.—Iron and steel industry in Free China has progressed by leaps and bounds. The production of "white" pig iron by native furnaces, using sandstone as refractory and charcoal as fuel, has been an age-long industry in the interior. But such "white" iron is not suitable for casting modern machinery. After the outbreak of war modern blast furnaces using fire-bricks and coke have been introduced to produce "grey" pig iron. At present there is no more apprehension for the shortage of "grey" iron required by the machine works, while native furnaces are still encouraged to produce "white" iron for steel furnace.

For the production of steel eight units under the National Resources Commission are in operation. Included among these are two rolling plants, a coking plant, a crucible steel plant and an electrical steel plant equipped with cupolas, blast furnaces, electric steel furnaces and Bessemer convertors

of varying sizes. The rolling plants are taking ingots up to 33 lbs. The foundry of the Chialing Steel Works is producing gears, pipes and machineries at the same time. Private production still occupies a very important place in the total steel output. Foremost among the private plants are the Yu-Hsin Iron & Steel Works and the China Industrial Company. Operating an electrical furnace the former manufactures steam hammers and rolling mills for its own use. The latter, organized in 1939, now owns its coal mine, iron ore mine, blast furnace, electrical furnace and Bessemer convertors, all of which are already working in full swing. Many other private plants have just started still more new constructions, and the government steel works have not yet completed their program of expansion. The present production of steel therefore falls far short of the goal. It shows only the start.

The production of copper, lead and zinc by electrical plants has also increased in output. The achievement here is not quantity alone. The purity standard of zinc produced is comparable with all imported products.

Machine Works.—By far the most important of all government industrial establishments is the Central Machine Works. Directly under the control of the National Resources Commission it is the largest of its kind in China today. It was first set up in Hunan and then moved further inland. Today it turns out steam turbine-generators, water turbines, gas producers, spinning sets, lathe, drilling press, planers, nutting machines, trucks, precision tools, gears, cutters and machineries of various descriptions. By its own effort or in co-

operation with provincial governments, it has established an array of machine-making plants in Szechuen, Kiangsi, Kwangtung and Kansu. All of them are already taking commercial orders and turning out machines in quantities. During the first two years of war when the arsenals, being dismantled in the war zones, were not yet reassembled in the interior, the shops of all the machine works manufactured small arms and ammunitions to meet the military demands. The arsenals have long since resumed their work, the machine works have accordingly shifted back to normal production. The total machinery output is as yet small in scale, but it has enabled many factories in Free China to expand and others to come into being at all. A good many alcohol distilleries, paper mills, spinning and weaving mills and some electrical plants, for example, have been equipped mainly with machinery made by the Chinese machine works. Increased production in the means of production, it is hoped, will accelerate the country's industrialization.

Electrical Appliance.—The Central Electrical Appliances Works is again a new creation during the war. It consists of four specialized plants. Together with other electrical manufacturing factories the plants are producing for the army and for the Ministry of Communications. They are rapidly multiplying their output in wires, lamp bulbs, radio receiving and transmitting tubes, telephone sets, exchange switch boards, motors, generators, transformers, volt-meters, ammeters, kilowatt-hour meters, motor starters, switch gears, insulators, storage batteries and dry cells, etc.

Chemical Industry (Alcohol and Gasoline Substitutes).—In the use of

substitutes for materials, of which China is now short of supply, alcohol and gasoline equivalents obtained from vegetable oil cracking have been the most important. Before this war, China produced 2,780,000 gallons of alcohol for solvent and medicinal uses. But the alcohol plants, like other industrial plants, were established in coastal cities. In Szechuen, while molasses, a by-product from sugar refining, was plentiful, no plant existed then to utilize it for alcohol extraction due to lack of local demand. The insatiable demand of war has necessitated increased gasoline production. The demand for alcohol as a substitute has also rapidly increased. Consequently a mushroom growth of alcohol plants has developed in Free China since the first alcohol plant was built by the National Resources Commission in 1938. Since molasses and cereals are abundant inland, the supply of raw materials presents no difficult question.

The cracking of vegetable oil into gasoline equivalents is itself a new industry. The theoretical possibility that gasoline equivalents may be thus obtained had long been well-known. But it was in China that the first pilot plant was built in 1939 in a serious industrial exploration. It has proved a technical success, and under the National Resources Commission it serves now as the model plant for those subsequently built. At present the production of gasoline equivalents supplies over 10% of China's total gasoline requirements.

Both caustic soda and soda ash are produced locally in Free China. With the rich deposit of salt in Szechuen, electrolysis plants moved in from war zones have been able to produce enough

soda and bleaching powder. In Szechuen very rich deposits of natural Glauber salt have been discovered. The production of soda ash has been extensively developed by means of the "Le Blanc" process.

The present production of both caustic soda and soda ash meets only 50% of the existing requirement. It is necessary to distribute them on a rationing basis to paper mills, soap factories, dyeing works and vegetable oil cracking plants, etc. Expansion of the electrolysis and soda ash plants is now in progress and by the end of 1942 production is expected to be doubled. But, with increasing demand, rationing in all probability will continue.

Acids and other chemicals are also produced by the Government owned chemical works and private plants. Of the government plants, the tannery of the National Industrial Research Bureau, the ceramic plant, the sulphuric acid plant, the starch and fermentation plant, the pilot plant of oils and fats should be mentioned.

Cement.—The Szechuen Cement Mill had just been completed when the war started, and was the only one of its kind in existence in the interior. Since then a cement factory has moved into western Hunan from the lower Yangtze which began operating in 1939. Five more smaller ones have also been built in different places. Of the five, three are already engaged in actual production. It should be noted that the machineries installed in these new factories were manufactured entirely by the local machine works with

the only exception that one Yunnan plant has imported the main part of its equipment from Denmark. The cement industry has thus progressed. To make up the deficiency in cement production hydraulic lime has also been produced meantime as its substitute.

Cotton Mills.—As we have pointed out in the foregoing, there were only 67,000 spindles before war in the interior, which number represented barely 1.3% of the total capacity of cotton mills throughout China. Of these 67,000 spindles, 40,000 were destroyed in 1938 in the Changsha fire. Therefore there were actually only 27,000 spindles left. The total number of spindles in Free China has increased more than ten-fold since then. Some cotton mill machineries in the coastal areas were moved in, and more spindles have been manufactured by the inland machine works. In view of the rising demand for cotton goods and hence the need for expansion of the mills' productivity, the Government has encouraged the production of more spindles by the machine works. It is expected that within 1943, 10,000 more spindles will be added to the present capacity.

Flour Mills.—The development of flour mills has also made long strides since the war began. The most noticeable feature is that the machinery of these mills is mostly the production of the local machine works. In geographical distribution 16 out of the 27 now existing are located in Shensi and Szechuen. The abundance of wheat supply in these two provinces permits still further expansion.¹

¹Number of flour mills in Free China, old and new:

Mills already existing in the interior before war...	5
Mills moved in from the war areas	7
Mills built during the war	15
TOTAL	27

The above is only a brief outline of what has been done in economic reconstruction in Free China in the past few years. In all the industries under review production has multiplied. The following table indicates the per cent increase of production in Free China in a number of commodities. The increase is calculated by comparison of the production in 1942 with the year immediately preceding the outbreak of war.

Products	Per cent Increase as Compared with 1936
Cotton Yarn	404
Flour	245
Leather	850
Soap	292
Matches	260
Coal	208
Paper (machine made)	1,700
White Iron	151
Steel	381
Soda	202
Sulphuric Acid	3,333
Cement	250
Motors	9,400
Work Shop Machineries	7,000
Electricity	216

Many industrial goods which we are turning out in fairly large quantities were, before war, not produced in Free China at all. They are listed below:

"Grey" Iron	Lamp Bulbs
Electric Copper	Dry Cells
Caustic Soda	Alcohol
Bleaching Powder	Gasoline
Electric Wires	Lubrication Oil
Radio Receiving and Transmitting Sets	Petroleum Oil
Telephone Sets	Fuel Oil

One important feature to be noticed is that the progress made thus far has been in the main in heavy industries. This is due to government policy. The main purposes of China's indus-

trial reconstruction, as we have said, are to supply the war needs and to lay the ground work for industrialization. Heavy industries therefore are just what China needs most at present from the government point of view. With the development of machine works particularly, the equipment of light industries and hence the production of consumption goods will certainly be facilitated at a later stage. Another important feature of China's industrial reconstruction is the active part taken by the government. This is easily understandable. In the first place, the urgency of war needs has prompted the government action. When the very existence of the state is at stake, it would be disastrous if the Government should adopt a *laissez-faire* policy and let things take their natural course in the adjustment of the all important industrial war supplies. Private initiative, governed mainly by calculations of immediate pecuniary gains and losses, is not here to be relied. Investment in war industries is risky and in most cases may not be profitable. The Government can never be sure that the expectation of a premium would guide the private capital to see all the meritorious or urgent public wants and hence to make coordinated efforts to meet them. Secondly, the principle of social justice, according to Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrines, postulates public control of industry in the development of China's national economy. Under Dr. Sun's teachings private capital may play its own part and make its contributions in the whole industrial framework but it is not to be allowed to overlord the nation's economic life. To forestall the concomitant economic ills of an industrialized acquisitive society—the characteristic complaints

being glaring maldistribution of income, unemployment and social unrest—the Government is therefore ready to step in industry where there is a clear case for public ownership.

The agency in charge of the government industries is the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. In the first two years of its existence since 1932 it was known as the National Defense Planning Commission. Under the present name it was first put under the National Military Council in 1934 and then reorganized as an important subordinate organization of the Ministry of Economic Affairs in 1938. The law which legalized this final integration and is now still in force authorizes the commission to "develop and manage the nation's basic industries, mines, and electric power stations." The commission has a large staff and carries as a part of its regular work extensive investigations of the country's mineral reserves, raw materials, and industrial potentiality. In actual production it has now 41 factories, 43 mines, and 24 power stations totalling altogether 108 units.¹

¹Various provincial governments have also participated in the development companies of the provinces. The companies and their registered capital are listed below:

Development Organizations	Capital	Year of Inauguration
Kweichow Development Corporation	\$15,000,000	1939
Fukien Development Corporation	35,000,000	1940
Shensi Development Corporation	20,000,000	1941
Anhui Development Corporation	10,000,000	1941
Kwangsi Development Corporation	30,000,000	1941
Kwangtung Development Corporation	40,000,000	1941
Kiangsi Development Corporation	—	—
Yunnan Enterprise Bureau	—	—
Szechuen-Sikang Development Corporation	70,000,000	1942
West Yunnan Development Corporation	40,000,000	—
Kansu Development Corporation	20,000,000	1942
Hupeh Development Corporation	50,000,000	—
Suiyuan Development Corporation	5,000,000	1942
Sikang Development Corporation	—	—

So much stress put on the government-owned industries does not imply that the development of private enterprises has been neglected by the Government. Facts have well proved the contrary. The Government in the past five years has not only assisted the removing of private factories from the dangerous war zones to safety, but also has been giving persistent help to their multitudinous growth.

The patronage policy is well demonstrated by a series of legislative enactments whereby the Government undertakes to guarantee a fair return to certain industries and to underwrite their losses if they may arise. The annual premium assured by law to capital invested in the enumerated industries varied from six to 10%. If profits fall short of the assured minimum, the deficit is to be made up with money from the public purse. The protection may continue from five to seven years as the Committee for Industrial Aid of the Ministry of Economic Affairs may decide in each case. The law covers practically all the important industries in Free China. Millions of dollars are allotted

annually by the Government for the purpose. In another special regulation published in 1938 particularly favourable treatment is granted to domestic enterprises started during the war where the shares held by overseas Chinese is over 60% of the total capital investment. The privileges conferred include financial and technical assistance, tax exemption, use of public lands, special transportation rates, etc.

The inauguration of the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration in 1937 has since then further intensified the Government's efforts in promoting private industrial and mining interests. This government agency is headed by an administrator and a deputy administrator. The former post is now held concurrently by the Minister of Economic Affairs Dr. Wong Wen-hao himself, who is at the same time Chairman of the National Resources Commission. We have seen the stupendous task faced by the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration in directing the moving of factories to the interior. Its adjustment work covers furthermore a very broad field. Under a statute of the Ministry of Economic Affairs it concerns itself in problems of industry and mining on their financing, on co-ordination of supply in electric power and materials, on capital equipment, on planning of new constructions, on distribution of finished products and on a host of other matters that may come well within the meaning of the term "adjustment." Its financial assistance to private enterprises takes three forms: First of all is actual participation and investment. This is being done in branches of production where it is necessary to encourage new growth or expansion in order to eliminate a "bottleneck." The amount

of money so invested runs to over N. C. \$ 10,000,000 in 1942. An important alternative is an outright loan. The cumulative total of loans amounted to about N. C. \$20,000,000 by the end of last June. By this means the Adjustment Administration has helped a good many enterprises out of their financial straight jackets year after year. But the means at its disposal is limited by its budget. It cannot on its own resources satisfy the surging demands of all the needy as the rising prices continually necessitate ever more running capital for the operation of all industrial enterprises. If it cannot make loans, however, it may use its influence assisting the deserving entrepreneurs in securing bank credit from the four national banks. This in fact has often been the practice in the past few years. The results thus brought about have been on the whole satisfactory, for bank loans to industry well conform to the government policy to direct money to productive uses as against its employment for speculation.

The handicaps confronted by industries in China today have been the shortage of skilled labour and the difficulty in acquiring enough machineries and machine parts for replacement or expansion. To overcome the first handicap the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration has instituted a system of apprenticeship in various industrial plants. It has brought up many more trained workers under the system since last year. In anticipation of the second, it set up an acquirement and supply department early in 1939 and has since ordered thousands of tons of much needed machine parts and material abroad. Important shipments were made over the Burma Road when it was open. Heavy losses were suffered

however with the fall of Rangoon where large stocks of ordered material from England and the U.S.A. were stored for inland transportation.

The Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration sees to it that the private plants are doing their part in the total industrial efforts for the prosecution of war. It has established a network of outposts in important industrial centres to carry out its orders and to represent it in dealing with local industrial problems on the spot. Recently it despatched an expedition party to the Northwest. The party consists of industrialist, bankers, engineers, economists, and other experts. The expedition is a first step for subsequent further action.

III. WARTIME CONTROL

Thus far we have been dealing with China's recent industrial development from the viewpoint of production. This, of course, is only one aspect of wartime economy. Distribution constitutes the other principal aspect. By distribution we mean the uses to which the limited quantities of goods are put in face of the multifarious demands. Rational distribution necessarily involves a system of priority and hence a system of planning and control.

Producing in Free China, in spite of its spectacular increase, falls far short of self-sufficiency. The cutting up of supply line from abroad, the large budgetary deficits, the increase of note issue and consequently speculation and hoarding have all contributed to the present difficult situation in which effective check of the steeply rising prices has become the chief con-

cern of the Government. The general wholesale price indices of the Chungking city, taking the price average of the first six months of 1937 as 100, for example, shot up to 136.2 in 1938, 237.1 in 1939, 641.6 in 1940 and over 1,553 since 1941.¹ The price movements in other cities showed like change for the same period.

Effective control has long been therefore practically urgent and unavoidable. The system of control so far exercised is based on half a dozen *ad hoc* measures severally introduced on different occasions for particular immediate needs. Commodities now placed under control may be classified under several categories, and the aim to be achieved in their control varies with each category of goods.

In the first place, there are the materials for manufacture including metals and non-metal materials, machinery and machine parts. These are producers' goods. Their alternative uses determine the kind and quantity of final goods to be turned out. The first step of control is a general inventory of all existing stock. The producers of the goods in question are required to file a monthly return of their output. Traders under the regulation must report to the public authority each month their existing stock, sales of the month and new additions ordered or in shipment. This inventory enables the Government to envisage the whole supply situation and to formulate its policy as to the uses to which the stock should be applied. A supplementary step consists of a purchase permit. No purchase may be made unless authorized by a permit to be issued by the Industrial and Mining Adjustment

Administration which acts on an application and sees to it that the uses to be made thereof conform to the government policy. Alternative uses are regulated on a priority order, which is determined on the relative urgency of different public needs. The prices of articles in this category are regulated on a "cost-plus-reasonable-profits" basis if they are produced mainly in Free China. Otherwise the restriction of uses limits the number of demands and thus exercises a restraining influence on the transaction price of the market. A government certificate is also necessary in transportation. Inter-port shipments without certificates are liable to seizure.

Secondly, some minerals and raw materials are placed under control for exports. Articles under this category other than minerals are wool, bristles, raw silk, tung oil, and tea. They are collected at a fixed price by the Foreign Trade Commission of the Ministry of Finance, and shipped to foreign markets. The Government has practically become the sole buyer at home and China's only seller abroad. Here the Government has stepped in business in order that it may secure the foreign exchange for redemption of recent foreign loans. The mineral products in question are tungsten, antimony, tin, mercury, manganese, bismuth and their compounds. All these mineral products are nationalized. The National Resources Commission is responsible for their collecting and sale. The purpose of control is not for foreign exchange alone. For these minerals are strategical materials, and the Government wants to be sure that they do not reach the enemy by muggling or any other means.

In the third category under control

are the daily necessities. Of these the Ministry of Finance has established monopoly on salt, sugar, matches and tobacco, and a Ministry of Food has been created for food control. The main purpose of the monopolies is revenue. Their inauguration therefore does not mean a fall of prices of the commodities in question. The Ministry of Food collects agricultural land tax in kind and is in charge of rice commandeering from the land gentry. The Government thus commands enough quantity of staple food to exercise a decisive influence on the market for grains and cereals.

More complicated problems are encountered, however, in the control of other necessities. Early in February 1941, commodities which were considered necessary for everyday life were selected for regulation purpose by the Ministry of Economic Affairs under an emergency law. The law which is the basis of government regulative action today groups the necessities into four general items, e.g., food, cloth, fuels and miscellaneous including salt, paper, matches, and vegetable oil. Now the control of food, salt, and matches has already been dealt with. The rest came under the jurisdiction of the Commodity Administration¹ which was created in March 1942. Subject to the superior authority of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, the Commodity Administration has extensive powers according to the law which governs its constitution. It is responsible for the adjustment of the demand and supply relations in the necessities. Its duty it is to keep an inventory of stock and to direct distribution. It sets ceiling prices for five of the six commodities under its control and in-

¹See Price Index of the Chungking City published by the Department of Statistics of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Vol. I, No. 1, 1942.

¹Abolished at the beginning of 1943.

existing costs plus a fair return. Voluntary self-imposed checks of the local trade syndicates proved ineffective. More drastic measures were necessary. In the development of price regulation this was the first phase.

The Emergency Law for the Control of Agriculture, Mines, Industry and Commerce was promulgated right after the outbreak of war. One year later it was extensively revised. After then the Ministry of Economic Affairs authorized under this law began its control on a list of selected commodities. The aim of control was not only to facilitate war production but also to stabilize the prices of the listed goods. Price control by means of controlling the supply thus became the second phase of price regulation. The principle was partly applied to necessities in particular at the end of 1939 when the Price Stabilization Bureau of the Ministry of Economic Affairs first came into being. The Bureau set up in course of time a chain of supply stations in and around the Chungking city. At the stations began the sale at cheap prices of a miscellany of goods shipped in from the coastal ports.

Price regulation came to its third phase when the Government inaugurated its vigorous campaign against hoarding and speculation. At the end of 1939 price advance showed no sign of abatement. Hoarding and speculation was widely practiced. Psychological and other factors forced the prices still higher. The shadow of a vicious circle seemed to have grown in size over the scene. At this juncture a statute was issued by the Ministry of Economic Affairs to check the speculative activities. The statute provided compulsory sale of stock

piles to the public authorities in case advice and warning by such authorities should have failed to induce the owner to part with his hoards at reasonable prices. The Emergency Law against Hoarding and Profiteering on Daily Necessities published in February 1941 further strengthened the Government's hands in this crusading campaign. Under provisions of this law stock hoards of necessities are liable to confiscation. Any person or persons engaged in hoarding or profiteering are liable to heavy fine and a term of imprisonment. With the creation of the Economic Council, an economic police force was organized to investigate cases in violation of this law. This force now comes under the Investigation Section of the National General Mobilization Council and is in close cooperation with the Commodity Administration. Prosecutions are conducted by the local authorities and the Commodity Administration itself.

To eliminate hoarding and profiteering bank inspection has also been instituted since this spring. Commercial banks are required to file reports every 10 days to the Ministry of Finance or to the Treasury setting forth their deposits, loans and amount of draft bills of the period. Inspection is also carried on by examining the books of the banking institutions by inspectors of the Treasury or special officers stationed at important financial centres for this particular job. The books and activities of business concerns or shops in Chungking which have borrowed bank money over a sum of \$50,000 are too brought under scrutiny by the Commodity Administration. In this way the Government traces the uses of bank loans. Many cases of speculative hoarding and other unlawful business practices have thus

been exposed. Prosecutions follow. Since the promulgation of the General Mobilization Law in March, punishments for profiteering offenses have also become more severe.

When the prices are high and when money is "cheap," a correct remedy is to withdraw enough money from circulation. In order to absorb the surplus purchasing power of the

public, much heavier taxes on incomes, excessive profits, unearned increment, etc. are imposed. Large sums of government bonds are issued with attractive terms for public subscription. The vigilant watch over banking operations by the Government has also contributed greatly towards credit contraction.

investigates into cases of hoarding and other unlawful practices. The six commodities in question are cotton, cotton yarn, cotton cloth, coal, vegetable oil, and paper. Of these the first four are the most important.

Details of control over all these necessities constitute a long story. Two principal features are to be noticed, however, in the policy adopted by the Commodity Administration in regulating the cotton cloth prices, which serve also as a concrete illustration of its general method of control to be applied to other commodities. In the first place, it attempts to control the prices through the control of enough supply. Secondly, the control of the finished goods is to be achieved by extending the control over materials that go to make them. The essential operations of the mechanism which the Commodity Administration has been labouring to build up are somewhat like the following:

It sets the price at which it would buy up the cotton crops in surplus regions and requisition the excessive stocks of cotton mills over and above a certain limited quantity. The cotton thus obtained is to be distributed to mills under a quota system in exchange for their cotton yarns which in turn are used to trade in for cotton cloth. Thus the final cotton goods produced come in the main under the Commodity Administration's direct control. The selling prices of these goods are fixed at cost-plus-reasonable-profit. The process seems simple enough. The actual operation, however, is not without difficulties. One important point is, should the Commodity Administration accept the rising market price for the fixed cotton buying price, the price of the cotton cloth cannot be low. On the other

hand, if it should force down the cotton buying price too rigidly, the source of cotton supply in due course of time would constitute a problem. Whether or not the cotton growers would continue to grow cotton in the absence of other government measures depends upon the relative advantage of alternative uses of the productive agents. While other prices are not as rigidly regulated and the price of cotton is down low, it remains to be seen that productive agents will not be diverted into other uses and thus bring about a cotton shortage.

Receiving fixed salaries the government employees and the staff members of the educational institutions are the hardest hit class of the social strata during the time of violent price change. One function of the Commodity Administration is to supply them and their dependents with cloth, coal, and vegetable oil at reasonably low prices through cooperative stores. In order to be entitled to the privilege all these salaried people must become members of cooperative societies organized for the purpose. From such cooperative stores they get a rationed quantity of the few necessities each month. Rice quota according to size of family and other living subsidies are also distributed by the Government to them through the cashier's office where they receive their monthly salary payments.

It can be seen from the above that the power of actual control is divided in the main among the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Food, and the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Under the Ministry last named actual work falls on the National Resources Commission, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration and the Commodity Administration. The Commodity Administration again has

three important subordinate organs to carry on its work. They are the Agricultural Credit Administration¹ which is in charge of cotton and cotton cloth, the Fuel Control Administration in charge of coal supply and the Price Stabilization Bureau which sells to the public necessities at prices measurably lower than in the market. At the same time the Ministry of Social Affairs regulates the wages of labour; the Ministry of Communications the railway, water and animal transportation charges; and the Transportation Control Bureau of the National Military Council truck transports and liquid fuel. Foreign exchange problems are handled by the Foreign Exchange Control Commission of the Ministry of Finance. The Joint office of the Four Government Banks is dealing with matters concerning the price stabilization fund from which the Commodity Administration and its subordinate organs have drawn large sums of money to meet their requirement of commercial transaction expenses.

Over and above the multifarious government agencies for economic control is the National General Mobilization Council of the Executive Yuan. The Council consists of the President and the Vice-President of the Yuan, the Ministers, the Chief and Deputy Chiefs of Staff, the Secretaries-General of the Supreme National Defense Council, of the Executive Yuan and of the Headquarters of Kuomintang, etc. It is a policy formulating and coordinating body. It approves the plans, projects and regulations of the executive departments in connection with general

mobilization and scrutinizes their work therewith. It has no administrative duties. Its resolutions are put into effect by the President of the Executive Yuan who is at the same time the presiding officer of the Council. It keeps a technical staff divided into sections in charge of military affairs, man-power, finance, material supplies, transportation, and investigation activities. The Council came into being in the summer of 1942. Before its inauguration an Economic Council was in existence carrying on similar functions.

As the war progressed, not only have the measures for price control become more complicated and vigorous, they have also been enforced with increasing severity. Three stages are distinguishable in this development. Early in 1938, symptoms were already discernible that a violent price up-swing was under way. But the actual price movements were due, however, more to psychological local factors than to a general shortage of goods. The statute issued by the Ministry of Economic Affairs on February 20, 1939 therefore relied on the good sense and self-imposed rules of the trade syndicates for price stabilization. In each city or town the local authorities, the chamber of commerce and the syndicates of trades for daily necessities organized a local committee for price regulation. Price agreements reached in the committee under the statute were to be based upon local conditions and the averages of pre-war years. If the costs were affected by war, the prices of goods under consideration were to be fixed at the

¹Both the function and set-up of the Agricultural Credit Administration, now renamed the Cotton, Yarn and Cloth Control Bureau and under the Ministry of Finance, have undergone drastic changes since its advent. Its present duty is considerably narrowed and is confined to collection of cotton, trade of cotton yarn, etc.

INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES

Z. Y. Chow¹ (周宗智)

C. I. C. or Chinese Industrial Cooperatives is at once a movement and a business enterprise. As a movement it possesses high ideals which have aroused and still arouse world-wide interest and enthusiasm and have impelled people both inside and outside the movement to admirable sacrifices. The fulfilment of these ideals will not only benefit the Chinese nation and people but in the end the world at large as well. However, as a business enterprise it must meet all the realistic requirements of a modern business, especially under the conditions of wartime China. In appraising the records of the C. I. C. since its inception in 1938, therefore, its dual character as an idealistic movement on the one hand and as a realistic business enterprise on the other must be borne in mind.

The development of the C. I. C. can be divided into three stages, namely, the planning stage, the big offensive and consolidation. During the spring of 1938 after the Japanese big guns and incendiary bombs succeeded in the destruction of at least 80% of Chinese industries in and around Shanghai, when hundreds and thousands of destitute and homeless people, among whom was a large number of skilled workers, were compelled to lie idle in refugee camps and when the Japanese were preparing to apply the strategy of "keeping up the war with war" by ruthless exploitation of Chinese re-

sources, human and material, to conquer the Chinese, the idea of an industrial cooperative movement dawned upon a group of Chinese and foreign enthusiasts. Through such a movement, they reasoned, not only can the skilled Chinese workers then idling in the refugee camps be prevented from working for the Japanese but they can be induced to move into China's hinterland to become self-conscious, self-supporting and self-respecting productive citizens who will man the new economic bulwark against the Japanese invasion. Through such a movement tools and machinery of production can be moved into Free China from occupied areas. But of most far-reaching and profound significance of all, such a movement can do much to lay the foundation of a new economic democracy for China both during and after the war, thus hastening the complete realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's great Principle of People's Livelihood. Motivated by these far-reaching objectives, this small group in Shanghai laboured hard and long, and as a result of their thinking and consulting together, a comprehensive plan was born, which was presented to and accepted by the National Government.

In accordance with the plan a "big offensive" was launched, as it were, and in the period of less than a year more than 1,000 industrial cooperatives were organized. The outstanding

characteristic of this stage of development was speed, speed in rescuing machinery and other tools of production from areas threatened with imminent invasion and speed in giving refugees, particularly skilled workers, productive employment, thus not only helping the Government to solve one of the most pressing social problems of the war but also assisting in the production of daily necessities to meet both military and civilian needs. For instance, in the early part of 1939 Madame Chiang Kai-shek wanted to have \$200,000 worth of winter clothes made for the soldiers at the front and wanted the order filled quickly. The C. I. C. accepted the order and had the entire job from spinning the yarn to putting on the buttons done in less than a month. The Ministry of Military Affairs has now given the C. I. C. a standing order to make as many army blankets as the cooperatives can produce. In 1940 half a million blankets were made. This figure was doubled in 1941. With improved organization and technique the C. I. C. is endeavouring to produce one and a half million army blankets during the year of 1942-43. It is doubtful whether any other manufacturing establishment under these war conditions in China could have done the work on such quick order and on such a large scale.

C. I. C. At present.—Figures for the first six months of 1942 showed a total of 1,590 cooperatives societies with a membership of 22,680. Outstanding loans amounted to \$15,712,857 and paid-up share capital—money paid in by the workers from their own earnings—\$4,553,392, while the total monthly production stood at \$24,022,944. These figures, however, do not include the experimental and other factories

engaged in the making of army blankets, nor those workers who are engaged as preparatory members and apprentices, many of whom expect to become full-fledged members in time. These workers should serve to treble the number of those engaged in productive efforts with the C. I. C., while the value of the products would be approximate \$30 million.

Advance which was somewhat spectacular during the first two and a half years has slowed down recently due to a deliberate policy of consolidation. This has been advisable because of certain unforeseen difficulties with which the administration has been faced, the most serious of which have undoubtedly been the shortage of operating capital and the soaring prices of essential raw materials.

During this stage of consolidation many cooperatives have been re-organized or combined so that they can better meet the standards of a sound and promising cooperative, while in a few cases cooperatives have been dissolved when found too far below par. The one point to be noted is that while the number of cooperatives in a given locality may be reduced, the size and quality of the membership and productive efficiency of these cooperatives is improved by this process of consolidation. This is clearly shown in the increasing sense of responsibility and ownership on the part of the coop members and strikingly reflected under the items of subscribed and paid-up capital. The legally permissible ratio between the subscribed capital and loans outstanding is 20 whereas the average ratio for all coops is around seven. This is significant, as the success of a social movement like the C. I. C. can best be measured by the widespread and increasing parti-

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cipation of its membership and a corresponding sense of responsibility on their part.

Notable is the progress that has been made in the two war-front areas, Tsin-Yu and Che-Wan, or the northern and the south Yangtze fronts. When the C. I. C. first started, it was intended to develop coops in the regions near the front lines and behind the enemy lines as quickly as possible. Experience, however, showed that a stable base must be established before an advance could be made into places where conditions were unsettled. And as soon as this base was established, work was started in the frontline areas without delay and with the best support of the Government, which has already appropriated \$4,000,000 as capital in addition to \$20,000 monthly as current running expenses. Through the 200 odd cooperatives which are necessarily on a mobile or semi-mobile basis, work is provided for the shifting groups of refugees who are "on the run" before the sporadic raids of the Japanese and daily necessities are produced to meet the military and civilian needs of the people at the front. In both the Tsin-Yu and Che-Wan regions the cooperatives are concentrating on shoes, absorbent cotton and gauze, paper, chemicals, drugs and mechanical tools.

As to the types of industry in which the cooperative societies are engaged these may be broadly classified as follows: machines and metal working, mining and metallurgical, textile, chemical, pottery, food supplies, transport and miscellaneous. Of these the textile industry constitutes by far the larger share, embracing 34% of the total number of societies.

In the stage of the "big offensive," many industries were started to meet

the immediate needs of the respective localities at the time. But it is foreseen that some of these industries can at best be of a temporary nature. However, other industries such as textile, tannery, paper-making and alcohol-making should, with further and continued improvement in the technique of the processes in their production, be able to stand competition not only with similar goods manufactured in China but also goods imported from abroad. Thus every effort is being made and will continue to be made in solidifying the foundation and broadening the bases of these industries so that they will become even after the war the mainstay of the C. I. C., industries around which a number of auxiliary industries will be built. While the C. I. C. is a product of the war it definitely looks beyond the war period however long it may be. The cooperatives that are already founded and those yet to be started will not terminate with the war but will continue to be an important part of the new economic structure of the New China.

The direction of the Chinese industrial cooperatives is invested in 86 depots in 18 provinces. These 86 depots are divided among seven regions: namely, Northwest: Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai and Hupeh; Chuen-Kang: Szechuen and Sikang; Southwest: Hunan and Kwangsi; Southeast: Kiangsi, Fukien and Kwangtung; Tien-Chien: Yunnan and Kweichow; Tsin-Yu: Shansi and Honan; and Che-Wan: Chekiang and Anhwei. These depots are responsible to the seven regional headquarters which in turn are responsible to the central headquarters at Chungking. To advise and assist the depots and regional headquarters in the different localities, promotion committees com-

posed of representative elements of the community who are interested in the work of the C. I. C. are organized. Recently at Chungking a promotion committee consisting of government, party, military and cultural leaders was organized to advise the central headquarters in its multifarious relationships and promotional activities.

Education and Welfare.—What distinguish a cooperative from an ordinary factory are education and welfare. Far from being automatons of production the coop members are trained to be self-reliant, self-respecting, efficient workers having individually as well as collectively a strength all their own. Thus every C. I. C. depot sponsors programs of general and cooperative education. Technical training is also given to applicants, especially refugees, preparatory to setting them up in cooperative workshops. In some regions youngsters between 12 and 16 are recruited and trained especially as technicians who are expected to augment the personnel in the machine coops scattered all over the country. Primary schools are also run for the children of the cooperative members with a view to training them as cooperators.

The present C. I. C. program of education also concerns itself with the training of the staff for the depots, regional headquarters as well as central headquarters. The present staff numbering about 1,000 people is derived mostly from the mass education movement, rural cooperative organizations, Y.M.C.A. and other educational and social institutions. The majority of them are college graduates or graduates of engineering or technical schools and not a few of them are returned students from abroad, es-

pecially from the U.S.A. Those who are in responsible positions are men and women with considerable business, technical or social experience. The training work of the C. I. C. staff is done mostly in the field, that is, at regional headquarters with general direction from the central headquarters. The trainees include accountants, organizers and in not a few cases candidates for depot master-ships. Plans are being formulated for a higher training institute for the training of men and women to fill more responsible positions in the C. I. C. organization. For the past two or three years a higher training class was conducted by the C. I. C. in Chengtu with the collaboration of the University of Nanking and West China Union University. Not only is the C. I. C. concerned with proper training for new recruits before they enter the work but also additional training for staff already in the service. Since it is difficult and expensive to gather together in one place staff members from the different regional headquarters, situated as they are all over the country, the experiment has been tried in the form of peripatetic classes at the various depots and has been found highly satisfactory. These classes are conducted by men with considerable experience in training who are well versed in cooperative theories and practices.

Welfare is also an important feature in the program. To carry out this phase nurseries, recreation clubs and consumers' coops among members are organized. In some places community centres provide all these and other welfare features for the coop members and their families to enjoy and participate in. A typical cooperative community centre or village includes a

recreation hall which is also used for all sorts of meetings, a library or reading room, a nursery, one or two primary schools and a clinic. The workshops of the coops are built around or are within the circumference of this community centre or cooperative village. Such community centres are now found in at least three of the seven regions and it is planned that more will be built in the other regions. Medical welfare is particularly urgent and important. Not only are the coop members given treatment when they are sick but they are taught and helped in guarding themselves and their families from preventable diseases. These are two full-fledged hospitals within the C. I. C. framework with more to be built, if funds permit, together with a number of clinics scattered throughout the country. These hospitals and clinics do not confine their services to the coop members and their families. They also serve the general populace as far as their facilities allow. In this connection it should be noted that the National Health Administration and the International Red Cross have been exceedingly helpful in providing the C. I. C. with drugs and medicines. But as the scope of this aspect of C. I. C. welfare work expands more funds, more facilities and more medicines are needed.

A unique type of welfare and cooperative effort is projected in the wounded soldiers' cooperatives. These, which in Chinese are also called "honorable soldiers' cooperatives," are found in five of the seven regions, namely, Southeast, Southwest, Chuenkang, Tien-Chien, and Northwest. By far the largest number and most representative are in Hsingkuo, Kiangsi, in the southeast region. These

cooperatives usually present a scrupulously clean, neat and orderly appearance and their members are exceptionally well behaved, clearly showing the indelible marks of military discipline. One of the best things which they do for the men is to give them a trade together with a sense of security. These two factors, namely, a trade for each individual and a corresponding sense of security, have often made it easier for disabled soldiers to get married and settled down, which in turn becomes an inducement for more wounded soldiers to join up. The C. I. C. sees the tremendous significance for these wounded soldiers' coops not only because they provide employment for a group of people who would otherwise remain idle and useless but also because they definitely point to a way in which the millions of Chinese veterans can be rehabilitated and put into civilian life again after the war.

Technical Improvement.—Constant improvement in the technique of production is a keynote with the C. I. C. and is an aim toward the achievement of which its efforts are never ceasing. It is well realized that C. I. C. products must stand on their own merits especially after the termination of the war, when certain factors now favourable to small and decentralized industries during war time, such as difficulty of transportation, the high tariff and the inordinate demands for goods in China's interior, will be removed and when competition will be keen. The central headquarters maintains an engineering section whose important function is to study into possible improvements in the technique and methods of production. An experimental laboratory in the Northwest, conducted with the cooperation of the

Shensi Provincial Government, has achieved notable success along the line of chemical products and more recently in connection with turning coal into coke. The technical research institute, maintained mostly by contribution from abroad, at the southeast regional headquarters at Kanhsien, Kiangsi, has done much to improve the technique of production in paper-making and tanning in that region. At Chengtu experiments have been and are being conducted to improve production methods and technique in textiles. A concrete example of this is the continuous spinner which was first tested and used in Chengtu and has now spread to several other centres in the country. Other examples of C. I. C. technical improvements are the charcoal burning engines in the southeast and the waterwheel of the northwest. These improvements are not in the form of spectacular inventions. Rather they are the introduction and adoption of simple techniques and methods which in not a few cases have done a great deal to accelerate and improve production as well as cut down production cost.

The Cooperative Itself.—So much for the C. I. C. organization, the organization for the promotion and supervision of the cooperatives. Let us have a look at the cooperative itself. How is it organized? And how does it operate? To form a cooperative, at least seven persons of adequate technical training and skill are required. When seven or more wish to organize a society they meet and talk things over. They draw up a plan and a budget which they submit to the C. I. C. depot in that locality for study and investigation. Upon approval of the general plan the depot is

ready to recognize and register it as one of the cooperatives and extend to it all possible assistance, be it financial, technical or otherwise. If the said cooperative in question requires a loan, the depot may extend it out of the C. I. C. funds, or it may introduce it to a bank in which case the C. I. C. guarantee is usually required. After all these procedures are completed, the cooperative is ready to produce and do business. The relationship of the C. I. C. depot to the cooperative from that point on is one of general supervision, direction and advice, technically, financially, educationally and otherwise.

The organization of a cooperative consists of (1) a general meeting which has the supreme authority and elects (2) a board of directors and (3) a supervisory committee. The chief responsibility of the board of directors is to conduct the business efficiently and cooperatively, subject to the principles laid down by the general meeting. The chairman of the board represents the cooperative in all its dealings with the outside. The supervisory committee is responsible for auditing the account and for supervising the work of the directors generally to make sure that they always set for the best interests of the cooperative. For the technical function of audit they may employ an outside auditor. The general meeting decides on the division of profits at the end of the year, approves the election of new members, expels members when necessary, and fixes the salaries and scale of wages to be paid by the cooperative. The board of directors is empowered where necessary to employ a manager to run the plant. In the smaller cooperatives one of the members, usually one of the directors, serves as manager.

INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES

trial cooperatives are organized, C. I. C. has meant a new vitality and the basis of a new economic and social order, and it can mean the same to many more communities. Difficulties and problems there have been and are plenty, problem of trained personnel, of organization and of fighting against misunderstandings and prejudices and against old and unscientific ways of doing things; but these are problems and difficulties not alone facing the C. I. C. but any and all constructive and progressive enterprises. The re-

markable fact is that it has achieved as much as it has despite these difficulties and problems. What it needs is proper encouragement and support both within the country and abroad. With the proper encouragement and support C. I. C. is bound to succeed and to become—as some one has said, “one of the most significant movements the world has ever seen”—a movement that will greatly help not only China but the United Nations as well to win the war, and what is more important, to win the peace after the war.

AGRICULTURE

SHEN HUNG-LIEH¹ (沈鴻烈)

SINCE the commencement of her war of resistance against Japan, China has embarked upon an economic policy of increasing production in various fields with a view to meeting her war needs. The development of agriculture, which remains the basis of China's economic structure, has naturally become a matter of primary concern to the National Government. The importance of this branch of economic activity cannot be over-emphasized in view of its contributions towards the war effort in the way of supplying food to the fighting forces in the field and to the vast civilian population in the rear, increasing the production of a number of exportable agricultural products in exchange for war materials, providing timber for construction purposes, and removing war refugees from the coastal provinces for the reclamation of waste or virgin land in the interior.

It must however be pointed out that the Government's agricultural policy at present is directed not simply at meeting the wartime needs, but also at laying down a solid foundation for rural rehabilitation after the war. In the years preceding the outbreak of the war, China had to import rice from abroad amounting to over 15,000,000 piculs per year, and to import over 9,000,000 piculs of wheat in order to make up her domestic shortage. But the achievements in

recent years in agricultural improvement and extension, which resulted in an annual increase in the production of these food crops, have quite changed the situation. By now China's interior provinces can be proud of virtual self-sufficiency in food supply. The total amount of food crops increased in 1941 ran to the figures of over 93,000,000 *shih* piculs. The same may be said of cotton production. The southwestern provinces were formerly far from sufficient in the production of this crop, but, as a result of the direction and encouragement activities on the part of the Government, they have come to be able to produce an annual output of more than 6,000,000 *shih* piculs. There are still other staple products including silk, tea, and wood oil which registered a likewise increase. The following pages will describe the agricultural situation in 1942 under the following headings: (1) administrative machinery, (2) improvement in agricultural production, (3) promotion of fisheries and animal husbandry, (4) development of forestry, (5) reclamation work, (6) rural economy, and (7) increase of food production.

Administrative Machinery.—Before the outbreak of the present war, agricultural administration was placed under the charge of the Ministry of Industry. A National Agricultural

¹ Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Miao Tung (茅 達) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

If he is paid for the work as a manager, he must be a different person from the chairman of the board of directors. However, the manager does not have to be a member of the cooperative.

The profit of a cooperative are divided at the end of the year according to the C. I. C. constitution, usually as follows:

Reserves	...	20-30%
Emergency or contribution to the C. I. C.	...	10%
Bonus to staff	...	10%
Common good fund	...	10%
Dividend to members and workers	...	40-50%

In most of the cooperatives or workshops there are seasonal hired workers and apprentices. The C. I. C., however, sees to it that these are not exploited.

After a time the cooperatives in such locality are encouraged to organize themselves into a federation which handles the supply and marketing for member-cooperatives, with the help of the C. I. C., as well as the educational and welfare work. Local federations, when there are enough of them in each region, are expected to organize themselves into a regional federation, and from the regional the national federation will finally emerge. The national federation will then take over the functions now performed by the C. I. C., thus bringing to full fruition the highest hope of the C. I. C. leaders, namely that the cooperatives will fully and completely govern themselves through their own national federation.

The total capitalization of the cooperatives to date is estimated to be \$25,000,000. Of this amount 35% has been supplied by the Government, about 10% from paid-up share capital, and the rest mainly supplied

by the Chinese banks. A significant step was recently taken in Chungking with the formation of the finance committee composed of leading bankers, which committee is expected to do much to help the C. I. C. secure the necessary capital, both long and short term, for the expansion of its work which is increasingly demanded by objective needs and conditions. As the business of the Chinese industrial cooperatives expands, its finances will to an ever increasing degree be handled, as they should be handled, through its own financial machinery the beginnings of which are already seen in the Kung Ho treasuries that are being organized in different localities. Investments from within the country and abroad will always be welcome.

International Interest.—One of the distinguishing features of the C. I. C. movement is the widespread international interest it has aroused from the very beginning. This interest crystalized in the formation of promotion committees, first in Hongkong, then in Manila and later in the United States and Great Britain. In the United States the C. I. C. is an important participating organization in the United China Relief, while in Great Britain plans are now being formulated for a campaign to raise capital as well as funds for equipment. Funds which have come in through the efforts of these organizations and which have totalled approximately N.C.\$5,000,000 to date, have enabled C. I. C. to undertake many important forms of services which would otherwise have been impossible. In fact, the success which the movement has made thus far is in no small measure due to the very generous support

which has come from friends abroad. Education, research, training and support of refugee groups, assistance in the evacuation of cooperatives and offices from threatened areas on the war front, salvaging of useful machinery and materials, experimentation, loan capital for special projects such as cooperative treasuries, publication of important texts, opening of work in new fields,—these and other forms of services have all been largely helped and supported through the special funds that have come in a steadily increasing stream from overseas. In the earlier days the Chinese of Hongkong, the Philippines, Malaya and Java were the chief contributors though a very substantial share also came from British, American and other friends in these and other areas. Of equal importance with this financial help has been the technical advice and assistance rendered to the movement by advisors and experts of different nationalities along different lines of work of the C. I. C. While essentially a Chinese movement with its base in China, C. I. C. transcends any narrow nationalistic limits. Its effects and influences are bound to be far-reaching, especially in pointing out a way for the construction of a new world order after the present disastrous war.

Prospects.—With the encircling and ever-tightening blockade by the enemy, China must as far as humanly possible produce all she needs for both military and civilian use within her own boundaries, from raw materials to finished products. Thus the national keynote of *increased production*. Thus the national keynote of *economic self-sufficiency*. These two have been and are today more than ever the keynotes of the C. I. C. Every plan is being

formulated and every effort is being exerted to increase its production so that it can play an increasingly important and adequate part in helping to meet the challenging and pressing need for goods all over the country. As for self-sufficiency, this has been the policy of the C. I. C. since its very inception. Through local federations, then regional federations and finally a national federation, the cooperative industries throughout the country, complementary to each other, will all be linked up together to make a continuous and integral whole—from developing raw materials to manufacturing finished products. Through increased production, through its centralized and coordinated system of supply and marketing, through its own transport system and its financial organizations, it is hoped that C. I. C. will move ever nearer to its goal of self-sufficiency as time advances. For only as it becomes self-sufficient can the C. I. C. be regarded as a genuine independent and popular movement.

Whatever else may be said about the C. I. C. movement the following conclusions can be drawn from the past few years of experience: (1) A good preliminary foundation has been laid for cooperative industries in China. (2) Objective conditions in China today are favourable, more than ever, for the development of these cooperative industries. In terms of production the result already achieved may not be as large as had been expected but the potentialities as shown are at once challenging and tremendous. For a large number of cooperative members C. I. C. has meant a new life, a new outlook and a new reliance in themselves, and it can mean the same to a vastly larger number of people; and for some communities in which indus-

Research Bureau was established to undertake experimentation work of nation-wide dimensions. During the initial stage of the war, the administration of agricultural affairs was transferred to the Ministry of Economic Affairs, until finally an independent Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry came into being on July 1, 1940 to devote its sole attention to agricultural and forestry matters. Immediately after its inception, the Ministry has been assiduously engaged in the dual task of increasing wartime food production and mapping out a feasible post-war rural rehabilitation plan. The internal organization of the

Ministry consists of five administrative departments, namely: general affairs, agricultural affairs, rural economy, forestry administration, fishery and animal husbandry. In addition, there are a number of offices and commissions, including the counsellors office, the advisers and experts office, the secretariat, the accounting office, the statistics office and the commissions for increasing food productivity and for promoting agricultural products in general. This makes up a total of 12 units. The Ministry also maintains a large number of subordinate organs scattered all over the country for field works.

TABLE 1. PRINCIPAL SUBORDINATE ORGANS OF THE MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY

<i>Phases of Activities</i>	<i>Organization</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Locality</i>
Experimental and Research	National Agricultural Research Bureau	1	Chungking, with field stations in various provinces
	National Forestry Research Bureau	1	Chungking
	National Animal Husbandry Experimental Bureau	1	Kwangsi
	Experimental Station for Orange Varieties	1	Kwangtung
	Northwest Wool Improvement Centre	1	Lanchow
Reclamation	Reclamation Bureau	1	Chungking
	District Reclamation Administrations	10	Shensi, 2 Kansu, 2 Szechuen, 3 Kiangsi, 1 Sikang, 1 Kweichow, 1
Forestry	Natural Forest Districts Administrations	7	Kansu, 2 Szechuen, 2 Shensi, 1 Sikang, 1 Yunnan, 1

Forestry	Economic Forest Districts Administrations	4	Kweichow, 1 Shensi, 1 Kwangtung, 1 Yunnan, 1
Animal Breeding and Seeds Improvement	Cattle-Breeding Stations	7	Szechuen, 1 Kweichow, 1 Kwangsi, 1 Hunan, 1 Kiangsi, 1 Honan, 1 Shensi, 1
	Seeds Improvement Stations	2	Shensi, 1 Kwangtung, 1
	Draft-Animal Breeding Station	1	Melhsien, Shensi
	Fresh Water Fish Hatchery	1	Szechuen, with field stations in various provinces
Extension	Agricultural Extension Stations	12	Szechuen, 1 Yunnan, 1 Kweichow, 1 Hunan, 1 Kwangsi, 1 Kwangtung, 1 Hupei, 1 Kiangsi, 1 Fukien, 1 Shensi, 1 Honan, 1 Kansu, 1
	Northwest Veterinary Disease Prevention Centre	1	Lanchow 1
Farms	Government-operated Farms	4	Hunan, 1 Szechuen, 1 Kweichow, 1 Kwangtung, 1
	Cooperative Farms Directorates	4	Szechuen (each for Chungking, Suining, Chengtu and Pishan)

Besides the organizations enumerated in Table 1, mention must be made of the General Directorate for the Promotion of Food production established by the Ministry with the co-operation of various provincial governments. This organ, which represents

the joint and coordinated efforts of both the Central and local authorities towards encouraging the production of food crops, has achieved notable results since its inauguration.

Improvement in Agricultural Production.—Agricultural improvement

work has as its objects the increase of the amount of products to meet the growing wartime needs on the one hand and the improvement of their qualities on the other. In carrying out this program, the Ministry authorities proceeded with both laboratory research and field experimentations and the results thus gained were immediately applied to active extension. In the field of experimental work, the Ministry has paid special attention to the study and control of insects and botanical diseases, investigation of fertilizers and soil, amelioration of the small-scale farm irrigation system, improvement of farming implements, aside from the continuation of the efforts started along the lines of planting superior varieties and improving cultivation methods by the National Agricultural Research Bureau 10 years ago. These experiments have been undertaken in the various provinces.

It is encouraging to mention in this connection that there are as many as 130 species of rice crops in China which have been testified for their superiority and purity and are worthy of extension. These species have an average higher yield of 60 *shih* catties per mow than that of local seeds used by ordinary farmers. Likewise, the superior varieties of wheat, numbering 60 species, produce a higher yield of from 40 to 60 *shih* catties per mow than that of the ordinary seeds.

In the selection and planting of improved seeds of various crops, special attention has also been given to their standard quality, resistance against disease, precocity, and resistance against drought and cold weather.

In the field of cotton, the American cotton varieties formerly introduced have, through acclamation experi-

ments in recent years, definitely proved their superiority to the native seeds both in the length of the fibre and in the yield. Strenuous efforts are being made to improve the cotton varieties in Yunnan.

In the case of soil and fertilizers, special attention has been paid to the field test of the latter with regard to their adaptability to the soil in various regions, the development and utilization of phosphoric manures, and the large-scale manufacture of bone-dust fertilizers. Studies and improvement schemes have been made concerning the erosion of the upper valley of the Yellow River and the soil conservation problem in general.

In the case of agricultural instruments and equipments, greater consideration has been given to the experiment of various kinds of insecticides and other botanical disease chemicals, and the improvement of farming implements. As to sericulture, efforts have been made towards the improvement of silk-worm eggs and mulberry varieties.

The agricultural improvement organs in various provinces have been active in the cultivation of improved seeds and seedlings for extension among their respective localities. In assisting the provincial authorities along this line, the Ministry has set up two field stations for the purpose of conducting variety tests and seed planting activities, one for the Southwest and the other for the Northwest. Manufacturing plants have been established at Chengtu and Chungking for the production of insect control chemicals and the manufacture of improved agricultural instruments and equipments for farm work. Under the present wartime circumstances, domestic raw materials have been extensively used.

TABLE 2. AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENTS

Research and Experiment	Results Achieved	Area of Extension (in <i>Shih</i> Mow)	
		1941	1942 (Jan.-Sept.)
Seeds Selection and Improvement	Improved rice varieties	2,320,917	579,969
	Improved wheat varieties	431,027	1,246,750
	Improved minor crops varieties	18,648	65,786
	Improved American cotton	1,930,303	1,359,875*
	Improved cotton	—	127,440*
	Improved silk worm eggs	920,071 (Sheets)	
Improved Farming	Improved mulberry varieties	28,588,173 (Trees)	
	Improved fertilizers	2,967,629	2,213,226
Improved Farm Irrigation	Insects and botanical disease control	6,454,638	3,770,281
	Initiation of small-scale farm irrigation project	3,788,814	432,964

* Figures up to July 1942.

The war with Japan has by no means disrupted research and experiments in the field of agriculture. On the other hand, the request for greater extension activities is all the more pressing. In order to make the products of improved seeds and the farming articles widely available, the Ministry has established numerous extension stations in all the provinces in the current year.

Promotion of Fisheries and Animal Husbandry.—Following the extension of the war, the coastal fishing grounds were occupied by the enemy and the beasts of burden decreased in number. The present work is chiefly directed towards the breeding of fresh water

fishes and the replenishment of plough and draft animals. In view of the acute shortage of such animals, an increase in number is more urgent than an improvement in quality. Much of the Ministry's effort is therefore spent in accelerating the multiplication of the draft animals as well as their protection.

1. *Fisheries.*—China's inland provinces are not destitute of rivers, lakes, and ponds which form the basis for the promotion of the fishing industry. It is worth noting that the rice fields which are estimated at 700,000,000 *shih* mow for the Free China provinces are also available for breeding fresh water fish varieties.

The fresh water fish hatchery set up by the Ministry turns out numerous fish fries in every spring for the use of the farmers who generally take up fishing as a subsidiary occupation. In 1941, the fish fries distributed amounted to 9,200,000 and small fish totalled 900,000. For the current year, the sphere of activities has been widened by the establishment of many extension stations throughout the length and depth of all the interior provinces. As an illustration, the case of Pabsien may be cited. This district alone had distributed fish fries numbering 8,000,000 up to August, 1942.

2. *Animal Husbandry.*—As a constructive measure the Ministry has established eight breeding stations in the various interior provinces for the raising of cattle and horses. Each of them is supplemented by from five to 10 cross test stations. Superior stock cattle, numbering 1,130 heads have been selected and purchased since May, 1941 to make crossing tests with 3,085 ordinary cows and oxen. This was done with a view to increasing their number and improving their quality. At the same time, epizootic prevention services were widely established endeavouring to reduce the loss of animals by the introduction of scientific preventive and curative methods. From October, 1941 to August, 1942, the National Animal Husbandry Experimental Bureau inoculated 22,510 heads of cattle against rinder pest, while the Northwest Veterinary Disease Prevention Centre was credited for its successful prevention and cure of 21,249 heads of livestock from various veterinary diseases. All the preventive serums and vaccines used were manufactured by plants specially established by the Ministry for the

very purpose and distributed free of charge for the injection of the animals in the interest of the farmers who own them. This effort directed against epizootic diseases has proved successful.

3. *Wool Production.*—China's Northwest has long been known for its production of coarse wool. With a view to directing the sheep owners in that region to conduct the wool industry along more rational lines, the Ministry has set up a Northwest Wool Improvement Centre in Kansu, together with nine extension stations. Trained workers are sent to grazing grounds to give advice to the local herdsmen as to the protection of lambs and kids, prevention of epizootic diseases, amelioration of grazing grounds, and improvement of the methods of sheep-raising and wool-shearing and packing. Since the inauguration of this service up to September, 1942, 10,323 pastors had been benefited and 428,791 goats and sheep had been dealt with. Not long ago 150 New Zealand sheep were imported. It is intended that this breeding stock will have a wide extension through artificial crossing.

Development of Forestry.—For this topic readers are referred to the following chapter on Forestry.

Reclamation Work.—Reclamation work has been performed along two lines: (1) the Ministry directly operated a number of reclamation districts and (2) efforts were made to direct the provincial authorities and people to engage in similar undertakings. To the latter the Central Government offered inducements in the form of subsidies and technical assistance. Meanwhile, investigation of waste land was smoothly carried out. In the interior provinces, waste land under

reclamation by private undertakings amounts to 831,987 *shih* mow, operated by 94,351 reclaimers. The achievements of governmental reclamation organs up to July, 1942 are listed in Table 4.

TABLE 3. ADMINISTRATION OF NATURAL FOREST DISTRICTS, AUGUST, 1942

Natural Forest District Administration	Location	Forest Area (in Sq. Li)	Forest Area Surveyed (in Shih Mow)	Timber Reserves Surveyed (in Sq. Shih Chih)	Timber Corporation Registered
Chinling District	Chouchih, Shensi...	25,230	1,087,500	65,887,155	58
Tao River District	Minhsien, Kansu	63,060	2,280 (Sq. Li)	—	72
Min River District	Lifan, Szechuen	4,394	11,345,635	4,451,017,140	9
Ta Tu River District	Opfen, Szechuen	2,160	under survey	under survey	—
Ching I River District	Tienchuan, Sikang	1,527	"	"	—
Chinsha River District	Lichiang, Yunnan	under investigation	"	"	—
Chillen Shan District	Chiuchuan, Kansu	"	"	"	—

TABLE 4. ACHIEVEMENTS OF GOVERNMENTAL RECLAMATION ORGANS

Reclamation District	Location	Reclaimable Land Area (in Mow)	No. of Reclaimers	Area Reclaimed (in Mow)	Area of Agricultural Production (in Mow)	No. of Heads of Cattle Employed
Huanglungshan	Shensi	5,000,000	29,500	171,886	134,954	5,849
Liping	Shensi	200,000	5,043	39,709	33,098	335
Anfu	Kiangsi	—	2,030	104,958	10,061	255
Minhsien	Kansu	112,000	1,084	3,580	815	—
Sichang	Sikang	606,220	247	1,910	1,780	—
Leimaping-o	Szechuen	—	90	1,257	1,463	—
Lulungshan	Kweichow	140,000	—	—	—	—

Northwest Colonization and Reclamation Experimental District	Szechuen	—	—	1,330	1,170	—
Hohsi Colonization and Reclamation Experimental District	Kansu	1,417,500	—	—	—	—
Kingfushan Reclamation and Colonization Experimental District	Szechuen	199,000	771	2,880	3,814	—
No. 1 National Farm	Hunan	—	—	3,700	2,090	—
No. 3 National Farm	Kweichow... ..	—	—	1,950	1,714	—
No. 4 National Farm	Kwangtung	—	—	1,024	421	—

Rural Economy.—In the field of rural economic reconstruction, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has of late given its attention to the efficient management of farms. Three steps have so far been taken: (1) to guide individual farmers to improve the management of their own farms, (2) to assist the average farmers to organize cooperative farms and (3) to select reclamation districts for the experimentation of collective farming. All these efforts were directed towards the common goal of enlarging the existing farming unit in order to increase working efficiency. The Ministry also instructed the various provincial authorities to readjust the tenant system with a view to improving relationships between the landlords and the tenants. Already remarkable results have been achieved. In addition, a new rural finance system was introduced to serve the needs of rural reconstruction. With the close collaboration of government banks, the Ministry has been able to extend various forms of loans for this purpose.

Increase of Food Production.—In pursuance of its aims of providing

sufficient foodstuff to the millions of fighting men at the front as well as to the vast civilian population, the Ministry set up in February, 1942 a special commission to supervise the execution of the food production expansion program. All the agricultural organizations, Central and provincial, were urged to make redoubled effort to increase food production. Thanks to the improved agricultural technique and to the efficient administrative machinery, the food increasing project has progressed splendidly. The products increased have been well utilized and distributed. Statistics show that in 1941 the production of principal and minor food crops registered an increase of 93,425,887 *shih* piculs over the figures of the preceding year. If the price of each *shih* picul is put at N.C.\$100 at the lowest, the total value of the increased yield would amount to some N.C.\$9,300,000,000. The figures for increased production for the year 1942 up to the end of September reached 34,646,437 *shih* picul.

1. *Enlargement of Acreage for Production of Food Crops.*—Under the

supervision of the Ministry, the production of winter crops have been extensively carried out in various provinces. The Ministry has also directed and encouraged the farmers to make use of fallow lands, to reclaim waste and virgin lands, and to devote the farms for the production of principal food crops. As a rule, propaganda work and registration of farmers in the particular district form the first step in the execution of these plans. These are followed by granting loans of seeds, fertilizers and capital, and

furnishing technical assistance. A statistical study shows that, in 1941, the land area so utilized amounted to 40,154,440 *shih* mow, which yielded an increased production of 84,179,481 *shih* picul. While complete figures for 1942 are not yet available, a preliminary survey based upon reports from various provinces up to September of the same year indicates that the acreage under such project amounted to 31,572,778 *shih* mow, and the increased yield ran to 32,165,397 *shih* piculs. Table 5 gives the details.

TABLE 5. INCREASING FOOD PRODUCTION BY EXTENSION OF ACREAGE

Means Employed	Acreage Extended (in <i>Shih</i> Mow)		Increased Yield (in <i>Shih</i> Picul)	
	1941	1942 (Jan.-Sept.)	1941	1942 (Jan.-Sept.)
Extension of Winter Crops	22,985,910	29,521,955	42,620,745	30,492,870
Utilization of Fallow Lands	5,710,111	551,391	3,344,016	397,950
Utilization of Waste and Idle Lands	6,826,683	813,256	26,748,009	863,014
Production of Principal Food Crops in Place of Secondary Products	377,197	274,414	317,986	294,571
Production of Ordinary Rice in Place of Glutinous Rice	4,254,539	411,702	1,148,725	116,992
TOTAL	40,154,440	31,572,778	84,179,481	32,165,397

2. *Increase of Productivity per Unit Area.*—Measures for increasing productivity per unit area include the introduction of improved crop seeds, insecticides, and superior methods of

cultivation. In 1941, the acreage benefited by such measures amounted to 17,144,571 *shih* mow, with an increased output of 9,246,406 *shih* piculs. For 1942, incomplete statistics

based upon reports from various provinces up to the end of September show that the acreage benefited aggregated 8,365,966 *shih mow*, and

the increased yield ran up to 2,481,040 *shih piculs*. A detailed account is given in table 6.

TABLE 6. INCREASE IN PER UNIT AREA PRODUCTIVITY BY IMPROVED METHODS

Measures Employed	Acreage of Extension (in <i>Shih Mow</i>)		Increased Yield (in <i>Shih Picul</i>)	
	1941	1942 (Jan.-Sept.)	1941	1942 (Jan.-Sept.)
Extension of Improved Rice	2,320,917	579,969	1,141,715	289,928
Extension of Improved Wheat	431,027	1,246,750	225,415	316,875
Extension of Improved Miscellaneous Grains	18,648	65,786	42,766	33,202
Extension of Reproductive Rice	264,236	—	136,500	—
Extension of Two-Crop Rice	918,662	56,990	1,370,244	88,041
Extension of Insects Control	6,454,638	3,770,281	1,972,212	325,306
Extensive Use of Fertilizers	2,967,629	2,213,226	1,361,077	1,107,421
Extension of Small-Scale Irrigation System	3,768,814	432,064	2,087,072	320,267
TOTAL	17,144,571	8,365,966	9,246,406	2,481,040

FORESTRY

D. Y. LIN¹ (凌道揚)

IN the midst of war, it is indeed a source of gratification to note that forestry in China has been making a steady and gradual progress. Ordinarily, when a country is at war, such enterprise like forestry which requires the investment of vast amount of money and perhaps a generation or more to produce results, is neglected or at least relegated to a very unimportant place. However, this has not been so in the case of China. Foreseeing that the war against Japanese aggression was going to be a long drawn out affair, she, immediately after the Lukouchiao attack, resolved to carry out a dual policy of resistance and reconstruction, that is, fighting resolutely on the one hand and simultaneously carrying out an intensive program of rebuilding the country on the other. Realizing that forestry as a reconstruction measure, is the 'twin sister of agriculture,' both being concerned in producing crops continuously from the soil, and that every foot of soil in the country should, especially at this time, be devoted uninterruptedly to that production under which it pays best, she has gone ahead fearlessly with her forestry work. She has during the last few years made every effort to intensify the carrying out of her forestry program not only within the densely populated provinces but also in the border provinces in the Northwest which she is determined to

reconstruct. When Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek made an inspection trip to the Northwest in the fall of 1942, the first thing he did was to order that tree-planting work be intensified, and he forcefully made it known to all the governors and hsien magistrates there that the quality and amount of forestry work done locally would be made the criterion for judging the record and efficiency of the administration of all the provinces and hsien in that part of the country.

In the following paragraphs, the writer will try (A) to review in a general way what has taken place during the last few years concerning: (1) the development of Central Government forestry policy and administration; (2) forest, soil and water conservation; (3) general reforestation work in the different provinces; (4) forest activities and education; (5) forest research; and (B) to describe in a brief way the forest resources of the country including the forest area, some principal timber trees and the secondary forest products. (This is taken principally from the writer's former articles published before the war).

FOREST POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

Before Chungking became the functioning capital, forest administration was only a part of the work of the Ministry of Industry which in 1938

¹Member of the Yellow River Commission; Director, Chinese Forestry Association; and Vice-Chairman of Forest and Soil Conservation Commission.

based upon reports from various provinces up to the end of September show that the acreage benefited aggregated 8,365,966 *shih* mow, and the increased yield ran up to 2,481,040 *shih* piculs. A detailed account is given in table 6.

TABLE 6. INCREASE IN PER UNIT AREA PRODUCTIVITY BY IMPROVED METHODS

Measures Employed	Acreage of Extension (in <i>Shih</i> Mow)		Increased Yield (in <i>Shih</i> Picul)	
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was changed into the Ministry of Economic Affairs. When Chungking was firmly organized as the wartime capital and when it was decided that every effort should be made to intensify food and other production and to use all available land for the purpose, a new ministry was formed, known as the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Forestry, as a result, was at once put on a prominent and important basis. There was organized in the new ministry a strong department, known as the Department of Forest Administration. The department has four divisions as follows: (1) division of forest administration, extension and protection; (2) division of forest planting; (3) division of forest management; and (4) division of forest districts or stations. Each division carries out its specific duties and they as a whole administer and carry out the forest policy for the whole country. For instance, under the division of forest management the department manages, and has supervision of, protection forests, military protection forests, sand fixation forests, and soil and water conservation forests.

In addition to the four divisions the department has in the various parts of the country four economic forests districts, three watershed protection forest districts, one forest extension district or station, one soil erosion experiment station, and seven natural forest districts—all organized and managed according to the needs and suitability of the regions in which they are located. The economic forest districts, for instance, are organized to supervise and to effect special forest treatment for all the natural valuable forests within special

regions; while the watershed protection forest stations are organized to demonstrate to the people within the areas, the importance of safeguarding the hills and mountains from soil erosion and the "living waters" from drying up. Needless to add, China will want hundreds of such forest districts or stations established throughout the land in order to take care of her forestry needs.

FOREST, SOIL AND WATER CONSERVATION

In connection with the development of forest policy a word ought to be said about the First National Forestry and Soil Conservation Conference held in Chengtu in the fall of 1940 under the auspices of the Yellow River Commission. Among the many proposals submitted and passed at the conference, the one requesting that the Central Government extend an invitation to Dr. Walter C. Lowdermilk,¹ to come to China to assist in the work of formulating a national reforestation and flood-control program was the most important. The proposal submitted by the Yellow River Commission was at once acted upon by the Government, and Dr. Lowdermilk arrived in China in the fall of 1942. No sooner had he arrived at the wartime capital than he was put to work with the local experts. The program of his work as drawn up by the Department of Forest Administration and sanctioned by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the National Conservancy Board was as follows:

1. To make field trips to Chengtu, Szechuen, the Southwest and

PROVINCIAL FORESTRY WORK

While the Central Government has been working hard to put forestry on a firm and scientific basis, all the provincial governments have likewise done their part in promoting forestry work within their respective provinces. In every provincial reconstruction department or agricultural and forestry department, there is an office organized to look after the forestry administration of the province, with nurseries and forest stations located in the mountainous or watershed areas to carry out the actual planting work.

Table 1 gives the records of 15 provinces recently collected by the Department of Forest Administration of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, and they show that within the last two or three years altogether 36,319 mow of forest nursery have been started, over 297,543,845 seedlings have been raised, and as many as 904,301,791 trees have been planted in these provinces.

FOREST ACTIVITIES AND EDUCATION

Public forestry interest in China has always been keen since Nanking became the capital and the same interest has been well kept up during the past few years. This is largely due to (1) the work of the Chinese Forestry Association; (2) Dr. Sun Yet-sen's forestry teaching in the San Min Chu I; (3) the establishment of the well-known Forest Memorial Week in the country.

The Chinese Forestry Association was founded in 1917 when the writer was engaged in lecturing on forestry and general conservation throughout the country. The association with

the Northwest to study on the spot (a) some of the soil and land—use capability surveys that have been made, (b) the problem areas selected, (c) some of the experimental demonstration projects that are being carried out.

2. To assist in establishing a few complete experimental demonstration areas in use, of farm, grazing and forest lands, to discover the most practical and prompt ways to improve upon soil erosion control and soil and water conservation measures, to extend cropping and forest production beyond present marginal areas, to conserve rainfall and to increase food production.
3. To establish demonstration areas (a) in Penghsien, Szechuen, (b) in Tiengshui, Kansu, and (c) in Suikai, Kwangtung, for training technicians to carry out the national conservation program.
4. To help formulate a 30-year reforestation program.
5. To formulate a national land-and-water conservation and upstream flood-control program for the country.
6. To work in cooperation with the Legislative Yuan for a set of land-and-water conservation laws to be enacted for the country.

It is obvious that such a program of work when carried out will have a far-reaching result in determining the future forestry and land-use policy of the country.

¹ Dr. Lowdermilk is President of the American Geophysical Union; Vice-Director, U. S. Soil Conservation; and a world authority on forest, soil and water conservation.

elementary courses in their curricula. So up to 1923 or thereabouts, there were throughout the country altogether 10 colleges and universities offering forestry courses, and as many as 74 *chia chung* agricultural schools included in their curricula some elementary courses in general forestry, silviculture, or nursery practice.

Such a rapid growth in forest education was quite phenomenal. But unfortunately there was not sufficient preparation made for sustaining such a growth. Owing to the lack of funds, equipment and textbooks, and the scarcity of teachers, most of these schools and colleges were forced to discontinue their forestry courses. So we may say that before the war with the exception of the Nanking University, the Agricultural College of the National Peiping University and the College of Agriculture of the National Central University which maintained regular college courses in forestry and a few provincial agricultural colleges which offered some special courses, either as required or as elective, all other colleges and schools had either temporarily or permanently dropped their forestry work. Since the war, all national universities with agricultural departments and nearly all provincial universities and colleges give regular forestry courses.

Forest Publications.—Besides the many translations largely from Western and Japanese magazines and books, the following are some of the principal books on forestry published in recent years:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Chinese Economic Trees | By H. Y. Chen |
| Forests in West China | By Ku Chien-chi and Chow Yin-chang |
| Principles of Seeding and Planting | By Kao Ping-fang |

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Elements of Forestry | By D. Y. Lin |
| Manual of Forestry | By D. Y. Lin |
| Chinese Dendrology | By Lee Shun-ching |
| Forest Policy and Administration | By An Shih-sung |
| Silviculture | By Chen Yung |

FOREST RESEARCH

To promote and to stimulate scientific interest in forest research the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry acting under orders from the Central Government, organized in 1941 a bureau known as the National Forestry Research Bureau with headquarters in Koloshan, about 10 miles from Chungking. The work of the bureau is divided into three categories as follows:

1. Silviculture, which includes nursery practice, reforestation, ecology, taxonomy, dendrology, forest protection and soil and water conservation technique.
2. Forest utilization, which includes wood technology, lumbering, forest products and forest industries.
3. Investigation and extension, which covers the field of studying the forest conditions in the country and of devising ways and means of promoting forest planting and forest protection especially in the rural districts of the country.

Although the bureau has been organized for only two years, much work has been done. In silvicultural work the bureau has acquired large tract of hill land along the Chungking-Chengtung highway and has started demonstration planting and nursery work on the land. Preparations for starting an arboretum near Koloshan are almost completed, and in view of the great variety of tree species in the country and the need of

studying their soil and moisture requirements for the work of reforestation, such work is important.

In the study of forest products the bureau is cooperating with the forestry department of the National Central University, and much progress has already been made in the study of, (1) the physical properties of some of the timber trees in Szechuen, (2) their utilization and (3) wood oil, camphor, nutgalls and other forest products. Needless to add, these studies will help promote the development of forest products not only for China's present wartime needs but also for the postwar program of the industrial West.

To carry out the program of investigation, the bureau has made several reconnaissance surveys to determine the growth and distribution of the principal trees and of the special secondary forest products such as wood oil, varnish, nutgalls, camphor and cassia bark. In extension work, the bureau is cooperating with private people and corporations to promote private planting and to devise better methods of protecting farm wood-lots in the various hsien. One very unique thing which the bureau has just accomplished is that of effecting an agreement with the leading Buddhist associations in West China for training the young monks in courses of silviculture and forest protection in their school of Buddhism. Temple and feng-shui¹ ideas have contributed much towards preserving China's remaining forests. The successful carrying out of such a unique agreement therefore will mean that the co-operation and support of the monks, abbots and feng-shui priests in the

country will be enlisted in a more active and systematic manner, and that the so called "temple forestry" will be better practised and more extensively promoted.

FOREST RESOURCES

Under this heading, the writer will discuss briefly the following topics: (1) the forest area, (2) the extent of yin ti or bare land suitable for forest production, and (3) some of the more important timber trees.

The Forest Area.—No systematic attempt has yet been made to find out the exact forest area in China, for such as attempt if made must necessarily involve a huge amount of time and money which only the Government could afford.

Table 2 showing the approximate forest area in the different provinces, represents only a very rough estimate made by the writer with the material and information collected during his travels, and from all available reports and publications on the subject.

There are approximately 229,800,000 acres or 91,087,895 hectares of *sen lin* or forests in the country². This vast area includes also the *chu lin* or bamboo forests in all the central and southern provinces, as well as the larger *tsun lin* or farm wood-lots all over the country. Most of the hardwood and coniferous forests are now located in places not very accessible. The northeastern and southwestern border provinces comprise by far the best-timbered regions remaining in the country today.³

It will be noted that there are only 10 provinces—Szechuen, Heilungkiang,

¹ Geomancy.

² See table 2.

³ See table 3.

TABLE 1. PROVINCIAL FORESTRY WORK, 1940-1942

Province	Nursery (Mow)	Present No. of Seedlings in Nursery	No. of Seedlings Planted in the Province
Hunan	1,632	31,685,003	510,000,487
Kwangsi	3,937	145,706,454	113,880,512
Chekiang	1,008	14,330,708	85,779,494
Yunnan	1,000	9,325,000	65,223,000
Kwangtung	5,382	4,757,984	48,570,243
Honan	4,047	13,792,169	10,966,136
Ninghsia	527	3,778,050	10,763,204
Kiangsi	2,136	12,000,000	11,511,318
Shensi	945	20,398,490	10,004,525
Fukien	132	1,949,926	10,075,401
Chinghai	268	36,000	3,433,190
Hupeh	256	3,197,888	845,073
Kansu	1,225	5,068,504	680,708
Kweichow	2,577	14,124,182	200,000
Szechuen	2,247	18,402,587	...
TOTAL	30,319	297,543,845	904,301,791

* A mow is equal to 0.152 of an acre.

headquarters in Shanghai had at one time a total membership of over 400 people scattered all over the country, with branch offices in Canton, Nanking, Changsha, Nanchang, and Peiping. In 1928 the association was reorganized; its headquarters was transferred to Nanking, and its membership was limited to foresters, forestry students in agricultural colleges and to men engaged in forestry work in the various provinces. By cooperating with agricultural colleges such as the Nanking University and the College of Agriculture of the National Central University, by publishing an organ known as the Chinese Forestry Journal and by constantly issuing pamphlets and suitable articles relating to forests and the need of developing non-agri-

cultural lands of the country, the association has laid a good foundation for a public sentiment favourable to forestry; and today the members of the association with headquarters in Peipei, near Chungking, are working with greater effort to make the association a real, effective agency for educating the public along forestry lines.

Dr. Sun's forestry teaching is found in the third lecture of the chapter on People's Livelihood in the *San Min Chu I* and also in his *Program of Industrial Reconstruction*. In the *San Min Chu I* Dr. Sun pointed out the relation of forests to floods, droughts, streamflow, and soil erosion and emphasized how important forests are to the life and happiness of the Chinese

people, and in his *Program of Industrial Reconstruction* he urged that reforestation work on a large scale be carried out in Central and North China simultaneously with other constructive measures. It is on account of these teachings and injunctions of Dr. Sun and the desire of all his followers to perpetuate them and to translate them into action, that the Central Kuomintang Party Headquarters have designated forestry work to be one of the seven fundamental tasks for all the party men to perform throughout the country during the Political Tutelage Period.

Perhaps the one thing that has been responsible more than anything else for the nation-wide forestry interest, was the creation, in 1930, of a week, known as the Memorial Forest Week (March 11 to 18) in commemoration of the death of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, which took place in Peiping on March 12, 1924. The week so established has now come to stay as such. Although it is a memorial week, yet during the week the whole nation is reminded of the importance of *tsao lin* (forest planting) by organized intensive campaigns conducted by means of illustrated lectures, pamphlets, handbills, and actual demonstration planting on the hills and mountains. It is generally more than an Arbor Day affair, and one can well imagine the amount of attention and enthusiasm that is stirred up by such organized campaigns, lasting as they do for a period of seven days.

Forest Education.—Modern forest education is almost as old as the Chinese Republic itself. It began when the Shantung Provincial Agricultural College first introduced forestry courses into its curriculum of agricultural and

sericultural subjects. The step so taken in Shantung was soon followed by other provincial agricultural colleges. At that time, however, the so-called agricultural colleges were merely of high school standard, and, moreover, the adding of forestry courses to their curricula was done in a haphazard manner, without any definite policy on the part of either the Central or the provincial government.

It was not until 1915 when the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce established the so-called Sen Lin Chuan Shi So in Peiping and enrolled students from Anhwei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Hopei, Yunnan, and other provinces, that a definite and substantial start was made in forest education in China. This Sen Lin Chuan Shi So, or Forestry Training School, however, did not last long, for immediately after its reorganization, all the students of the school were sent to the Nanking University where a forestry department of college standard was established under the joint leadership of the late Mr. Joseph Bailie and the writer, using Purple Mountain as a laboratory for field work for the students. The growing interest in forestry at the time prompted other universities and colleges to follow in the footsteps of the Nanking University. The Lingnan University in the south, Peking Agricultural College, Honan Agriculture College, Kiangsi Agricultural College, Shansi Agricultural College, Hopei Agricultural College, Hunan Agricultural College, and Kwangtung Agricultural College, all followed one another in establishing forest departments or courses in their curricula. Even the *chia chung* agricultural schools in the different provinces took an interest in forestry education, for many of them introduced

Yunnan, Kirin, Hunan, Shensi, Hupeh, Fukien, Kiangsi, and Kwangtung—having over 10% of their total land area forested, and they represent an aggregate forest area of 159,625,000 acres; while more than 16 provinces have less than 5% of their land area forested. The average percentage of forest area to the total land area is only 8.4% and such a percentage is certainly much too small when we come to think that generally a country should have about 30% of her land area maintained under forest in order to guard her land against "bad climatic conditions with prolonged droughts, frosts, and alternating floods and low water."

Yi Lin Ti.—The *yi lin ti* given in Table 2 includes lands that are at present bare. They are either too dry, too high, or too steep for the practice of agriculture, but are quite suitable for forestry work.

According to an estimate made by Mr. Hu To and the writer, there are at least 872,100,000 acres of *yi lin* area in China and they represent 31.9% of the total land area in China. In other words, there is in China today 31.9% of land which is bare and unused. Much has been said about land utilization, how vast tracts of unused land should be reclaimed and developed. No doubt this one problem of *yi lin ti*, which is the problem of forestry, should engage the attention of the nation more than anything else, inasmuch as it involves an area, that is very much larger than the total cultivated area which she has today for agriculture.

Some Principal Timber Trees.—Due to the mountainous character of her land, a wide range of climate and a copious rainfall, China is extremely rich

in arborescent flora. According to investigations published in the Journal (December, 1935) of Chinese Botanical Society, there are in China 134 families, and as many as 656 genera, while the number of species is more than 2,000. It is said that greater number of different kinds of trees are found in China than in the whole of the other north temperate regions. Nearly every important genus of coniferous and broad-leaved trees known from the temperate regions of the Northern Hemisphere is represented in China. This is mentioned here just to show the vast number of tree species in China and the wonderful variety of plant materials she has for forestry work within her borders.

Some of the more important timber species that are commonly known and are generally used for planting in the various provinces today, are as follows:

1. The Bamboo Group:

Mao Chu	Phyllostachya edulis
Tan Chu	Phyllostachya puberula
Tsie Chu	Bambusa arundinacea, B. spinosa
Nan Chu	Dendrocalamus giganteus

Bamboo is by far the most useful "timber" in China. It is a fast growing plant and flourishes in all the southern provinces and along the Yangtze Valley up to about 3,000 feet altitude. The Chinese generic name for the bamboo is *chu*, and no doubt many genera and several dozen species are called by that name. Those who live in China will appreciate the multitudinous uses to which bamboo is put. It is used for food, for the building of houses, bridges and boats, for the manufacture of paper, furniture, sedan chairs, ropes, umbrellas, toys, musical instruments, baskets, combs, under shirts, raincoats and all kinds of farm

implements and household utensils. The West certainly does not possess any tree or shrub which for all-round general usefulness, can compare with the bamboo in China. The Chinese people are indeed fortunate in having such a useful plant to take care of their daily needs.

2. The Coniferous Group:

Chinese fir	Cunninghamia lanceolata
Chinese red pine	Pinus massoniana
Chinese pine	Pinus henryi, P. dentata, P. promlens
Fir	Abies delavayi
Larch	Larix potaninii
Larch	Larix dehurica, var. principis rupprechtii
Hemlock	Tsuga yunnanensis
Hemlock	Tsuga chinensis
Spruce	Picea asperata
Spruce	Picea ajanensis
Juniperus	Juniperus chinensis
Juniperus	Juniperus formosana
Cedar	Thuja orientalis
Cryptomeria	Cryptomeria japonica
Yew	Taxus chinensis

Of the coniferous group the most common timber for all-round use is the *sha shu*, *Cunninghamia lanceolata*. It is found in all the temperate parts of China, extending from southern Kiangsu to Szechuen along the Yangtze River about latitude 32°, south to Kwangtung along the coast, and throughout the provinces touching and south of the Yangtze, namely, Kwangsi, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Fukien, Hupeh, Anhwei, Yunnan, and Hunan. It is about the fastest growing coniferous tree in China. On good soil the sprouts often attain three or four feet the first year, and up to six or seven feet the second. They are generally cut for commercial purposes when they are 20 to 30 years old, and about 50 feet high. Because *sha shu* has such sprouting vigour, rendering it particularly adaptable to coppice manage-

ment, seeding reproduction is seldom used for establishing new stands. The wood is light, soft, fragrant, and fairly tough. It is used for house building, general carpentry, for pillars, masts, coffins, boat building, and for a great variety of other purposes. It is best known and undoubtedly the most valuable coniferous species in China. It is now being cut very extensively for wartime construction.

The common pine trees, *Pinus massoniana*, are generally grown for fuel. All the other coniferous species excepting those of the Northeast forests are now found only in high mountainous regions. They have been driven there, so to speak, by agriculture which has claimed the land.

3. The Broad-Leaved Species:

Oak	Quercus acutissima
Oak	Quercus dentata
Oak	Quercus mongolica
Evergreen	
Oak	Quercus glauca
Red nannu	Machilus thunbergii
Camphor tree	Cinnamomum camphora
Dalbergia	Dalbergia hupeana
Pagoda tree	Sophora japonica
Honey locust	Gleditsia macracantha
Walnut	Juglans regia
Pistacia	Pistacia chinensis
Sweet gum	Liquidambar formosana
White elm	Ulmus pumila
Maple	Acer buergerianum
Zelkova	Zelkova sinica
Chinese	
hackberry	Celtis sinensis
Paulownia	Paulownia tomentosa
Poplar	Populus tomentosa
Poplar	Populus simonii
Poplar	Populus suaveolens
Chestnut	Castanea mollissima
White wax tree	Fraxinus chinensis
Birch	Betula japonica
Catalpa	Catalpa ovata

Hardwood or broad-leaved forests are also very rare except in the sparsely-peopled regions. In the more populated parts trees occur either as

farm wood-lots or in small groups on temple properties and in the more or less inaccessible places. Some of the more common broad-leaved trees grown primarily for furnishing fuel, posts, lumber, and other wood products for use on the farm are:

About 20 species of oak occur, of which the commonest are *Quercus acutissima*, *Quercus dentata*, *Quercus mongolica*, and *Quercus glauca*. Oak wood is hard, highly valued for general building, and for the making of crossties, furniture, and agricultural implements. Generally they are not allowed to grow to any size and are ruthlessly cut for fuel and for posts.

Three species of chestnut trees are known and they are *Castanea mollissima*, *C. sequinii*, and *C. henryi*. The wood is hard and is used for boat building, and for making crossties, furniture, and different kinds of agricultural implements. The nut is an important article of trade all over China.

Maple, elm, zelkova, sophora, locust, and dalbergia are all very common in both the Yangtze and Yellow River basins. They are favourite species in the rural districts and the wood of these species is hard, and used for general carpentry, for making furniture, wheelbarrows, and for furnishing fuel and posts for use on the farm.

Another very common tree in Central and North China is the walnut, *Juglans regia*. It is extensively cultivated both for its fruits and for the wood which is used for making rifle-stocks.

The wood of sweet gum, *Liquidambar formosana*, is used for making high-grade furniture and tea chests, while the sap is tapped for the manufacture of incense. Willow and poplar are extensively planted for furnishing fuel and posts. Nanmu includes a number

of species of *Machilus* and *Lindera*. They are evergreen and very beautiful trees. The wood is close-grained, fragrant, and very durable. It is highly esteemed for furniture-making, for pillars in the temples and the houses of the rich people. Nanmu is often used as a substitute for walnut in the manufacture of rifle-stocks.

Although oak and bamboo are commonly used for making carrying poles, yet the wood of *Ehretia* is considered the best, being light and very tough. *Pistacia* wood is used for making rudder-posts, while birch and ash are very valuable for the making of athletic apparatus and handles and for general carpentry.

TIMBER INDUSTRY AND SECONDARY FOREST PRODUCTS

Timber Industry.—Before the war timber for general construction, especially of the large sizes, was imported from abroad. The principal countries from which both softwood (coniferous) and hardwood (broad-leaved) timber were imported were: U.S.A., Japan, Russia, Canada, Korea, Philippine Islands, Dutch East Indies and Singapore. Softwood timber however comprised by far the large percentage of the total volume imported.

As a result of the war this import timber trade has ceased, and China has been forced to tap her own resources, which hitherto she found unprofitable to do on account of transportation and other difficulties. The principal areas which supply her wartime timber needs today are found in Kweichow, Sikang, North Szechuen, Kwangtung, and Hunan. The Chingshui Kiang area in Kweichow, the Chihshui Ho and Yunnan Ho areas along the

border of Szechuen and Kweichow, the Tung Kiang and Han Kiang areas in Kwangtung are by far the most important.

Secondary Forest Products.—In connection with the special secondary forests, a word might be said about the trees which yield these products.

Perhaps the most important of these trees is the *tung yu shu* or the wood oil tree. Three species of *tung yu shu* are known, and they are *Aleurites fordii*, *Aleurites montana* and *Aleurites cordata*. *Aleurites fordii* is abundant throughout the Yangtse Valley, while *Aleurites montana* is found in South China. *Aleurites cordata*, known as Japanese Tung Tree, is of little account.

All the tung trees are low-growing trees belonging to the spurge family. They produce seeds from which the valuable tung or wood oil is extracted. Ninety per cent of the total amount of tung oil is produced by *Aleurites fordii*.

The total tung tree area in China is about 441,000 acres. Before the war in 1937, the average tung oil production per year was 136,000 tons,¹ and the export that year was as much as 102,979 tons. Since the Pacific war the export trade has dwindled down to only a little more than 20,000 tons per year.²

Another member of the spurge family is the *wu chiu*, *Sapium sebiferum*, which yields the valuable Chinese "vegetable tallow" of commerce. This tree is remarkable for the beautiful red colour of its foliage in the fall, and is found in all the warm parts of China. The fruits are collected in the fall and when dried

they liberate seeds which yield both fat and oil. In China they are used for the manufacture of candles. When exported they are employed principally in the manufacture of soap.

Chang shu is another important tree which yields a valuable product of commerce called camphor, known all over the world. The tree is found all over Fukien, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, and other southern provinces with more or less subtropical climate. It is valued both for its wood and for the camphor it produces. Years ago China produced over 80% of the world's supply of camphor. The centre of camphor production is now in Formosa, where the Japanese Government has been encouraging the planting of *chang shu* for many decades.

There is another tree product known as *chi*, or varnish, that has become very important as an article of trade. It is prepared from the sap of tree called *chi shu*, *Rhus verniciflua*. Although the tree grows wild in woods it is abundantly cultivated on hillsides or along the margins of fields throughout Central China. The varnish is used for all kinds of work, and enormous quantities of raw varnish were exported to foreign countries.

There are many other special tree products that might be mentioned in addition to the above which are in increasing demand both for export trade and for domestic consumption, such as:

Nutgalls furnishing tanning and medicinal material. These are found on leaves of *Rhus semialata* and *Rhus potanini*.

Fruits of *Gledisia sinensis* and *Sapindus mukorossi*. These are rich

¹ See table 4.

² See table 5.

in saponin used for laundry work and other purposes.

Dyeing materials from the flowers of *Sophora japonica* and *Koelreuteria apiculata* and from fruits of *Platycarya strobilacea* and other species.

Kwei pi or Cassia bark. This is

obtained from *Cinnamomum cassia*, a tree found in Kwangtung and Kwangsi, and is valued as a tonic or stimulant in Chinese medicine.

Wax produced by a kind of scale insect which lives on ash, *Fraxinus chinensis*, and privet, *Ligustrum lucidu*.

TABLE 3. ESTIMATED FOREST AREA AND CONTENT, NORTHEAST CHINA

Species	Area (Acres)	Ratio to Total Forest Area	Cubic Feet
Pine (<i>Pinus koraiensis</i>)	20,950,000	31	29,450,000,000
Spruce (<i>Picea ajanensis</i>) (<i>Picea aborata</i>)	17,575,000	26	24,700,000,000
Elm and Ash (<i>Ulmus campestris</i>)	9,464,000	14	13,300,000,000
(<i>Fraxinus mandshurica</i>)			
Birch (<i>Betula sp.</i>)	5,408,000	8	7,000,000,000
Larch (<i>Larix dahurica</i>)	4,732,000	7	6,650,000,000
Fir (<i>Abies nephrolepis</i>)	3,380,000	5	4,750,000,000
Oak and Lime (<i>Quercus mongolica</i>) (<i>Tilia amurensis</i>)	3,380,000	5	4,750,000,000
Others	2,704,000	4	3,800,000,000
TOTAL	67,600,000	100	95,000,000,000

TABLE 4. ESTIMATED YEARLY PRODUCTION OF TUNG OIL BEFORE 1937 (FROM THE FOREIGN TRADE COMMISSION, MINISTRY OF FINANCE)

Province	Tons
Szechuen	45,000
Hunan	35,000
Hupeh	16,000
Kwangsi	15,000
Cheklung	12,000
Kweichow	5,000
Shensi	3,000
Other Provinces	5,000
TOTAL	136,000

TABLE 5. TUNG OIL EXPORT, 1912-1941

Year	Tons
1912	22,607
1920	27,036
1925	44,706
1930	59,912
1935	114,355
1936	86,738
1937	102,979
1938	69,578
1939	33,502
1940	23,247
1941 (Jan.-Oct.)	20,578

TABLE 2. ESTIMATED AREA SHOWING THE EXTENT OF FORESTS AND NON-AGRICULTURAL LAND SUITABLE FOR FORESTRY WORK IN CHINA

Provinces	Total Lin Tsoh Area*					
	Land Area (Sq. Miles)		Sen Lin Area†		Yi Lin Bare Land‡	
	Acres	Ratio to Total Land Area (%)	Acres	Ratio to Total Land Area (%)	Acres	Ratio to Total Land Area (%)
Hellungkiang	228,396	28.0	43,325,000	28.0	30,300,000	22.0
Kirin	108,756	27.0	10,825,000	27.0	15,325,000	22.0
Liaoning	101,865	5.0	3,375,000	5.0	28,175,000	43.0
Jehol	67,280	1.0	375,000	1.0	21,375,000	48.0
Chahar	97,118	0.6	350,000	0.6	18,475,000	28.4
Suiyuan	120,046	0.8	650,000	0.8	30,375,000	39.2
Sinkiang	708,562	5.0	20,000,000	5.0	108,975,000	24.0
Shensi	72,028	16.0	5,000,000	16.0	13,625,000	24.0
Shansi	66,133	6.0	2,700,000	6.0	14,400,000	34.0
Hopei	53,229	0.9	300,000	0.9	10,000,000	29.1
Kiangsu	41,993	2.6	750,000	2.6	4,675,000	17.4
Anhui	55,847	5.0	1,950,000	5.0	8,875,000	25.0
Hupeh	74,327	13.0	6,500,000	13.0	12,700,000	27.0
Hunan	83,754	19.0	10,575,000	19.0	16,525,000	31.0
Chekiang	37,210	8.0	1,975,000	8.0	5,225,000	21.0
Kwangsi	79,350	5.0	2,950,000	5.0	17,550,000	35.0
Fukien	48,559	18.0	5,950,000	18.0	9,400,000	31.0
Shantung	56,460	0.7	500,000	0.7	10,450,000	29.3
Honan	71,232	0.6	300,000	0.6	13,500,000	29.4
Kiangsi	69,910	12.0	5,500,000	12.0	12,575,000	27.0
Kansu	150,270	6.0	6,000,000	6.0	23,100,000	23.0
Ninghsia	90,054	4.0	1,250,000	4.0	16,200,000	26.0
Szechuen	152,115	34.0	33,750,000	34.0	15,250,000	15.0
Kwangtung	87,406	10.0	5,875,000	10.0	16,725,000	30.0
Yunnan	155,820	23.0	23,625,000	23.0	26,750,000	27.0
Kweichow	67,087	9.0	4,250,000	9.0	17,425,000	41.0
Tibet	284,123	2.0	3,750,000	2.0	69,725,000	37.0
Sikang	167,100	2.0	2,500,000	2.0	51,325,000	48.0
Chinghai	272,910	2.0	3,750,000	2.0	84,475,000	47.0
Mongolia	622,233	3.0	12,500,000	3.0	148,425,000	36.0
TOTAL	4,286,173	8.4	229,800,000	8.4	872,100,000	31.9
					1,101,900,000	40.3

* Forest soil area.

† Forest area.

‡ Bare land suitable for forestry.

FORESTRY

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WATER CONSERVANCY

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SINCE the commencement of the Chinese war of resistance on July 7, 1937, many of the lower Yellow River and Yangtze River provinces have fallen into hands of the enemy. Likewise, work on many of the hydraulic engineering projects was disrupted. But the Chinese nation has not been daunted by destruction and enemy gunfire. In the last five years and a half, the Chinese armed forces and civilians have, with unflinching determination, engaged in the dual task of resisting the aggressor on the one hand and building up a base of economic reconstruction in the Northwest and the Southwest on the other. The question of growing enough food for the army and the civilian population and that of increasing the transportation facilities have, therefore, come to the forefront, and with it arises the importance of developing hydraulic engineering works in Free China.

The development of hydraulic engineering works was formerly vested in the hands of the Department of Hydraulic Engineering of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. But with the expansion of the scope of hydraulic engineering work as the war dragged on, it was decided on September 1, 1941, that a National Conservancy Board be created under the Executive Yuan. The board is composed of a secretariat and a Bureau of Hydraulic Engineering, and is staffed by a secretary-general, a number of secretaries,

technical experts, an accounting office and a statistical office.

Under the National Conservancy Board are the following: Hwai River Commission, Yellow River Commission, Yangtze River Commission, North China River Commission, the Pearl River Conservancy Bureau, the Kiangnan Conservancy Bureau, the Kinglo Irrigation Bureau, the Hydraulic Research Institute, and the Model Hydraulic Laboratory.

The unification of these hydraulic administrations into the hands of the National Conservancy Board has enabled the latter to work with greater efficiency. In general, the guiding policy of the board is to formulate hydraulic projects that will meet with the needs of armed resistance and national reconstruction. Under this supreme principle, the board endeavours to carry out a five-point program: firstly, to develop irrigation canals so as to increase agricultural production; secondly, to make all existing waterways navigable so as to facilitate water transportation; thirdly, to regulate the rivers and strengthen the dykes in order to prevent floods; fourthly, to develop hydraulic power in order to help develop industry; and fifthly, to develop topographic surveying and hydraulic research work in order to lay the foundation for the hydraulic work in China.

In this chapter, an attempt will be made to review the work that has been

done in developing irrigation canals, regulating the rivers, and strengthening the dykes since the war. No mention will be made of the Government's efforts to develop hydraulic power for the time being, since the project is still in the embryonic stage; neither will any mention be made concerning surveys and research for similar reasons.

DEVELOPMENT OF IRRIGATION CANALS

A. Shensi Province.—Chinese hydraulic engineering was first developed in Shensi. As far back as 2,000 years ago, the Chengpo Canal had already been dug. After the founding of the Republic, modern hydraulic engineering works were best developed in Shensi. Since the war, work on the Lohui Canal and the Meihui Canal has been continued, while new canals under construction are six: the Heihui, the Hanhui, the Lihui, the Paohui, the Tinghui, and the Hsuhui. Besides, survey work has been completed for the construction of five more canals, namely, the Yuhui, the Chienhui, the Laohui, the Meihui, and the Yunhui, and construction will begin soon. They can irrigate altogether a surface of 1,450,000 mow (six mow to an acre). These canals may be briefly described as follows:

1. *Lohui Canal.*—The Lohui irrigation system starts from the vicinity of Futouchen of Chengcheng hsien. A sluice is built to divert the water of the Lo River to irrigate 500,000 mow of land in the three districts of Pucheng, Tali and Chaoyi. Work was commenced in June, 1934, and by the end of 1938 the works were completed one by one. However, due to the shifting sand in the 3,037-meter long No. 5

tunnel, it still leaves a gap of 620 meters unblasted. An air-compress driller is being used; meanwhile, a new tunnel route is being mapped out and it is hoped that the entire project will be completed by the end of 1944.

2. *Meihui Canal.*—On both banks of the Shihtou River at Meih sien, Shensi, there were originally two irrigation works, the Meikung and the Kungkung canals, irrigating a total area of 60,000 mow. However the two canals had been largely silted up in the years past. Consequently, improvement work was started in 1936. At the same time, a stone embankment was built at Nanchikwan and Hsiehyukwan of Meih sien to direct the water into the two canals. The work was completed in June, 1938, and the two canals were aggregatedly renamed Meihui Canal which now irrigates 130,000 mow of land in the two districts of Chishan and Meih sien.

3. *Heihui Canal.*—The Heihui Canal diverts the water of the Hei River near Wuchiachuang to irrigate 160,000 mow of land in Chouchih hsien. Work was commenced in September, 1938, and completed in December, 1942.

4. *Hanhui Canal.*—The Hanhui Canal diverts the water of the Hankiang near Wuhouchen of Mienhsien to irrigate 100,000 mow of land in Mienhsien and Paoheng. Work was commenced in 1929 and was completed by the end of 1941. Before its total completion, the water of the completed section of the canal was discharged to irrigate the parched farmlands in southern Shensi in June, 1941, thus averting a threatened crop failure. The area to be irrigated by this canal is being expanded.

5. *Lihui Canal.*—Likao in Shensi was once noted as the most fertile

¹ Chairman, National Conservancy Board. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Tang Te-chen (湯德陳) of the Central News Agency.

region in China; but as the irrigation works there later fell into disuse, Likao was often struck by drought famines. In September, 1941, it was decided to regulate the Lihui Canal. A plan was drawn up under which an intake sluice would be built near Chintuchen of Changan hsien to divert the water of the Li River to irrigate 230,000 mow of land in the three districts of Changan, Yuehhsien, and Hsienyang. The irrigation works will be completed by the end of 1943.

6. *Paohui Canal*.—The Paohui Canal diverts the water of the Pao River to irrigate 130,000 mow of land of Paoheng hsien. Work was started in September, 1939, and completed in July, 1942.

7. *Tinghui Canal*.—The Tinghui Canal diverts the water of the Wuting River in the neighbourhood of Houyuankou to irrigate 40,000 mow of land in Yulin hsien. Work was started in April, 1941, and is expected to be completed by June, 1943.

8. *Hsuhui Canal*.—The Hsuhui Canal leads the water of the Hsu River near Shenghsienkow to irrigate 160,000 mow of land in Chengku hsien. Work was commenced in September, 1941, and is expected to be completed in August, 1943.

B. Kansu Province.—Located in northwestern China, Kansu is high and dry. Since the colonization program was enforced in olden times, a great deal of attention has been devoted to hydraulic works. After the outbreak of war, three irrigation systems were developed in Kansu, namely, the Taohui, the Puchi, and the Huanghui, which irrigate 95,000 mow of land. Besides, construction work has been started on four other irrigation systems, the Chingfeng, the Yunglo, the Juihui,

and the Yungfeng, which, when completed, will irrigate 107,000 mow of land.

1. *Taohui Canal*.—The Taohui Canal leads the water of the Tao River to irrigate 35,000 mow of land in Lintao hsien. Work was started in March, 1935, and was completed in August, 1938. Inlet canals have been dug to expand the area of irrigation.

2. *Huanghui Canal*.—The Huanghui Canal leads the water of the Huang River northwest of Hochuitze, where the Tatung River meets the Huang River, to irrigate 25,000 mow of land in Yungteng hsien. Work was started in 1939 and completed in May, 1942.

3. *Puchi Canal*.—The Puchi Canal leads the water of the Tao River to irrigate 35,000 mow of land in Lintao hsien. Work was commenced in 1939 and completed in May, 1942.

4. *Chingfeng Canal*.—The Chingfeng Canal leads the Yellow River water to irrigate 20,000 mow of land north of the Yellow River in Chingyuan hsien. Work was started in January, 1942, and is expected to be completed before the end of 1943. Silt catchment will engage the attention of the National Conservancy Board first, after which work will be started on the actual construction of the canal.

5. *Yunglo Canal*.—The Yunglo Canal leads the water of the Tahsia River to irrigate 54,000 mow of land in Yungching hsien. Work was started in January, 1942, and will be completed in December, 1943.

6. *Juihui Canal*.—The Juihui Canal leads the water of the Jui River to irrigate 10,000 mow of land in Chingchuan hsien. Work was started in January, 1942, and was completed in December, 1942.

7. *Yungfeng Canal*.—The Yungfeng Canal leads the water of the Yellow River at Panchia to irrigate 23,000 mow of land at Yungching hsien. Work was started in November, 1942, and is expected to be completed in 1943.

C. Szechuen Province.—Szechuen Province earned fame for its hydraulic engineering works as early as 2,000 years ago, particularly for the network of irrigation canals for the Chengtu basin. Old canals irrigate a total of 6,000,000 mow of land. Since the war, work has been completed on 11 additional irrigational systems, thanks to the cooperation of the local government authorities and the banks. They are the Chengtseh Canal, the Koting Canal, the Lungshi Canal, the Hunghua Canal, the Szelen Canal, the Tienhsing Canal, the Fuweng Canal, the Nanmu Canal, the Huachi Canal, the Hsiungkung Canal, and the Peitseh Canal, which together irrigate 176,800 mow of land. They may be briefly described as follows:

1. *Chengtseh Canal*.—On both banks of the Fu River in Santai hsien adjoining Mienyang hsien, there is already in existence the Yungcheng Canal which leads the Fu River water for irrigation purpose. However, the Yungcheng Canal has been gradually silted up, necessitating the institution of improvement and regulation work. Three additional sluices were subsequently built at Taotzeyuan, Litsun and Taiku and the irrigation system has been renamed the Chengtseh Canal. Work was started in January, 1928, and completed in April, 1939. The Chengtseh Canal irrigates 45,000 mow of land.

2. *Koting Canal*.—The Koting Canal is situated on the south bank of

the Fu River in Santai hsien. Water is pumped into the canal to irrigate 5,600 mow of land. Work was started in 1941 and completed in March, 1942.

3. *Lungshi Canal*.—The Lungshi Canal leads the water of the Fu River at Shuanghochang to irrigate 14,700 mow of land. Work was started in January, 1929, and was completed in 1941.

4. *Hunghua Canal*.—The Hunghua Canal leads the water of the Min River to irrigate 10,400 mow of land in Chingshen hsien. Work was started in December, 1939, and was completed in March, 1940.

5. *Szelen Canal*.—The Szelen Canal leads the water of the Fu River to irrigate 33,000 mow of land in Suining hsien. Work was started in 1940 and completed in June, 1942.

6. *Tienhsing Canal*.—The Tienhsing Canal leads the water of the Fu River at Hsintatze to irrigate 13,000 mow of land in Changming hsien. Work was started in December, 1938, and completed in October, 1940.

7. *Fuweng Canal*.—The Fuweng Canal leads the Anchang River water at Wuchia-Shihhuiyao to irrigate 10,000 mow of land in Mienyang hsien. Work was started in December, 1940, and was completed in December, 1941.

8. *Nanmu Canal*.—The Nanmu Canal leads the water of the Tung River to irrigate 1,600 mow of land in Loshan hsien. Work was started in October, 1928, and completed in May, 1939.

9. *Huachi Canal*.—The Huachi Canal leads the Huachi River water to irrigate 34,500 mow of land in Hungya hsien. Work was started in March, 1929, and completed in June, 1942.

10. *Hsiungkung Canal*.—The Hsiungkung Canal leads the water of the

Fuwen River at Lungmentung to irrigate 3,000 mow of land in Omei hsien. Work was started in February, 1941, and completed in June, 1942.

11. *Peitsch Canal*.—The Peitsch Canal leads the water of the Pei River near Lienshanchen to irrigate 6,000 mow of land in Chintang and Kuanghan hsien. Work was started in December, 1940, and completed in May, 1941.

D. Kweichow Province—Kweichow is situated in the mountainous regions of southwestern China, consequently, it has not been easy to develop hydraulic works in that province. Nevertheless, no effort has been spared to construct irrigation systems in Kweichow since the war, and up to now five irrigation systems have been completed, irrigating 15,730 mow of land. They are the Hsiaolung irrigation system, the Santu irrigation system, the Laokungpo irrigation system, the Mankuan irrigation system, and the Potanghaitze irrigation system. Others are under construction.

1. *Hsiaolung Irrigation System*.—The Hsiaolung irrigation system depends on the water of the Yuliang River to irrigate 7,700 mow of land in the Hsiaolung area of Huishui hsien. Work was started in October, 1939, and completed in June, 1940.

2. *Santu Irrigation System*.—The Santu irrigation system depends on a discharge inlet from the Hsiaolung irrigation system for water to irrigate 2,130 mow of land in the Santu area of Huishui hsien. Work was started in April, 1941, and completed in October the same year.

3. *Laokungpo Irrigation System*.—The Laokungpo irrigation system depends on the Chung River to irrigate 1,300 mow of land in the Laokungpo area of Huishui hsien. Work was

started in April, 1941, and completed at the end of October in the same year.

4. *Potanghaitze Irrigation System*.—Work on draining the water at Potanghaitze was started in April, 1941. After the water is drained, 3,500 mow of land will be available for cultivation. The first stage of the work was completed in October, 1942.

5. *Mankuan Irrigation System*.—The Mankuan irrigation system depends on the Chung River to irrigate 1,100 mow of land in the Mankuan area of Huishui hsien. Work was commenced in February, 1941, and completed in June, 1942.

E. Yunnan Province.—Situated in southwestern China, Yunnan's climate is mild and is ideal for farming. Since the war, much headway has been registered in the hydraulic field in the province. The works under construction are the Wenkung Canal, the Lungkung Canal, the Sunglin Sluice and the Chuyuan Sluice, irrigating an aggregate area of 87,460 mow. They may be briefly described as follows:

1. *Wenkung Canal*.—The Wenkung Canal is located on the west bank of the Tachih River in Yiliang hsien and was constructed in the Ming Dynasty, drawing the water of the Paiyi River to irrigate the nearby farmland. Negligence in dredging work later forced the Wenkung Canal into disuse. Improvement work was started in March, 1940. A reservoir was built at Yangchung, an inland lake, on the upper reaches of the Paiyi River. The original channel of the Wenkung Canal was improved and new engineering works were added. As a result the canal now irrigates 30,000 mow of land. The sluice gate, the head of the canal and some tunnels were completed in 1942, while the bridges, the

earthworks and the rest of the tunnels will be completed in the spring of 1943.

2. *Lungkung Canal*.—The Lungkung Canal leads the water of the Tachih River to irrigate 14,000 mow of land in Yiliang hsien. Work was started in the spring of 1942 and was completed in the winter of the same year.

3. *Chuyuan Sluice*.—The Chuyuan Sluice diverts the water of the Tienchi River to irrigate 22,760 mow of land in Mileh hsien. Work was started in March, 1940, and completed in May, 1942.

4. *Sunglin Sluice*.—The Sunglin Sluice project includes two phases—irrigation and flood prevention. It leads the water of the Nanpan River to irrigate 20,700 mow of land. Work was started in the spring of 1942 and is expected to be completed within one year.

F. Kwangsi Province.—Kwangsi is situated on the upper reaches of the West River. Since the war nine hydraulic engineering projects have been started in the province. The works, when completed, will irrigate 256,500 mow of land. They may be described as follows:

1. *Hokiang Sluice*.—The Hokiang Sluice diverts the water of the Ho River to irrigate 20,000 mow of land in Lipu hsien. Work was started in April, 1939, and completed in March, 1940.

2. *Loshou Canal*.—The Loshou Canal leads the water of the Loshou River to irrigate 20,000 mow of land in Yishan hsien. Work was started in September, 1938, and completed in May, 1941.

3. *Napo Canal*.—The Napo Canal leads the water of the Hsiang River

to irrigate 20,000 mow of land in Tienyang hsien. Work was started in August, 1939, and completed in October, 1941.

4. *Fengshanho Canal*.—The Fengshanho Canal leads the water of the Fengshan River to irrigate 29,970 mow of land in Liuchow. Work was started in February, 1939, and completed in October, 1941.

5. *Shapuhu Canal*.—The Shapuhu Canal leads the water of the Shapu River to irrigate 56,000 mow of land in Liucheng hsien. Work was started in May, 1940, and the first stage of the work was completed in October, 1941. The second stage of the work will be completed within 1943.

6. *Puluho Canal*.—The Puluho Canal leads the water of the Pulu River to irrigate 14,500 mow of land in Lipu hsien. Work was started in July, 1940, and is expected to be completed in March, 1943.

7. *Shihkiang Canal*.—The Shihkiang Canal leads the water of the Shih River to irrigate 33,800 mow of land in Kungcheng hsien. Work was started in 1940 and will be completed within 1943.

8. *Haiyuan Canal*.—The Haiyuan Canal leads the water of the Haiyuan River to irrigate 17,000 mow of land in Szelo hsien. Work was started in September, 1941, and will be completed within 1943.

9. *Kantang Canal*.—The Kantang Canal leads the Kantang River water to irrigate 14,500 mow of land in Lingchuan hsien. Work was started in November, 1941, and will be completed within 1943.

10. *Kingkiho Canal*.—The Kingkiho Canal leads the water of the Kingki River to irrigate 31,000 mow of land in Yungfu hsien. Work was started

in July, 1942, and will be completed within 1943.

G. Kwangtung Province.—A coastal province, Kwangtung has been suffering from a shortage of food since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war. Irrigation systems had to be developed in order to help increase food production. Six irrigation systems were therefore instituted which, when completed, will irrigate 139,000 mow of land. They may be briefly described as follows:

1. *Chihnanhsiang Canal.*—The Chihnanhsiang Canal leads the water of the Hsikeng River to irrigate 15,000 mow of land in Lochang hsien. Work was started in October, 1941, and is expected to be completed within 1943.

2. *Huangtangyu Canal.*—The Huangtangyu Canal leads the water of the Szu and Chienchi rivers to irrigate 10,000 mow of land in Jenhua hsien. Work was started in October, 1941, and completed in February, 1943.

3. *Lienpo Canal.*—The Lienpo Canal leads the water of the Ling River to irrigate 9,000 mow of land in Nanshiung hsien. Work was started in March, 1942, and will be completed in March, 1943.

4. *Tashanhsiang Canal.*—The Tashanhsiang Canal leads the water of the Tungwan River to irrigate 5,000 mow of land in Kukong hsien. Work was started in March, 1942, and is expected to be completed by March, 1943.

5. *Tupuhsiang Canal.*—The Tupuhsiang Canal leads the water of the Chihung River to irrigate 10,000 mow of land in Yangshan hsien. Work was started in July, 1942, and is expected to be completed within 1943.

6. *Tehlutang Works.*—The Tehlutang works is a reservoir which irri-

gates 90,000 mow of farm land in Haikang hsien. Work was started in June, 1942, and will be completed within 1943.

H. Other Provinces.—Progress has also been registered in hydraulic works in other provinces. In Honan, irrigation canals were constructed at Lushan hsien, Yichuan hsien, and Tenghsien; in Kiangsi, an irrigation canal was built at Wanan hsien; in Sikang, an irrigation system was laid out at Yaan hsien. Small-scale irrigation works have also been widely built in the various provinces.

The table on page 536 shows the irrigation works that have either been built or are under construction in the different provinces.

REGULATION OF RIVERS

In view of the important role transportation plays in the Chinese war of resistance, no effort has been spared to regulate and improve inland rivers that are connected with China's international routes. A program has been drawn up with emphasis on economy of time, manpower and material. For rivers that were only partially navigable before, efforts were made to make them completely navigable; for rivers that were only navigable in the water-rising period, efforts were made to make them navigable the year round. Meanwhile, efforts were exerted to deepen the channels of the rivers so that the load-carrying capacity of the river craft may correspondingly increase, the time taken to cover the same distance may be reduced, and the hazards of going through the rapids may be minimized. In the event of special circumstances, wherein the problems could not be solved by deepening the channels or

blasting the reefs, sluices and sluice gates were built to circumvent them.

Since 1938, efforts have first been concentrated on the upper reaches and the tributaries of the Yangtze and the Pearl rivers, so as to facilitate international transportation, as well as on the inland rivers. But due to the changes in the war situation, the hydraulic authorities were only able to regulate the Kuei River, a tributary of the Pearl River, as far as the latter was concerned. As to the work for the regulation of the upper reaches of the West River, it was suspended due to the extension of hostilities to that sector.

With regard to the upper reaches of the Yangtze River, work was successfully started on the Golden Sand River and its tributaries such as the Min, the Chihshui, the Kialing, the Chi, the Wu, the Yu and the Yuan rivers, and the result thus far have been satisfactory.

In short, it is estimated that at least 1,500 kilometers of rivers have been regulated and improved since the war.

Recently, a plan was afoot to regulate and improve the Tao River, a tributary of the Yellow River, and the Pailung River, a tributary of the Kialing River, so as to facilitate transportation between the northwestern and southwestern provinces.

As to water transportation between the southeastern and southwestern provinces, it is also planned to utilize the existing waterways and highways for which a program to effect through water-and-highway transportation in the three provinces at Kiangsi, Hunan and Szechuen is now being carried out.

The following is a brief description of the work of river regulation and improvement in the last few years.

However, no mention will be made of the hydraulic works which are only local in nature or which have been suspended before they were completed, such as the Heng, Yungching and Yenching rivers of Szechuen, the Tuliu River of Kwangsi, the Ching River of Hupeh, and the Shachi River of Fukien.

A. Golden Sand River.—The Golden Sand River flows through Yunnan, Sikang and Szechuen provinces, and is known as the Yangtze after hitting Ipin where it meets with the Min River. The Golden Sand River has been unnavigable due to the presence of numerous treacherous rapids. After the outbreak of the war, the need was felt for effecting through land-and-water transportation in the Southwest whereby the supplies coming over the Burma Road may be shipped upcountry by waterway. Several survey parties were sent to study the Golden Sand River and, as a result, recommendations were made for regulating the river by three stages.

The first stage calls for the introduction of through land-and-water traffic between Ipin and Mengku, a distance of 513.5 kilometers. The second stage calls for the inauguration of similar traffic between Mengku and Yungjen, a distance of 330 kilometers. The third stage calls for the opening of direct navigation between Ipin and Yungjen.

An engineering bureau was set up in August, 1940. Up to the time of writing, three-fourths of the work for the first stage have been completed and it is expected that by the spring of 1943 through water-and-land traffic may be inaugurated. This means that Szechuen-bound cargoes from Kun-

STATISTICAL TABLE OF THE HYDRAULIC ENGINEERING WORKS
 Total Area Irrigated : 2,639,870 Mow

Province	Names	Districts	Source	Irrigated Area (in Mow)	Cost (in \$)	Remarks
Shensi	Lohui Canal	Pucheng, Tali, Pingmin, Chaoyi	Loshui	500,000	—	Under construction
	Meihui Canal	Meihai, Chishan	Shihonho	130,000	216,000	Completed
	Helhui Canal	Chouchih	Helho	160,000	240,000	Completed
	Hanhu Canal	Minhsien, Paocheng, Nancheng	Hanshui	100,000	3,760,648	Completed
	Lihui Canal	Changan, Yuchhsien, Hsienyang	Lih	230,000	9,321,967.30	Under construction
	Paohui Canal	Paocheng, Nancheng	Paoshui	130,000	4,729,216.97	Completed
Kansu	Tinghui Canal	Hengshan, Yulin	Wingthui	40,000	3,878,147.68	Under construction
	Hsuhui Canal	Chengku, Yanghsien	Hsushui	160,000	9,185,409	Under construction
	Taohui Canal	Lintao	Taoho	35,000	1,350,000	Completed
	Huanghui Canal	Yungteng, Kaolan	Huangshui	25,000	3,218,738.92	Completed
	Puehi Canal	Lintao	Taoho	35,000	781,261.08	Completed
	Chingfeng Canal	Chingyuan	Huangho	20,000	6,500,000	Under construction
Szechuen	Yunglo Canal	Yungching	Tahsiao	54,000	6,500,000	Under construction
	Juhui Canal	Chingchun, Lungtung	Juiho	10,000	3,800,000	Completed
	Yungfeng Canal	Yungching	Huangho	23,000	3,000,000	Under construction
	Chengtsehyen	Santai	Fushui	45,000	475,107.34	Completed
	Kotingyen	Santai	Fushui	5,600	2,050,000	Completed
	Lungshai Canal	Minyang	Fushui	14,700	1,039,000	Completed
Kweichow	Hunghuayen	Chingshen	Minliang	10,400	46,000	Completed
	Szeienyen	Suing	Fushui	33,000	12,000,000	Completed
	Tienhsingyen	Changming	Fushui	13,000	214,000	Completed
	Fuwengyen	Minyang	Puchangkiang	10,000	1,200,000	Completed
	Nannuyen	Loshan	Tungbo	1,800	17,300	Completed
	Huachi Canal	Hungya	Fuweiho	34,500	7,300,000	Completed
Kweichow	Hsiakung	Chitang, Kuangshan	Tutbo	3,000	750,000	Completed
	Santu	Huashui	Yuliaogho	7,700	191,697.04	Completed
	Loakungpo	Huashui	Yuliaogho	2,130	110,000	Completed

Yunnan	Potanghaltze	Anlung	Drainage	3,500	280,822.82	Completed
	Mankuan	Huishi	Chungshui	1,100	159,367.17	Completed
	Wenkung Canal	Yiliang	Palyho, Yang-chungshai	30,000	3,800,000	Under construction
Kwangsi	Lungkung Canal	Yiliang	Nanpankiang	14,000	4,350,000	Completed
	Chuyuan Sluice	Mieh	Tienchi	22,760	13,700,000	Completed
	Sunglin Sluice	Chanyi	Nanpankiang	20,700	5,000,000	Under construction
	Hokiang Sluice	Lipu	Hokiang	20,000	800,000	Completed
	Loshou Canal	Yishan	Loshouho	20,000	220,000	Completed
	Napo	Tienyang	Hsiangshui	20,000	373,727.38	Completed
Kwangtung	Fengshen Canal	Liuchow	Fengshanho	29,700	1,044,546.16	Completed
	Shapaho	Liucheng	Shapaho	56,000	6,400,000	Under construction
	Puluho	Lipu	Puluho	14,500	745,000	Under construction
	Shihkiang	Kungcheng	Shihkiang	33,800	1,050,000	Under construction
	Haiyuan	Szelo	Haiputung	17,000	600,000	Under construction
	Kantuan	Lingchuan	Kantankiang	14,500	2,800,000	Under construction
Honan	Kinkho	Yungfu	Kinkho	31,000	3,200,000	Under construction
	Chinshanhiang	Lochang	Hsiengkshui	15,000	696,000	Under construction
	Huangtangyu	Jenhua	Szushui, Chien-chishui	10,000	729,000	completed
	Lienpo	Nanhsing	Lingkiang	9,000	360,000	Under construction
	Tashanhsiang	Kukong	Tungwan	5,000	250,000	Under construction
	Tupuhsiang	Yangshan	Chihungho	10,000	500,000	Under construction
Kiangsi	Tehlutang	Haihang	Reservoir	90,000	3,000,000	Under construction
	Chungsho Canal	Lushan	Shaho	8,580	80,396.83	Completed
Sikang	Kungshing Canal	Yichuan	Yiho	25,000	900,000	Under construction
	Chuanhui Canal	Tenghsien	Chuanho	240,000	4,700,000	Under construction
TOTAL	Meipo	Wanan	—	29,300	1,257,629.80	Under construction
	Choukung Canal	Yaan	Choukungho	9,500	3,750,000	Under construction
				2,639,870		

ming will be able to go up the 200-kilometer highway linking Kunming and Mengku whence they will be carried by boat all the way to Ipin. The second-stage project was started in the winter of 1941 but was later abandoned owing to the outbreak of the Burma campaign. However, if future conditions permit the work may be resumed.

B. Min River.—The Min River traverses the western Szechuen basin and meets the Golden Sand River at Ipin. The Min River valley is prosperous and populous. With the removal of the Chinese capital from Nanking to Chungking and the subsequent large-scale development of mining industry in the Loshan region, which is in the Min River valley, the need for the regulation of the Min River was urgently felt.

Preparatory work commenced in the spring of 1940 and a decision was reached to regulate the Loshan-Ipin section of the Min River, a distance of 140 kilometers, during the first stage of the work. On this stretch, there were 21 places which had to be improved before the Min River could be rendered navigable all year round for shallow-draft steam boats and 50-ton junks. In other words, the river channel should be so dredged that even in the lowest water season there would still be a minimum level of 1.5 meters. Three-fourths of the work has been done, navigation conditions at the rapids have been improved, and it is expected that the project will be completed by the winter of 1943. Meanwhile, surveying and planning work for the second stage will soon be started.

C. Mapien River.—The Mapien River is a tributary of the Min River in the lower Min Valley. The Mapien

Valley is rich in coal deposits which are being exploited for fuel for western Szechuen. However, due to transportation difficulties the coal industry of the Mapien Valley has not been fully developed. It was thereupon decided that the 26-kilometer section of the Mapien River between Mamiaochi and Hokow be regulated so that even in the lowest water period there would still be a minimum water level of eight decimeters, permitting 15-metric ton junks to navigate that stretch the year round. Work was started in the winter of 1940 and was completed by April, 1941.

D. Kialing River.—The Kialing River is connected with the rivers of Kansu and Shensi. It flows through northern Szechuen, stopping at Chungking where it empties into the Yangtze River. Since time immemorial, the Kialing has been an important artery of trade. However, due to the presence of many reefs and rapids and the shallow river channel the transportation capacity of the Kialing has been limited, especially during wartime. To regulate and improve the Kialing, work was started in the spring of 1939, covering a distance of 935 kilometers from Paishnikiangchen in Shensi to Chungking. As a result the Kialing is now navigable even in the lowest water period, its transportation capacity has been greatly augmented, and its importance correspondingly increased. The Kialing is now the principal route of transportation for the mineral oil of Kansu, the cotton of Shensi, and the salt and tungsten of Szechuen. But with the increased transportation demand on the Kialing, it was found that the original regulation and improvement work was still insufficient to meet the transportation

needs. To meet changing conditions, a plan was afoot to effect through water-and-land transportation between the Pailungkiang, a tributary on the upper reaches of the Kialing, and the Tao River, a tributary of the Yellow River—separated by a land distance of 280 kilometers. Work will be started in 1943 to link up the Yellow River and Yangtze River systems and to bring closer the northwestern and southwestern provinces through a network of highways and waterways, with the Kialing as the pivot.

E. Chihshui River.—The Chihshui River flows through Szechuen and Kweichow provinces and empties into the Yangtze at Hokiang hsien of Szechuen. It is one of the four main transportation routes for Szechuen salt destined for Kweichow. But due to the presence of rapids and reefs, the Chihshui could only be navigated in stretches. In order that it may meet wartime demands, work was started in the winter of 1941 to regulate and improve the section between Maotai in Kweichow and Hokiang in Szechuen, a distance of 260 kilometers. From Maotai, there is a highway running to Tsunyi, which is one of the principal towns on the Chungking-Kweiyang Highway. The object was to so dredge the channel that there would be a minimum water level of 1.2 meters, and thus river craft may navigate the Maotai-Hokiang section in normal and low water periods. Work was started by stages, starting from Chihshui hsien of Kweichow and upwards for a distance of 60 kilometers. Upon its completion, 20-metric ton junks may then sail straight to Hokiang and enter the Yangtze. The project is expected to be completed before the Yangtze

water-rising period in the summer of 1943.

F. Chi Kiang.—The Chi Kiang has its source at Tuntzu hsien of Kweichow and its upper reaches are known as the Sungkan River. It is only when the latter meets with the Yangtu and Tsaotu rivers that it is known as the Chi Kiang. The Chi Kiang flows northwestward for 135 kilometers to Kiangching hsien of Szechuen where it empties into the Yangtze. The Chi Kiang Valley has abundant coal and iron resources, which constitute important raw material for wartime industries. It also forms one of the four principal routes of transportation for Szechuen salt destined for Kweichow. But as the upper reaches of the Chi Kiang were treacherous and navigation on the middle section was rendered difficult by the presence of gorges, direct navigation was impossible. Coupled with the fact that the channel almost dried up in the low-water period and that the entire course was full of rapids and reefs, it was extremely difficult and precarious to try to navigate the river. In the winter of 1938, several locks were installed on the Chi Kiang and navigation conditions at the rapids were improved. By the winter of 1941, the entire river became navigable. To further increase the transportation capacity of the Chi Kiang, tunnels were drilled through the Sanchi-Wucha section, a distance of 45 kilometers. From Wucha down to Kiangkow, a light railway was built so that through land-and-water traffic may be effected. Up to now, seven out of 11 locks have been completed and the remaining four are expected to be completed within 1943.

G. Wukiang.—The Wukiang traverses Szechuen and Kweichow and empties into the Yangtze at Fuling hsien. Although the channel of the Wukiang was deep enough, navigation was rendered difficult by the presence of rapids and reefs. After the outbreak of war, it was decided to improve the river. Work was started in 1938 and at the outset it was decided to improve the Kungtan-Fuling section, a distance of 189 kilometers, so that it may join up with the Yu River, thereby creating a link between the through land-and-water systems between Szechuen and Hunan provinces. For this section, it was decided that the minimum water level should be 1.5 meters. Already, Szechuen salt destined for Hunan and Hunan rice destined for Szechuen are being transported over this route. Regulation and improvement work has also been started on the 159-kilometer section between Kungtan and Ssuan in Kweichow so as to facilitate transportation between Szechuen and Kweichow provinces.

H. Yu River.—A tributary of the Yuan River, the Yu River starts from Lungtanchen of Yuyang hsien, Hunan Province, to Yuanling, a distance of 240 kilometers, and is an important transportation route for Szechuen salt destined for Hunan, Hunan rice destined for Szechuen, as well as military supplies. Together with the Wukiang, the Yu River constitutes the trunk route of the Szechuen and Hunan water-and-land traffic systems. In view of the fact that the upper reaches of the Yu River between Lungtan and Paoching, a distance of 113 kilometers, were treacherous and steep, work was started in the winter of 1940 to regulate that section in such a way that

even in the lowest water period there would still be a minimum water level of five decimeters, thereby permitting junks to navigate the entire stretch the year round. Thus far, nine-tenths of the work has been completed and it is expected that the whole project will be completed in the spring of 1943.

I. Chingshui River. The Chingshui River, 393 kilometers in length, starts from the northeastern corner of Kweichow and flows to Chienyang hsien of Hunan where it meets the Wu River and empties into the Yuan River. But as the region through which the river traverses is mountainous and owing to the presence of rapids and reefs, improvement work was started in 1939 and was completed in 1941 after which junks originally carrying five metric tons of freight may now carry 15 metric tons, a great boom to inter-provincial traffic between Kweichow and Hunan.

J. Yuan River.—After meeting the Wu River at Chienyang hsien in Hunan, the Chingshui River becomes known as the Yuan River and it empties into the Tungting Lake at Hanshou, a distance of 628 kilometers. The upper reaches of the Yuan River are treacherous but from Taoyuan down to Hokow, a distance of 190 kilometers, the river channel is broad and deep, and river craft drawing two meters of water may freely navigate the lower stretch. After the outbreak of the war, it was decided to improve the Yuan River beyond Taoyuan so that 20-ton junks may navigate all year round. Improvement work was first started between Taoyuan and Yuanling, a distance of 173 kilometers, and the work is expected to be completed with in 1943.

K. Kuei River.—The upper reaches of the Kuei River are linked with the upper reaches of the Hsiang River by the Ling Canal and together they are known as the Hunan-Kwangsi river route. This route, which connects the Yangtze and Pearl river systems, starts from Yoyang in the north to Wuchow in the south, a distance of 1,300 kilometers. The Kuei and Hsiang rivers affect not only the livelihood of the inhabitants of the Kwangsi and Hunan provinces but also the economic welfare of the entire nation. However, due to the shallow channels of the two rivers in their upper reaches and the presence of rapids and reefs, it was deemed necessary to institute improvement work after the outbreak of the war. At that time, the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway was already under construction and as the railway route generally parallels the Hsiang River and the Ling Canal, it was decided that the improvement work should be centered on the section between Tayung-kiangchen, on the Kwei River, and Kweilin. After its completion, work was started on the Kweilin-Pinglo section, a distance of 164 kilometers, which was completed in the winter of 1941. As a result, the water level has been increased from three or four decimeters to eight decimeters or more, and now 10-metric ton junks may navigate the entire stretch the year round. As the section below Pinglo is deeper and has greater transportation capacity, the improvement work has been temporarily delayed.

FLOOD PREVENTION

A. Yellow River: 1. Closure of Dyke-Breaks.—As a result of enemy aerial bombings in 1937, the Yellow River broke through the dykes at

Chaokou of Chungmou hsien and Huayuankou of Chengchow in Honan. The flood waters rushed southwards for the Chialu River and flowed into the Hwai River via the Sha River. From the Hwai River the flood waters rushed through the Hungtseh Lake into the Grand Canal whence they finally emptied into the sea. As a result, districts in eastern Honan, northern Anhwei and northern Kiangsu through which the flood waters roared were all inundated. In 1938, the flood waters again flowed through Chungmou where they met the Chialu River. Then they rushed through Yushih, Fukou, Taikang, Hsihua and Hwaiyang hsien for Chouchiakou whence they followed the north bank of the Sha River to Taiho in Anhwei territory.

To prevent the dead waters from flowing westward and as a military precaution, it was decided to build a new dyke from Huayuankou to Chiehshou, junction town on the Honan-Anhwei border, a distance of 316 kilometers. To facilitate their westward penetration, the enemy in 1939 forced the inhabitants in the territory under their control to close the breach at Chaokou as a result of which the flood waters were forced to flow through Huayuankou of Chengchow. In July, 1940, during the water-rising period, the flood waters changed their course and moved eastward, causing breaches in the dykes at Wangpan of Taikang hsien and Kiangtsun of Fukou hsien. From there onward, the waters struck a southeasterly course and a greater part of them merged with the Wo River, forming a fresh inundated area and further aggravating the flood situation.

In January, 1941, the Yellow River waters again broke through Wutzeli in

67 meters, which occurrences threatened the safety of Shasi and Chienli, the danger of a flood was averted.

In 1940, repair works of 13 places were started in the spring and completed before the water-rising period. In 1941 between January and May, annual repair and protection works were started in addition to the construction of numerous military defenses. This coupled with the fact that double watch was exercised over the banks between June and October resulted in a floodless year for the Yangtze-Han valley. In 1942, the dyke at Chelwan in Chienli district threatened to collapse. However, emergency repairs were rushed and the threatened breach was averted.

C. Pearl River : Dyke-Repair and Bank-Protection Work.—The delta region of the Pearl River is the most productive area of the Pearl River Valley. As the region is low-lying, anti-flood measures are imperative. Yet, due to military reasons many of the dyke works have perforce been destroyed. In 1938 and 1939, the

repair of dykes and protection of banks were completed according to schedule and no flood occurred. In 1940, repairs were effected on the dykes of Kaoyao, Kaoming, Hoshuan, Szechui and Sanshui.

Meanwhile, the North River and the West River registered an alarming rise twice, breaking the highest records of the two rivers and causing several breaches. However, no great harm was done thanks to timely efforts. In 1941, repair work was effected on 30 dyke-breaks along the banks of the West River, on 10 places along the North River, and on eight places along the Kaoming River as a result of which no flood occurred.

However, during the flood water season in 1942 repair work was rendered difficult by the proximity of enemy forces which repeatedly shelled and machine-gunned Chinese territory from the air. As a result, several breaches occurred in the West River dykes, flooding several hundred thousand mow of land. Efforts are being made to close the dyke-breaks.

FOOD ADMINISTRATION

HSU KAN¹ (徐堪)

CHINA is an agricultural country. Though modern industries have been gradually built up in her coastal provinces and some leading centres in the interior, her economic foundation is mainly based on agricultural production. The majority of her population are directly or indirectly engaged in farming. Food is produced everywhere, on lean and mountainous slopes as well as fertile plains. Every part of the country maintains a certain degree of self-sufficiency and most of the people draw the main source of sustenance from their land and need not buy foodstuffs. Therefore, only a small portion of the foodstuffs produced is sent to the market.

Due to the poor means of communications, food transportation in China is difficult. Only the principal cities on the seacoast or along the rivers or railways can get their food supply from distance places. Small cities and towns have to depend on the neighbouring villages or nearby producing centres for food supply. Food production, therefore, has been an important factor in the distribution of China's population. Those parts where food is scarce are sparsely populated. Food-producing centres without the benefit of transportation conveniences and facilities do not have to raise their production to the highest point. In those localities where communications have not been well developed, limited demand serves as a natural barrier to

the increase of food production. Each locality produces just enough to meet its demand for it cannot depend on supply from distant parts, nor can it send its surplus to far away places.

Due to the immensity of China's territory, the climate and soil conditions are different in various parts of the country. Even in the same locality, the climate and volume of rainfall vary with every season of the year. So there are many different crops to suit the different conditions of climate and soil and amounts of rainfall. They include rice, wheat, barley, buckwheat, *kaoliang*, corn, millet, potatoes and beans. Wheat constitutes the staple food in North and Northwest China while rice is the major crop in the South and the Southwest. All the other crops fall under the general category of cereals. Wherever the production of staple food is lacking, the people eats cereals whose nutritious value does not fall far below that of rice and wheat. These cereals constitute a high percentage of the total amount of foodstuffs produced and consumed in China.

From the aforementioned analysis, we may reach the following conclusions:

First, as the majority of the Chinese people are engaged in agriculture, they do not have to buy food from the market, depending chiefly on their own production. When major crops

¹ Minister of Food Administration.

Taikang hsien for an easterly direction until they reached the Hei River Valley. This meant that the flood area was expanded to cover approximately 80,000 square kilometers. Several million inhabitants in the afflicted districts of Honan, Anhwei and Kiangsi provinces were thus rendered homeless and destitute.

As a result of the construction of an embankment on the east bank of the Yellow River by the enemy, forcing the river to flow westward, there was great danger of another fresh Yellow River flood in 1942. On August 4 that year, the flow of the Yellow River at Shenhhsien, western Honan, was 25,000 cubic meters per second, exceeding the highest record in 1933. By then the Yellow River had already flown over the new dyke and the situation was most critical. However, thanks to the unceasing efforts of 50,000 troops and civilians the situation was temporarily saved. But then the new dyke was already in a most precarious position and on September 8, when the river registered a further rise amidst a torrential downpour, five breaches, each measuring from 30 to 70 meters, occurred in the Taoling-kang area abutting Fukou and Hsihwa hsien in Honan Province. Fortunately, the flooded area was comparatively small, totalling only over 100 square kilometers. Work on the dyke-breaks was immediately started and up to this time of writing four dyke-breaks have already been closed. The remaining breach is expected to be closed in January, 1943.

2. *Construction of New Dykes.*—Despite the fact that the Yellow River had broken its dykes at Huayuankou and Koumen, it was impossible to close the breaches there due to the proximity of the two places to the frontline.

Other measures had to be devised in an effort to prevent the extension of the flood area and minimize the damage. Taking into consideration the factor of national defense at the same time, dyke-repair and bank-protection works were started in the flood areas of Honan, Anhwei and Kiangsu. In Honan, a new dyke was built in 1938 from the west of the Huayuankou breach—from Hehtaoyuan on the old bank of the Yellow River to the road-bed of the Lung-hai Railway at Putien in Chengchow, a distance of 32 kilometers. The work was completed in September of the same year. In 1939, work was started to extend the new dyke for a distance of 280 kilometers from Putien to Chiehshou on the Anhwei border, passing through Chungmou, Kaifeng, Yushih, Fukou, Hsinhua and Hwaiyang—from Chouchiakou the new dyke follows the south bank of the Sha River until it reaches Chiehshou. This extension work was completed in July of the same year. Added to the original new dyke that was constructed in 1938, the total length is 316 kilometers. Repair works were continued in 1940 and 1941 to assure the safety of the new dyke. In addition, the hydraulic authorities have assisted the people in building numerous small dykes so as to further make safe their farmland and farm houses.

In Anhwei, more than 3,000 li (approximately 1,500 kilometers) of dykes have either been repaired or built along the Sha, Tze, Ku, Sungtang, Tungming, Tunghsiang, Fei and Wo rivers so as to prevent the spread of the Yellow River flood waters.

In Kiangsu, the flood waters through which the Lihsia River passes were drained and the banks along the

Grand Canal were repaired so as to divert the flood waters to the sea.

3. *Construction of Military Dykes.*—In view of the fact that the Yellow River flood area was also the battlefield, military dykes were constructed at Chingshuichen and Huaching for defense reasons. Besides, troops were mobilized to close the dyke-breaks at Wangpan and along the north bank of the Sha River so as to prevent their flooding Chinese military positions. Other military dykes were also built.

4. *Annual Repair of Dykes.*—Aside from instituting emergency hydraulic measures, incessant efforts have been exerted to repair the dykes and protect the banks of the Yellow River since the war. In this regard, it may be mentioned here that as several hundred kilometers of new and old Yellow River dykes are almost entirely located in the fighting line, a heavy toll of hydraulic engineers and dyke workers has been taken. But in spite of this, an example of unparalleled heroism has been shown and thanks to their efforts much life and property have been saved from the ravages of flood.

5. *Flood-Prevention Work Along the Upper Reaches of the Yellow River.*—The main reasons for the Yellow River being called "China's Sorrow" are two: the flow is too rapid and too much silt is carried downriver. To regulate fundamentally the Yellow River, it is necessary to build flood-retention reservoirs, engage in anti-erosion work and embark on a large-scale program of afforestation along the upper reaches of the Huang Ho. For this reason, attention since the war has not only been devoted to the dyke-repair and bank-protection work along the middle and lower reaches of the Yellow River but also to the

flood-retention, anti-erosion and soil-conservation work in Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Suiyuan and Chinghai provinces along the upper reaches of the river. For this a special bureau has been created to take charge of the work. Already this bureau has finished surveying the sources of the silt along the trunk lines and tributaries of the upper Yellow River as well as possible sites for the construction of flood-retention reservoirs and for afforestation and reclamation. A study of the climate and soil along the upper Yellow River is also being made prior to the formulation of a fundamental program to regulate the river.

8. *Yangtze River and Han River : Dyke-Repair and Bank-Protection Work.*—At the early stage of the Sino-Japanese war, the tri-cities of Hankow, Wuchang and Hangyang, situated at the confluence of the Han and Yangtze rivers, faced the danger of a Japanese invasion. The hydraulic works during that period acquired a double significance: flood prevention as well as military defense. During the water-rising period in 1938, the Yangtze flow was rapid and the rise was precipitous, but thanks to timely prevention a flood was averted.

But in the Han River region, breaches occurred at Kanchiakuai and Changchiawan along the Niuti River, a tributary of the Han. Urgent repair work was instituted and the dyke-breaks were soon closed without causing much damage. In 1939, all the necessary repair and protection work was completed before the water-rising period. Despite the fact that a rise of the Yangtze was recorded 10 times, with the highest record at 44 meters and that the Han River rose 11 times, with the highest record at

are insufficient, they can always have cereals as substitutes. The Chinese Government in wartime, therefore, need not make plans for a nationwide supply of food. Nor does it need to enforce a thorough-going control of distribution by adopting the ration system. As long as the source of food supply for the cities is kept uninterrupted and prices comparatively stabilized, there need be no worries about shortage.

Second, as each district in the country maintains a certain degree of self-sufficiency in the supply of food, we are not afraid of any blockade by the enemy. The lower Yangtze and North China food-producing areas under Japanese occupation are all densely populated. While the sources of food supply under the control of the Chinese Government have been decreased, the amount of food which lies within its responsibility to provide has, likewise, been decreased. There are in Free China vast stretches of land which can be used for producing food. Therefore China has one of the most important prerequisites for sustaining a long drawn-out war.

Third, various kinds of crops are harvested at different times of the year. The industrious Chinese farmers use to grow other cereals before planting or after harvesting the major crops. In most parts, two or more harvests from two or more different crops may be obtained annually. Throughout the country, different crops are raised during different seasons of the year. Flood, drought, insect pests and other harmful elements may play havoc to a few localities resulting in the decreased production of a few crops, but they cannot affect the whole of China.

China as a whole faces no food problem in ordinary times. The amount

of imported rice and wheat to Kwangtung province, Shanghai and Tientsin is only 1% of China's total production. They were imported mainly because of the convenience of sea transportation rather than of any shortage of production in the interior. Once communications in interior China are fully developed, such imports could be stopped. A proof of this may be found in the fact that after the Canton-Hankow Railway was opened to traffic, Hunan rice replaced much of the foreign rice imported by Kwangtung province.

During the first year after the outbreak of Sino-Japanese hostilities on July 7, 1937, no serious problem arose as to the supply of food, and the stability of food prices was not affected. Being an agricultural country, China's grain belts are not centralized but scattered all over the land. Though the enemy had occupied certain areas, there remained vast food-producing centres in the interior. Some surplus rice was stored in granaries established in various places. Consequently, aside from the purchase and storage of military rice in the various war areas, the Government made no attempt for any extensive control of food.

By October, 1938, the Wuhan cities and Canton fell into enemy hands. Communication lines by water and on land were cut. The scenes of war were shifted and defense lines extended while the number of troops mobilized was constantly increasing. The collection and transportation of foodstuffs for the army gradually became difficult. In the meantime, reduced labour and the dangers of war brought about certain changes in production. With the influx of a large number of people from various war zones, the removal of industrial plants and

schools to the principal cities in the rear, the demand for food in these cities considerably increased. This state of affairs gave rise to the need for certain readjustments in the supply and demand of food. However, there was no serious shortage.

In the summer of 1940, Ichang, a Chinese stronghold west of Hankow, was lost. Communications between Szechuen, the base of Chinese resistance, and mid-Yangtze provinces were disrupted and the transportation of food and other supplies was affected. Over and above these facts was a short period of drought that summer which had the added psychological effect of uneasiness on some of the people. Meanwhile, large amounts of idle capital in Hongkong and Shanghai trickled to the interior and as a result commodity prices soared up daily. Many unscrupulous merchants dealing in foodstuffs began hoarding and profiteering practices. Thus the supply of food to the army and civilians and the stabilization of food prices became important problems.

The Chinese Government realized that an appropriate solution of the food problem could no longer be found in free commercial dealings. Necessary readjustments must be made. An effective system of control should be established. In August, 1940, the National Food Administration was organized under the direct control of the Executive Yuan as the highest organ of food administration. In the provinces were established food control bureaus while food control committees were set up under the hsien governments. These organizations look after affairs connected with food in their respective districts.

With the extension of war, the food problem became more and more com-

plicated. The organization and powers of the National Food Administration were found to be too small and inadequate to tackle the enlarged scope of work. It was felt that the organization for food administration must be strengthened, its powers augmented and its position raised to be able to discharge its difficult duties. In July, 1941 the National Food Administration was dissolved and in its place the Ministry of Food was established as the central organ for the planning of food supply to the army and public functionaries, for balancing the supply and demand of the people and for the control of merchants, market and prices.

The scope of food control in China today embraces rice, wheat, flour, corn, *kaoliang* and other cereals. The Government is partly responsible for the supply of these foodstuffs because they constitute the staples of the people. Strict measures for their control had to be enforced. Salt, sugar and meat are only supplementary foods and are classified as ordinary commodities beyond the province of the Ministry of Food. In this respect, food control in China differs from that in Europe and America.

During the time of the National Food Administration, emphasis in food control was more on the political side. After the inauguration of the Ministry of Food, it was decided to exercise both political and economic powers. To meet the needs of the leading cities, the Government purchased big quantities of foodstuffs from other districts. Thus the people may have no difficulties in buying their needed food, and their uneasiness may be greatly allayed. At the same time, local food administrative organizations were reorganized and strengthened so

that their powers might be centralized. The provincial food control bureaus were changed into food administration bureaus with stronger organization behind them and with adequate powers. The hsien food control committees were changed into food administration sections working directly under the magistrate who is personally responsible for food administration in his hsien district. On the one hand, emphasis is laid on control and prohibition through political influence. On the other hand, economic forces are effectively applied. The Government has at its disposal an appropriate amount of foodstuffs. Sources of army food have to be developed while the distribution of food among people in the cities has to be readjusted. During the past year, the Ministry was able to perform its duties conscientiously so that the army has never run short of food supply while the work for supplying public functionaries has been well under way. The people have since not suffered any shortage. Some important measures adopted in China for the control of food may be outlined as follows:

Collection of Land Tax in Kind.

With a view to securing the necessary food supply for the army and public functionaries and balancing the supply and demand of the people, the Chinese Government has to have under its control an appropriate amount of food. In ancient China, land tax was collected in kind. Later, for the convenience of the landowners, it was paid in cash. Since food prices soared up, the profit of landowners was many times that of prewar time, but land tax was collected at its original rate. This benefitted the landowners but

greatly reduced the income of the National Treasury. In order to equalize the people's burdens, to increase the income of the National Treasury and to put the Government in control of part of the nation's food production, a decision was made in the autumn of 1941 to collect the land tax in kind. The rate of the tax was based on food prices prevailing prior to the outbreak of war in 1937. However, as the measure was taken before adequate preparations were completed, the people in certain districts continued to pay the tax in cash, while the rate of the tax remained light. As a result, during the first year—1941—the Government collected only 25,000,000 *shihtan*.¹ The major portion of this consisted of rice and wheat with a small amount of corn and other cereals.

Issuing Food Debentures and Fixing Prices for Purchase of Food.

—The food collected in lieu of tax was insufficient to meet the needs for the army and public functionaries and the common people. It was, therefore, necessary to open additional avenues. If the whole amount of needed food was to be bought with national currency at the market price, it would tend to increase the amount of bank notes in circulation and thereby directly or indirectly affect food and commodity prices. A decision was reached to fix food prices according to the cost of production. At these prices purchases were made from the people holding surplus food, and payment was made partly in national currency and partly in food debentures.

These debentures were of seven denominations, namely, 100 *shihtan*, 10 *shihtan*, five *shihtan*, one *shihtan*,

five *tou* (one *tou* equals to one-tenth of a *shihtan*), two *tou* and one *tou*. The interest rate was fixed at 5% per year and redemption of capital and interest was to be made in five years. The debentures may be used by the holders for the payment of land tax or as cash guarantees. The redemption of interest and capital of the 1941 food debentures begins in 1943 and terminates in 1947.

These debentures are exclusively used for the government purchase of food at a fixed price. In Szechuen, for instance, the government-purchasing price for rice is \$100 per *shihtan*. Of this, three *tou* was paid for in national currency, namely \$30, while the remaining seven *tou* is paid in food debentures. Through the issuance of food debentures, the Government borrows food from the people.

The total of food obtained by the Government through collections and purchases in 1941 amounted to 65,000,000 *shihtans*.

Storage of Foodstuffs.—The storage of foodstuffs by the Government has been a long-practised system in China. After the autumn harvest each year, a certain amount of foodstuffs was solicited from those people who have the surplus to be stored up in granaries for use in famine years or when the past year's supply is exhausted before the harvest time. The foodstuffs can either be sold at regulated prices or loaned to the needy people. Thus, year after year, a considerable amount has been accumulated. Every year, old rice is sold or loaned out and in its place new rice is stored in the granaries. This measure which in peacetime can provide for the poor in famine times may in wartime serve the purpose for

balancing the supply and demand of the people. It may also serve to meet any urgent military needs. The storage of foodstuffs, therefore, has been continued in wartime, and it is our plan that within three years a sufficient amount for the supply of the entire population for a period of six months may be accumulated. Steps are being taken to carry out this plan.

Food Supplies for the Army and Public Functionaries.

—Excepting a portion for balancing the supply and demand of the people, the whole amount of food obtained through the collection of land tax in kind, through food debentures and through purchases at fixed prices is used to supply the needs of the army and public functionaries. The Ministry of Food has to provide for all the Chinese forces on the front and in the rear as well as those connected with military organizations and schools at a daily ration of 24 ounces of rice or 26 ounces of flour per head. Those under the category of public functionaries include government employees, faculty and staff members of schools, local militia and police forces. They are given a monthly ration of two *tou* of rice per head upon payment of a government-fixed price. The direct dependents of these people are supplied two *tou* of rice each at the same price. The privileges, however, are limited to five dependents for each person. These measures taken by the Government have not only reduced the burden of the army and the public functionaries but have also contributed to the stabilization of food prices.

Balancing the Supply and Demand of the People.—In addition to food for the army and public functionaries, the

¹ One *shihtan* equals to 2.75 bushels.

be paid to the creation of a network of granaries, the improvement of the methods of transportation and packing, the increase of the percentage of the yield, the extension of the scope of the thrift movement and sundry other measures.

In one word, during the present stage of our resistance, economic warfare is as important as, if not more than, military warfare. A satisfactory solution of the food problem is one of the most important phases of economic warfare.

FOOD PRODUCTIVITY AND ITS INCREMENT SINCE THE WAR

Food productivity in China varies greatly with different climate and rainfall conditions of different localities. Highest is the productivity of those provinces along the Yangtze River giving slight surplus beside their own consumption, while provinces north of the Yellow River are usually self-sufficient. Although southeastern coastal provinces find a little deficiency in food supplies, China, as a whole, is averaged as in a state of self-sufficiency. In recent years, movement of increasing the food productivity has been extensively promoted in every province, and has led to very satisfactory and substantial results. This fact gives us added confidence in believing that China shall not face the danger of shortage of foodstuffs. On the basis of statistical data given by the National Agricultural Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the Commission for the Increasing of Food Productivity, Table 1 is made indicating the food productivity and its increment in China since the war.

COLLECTION OF LAND TAX IN KIND AND FOOD PURCHASING AT FIXED PRICES

In order to adjust military provisions and public food supplies to different places during wartime and to level down the people's burden measures governing the collection of land tax in kind and purchasing at fixed prices have been specially formulated as follows:

A. Collection of Land Tax in Kind

1. During wartime all land taxes shall be collected in kind, but places under special circumstances may petition and, after approval make payments in national currency in equivalent amount to the market value of the foodstuffs which otherwise would be collected.

2. The collection of land tax in kind in each province shall take the total of all its principal tax and surtax imposed in 1941 as a standard, converting each dollar of original taxation into four shihs of rice or two shihs of wheat instead; while the Central Government may give consideration of reasonable alteration to places where original taxation may be considered as either too light or too heavy.

3. Farming fields in each province where land survey has been completed or registration and land value declaration with due taxation already effected, or such land on which taxation rates have been revised following its declaration, tax shall be collected in kind in accordance with the amount of taxation fixed to be paid, the conversion rate of which shall be recommended by each respective province or municipal government basing on the same ratio as mentioned in the

TABLE 1. CHINA'S FOOD PRODUCTIVITY AND ITS INCREMENT SINCE THE WAR
Units: 1,000 Shihs

Name of Province	Averaged Annual Productivity Based on Records of Last 10 Years			Total Production in 1941			Actual Increment of Production in 1941	Expected Increment of Production in 1941		
	Grain	Wheat	Minor Crops	Grain	Wheat	Minor Crops		Grain	Wheat	Minor Crops
	Total	Grain	Wheat	Total	Grain	Wheat		Total	Grain	Wheat
Szechuen	142,828	38,527	105,980	347,325	96,410	36,872	21,781	1,755	2,630	2,930
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	—	45	105	300	300
Yunnan	34,858	7,130	26,280	68,268	34,334	8,396	383	128	530	300
Kweichow	26,899	1,701	18,813	47,417	17,742	6,235	6,761	514	1,430	1,048
Hunan	105,784	5,548	37,581	148,913	93,023	6,866	4,334	2,537	540	356
Kwangsi	37,150	5,747	29,291	27,188	149,755	5,906	14,435	1,194	1,615	956
Kwangtung	155,544	3,470	47,477	206,191	66,367	3,801	22,132	587	1,565	900
Fukien	48,962	5,291	36,290	90,514	55,862	5,321	16,415	245	800	300
Chekiang	70,011	9,832	31,938	111,781	50,776	6,476	5,147	570	1,081	430
Anhui	—	—	—	—	—	—	758	42	110	60
Kiangsi	71,171	6,640	25,094	102,905	86,915	5,676	5,833	1,255	1,065	900
Hupen	80,909	20,937	53,701	135,583	23,201	18,322	130	177	330	150
Shansi	—	—	—	—	—	—	75	5	200	60
Honan	7,517	17,445	119,815	144,777	7,055	31,399	1,362	50	715	350
Shensi	3,321	18,528	23,535	45,384	3,270	16,876	1,484	216	1,630	500
Kansu	162	8,350	19,457	27,975	189	8,411	220	115	610	300
Ninghsia	151	414	2,053	2,618	154	522	391	5	200	60
Chinghai	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

NOTE: (1) The category of "Minor Crops" include barley, kaoliang, corn, millets, beans, potatoes, etc.
(2) The records of last 10 years are from the year 1932 to 1941.

Government also supplies a small portion of the food for the people. The major portion is furnished by the merchants whose activities have been placed under close government supervision. Government supplies are only limited to the people in the principal cities. It would be both infeasible and unnecessary for the Government to undertake the responsibility for the whole nation in view of the numerous organizations, multiple personnel and vast administrative expenses required. Therefore, the government food policy with regard to the needs of the people aims at balancing the supply and demand of the market and the stabilizing of prices, and this twofold purpose can be achieved if the Government undertakes to supply part of the needs. Part of the food collected in lieu of land tax is therefore assigned to the various people's food supply depots to be sold at a cheap price to the people. These depots would solve any possible shortage that may occur and would help in keeping the food prices more or less stabilized. Supplies for the people are also drawn from the government granaries.

Enforcement of Food Control.—For a complete solution of the wartime food problem, the control of only a part of the nation's food supplies for the army, public functionaries and the people in general is not sufficient. The Government must at the same time exercise control over the merchants, the market and the prices so that the circulation of, and transaction in, food may be well regulated. For the control of merchants, the Government promulgated a set of regulations whereby all merchants dealing in food-stuffs are required to register with the Government. Licences are issued only

when their qualifications are found satisfactory. Those dealers who fail to abide by these regulations will be given the same punishment as those guilty of hoarding and profiteering. Registered merchants must also join the guild and submit themselves to its directions. They must from time to time report their business conditions to both the guild and the Government. All transactions must be made within specified time limits. They are allowed to keep only a limited amount in stock. They are not to indulge in speculation or hoarding that may cause any increase in food prices. With regard to price control, the Ministry of Food is now working out a schedule in which a price ceiling is fixed for each district.

Eliminating Waste and Economizing Consumption.—The Government has made every effort to eliminate waste while food is being stored or transported. Thrift in food consumption is promoted by urging the people to eat coarse rice and flour on the one hand and prohibiting the use of grain for making wine and sugar.

The aforementioned are some of the more important measures adopted by the Government for the readjustment of the food situation. In places bordering the enemy-occupied territories, effective steps have been taken to prevent food from being smuggled to the enemy and to purchase food from the people behind enemy lines. In Burma a considerable amount of rice was purchased to supply the people on the Yunnan-Burma border and part of the Chinese Expeditionary Force to Burma.

During the past five years of our resistance, we have experienced and overcome many difficulties. We have yet to make the hardest and most

painstaking struggle in order to hasten the day of our final victory.

Though the food situation is for the time being more or less stabilized following the adoption of the dual policy of supply and control, we cannot be entirely free from unseen troubles in the future. We must constantly be prepared against possible changes in the war situation and against the eventualities of flood, drought, insect pests and other calamities. At the same time, we have to improve our control measures and to increase the amount of food supplies to be placed at the Government's disposal. Every effort should be made to bring the political and economic powers of the Government into their fullest play. In the future, our efforts would be directed to the following projects:

First, emphasis should be laid on the increase of production. Not only the volume of land under the plough but also the rate of production per mow (one-sixth of an acre) should be increased. The estimated goal for increased production for 1942 is set at 50,000,000 shihs. Towards this goal all the agricultural organizations of the Government are now striving. River conservancy and irrigation are being developed to prevent flood and drought. Damages caused by insect pests, too, are being minimized by the application of effective control measures. Rural credits are extended to the farmers to enable them to buy their required implements and fertilizers. The increase of food production is basic to the solution of all wartime food problems.

Second, the amount of food to be placed under government control must be increased and the scope of government supply widened. The 1942 goal

for government collection and purchases is placed at 100,000,000 shihs which will be used for supplying the army and the public functionaries as well as for balancing the distribution of food among the people. In the meantime, we are trying to avoid any big increase in cash payments for food. Along with the increase of the amount of food to be collected in lieu of land tax, the amount of food debentures is likewise being increased. Every effort is made to avoid any increase in the amount of bank notes in circulation which may cause a rise in commodity prices. The Government will also see to it that the major portion of the food be purchased from rich landlords so as to reduce the burden of the common farmers.

Third, the control of food merchants and prices should be strengthened. The Government must exercise adequate control over the foodstuffs in the possession of the people so that hiding, hoarding and profiteering may not recur. Such control is necessary in as far as it will not impair the natural trend of the circulation of food within its natural bounds. The fixing of food price ceiling should be based on its production cost and the expenses needed for growing the next crop over and above the cost of transportation and a reasonable profit for the merchants. The merchants may raise the price anywhere under but not beyond this ceiling. In the latter case, the Government should use all its powers, political or economic, to bring about a return of the food market to its normal conditions.

The activities mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs form the centre of emphasis in the work concerning food administration. Attention will also

4. Remarks:

- a. The amount of China's total productivity of staple crops is obtained from the summation of the productivity of 15 provinces, namely, Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia and Chinghai.
- b. Grain, wheat and corn are considered as staple crops while others are classified as minor crops.

SUPPLY OF MILITARY FOOD

The main portion of foodstuffs collected in lieu of land tax and purchased at fixed price by the Government has been used for military supplies both at the front and in the rear. As shown in the following paragraphs, the methods adopted for appropriating such military foodstuffs were devised after conferences and discussions between the Ministry of Food and other related organizations. For further reference, Table 2 shows the amount of military food provided by each province as assigned by the Government in the last two years.

In each province, it is the general principle that the provincial bureau of food administration should hand over the foodstuffs directly to the local bureau of military food supply. The former should instantly inform the latter whenever the foodstuffs prepared reach an appropriate amount suitable for appropriation at that assigned locality. Upon receiving such notification, the local bureau of mili-

tary food supply should at once send men to check up and take over the provision. In each war zone, all details regarding amount of military food required, date and place of each appropriation should be decided by conferences summoned by the commander-in-chief of the respective war zone, and in which the representatives from the local bureau of military food supply, the local bureau of food administration and local military supply stations should all participate. The head-quarter of that respective war zone is fully responsible for supervising and enforcing strictly the resolutions passed in the conferences.

Troops in the rear receive their necessary food supply on scheduled date from the local bureau of military food supply, while those at the front receive their foodstuffs from respective local military food supply stations whose supplies are in turn furnished by the bureau of military food supply. But in time of emergency on account of war conditions when there is scarcely enough time for the military supply stations to apply for supplies from the bureau of military food supply, the former is allowed to ask for appropriation of foodstuffs directly from the provincial bureau of food administration. Nevertheless, the regular procedures with the bureau of military food supply should be made up afterwards.

Troops fighting at the front or passing through a certain locality may also, in time of emergency, ask for appropriation of foodstuffs directly from the bureau of food administration instead of going through routine time-taking procedures with the military supply stations. In such cases, proper formality according to regulated

procedure should also be made up afterwards.

In order to define clearly the category of authority and responsibility of each organization, so as to obtain satisfactory results from close colla-

boration between related organizations, there are other detailed regulations pertaining to the aforementioned items which will be, however, too detailed to be presented here.

TABLE 2. QUANTITY OF MILITARY FOODSTUFFS SUPPLIED BY GOVERNMENT IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES, 1941 AND 1942

Name of Province						Foodstuffs	Quantity Supplied in 1941 Units : Shikhan	Quantity Supplied in 1942 Units : Shikhan
Szechuen	...	...	...	...	...	Grain	6,000,000	7,520,000
Sikang	...	...	...	...	...	"	266,667	600,192
Yunnan	...	...	...	...	...	"	2,000,000	2,831,819
Kweichow	...	...	...	...	...	"	1,595,845	2,000,000
Kwangtung	...	...	...	...	...	"	266,667	699,392
Kwangsi	...	...	...	...	...	"	2,026,667	2,050,566
Fukien	...	...	...	...	...	"	533,333	838,864
Hunan	...	...	...	...	...	"	5,520,000	6,807,728
Kiangsi	...	...	...	...	...	"	6,000,000	4,121,525
Chekiang	...	...	...	...	...	"	426,667	1,225,557
Kiangsu	...	...	...	...	...	"	266,667	160,000
Anhwel	...	...	...	...	...	"	1,648,267	1,717,514
Anhwel	...	...	...	...	...	Wheat	171,429	1,228,571
Hupeh	...	...	...	...	...	Grain	1,333,333	1,404,416
Hupeh	...	...	...	...	...	Wheat	711,429	571,429
Honan	...	...	...	...	...	Wheat	4,000,000	2,887,720
Shensi	...	...	...	...	...	"	2,908,571	4,161,463
Shansi	...	...	...	...	...	"	880,000	704,286
Kansu	...	...	...	...	...	"	1,000,000	1,155,580
Suiyuan	...	...	...	...	...	"	571,429	372,857
Ninghsia	...	...	...	...	...	"	142,857	173,403
Chinghai	...	...	...	...	...	"	—	116,143
TOTAL						Grain Wheat	27,884,113 10,385,715	31,975,573 11,371,452

preceding paragraph, subject to the final decision of the higher authorities.

4. Grain or wheat, whichever may be the staple product of a province, shall be collected as land tax in kind, while places producing neither grain nor wheat may submit minor cereals at a conversion rate to be separately fixed.

5. Collection in kind shall use shihtan as the unit of measurement, while fractions shall only reach down to shihho, one hundredth of a shihtan, below which, any amount more than 50% of a shihho shall be added in as one shihho, and any amount less than 40% of a shihho shall be discounted.

6. Land tax shall be collected from the owner of the land, but any separate contract or tradition in connection with a piece of land shall be observed.

7. In accordance with the amount of foodstuffs to be collected in the respective districts, the responsible collecting office shall establish granaries to handle storage, preservation, and devolution of the foodstuffs so collected.

8. Land tax shall be collected once a year. The date when such collection shall start is to be set by the provincial land tax administration, pending the approval of higher authorities, in accordance with the time of harvest of such grains scheduled to be collected.

9. Expenses incurred in collecting land tax shall be included in the budget as an item of formal expenditure and no extra charge in this connection shall be levied from the public.

10. Each province or municipality, after having collected land tax in kind, according to the rate regulated by the Central Government, shall not

impose or collect any other tax with land as a basis, with the only exception of an extra tax to be collected for the purpose of reserving grain for emergency use which shall be imposed as usual.

11. Each provincial, hsien or municipal government shall be responsible for supervising the collection of land tax in kind, which duty shall be listed as one of the most important functions of its administration.

B. Purchasing at Fixed Prices :

1. All purchasing of foodstuffs at fixed prices are carried out concurrently and in fixed proportion with collection of land tax in kind. However, a progressive proportion varying with the size of land owned by a single owner and to be decided by the provincial government, may be adopted for such fixed price purchase in districts or localities where land declaration, land surveying and local census statistics have been completed.

2. The smallest unit of measurement used in the purchases shall be shihtou, below which, any amount less than 40% of a shihtau shall be discounted and any amount more than 50% of a shihtou shall be entered in as one shihtou.

3. The provincial government may consider and increase the percentage of purchases in districts which may have surplus foodstuffs, but this must be approved by higher authorities one month prior to its collection.

4. Any province, with an established precedent, where purchases have always been made from people other than land-owners, may, if necessary, continue such purchasing on a basis to be fixed by such necessary circumstances.

5. With reference to the costs and conditions of production of each province, the Ministry of Food shall, in consultation with each provincial government, decide upon a price for this purchase in the whole province; the later, if necessary, may decide upon separate prices for separate districts under its jurisdiction, not, however, to exceed the price as agreed upon between the Ministry of Food and the provincial government concerned.

6. Payments on such purchases shall, by principle, be made through the hand of an organ established by a national or provincial bank on the locality where the purchasing office is located, or be made through the hand of another bank or commercial institution acting as an agency of the entrusted national or provincial bank when it finds unfeasible to establish a branch organ therein.

C. Statistics :

1. Total quantities of foodstuffs collected in lieu of land tax and purchased at fixed prices from all provinces in China in 1941 as expressed in percentages with basis on China's total productivity of staple crops during the same year :

- China's total productivity of staple crops in 1941 is estimated at 855,923,542 shihtan.
- Total quantity of foodstuffs collected in lieu of land tax in 1941 amounted to 21,217,915 shihtan.
- Total quantity of foodstuffs purchased at fixed prices in 1941 amounted to 31,179,355 shihtan.
- Percentages with basis on China's total produc-

tivity of staple crops in 1941 :

Collection of land
tax in kind ... 2.4%
Purchasing at
fixed prices ... 3.64%

2. Total quantities of foodstuffs to be collected in lieu of land tax and to be purchased at fixed prices from all provinces in China in 1942 as expressed in percentages with basis on China's total productivity of staple crops during the same year :

- China's total productivity of staple crops in 1942 is estimated at 907,281,118 shihtan.
- Total quantity of foodstuffs to be collected in lieu of land tax in 1942 amounts to 31,824,000 shihtan.
- Total quantity of foodstuffs to be purchased at fixed prices in 1942 amounts to 35,715,140 shihtan.
- Percentages with basis on China's total productivity of staple crops in 1942 :

Collection of land
tax in kind ... 3.5%
Purchasing at
fixed prices ... 2.93%

3. Combined total quantity of foodstuffs collected in lieu of land tax and purchased at fixed prices from all provinces in China in 1941 and 1942 as expressed in percentages with basis on China's total productivity of staple crops during the respective years :

- For 1941 ... 6.11%
- For 1942 ... 7.44%

SUPPLY OF FOODSTUFFS TO PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES

Three different methods are employed for supplying foodstuffs to public functionaries who are working in the three different grades of government, namely the Central, provincial and hsien governments. The methods are described briefly as below:

A. Methods for supplying foodstuffs to functionaries working in the Central Government.—Functionaries of the Central Government, working in districts other than Chungking, will receive their food supply in kind or in the form of subsidy, or both, according to conditions of respective localities. Those who are working in Chungking city and its vicinity will have their foodstuffs supplied from the bureau of food supply for civilians in Chungking. According to the Act for Improving Wartime Livelihood of Public Functionaries, every government institute should make out a list containing the names of its staffs and their family members and submit it to the Executive Yuan for approval. After it has been approved, the bureau of food supply for civilians in Chungking will appropriate the total required amount of foodstuffs directly to the institute. The institute, in turn, distributes the food among its members as listed. For facilitating the appropriation of foodstuffs to government institutes operating in the outskirts of Chungking city, the bureau of food supply for civilians in Chungking has already established eight supply stations in various locations around Chungking. The quantity of foodstuffs appropriated are shown in Table 3.

B. Methods for supplying foodstuffs to functionaries working in provincial governments.—The provincial bureau of food administration is held responsible for supplying foodstuffs to functionaries of provincial governments with methods of supplying similar to that for functionaries of the Central Government. Food supplies for such purpose are to be devolved from foodstuffs collected in lieu of land tax, provided that the gross amount to be appropriated being not more than 30% of the total collection of land tax in kind. Table 5 shows the amount of foodstuffs supplied by various provinces to functionaries of provincial governments in 1942.

C. Methods for supplying foodstuffs to functionaries working in hsien governments.—Hsien governments are held responsible for supplying foodstuffs to functionaries working in hsien governments with method of supplying similar to that for functionaries of the Central Government. Sources for such supply are realized by imposing a certain amount of surtax collected once every year concurrently with the land tax in kind. Tables 4 and 5 show the quantity appropriated.

SUPPLY OF FOODSTUFFS TO CIVILIANS AND PRINCIPAL CONSUMPTION MARKETS

Generally speaking, only food consuming cities in China are chiefly taken as objectives to which foodstuffs must be supplied. Food producing regions and its neighbouring farming villages, where a state of self-sufficiency is always maintained, do not confront the danger of food short-

TABLE 3. QUANTITY OF RICE AND FLOUR SUPPLIED BY GOVERNMENT TO PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES IN CHUNGKING CITY

Year						Month	Quantity of Rice Supplied Unit: Shihtan	Quantity of Flour Supplied Unit: Bag
1941	...	...	...	...	...	July	88,379	—
"	...	...	...	...	...	Aug.	74,510	—
"	...	...	...	...	...	Sept.	65,670	42,178
"	...	...	...	...	...	Oct.	82,245	52,492
"	...	...	...	...	...	Nov.	102,919	53,427
"	...	...	...	...	...	Dec.	105,406	47,256
1942	...	...	...	...	...	Jan.	104,418	49,667
"	...	...	...	...	...	Feb.	94,228	48,794
"	...	...	...	...	...	Mar.	121,176	37,397
"	...	...	...	...	...	April	129,667	37,397
"	...	...	...	...	...	May	128,513	39,735
"	...	...	...	...	...	June	120,257	40,401
"	...	...	...	...	...	July	111,126	51,990
"	...	...	...	...	...	Aug.	109,755	86,534

TABLE 4. AMOUNT OF FOODSTUFFS APPROPRIATED FOR PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES, OCT. 1, 1941 TO SEPT. 30, 1942

Name of Province						Quantity Supplied for Public Functionaries in Provincial Governments Unit: Shihtan	Quantity Supplied For Public Functionaries in Hsien Governments Unit: Shihlan
Szechuen...	...	...	...	...	...	Grain 700,000	1,200,000
Sikang ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 120,000	60,000
Yunnan ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 171,000	Supplied from locally managed source
Kweichow ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 351,099	Included in the left item
Hunan ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 698,605	Supplied from locally managed source
Kiangsi ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 530,834	" " "
Chekiang...	...	...	...	...	...	" 397,673	" 200,000 "
Kiangsu ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 60,000	Supplied from locally managed source
Fukien ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 363,920	" " "
Kwangtung ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 361,280	" " "
Kwangsi ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 274,000	" " "
Anhui ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 287,295	" " "
Honan ...	...	...	...	...	...	Wheat 428,571	" " "
Kansu ...	...	...	...	...	...	" 161,121	" " "

TABLE 5. AMOUNT OF FOODSTUFFS APPROPRIATED FOR PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES, 1942

Name of Province	Quantity Supplied for Public Functionaries in Provincial Governments Unit: Shihtan	Quantity Supplied for Public Functionaries in Hsien Governments Unit: Shihtan
Szechuen	Grain 900,000	2,100,000
Yunnan	" 450,000	—
Kweichow	" 350,000	100,000
Hunan	" 800,000	1,600,000
Kwangsi	" 370,000	555,000
Kwangtung	" 450,000	—
Fukien	" 480,000	800,000
Chekiang	" 300,000	600,000
Kiangsi	" 600,000	3,200,000
Hupei	" 300,000	—
Honan	Wheat —	—
Shensi	" 572,000	—
Kansu	" 660,666	200,000
Ninghsia	" —	—
Chinghai	" 10,900	—
Solyuan	" —	—
Shansi	" —	600,000
Anhui	Grain 450,000	120,000
Sikang	" 120,000	—
Kiangsu	" 140,000	—

age even if there is no extra supply from the Government. With due consideration of various local factors in each province, such as, amount of food productivity, density of population, facilities of communication and conditions of demand and supply of the market at the time, the provincial bureau of food administration stores reasonable amount of foodstuffs at suitable places so as to provide for adjustments between scarcity and abundance. Table 6 shows the quantities of such allotments.

Following is a brief description of the methods of supplying foodstuffs to the Chungking area, and to other

important industrial centres in the rear.

A. For the District of Chungking

In the district of Chungking, foodstuffs are supplied to three classes of people, namely, the utterly poor, the ordinary working class, and the citizens in general. The monthly supply of rice to the utterly poor totals 6,000 shihtans, which are distributed through the police or militia at a price of \$52 per shihtan.

The ordinary working class is charged \$240 for each shihtan of rice. The bureau of food supply for civilians in Chungking signs contract with

TABLE 6. QUANTITIES OF FOODSTUFF SUPPLIED BY GOVERNMENT FOR CIVILIANS IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES, SEPT. 1, 1941 TO AUG. 31, 1942

Name of Provinces	Foodstuffs	Quantities Supplied for Civilians (in Units of Shihtan)	Quantities Supplied from Neighbouring Provinces	Remarks
Szechuen	Grain	4,100,000	—	Devolved from purchasing at fixed price.
Sikang	"	12,732	—	Up to end of May
Kiangsi	"	203,942	—	Up to July 20th
Yunnan	"	78,519	—	" "
Kweichow	"	201,865	—	Up to June 20th
Kwangsi	"	654,885	—	Up to June 30th
Chekiang	"	311,942	—	Up to April 30th
Hunan	"	12,391	—	Up to July 20th
Anhui	"	553,643	—	Up to June 1st
Hupei	"	108,895	10,000 from Szechuen	Up to end of Feb.
Fukien	"	226,130	69,334 from Kiangsi	Up to July 20th
Kwangtung	"	777,543	400,000 from Kiangsi	" "
Ninghsia	Wheat	41,484	—	Up to end of Nov.
Solyuan	"	87,211	5,000 from Kansu	Up to May 20th
Kansu	—	—	—	—
Shensi	—	—	—	—
Honan	—	—	—	—
Shansi	—	—	—	—

NOTE: All the foodstuffs supplied by the Government for civilians in the listed provinces were devolved from those collected through land tax in kind with the only exception of Szechuen province.

them and supplies accordingly after they have proved their authentic qualification of residence in Chungking.

For the citizens in general, the price of the food supplied is comparatively lower than that of the market; such price is to be set from time to time by the authorities. The supply is undertaken by 101 authorized rice-shops in the city which shops make sales to the citizens only upon pre-

sentation of identification of their citizenship. The monthly requirement of foodstuffs to cover the last two categories of Chungking civilians approximates 70,000 shihtans.

B. For Chengtu and Such Industrial Districts as Chienlo, Tzukung and Chuanpei.—Three bureaus of food supply have been set up in the aforementioned districts. Foodstuffs are supplied through the processes of

chartering contracts and collective purchasing so as to avoid competition in purchasing which may effect the market unfavourably. Furthermore, each of the bureaus of food supply makes timely supplies and adjustments to the markets through allotments of food-stuffs obtained by means of purchasing at fixed prices from the neighbouring districts. Since July 1941, the successive allotments appropriated by the bureaus of food supply have amounted to a total of 1,500,000 shih-tan. Consequently, prices of foodstuffs have been stabilized.

FOOD TRANSPORTATION

A. Process of Transportation.—In connection with collection of land tax in kind and purchasing at fixed price, the peasants have to send their food-stuffs to the collection-granaries of their respective hsien. The food administration and its offices are held responsible to transport foodstuffs there on to concentration-granaries and further on to distribution-granaries. Transportation of military food-stuffs to assigned localities for final appropriation is also to be taken care of by the food administration and its offices. For economy in transportation, foodstuffs are appropriated as near to the concentrating centres as possible. In case appropriations have to be made at places far away from the concentrating centres whereby long-distance transportation of food-stuffs is necessitated, the bureau of food supply seeks for best arrangements to minimize the volume of food supplies to be transported.

B. Amount of Foodstuffs Transported.—The quantity of foodstuffs transported in the various provinces in 1941, as calculated on the basis of

the quantity obtained by collection of land tax in kind and purchasing at fixed price, amounted to approximately 2,000,000 tons. Each of the three provinces, namely, Szechuen, Shensi and Hunan, transported about 300,000 tons; Honan and Kiangsi transported 250,000 tons and 180,000 tons respectively; while Kwangsi and Anhwei transported about 100,000 tons each. Most of the other provinces transported less than 50,000 tons each. (See Table 7).

C. Means of Transportation.—As to the means employed for transporting these 2,000,000 tons of foodstuffs, about 770,000 tons, equivalent to 38% of the total, were transported by human labour; 720,000 tons, equivalent to 36% of the total, were shipped by water routes; and 520,000 tons, equivalent to 26% of the total, were transported by animal and mechanical power. (See Table 8).

GRANARIES

Granaries under the control of the Ministry of Food are of three kinds, namely, collection-granaries, concentration-granaries and distribution-granaries. Collection-granaries are used for temporary storage of food-stuffs immediately after collection from peasants. Foodstuffs in such granaries will then be transported to concentration-granaries for concentrated storage. From collection-granaries, and if necessary from concentration-granaries, foodstuffs are transferred to distribution-granaries which are built at important centers of communication or regions of great food consumption where military needs may be very conveniently supplied, or adjustment of market supplies may be efficiently manipulated. Their respective capacities are shown in Table 9.

TABLE 7. FOOD TRANSPORTATION IN VARIOUS PROVINCES, 1941

Variety of Means of Transportation and Tonnage Transported

Name of Province	Steamer	Pontoon	Raft	Carried by Labour	Cart Pulled by Man	Cart Pulled by Animal	Carried by Animal	Railroad	Motor Truck	Total
Szechuen	45,000	180,000	—	45,000	45,000	—	—	52,650	2,250	317,250
Hunan	—	175,500	—	70,200	—	—	—	25,600	—	298,350
Kiangsi	—	102,400	—	40,960	10,240	—	—	34,250	—	179,200
Kwangsi	—	47,950	—	19,180	—	—	—	—	345	101,380
Kweichow	—	3,450	—	20,700	10,350	—	3,450	—	—	38,205
Yunnan	—	—	—	18,500	—	—	18,500	7,400	1,480	45,880
Sikang	—	—	—	5,000	—	—	5,000	—	400	10,400
Kiangsu	—	16,000	—	5,160	2,240	—	—	—	—	24,000
Chekiang	—	30,600	—	30,600	20,400	—	—	—	—	81,600
Kwangtung	—	12,240	—	20,400	—	—	—	—	—	32,640
Fukien	—	14,350	—	14,350	—	—	—	—	—	28,700
Anhwei	—	20,920	—	56,100	—	—	37,400	—	—	123,420
Hupoh	—	—	—	62,000	—	—	—	—	—	62,000
Shensi	—	49,000	—	105,000	—	52,500	17,500	70,000	—	204,000
Honan	—	16,850	—	101,100	—	67,400	—	67,400	1,655	254,435
Shansi	—	—	—	18,000	—	—	12,000	—	—	30,000
Kansu	—	—	2,100	21,000	—	21,000	10,500	—	—	54,600
Ninghsia	—	—	—	9,600	—	—	6,400	—	—	16,000
Chinghai	—	—	—	2,400	—	—	1,600	—	—	4,000
Suiyuan	—	—	—	17,100	—	—	11,400	—	—	28,500
TOTAL TONNAGE	45,000	678,260	2,100	682,050	88,230	140,900	123,750	257,300	6,160	2,024,650

TABLE 8. MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION EMPLOYED AND ITS CARRYING CAPACITY FOR FOOD TRANSPORTATION, 1941

Variety of Means of Transportation	Total Tonnage Transported	Carrying Capacity per Unit Means of Transportation	Total No. of Units of Means of Transportation Employed
Steamer	45,000	200	225
Pontoon	678,260	20	33,913
Raft	2,100	1	2,100
Carried by Labour	682,950	0.01	17,073,750
Cart Pulled by Man	88,230	2	44,115
Cart Pulled by Animal	140,000	1	140,000
Carried by Animal	123,750	0.08	1,546,875
Railroad	257,300	30	8,577
Motor Truck	6,160	3	2,053
TOTAL	2,024,650		

TABLE 9. STORAGE CAPACITY OF VARIOUS TYPES OF GRANARIES IN CHINA, 1942

Name of Province	Storage Capacity (Units: Shikhan)			Total
	Distribution-Granaries	Concentration-Granaries	Collection-Granaries	
Szechuen	2,105,980	6,247,599	8,000,000	16,353,579
Kiangsi	880,000	3,497,200	3,000,000	7,383,200
Hunan	1,111,000	5,458,168	5,000,000	11,569,168
Shensi	210,423	1,838,898	2,300,000	4,349,321
Kansu	350,000	747,750	1,000,000	2,097,750
Kweichow	200,000	520,241	1,450,000	2,170,241
Kwangsi	250,000	1,476,171	1,574,000	3,300,171
Honan	606,000	948,797	1,400,000	2,954,797
Yunnan	466,000	525,000	1,750,000	2,741,000
Anhui	560,000	302,137	1,500,000	2,452,137
Chekiang	200,000	1,144,833	1,000,000	2,344,833
Kwantung	250,483	1,101,285	1,250,000	2,601,768
Sikang	55,000	258,592	350,000	663,592
Fukien	248,000	645,750	1,300,000	2,193,750
Sichuan	32,000	188,000	300,000	520,000
Shansi	275,000	268,964	400,000	943,964
Ninghsia	55,000	201,213	250,000	506,213
Hupeh	290,000	828,310	1,150,000	2,268,310
Chinghai	—	—	150,000	150,000
Shantung	—	—	200,000	200,000
Kiangsu	—	—	150,000	150,000
TOTAL	8,150,886	26,207,908	33,474,000	67,922,794

FOOD PRICE AND ITS CONTROL

China is an agricultural country with more than 80% of her population being farmers. Food is produced almost everywhere throughout the land. Since farmers are the food producers and with their simple and adjustable living conditions, they maintain a state of self-sufficiency, thus rendering it unnecessary for the Government to supply them with extra food. Those who are dependent on the market for their food supplies are the army, public functionaries, teachers, merchants, workers and people who live within the commercial, industrial and mining districts. Therefore the policy of the Food Ministry is briefly outlined as: to supply sufficient amount of foodstuffs for troops, civil servants and teachers in order to maintain their livelihood; to supply ample amount of food to workers and merchants living in principal cities, and people living within the industrial and mining districts in order to stabilize and maintain order therein; to store adequate amount of foodstuffs in small cities for adjusting market demands in time of emergency in order to avoid competitive purchasing and to maintain psychological stability among the people. Regarding food demands of the vast farming villages, they have already attained a state of self-adjustment, and hence, no further control or supply of foodstuff by the Government is necessary in such regions. Through the processes of land tax in kind and purchasing at fixed prices, the Government, acting under the Wartime Emergency Act, can get hold of a large quantity of foodstuffs to meet the urgent demands of the

army, civil servants and part of the populace. In fact, China has never had a serious food problem. The only food problem that she has confronted since the outbreak of war is price stabilization; not the quantity of supply. The Ministry of Food, since its establishment, has decided to adopt economic measures to stabilize the market prices by putting under government control large amount of foodstuffs collected in lieu of land tax and purchased at fixed prices. The main portion of the foodstuffs so collected and purchased is used for the army and civil servants so that stimulation of market prices by their direct purchasing could thereby be avoided. The rest of the foodstuffs are to be stored in important markets of food consumption and transportation for purposes of timely supply and proper adjustment. Political actions have also been taken to supplement the economic measures, such as, taking census of owners possessing surplus amount of food, registration of food merchants, control of business transactions through organization of food merchant guild, strict prohibition of hoarding and profiteering of foodstuffs, and prohibition of making sugar and liquor by using staple foodstuffs as raw material. Since the enforcement of the aforementioned measures, substantial results have already been achieved. Uneasy feelings on the part of the people have been quieted down, whereas the tendency of hoarding and profiteering have also been checked. Supply and demand of food market have been kept in balance and consequently food prices come to remain quite stabilized.

TABLE 11. VARIATION OF FOOD PRICES IN

Price Units: Dollars

Name of Province	Name of Cities	Name of Food	1941				
			July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
Szechuen	Chungking	Medium-quality Rice	232.00	232.00	232.00	232.00	232.00
	Chengtu	"	336.00	263.00	226.00	268.00	310.00
	Tzukung	"	341.00	294.00	296.00	305.00	337.00
Kweichow	Kweiyang	"	189.00	124.00	125.00	128.00	195.00
	Tungtzu	"	227.00	163.00	175.00	164.00	168.00
	Paulsien	"	95.00	96.00	97.00	99.00	97.00
Yunnan	Kunming	"	136.00	137.00	119.00	122.00	184.00
	Chaofung	"	100.00	101.00	87.00	90.00	119.00
Kwangsi	Kweilin	"	95.00	104.00	153.00	153.00	150.00
	Yulin	"	94.00	103.00	93.00	106.00	96.00
	Wuchow	"	67.00	81.00	88.00	93.00	85.00
Kwangtung	Chukiang	"	118.00	126.00	114.00	110.00	103.00
	Hsingting	"	173.00	171.00	165.00	152.00	147.00
	Maomih	"	125.00	134.00	140.00	171.00	167.00
Kiangsi	Chian	"	93.00	83.00	87.00	92.00	91.00
Fukien	Wuping	"	120.00	150.00	150.00	150.00	150.00
Anhui	Lihuang	"	34.00	37.00	55.00	55.00	58.00
Honan	Loyang	Medium-quality Wheat	85.00	95.30	125.00	145.00	149.00
	Chengchow	"	83.00	95.80	121.00	126.00	133.00
Kansu	Lanchow	"	75.00	88.00	87.00	101.50	116.50
	Pingliang	"	97.00	84.00	88.00	83.40	89.00
	Changyeh	"	33.70	54.00	78.85	107.80	113.00
Sikang	Ya-an	Medium-quality Rice	313.00	290.00	267.00	264.00	319.00
	Sichang	"	93.90	89.70	89.10	79.20	98.00
Shansi	Chihshien	Medium-quality Wheat	50.65	70.00	111.30	134.33	134.67
Shensi	Shan	"	84.10	81.80	89.50	97.20	134.00
	Nancheng	"	152.00	163.00	163.30	163.95	164.34
Hunan	Henyang	Medium-quality Rice	173.00	170.00	138.00	135.00	148.00
Hupei	Yunhsien	"	120.00	138.00	138.00	155.00	197.00

LEADING CITIES OF CHINA, JULY 1941 TO SEPT. 1942

(N.C.) Per Shihitan

1941	1942									
Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	
232.00	232.00	232.00	232.00	340.00	340.00	340.00	340.00	340.00	340.00	340.00
273.00	251.00	275.00	307.00	355.00	374.00	427.00	425.19	408.83	408.70	
316.00	331.00	364.00	411.00	413.00	452.00	457.00	463.35	467.81	455.27	
215.00	336.00	361.00	406.00	367.00	350.00	366.00	362.56	360.75	347.97	
209.00	360.00	261.00	336.00	349.00	327.00	324.00	302.00	305.69	272.14	
111.00	133.00	135.00	233.00	224.00	230.00	251.00	271.65	289.33	326.69	
236.00	235.00	333.00	473.00	465.00	465.00	465.00	465.00	465.00	465.00	
161.00	174.00	181.00	212.00	236.00	254.00	270.00	300.51	287.77	285.60	
156.00	216.00	263.00	362.00	365.00	354.00	362.00	372.40	359.66	354.35	
118.00	156.00	156.00	192.00	180.00	362.00	298.00	291.11	354.44	373.72	
95.00	120.00	161.00	185.00	225.00	349.00	311.00	337.16	225.82	293.49	
102.00	123.00	157.00	176.00	214.00	205.00	196.00	186.63	191.63	199.41	
152.00	195.00	237.00	295.00	269.00	275.00	275.00	304.83	326.24	365.82	
177.00	233.00	230.00	234.00	278.00	333.00	342.00	340.97	334.44	316.66	
90.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	66.00	
150.00	150.00	150.00	188.00	193.00	197.00	195.00	176.08	160.65	163.45	
58.00	63.00	100.00	106.00	153.00	148.00	148.00	181.00	210.00	236.48	
148.00	150.33	164.00	221.67	235.00	248.00	264.64	383.37	510.30	870.00	
140.00	135.67	141.00	201.00	222.12	253.47	311.54	465.00	511.50	590.00	
113.50	116.00	131.90	161.50	164.30	167.10	170.00	174.79	189.28	200.00	
120.00	148.00	182.50	194.00	187.00	163.87	157.68	184.48	227.50	328.00	
116.19	119.00	119.94	120.88	121.82	122.76	123.70	143.81	118.21	121.80	
312.00	299.00	314.00	323.00	387.00	378.00	373.00	406.07	372.42	351.00	
106.00	148.00	154.00	156.00	144.00	180.00	216.00	260.00	188.57	176.42	
136.40	150.00	201.00	205.00	275.00	301.00	272.73	241.00	261.80	289.32	
183.04	212.00	221.00	238.59	225.00	212.24	206.67	271.71	390.00	420.00	
209.00	269.00	271.00	387.00	387.45	317.83	239.33	236.66	224.28	234.50	
169.00	238.00	285.00	343.00	211.00	230.00	266.00	288.06	267.42	242.75	
172.00	154.00	200.00	250.00	231.00	212.00	223.00	431.00	311.42	387.20	

TABLE 10. VARIATION OF RETAILING PRICES OF MEDIUM-QUALITY RICE
Price Units: Dollars

	Name of Market	1941					
		June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
Chengtu Plain and Min River Valley	Chengtu	361	336	263	226	268	310
	Hsiuching	307	307	217	206	234	287
	Nuhunchi, Loshan	353	356	272	229	252	288
	Chukentan, Chienwei	353	351	263	234	260	316
	Chaochen, Kintang	348	340	247	238	273	331
	Shihchiaochen, Chienyang	334	375	273	251	287	328
	Tzeyang	345	348	247	220	245	385
	Tzechung	334	349	266	252	255	339
	Nekiang	326	352	277	274	292	338
	Tzukung	352	341	294	296	305	337
Chialing River	Mienyang	334	368	280	246	273	327
	Santai	332	396	309	238	294	345
	Taihochen, Shieh-hung	358	413	322	288	308	329
	Suhidug	343	371	302	272	303	354
	Langchung	277	365	320	258	267	282
	Nanpu	266	360	296	252	260	267
	Nanchung	340	415	385	267	293	295
	Tahsien	284	295	254	207	221	235
	Sanbulchen, Chutsien	317	356	286	237	265	286
	Kuangon	292	312	239	223	252	267
Yantze River Valley	Hochuan	365	369	265	277	294	309
	Yipin	292	302	301	296	255	302
	Lahsien	312	337	312	352	281	298
	Hoklang	250	308	267	286	284	280
	Sungkai, Yungchuan	310	363	285	293	298	273
	Peishu, Kiangching	271	364	289	300	299	324
	Chungkiang	225	232	232	232	232	232
	Fuling	272	299	251	260	262	302
	Chunghsien	245	261	227	249	244	262
	Wanhsien	263	273	282	260	262	265

IN LEADING CITIES OF SZECHUEN PROVINCE, JUNE 1941 TO SEPT. 1942
(N.C.) Per Shih-tan

1941	1942								
Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
273	251	225	307	355	374	427	425	400	411
253	222	239	288	338	339	379	376	321	350
290	286	292	322	380	379	410	449	389	394
286	266	280	322	374	379	438	422	350	360
274	271	284	331	355	393	420	427	382	405
290	277	298	345	370	398	427	438	381	411
357	350	381	380	412	436	448	398	348	369
308	302	323	366	403	414	426	404	396	403
319	305	321	336	395	403	435	429	403	384
316	311	364	411	413	452	457	463	468	455
298	265	289	294	364	337	376	423	385	337
323	298	280	307	337	376	447	447	400	391
320	294	288	318	369	419	429	402	367	385
357	340	339	360	383	424	444	353	336	399
272	320	366	385	340	372	495	356	385	332
275	306	347	377	334	358	393	390	312	323
311	315	317	324	307	319	322	320	318	321
247	270	270	308	335	369	338	294	353	376
282	288	285	336	343	534	462	327	346	343
302	301	299	317	373	392	404	396	415	450
354	310	305	363	383	411	447	339	374	424
345	341	246	366	410	440	499	540	377	370
296	304	301	335	381	383	391	392	398	360
290	294	291	328	373	400	408	365	357	360
215	320	312	369	394	420	406	375	403	391
341	329	334	362	402	410	409	345	340	369
232	232	232	232	340	340	340	340	340	340
330	287	291	342	419	463	445	400	398	423
277	284	292	322	442	462	446	397	426	420
262	280	327	357	389	471	473	408	432	425

I. RAILWAYS

The kilometrage of the Chinese national railways were further shortened. Enemy penetration still persisted along the main lines of transportation during the last two years under review. In 1940, apart from the line between Hengyang and Liuchow, a distance of 532 kilometres, known as the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, which remained intact, only the following lines were operating in unoccupied China :

	Kilometres
Canton-Hankow Railway : from Kukong to Siangtan	481
Lunghai Railway : from Loyang to Paochi	548
Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway : from Chuchi to Tengchiapu	418
TOTAL	1,447

As this meagre kilometerage was totally inadequate to meet the exigencies of war, energetic measures were adopted to build new lines from Kweichow to Kwangsi, from Szechuen to Yunnan, and from Yunnan to Burma. These new lines as well as the extensions of existing railways thus far completed give a total of 602 kilometres, distributed as follows :

New Lines :	Kilometres
Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway : from Liuchow to Pakung...	205
Szechuen-Yunnan Railway : from Kunming to Chueching	162
Yunnan-Burma Railway : from Kunming to Anning...	34
Extensions :	
Hunan - Kwangsi Railway : from Liuchow to Lai-pin ...	63
Lunghai Railway : from Hsien- yang to Tungkuan	138
TOTAL	602

These lines have been opened to passenger and freight traffic, and are doing yeoman's service in meeting the transport requirements of free China.

Owing to the exigencies of war, which necessitated the dismantling of old lines and the construction of new ones, the figure for the total kilometrage of lines operated naturally fluctuated from time to time. But a glance at Table 1 will show the actual position as existed in September, 1942. On the whole, the various lines operating behind the front have put up a highly praiseworthy record in meeting the civilian requirements as well as the urgent needs of large-scale military transportation. The work of maintaining the existing services and that of demolition carried out in the course of evacuation was most hazardous, especially under enemy fire from artillery and aerial bombardments. It is commendable that the staff and workmen never flagged nor failed in the execution of their respective duties.

Tables 2, 3 and 4 show the passenger and traffic services of the Canton-Hankow, Hunan-Kwangsi, Lunghai, and Chekiang-Kiangsi Railways for the years 1940, 1941 and the first half year of 1942.

As may be seen from the above tables, while giving due allowance to the incomplete figures, there is a general increase in practically all classes of traffic. It indicates the growing activity of the new economic organization in the areas traversed by the railways and is a healthy sign of the relative stability in those regions. Of particular interest, we note the very remarkable increase in the number of trains of both passenger and freight traffic. In 1940, the number of passenger trains was 12,021 while, in 1941, it was up to 16,565 and the year

COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORTATION

FRANCIS K. PAN¹ (CHINA)

THE period under review marked, perhaps, the most difficult interlude of wartime communications in China. The year 1940 found the Chinese Government preoccupied in stabilizing its multifarious activities in the south-western provinces where the new seat of the Government had just been established. International routes, since the blockade of the coastal ports, were further restricted by the occupation of Indo-China by the Japanese troops in September, 1940. The Burma Road was reopened in October after a closure of three months. The north-western international route had to be opened by extending the operations of the Northwest Highway Transport Administration to Sinkiang from where the provincial authorities were to make the necessary connection with Alma Ata on the Soviet border. It was no easy task to link up several thousand miles of new highways and to place them on a minimum level of operating efficiency. We had almost one full year during which to bring results under a new set of conditions. However, toward the end of the year 1941, the Pacific war broke out. The Japanese seizure of Hongkong and Burma took place in the course of two months. These events, needless to say, necessitated vital changes in the Chinese strategy for wartime communication. A new alignment of communication facilities and new lines had to be immediately mobilized. The

situation was true on land as in the air. It has been, therefore, with great difficulty for the Government to maintain a wartime routine geared to the ever-changing requirements of war in the face of a stringent economy, rising costs both in material and labour and in the absence of imported materials. We have a cause for gratification indeed considering that so much has been done by the communication authorities with so little at their disposal. The following account is an attempt to present in summary form the various wartime activities of the Ministry of Communications, namely: railways, highways, stage transport, telephone and telegraph, postal service, shipping and civil aviation. It is impossible to delve into all the circumstances under which the various projects were undertaken. And it is neither advisable to expose all the figures and facts which, for wartime publication, may be utilized to the advantage of the enemy. Hence, a great deal of the statistical data has been withheld. It is hoped that when victory is won, we shall be able to publish an unabridged version on the subject. In this account and recollection of the last two years and a half, although very inadequately treated, one cannot help being overwhelmed by the staggering burden of war communications and the expedition with which they were carried out.

I. RAILWAYS

The kilometrage of the Chinese national railways were further shortened. Enemy penetration still persisted along the main lines of transportation during the last two years under review. In 1940, apart from the line between Hengyang and Liuchow, a distance of 532 kilometres, known as the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, which remained intact, only the following lines were operating in unoccupied China:

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¹ Counsellor, Ministry of Communications.

TABLE 1. RAILWAY KILOMETRAGE IN FREE CHINA, SEPTEMBER, 1942

Before the Outbreak of War (July 7, 1937)	...	...	...	11,109 Km.*
During the War	...	...	...	10,445 Km.
Lines Constructed Before July 7, 1937.	Remaining	in Our		
Hands	...	...	...	1,148 Km.
Lines Constructed After July 7, 1937	...	...	...	1,190 Km.†
Lines Under Construction	...	...	...	1,256 Km.
Lines Being Surveyed	...	...	...	3,851 Km.

* This include 540 Km. which were not completed until after July 7, 1937.

† This includes 428 Km. which were dismantled on account of military necessity.

1942 promised an even higher increase. A 35% increase was then recorded. In the case of freight trains, it was 3,148 in 1940 and 7,925 in 1941, marking a 150% increase. The ability to despatch more trains on schedule reflected very favourably upon the growing efficiency of the railroad administrations in their maintenance and upkeep of the existing facilities and of their improved capacity to repair more wagons for the service.

Rolling Stock.—In view of present conditions on the few lines now operating, the number of locomotives and rolling stock in service, though not abundant, may be considered sufficient for current operation. To effect repairs to the locomotives, cars and wagons evacuated from various lines for the purpose of replenishing the stock of old lines and for meeting the requirements of new ones, a Rolling Stock Adjustment Commission was established in 1941. The number of locomotives and rolling stock now in service is as follows: locomotives 685; passenger cars 1,336; and wagons 8,893. The maintenance and repairs of these rolling stocks have been undertaken under most difficult circumstances. The shortage of ori-

ginal spare parts, hitherto imported, necessitated their manufacture in our own plants. Needless to say, there have been make-shift arrangements, which normally would have been considered impracticable. But, all in all, the railways have put up a great performance, a situation which only close observers can appreciate.

Materials and Stores.—The most difficult problem encountered by the railways since the war began has been the replenishment of iron and steel, lubricants and other stores, totalling approximately 8,000 tons per annum. Formerly, these materials were imported from abroad. As supplies were cut off, recourse had to be made to old, antiquated stocks and substitute-materials, the use of which, owing to their inferior quality, often entailed more time and energy, and they taxed heavily upon the upkeep of existing locomotives and rolling stock. In order to overcome these difficulties, steps have been taken to manufacture spare parts locally. Iron and steel productions have also been attempted. It is hoped that if these activities are extended, they will relieve, to some degree, the difficulty of meeting the current needs of the railways.

TABLE 2. PASSENGER AND FREIGHT SERVICES OF THE CANTON-HANKOW, HUNAN-KWANGSI, LUNGSHAI, AND CHEKIANG-KIANGSI RAILWAYS, 1940

	Railways				Hunan-Kwangsi	Lunghai	Chekiang-Kiangsi	Total
	Number of Trains	...	...	...				
Passenger Service	Number of Trains	...	...	...	4,040	4,982	—	12,021
	Number of Passengers	...	...	...	2,200,807	3,131,856	1,593,943	8,297,574
	Revenue (in Dollars)	...	...	...	8,082,007.24	10,038,929.92	3,785,214.80	28,501,689.32
Freight Service	Number of Trains	...	...	...	641	1,116	—	3,148
	Coal and Firewood	...	...	...	14,180	101,512	240	193,804
	Rice	...	...	...	23,130	—	—	138,472
Principal Freight (in Tons)	Salt	...	...	...	80,091	23,143	64,676	203,083
	Wood Oil	...	...	...	3,463	—	—	8,328
	Tungsten Ore	...	...	...	15,186	—	—	20,066
Freight Service	Antimony	...	...	...	1,103	—	—	1,103
	Cotton	...	...	...	4,644	35,829	1,689	44,380
	Soya Beans	...	...	...	7,825	—	—	18,866
Other Cereals	Chinaaware	...	...	...	—	—	—	—
	Wheat	...	...	...	2,876	107,489	3,381	114,811
	Other Cereals	...	...	...	—	69,263	—	69,263
Other Charges	Number of Trains	...	...	...	206,244	50,523	98,636	383,327
	Number of Passengers	...	...	...	366,142	387,759	168,622	1,195,593
	Revenue (in Dollars)	...	...	...	4,733,477.89	3,257,824.94	2,788,554.92	11,241,662.42

As to lubricants, the greatest demands are cylinder and machine oils. These have been supplied partly from the Kansu oil fields and partly by vegetable oils which are becoming increasingly popular.

New Constructions. The new lines projected include the Yunnan-Burma, Hsufu-Kunming, Kweichow-Kwangsi and Weining-Kweiyang railways.

With regard to the Yunnan-Burma Railway, it was the original intention of the Ministry to connect Rangoon with the southwestern and the south-eastern provinces of China, and then gradually link up with the railways already operating in the Northwest. Construction began in 1940, but was soon interrupted on account of the closure of the Burma Road. On the reopening of the Burma Road in 1941, construction was resumed with extraordinary activity. According to schedule, the western section from the Burmese frontier to Hsiangyun, 470 kilometres in length, should be completed at the end of 1942; and the eastern section, 410 kilometres, in the summer of 1943.

The Kunming-Chueching section of 162 kilometres of the Hsufu-Kunming Railway was opened to traffic in the spring of 1941. Work is now concentrated on the road-bed of the Chueching-Weining section, 270 kilometres long. Of this section, the road-bed between Chueching and Hsuanwei has practically been completed.

The Linchow-Kinchengkiang section of 160 kilometres of the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway was also completed for open line operation in the spring of 1941. The section between Kinchengkang and Kweiyang, 460 kilometres, is still under construction. The tracks

are laid with salvaged rails obtained from the various abandoned lines.

The Weining-Kweiyang Railway has been surveyed, but construction work has not yet begun.

When these four lines are completed, a direct rail-communication would be possible from Rangoon in Burma to Linchow and from Linchow to Hunan through the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, where connection between this and the Canton-Hankow Railway through the junction station at Hengyang will further extend through traffic communication to Canton and Southeast China.

Apart from the above, other lines projected include:

	Kilometres
Neikiang-Hsufu Line	133
Chengtu-Chungking Line	530
Tientsui-Chengtu Line	750
Paochi-Tientsui Line	170

When completed, these lines will render through traffic communication possible through the Lunghai Railway between Szechuen and the great Northwest, thus facilitating the development of the huge potential resources of that part of China.

Engineering.—The engineering work involved in the new construction presents many difficult problems. With the exception of the Hsienyang-Tungkuan branch of the Lunghai Railway in the Northwest, all lines are centered in Southwest and Southeast China, where the road-bed has to wind in and out through rugged, mountainous country. Road maintenance, moreover, is handicapped on account of the character of the soil which is either alluvial or composed of aeolian rocks. Yet, notwithstanding all these limiting physical factors, the lines have been fairly maintained.

Owing to the mountainous terrain through which most of the lines traverse, tunnels abound. These were constructed from materials obtained on the spot, and are for that matter satisfactorily maintained.

Before the war, all bridges on the open lines were built of steel girders. After the outbreak of hostilities, with the interruption of foreign supplies, recourse had to be made either to old stocks such as steel rails and short steel girders welded together to form large girders of the required size, as was the case with the Liukiang bridge on the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, or to stone materials to form arch bridges. Other expedients included the putting up of wooden bridges of a temporary character and the erection of wooden spans on permanent abutments and piers. As wooden bridges are difficult to maintain, steps are being taken to change them gradually into permanent steel structures.

The tracks are fairly well maintained. The only problem requiring serious consideration is that of sleepers. Though timber is abundant in Southwest and Southeast China, it consists principally of pine which is unsuitable for use as sleepers in that part of the country where humidity is high. Such sleepers usually last only two years at the most, and then have to be replaced. Road gang was in constant attendance. On the average, each kilometre of track requires two men to maintain, and where conditions are less favourable three men are required.

Station Equipment.—Operating under wartime conditions, station equipments, such as buildings, platforms, sidings, signal systems, etc., have had to be put up and maintained by the most economical means, con-

sistent with safety and efficiency. For this reason, station buildings are often nothing more than just plain civilian houses. There is a redeeming feature, however, in this economical set-up, as they offer a less conspicuous target to aerial bombardments, and even if they were destroyed, they would cost very little for rebuilding.

The performance of the railways during the period under review reflected the usual indomitable courage of the workers. They were faithful to a tradition which was set for them at the beginning of the war in the days of the Ministry of Railways: first, "to repair and upkeep any damaged portion of the railway property under all conditions and at all costs;" and, second, "never evacuate unless told to do so by the military authorities concerned." There has been a new problem developed in the advancing years of the war, and that is the lack of materials for replenishment. In order to overcome this difficulty, every railroad worker has seen to the necessity of the strictest economy in the requisition and use of materials. It may well be said that a third tradition of frugality and economy has been well adopted in addition to their fighting morale and their devotion to duty.

II. HIGHWAYS

In a review of communications during the years 1940-42, no one can overlook the significant role played by the highways. There have been many reorganizations and changes of personnel and with promises of many more changes to come. A great many people have almost thrown up their hands in an attempt to study and solve the problems of wartime high-

TABLE 3. PASSENGER AND FREIGHT SERVICES OF THE CANTON-HANKOW, HUNAN-KWANGSI, LUNGHAI AND CHEKIANG-KIANGSI RAILWAYS, 1941

Railways	Canton-Hankow	Hunan-Kwangsi	Lunghai	Chekiang-Kiangsi	Total
Passenger Service					
Number of Trains	6,980	4,427	4,645	1,390	16,565
Number of Passengers	2,555,873	2,626,212	3,634,765	1,816,925	10,633,865
Revenue in Dollars	14,512,058.88	19,464,331.06	20,675,488.66	59,359,297.89	114,261,296.49
Freight Service					
Number of Trains	2,249	1,792	2,922	1,031	7,925
Coal and Firewood	60,695	50,145	103,827	—	214,667
Rice	34,980	7,259	—	3,460	45,699
Salt	76,015	43,094	10,991	66,809	196,906
Wood Oil	3,945	3,831	—	180	7,956
Tungsten Ore	9,485	10,431	—	—	19,916
Antimony	—	2,236	—	—	2,236
Cotton	10,295	—	29,033	1,005	39,333
Soya Beans	25,315	3,005	—	—	30,370
China ware	—	—	6,403	3,985	3,985
Wheat	120	—	66,246	—	6,583
Other Cereals	—	—	—	4,180	70,426
Other Cargoes	153,574	262,631	327,731	44,910	798,846
Total Freight	375,324	384,679	546,191	124,529	1,430,723
Revenue (in Dollars)	6,054,334.55	11,447,583.62	9,839,198.20	7,142,990.52	34,484,006.89

TABLE 4. PASSENGER AND FREIGHT SERVICES OF THE CANTON-HANKOW, HUNAN-KWANGSI, LUNGHAI AND CHEKIANG-KIANGSI RAILWAYS, JANUARY-JUNE 1942

Railways	Canton-Hankow	Hunan-Kwangsi	Lunghai	Chekiang-Kiangsi	Total
Passenger Service					
Number of Trains	3,471	1,951	2,873	600	8,995
Number of Passengers	1,215,638	1,289,521	1,903,766	998,426	5,387,291
Revenue (in Dollars)	21,241,280.90	23,082,137.29	22,938,664.82	—*	67,472,082.01
Freight Service					
Number of Trains	971	853	750	275	2,849
Coal and Firewood	43,580	23,850	48,999	—	116,438
Rice	1,950	1,307	—	185	3,442
Salt	24,360	9,335	11,786	6,390	51,871
Wood Oil	1,115	300	—	—	1,415
Tungsten Ore	4,665	2,180	—	—	6,845
Antimony	300	2,400	—	—	2,740
Cotton	4,675	2,286	15,428	—	22,389
Soya Beans	8,030	3,063	—	—	11,093
China ware	—	—	—	1,845	1,845
Wheat	—	—	4,519	—	4,519
Other Cereals	—	—	39,663	4,180	43,843
Other Cargoes	18,097	113,767	134,683	8,430	274,977
Total Freight	106,772	158,537	255,078	21,030	541,417
Revenue (in Dollars)	14,008,896.90	11,685,288.11	7,527,423.54	—*	33,221,608.55

* The returns in Chinese dollars for passenger and freight services on the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway are not available.

way operation. It is true that the role played by the highways was of such difficult and complicated character that our inexperience and inadequacy of equipment were found unequal to the task. And equally true it is that every effort was made with the very best of intentions, still the time and energy taken did not seem to commensurate with the results obtained. The formidable task confronted by the highway workers can be readily appreciated if only we should mention the fact that, prior to the war, the best experience any man could have was to operate a fleet of not more than 200 trucks. And now almost overnight a demand for personnel and facilities to operate a fleet 10 times that number had to be met. What consequence could it be other than a status of rickety and confusion!

In 1939, the Ministry of Communications had just begun to segregate the functions of highway transportation and highway engineering by establishing two distinct organizations, the Bureau of Highways and the National Highway Transport Administration, at a time when three American transport experts, Messrs. Maurice Sheahan, A. B. Bassi and C. Van Patter, were despatched to this country to make a study of our transportation problems. They spent a very useful year in our midst and they presented a scheme by which military transport and civil transport were clearly divided and to be undertaken by two separate organs. In this connection, a special chartered China Transport Corporation was formed with the intention of centralizing all civil transportation requirements. For various reasons, the goal of their expectations was not reached. The corporation was only charged with

the operation of certain routes instead of the entire highway system as it was first intended. The closure of the Burma Road for three months exercised a most unfavourable setback upon the government program to improve the traffic operations. The three months' inaction meant much waste of time, for almost immediately upon its reopening, the Burma Road was definitely committed to be the principal supply route and every provision had to be rushed to equip the road to a standard sufficient to shoulder the impending burden of large-scale trucking. Any quick and satisfactory performance was not possible. In June, the U. S. Government again sent to China three highway experts, Messrs. Daniel G. Arnstein, Harold C. Davis, and Marco F. Hellman. More recommendations were made along principles which had been advanced in the earlier stages but not fully carried out in a circumstance of preoccupation and confusion.

The problems of motor transportation today remain very much the same as they were at the beginning. It appears that the fundamental concept of a technical combination is lacking. To operate a truck, itself a product of modern industry, it calls for a scientific combination of the proper kind of roads, of personnel, of lubricants and of equipment. No bureaucratic institutions can solve these questions by sheer force or authority. Well-intended efforts, however circumspect they could be, if they do not fall within the formula of technical combination, would only tend to exercise as a restraining factor upon the flow of operations. It has, therefore, been a painful realization, obtained as a result of our experience in the last two years, that we are still to strive for a grasp of

technical principles along with a centralized and consistent program of action with clearly defined lines of authority and responsibility.

The following paragraphs will not dwell upon the institutional changes that have taken place in the field of highway administration, but will note in a brief manner their present status and results of performance.

Highways and Administration.—The following table (Table 5) shows the different highway transport administrations together with the kilometrage of highways under their respective operations. Only the actual operating distance was taken, which totalled about 10,000 kilometres. The table shows truck lines only and does not take into consideration branch lines and provincial lines.

TABLE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF HIGHWAYS AND HIGHWAY TRANSPORT ADMINISTRATIONS, SEPTEMBER 1942

<i>Name of Organ</i>	<i>Line</i>	<i>Kilometres</i>
Northwest Highway Transport Bureau	Lanchow-Sian	704
	Huachialing-Shuangshihpu	400
	Kansu-Chinghai	210
	Lanchow-Hsinghsingchia	1,171
	Fenghsiang-Hanchung	291
	Paocheng-Kuangyuan	203
Southwest Highway Transport Bureau	Hanchung-Paiho	533
	Pingliang-Ninghsia	421
	Chungking-Kweiyang	388
China Transport Corporation	Kweiyang-Taoyuan	679
	Kweiyang-Chueching (to Kunming)	502
Szechuen-Yunnan Eastern Highway Transport Bureau	Luhien-Chueching (to Kunming)	741
Szechuen-Yunnan Western Highway Transport Bureau	Neikiang-Wiangyun	1,276
Szechuen-Shensi Highway Bureau	Chungking-Kuangyuan	619
China-Burma Transport Administration	Kunming-Lashio	1,146
TOTAL		9,843

Cars and Trucks.—In recent years, trucks and cars imported via Burma were considerable in number. But due to various conditions attendant

on a newly-built road-bed, depreciation was also great. According to statistical returns for July 1942, the number of registered vehicles, both public and

582

COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORTATION

private and excluding military vehicles, totalled 14,671, distributed as follows:

Trucks	...	80%	...	12,549
Cars	...	8%	...	1,248
Others	...	6%	...	874
TOTAL	...	100%	...	14,671

Among the 12,549 trucks, only 52% were serviceable, while 48% were standing under repair. As to the 1,248 cars, the condition was much worse, the operating percentage being only 44 as against 56 under repair.

Table 6 shows the condition and distribution of trucks and cars in July 1942:

TABLE 6.* CONDITION AND DISTRIBUTION OF TRUCKS, CARS, ETC., JULY 1942

Ownership	Serviceable				Under Repair	
	Trucks	Cars	Others	Total	Trucks	Cars
Military	2,379	16	377	2,772	920	13
Government	4,162	536	148	4,846	3,004	683
Commercial	—	—	—	—	—	—
GRAND TOTAL	6,541	552	525	7,618	4,584	696

Ownership	Under Repair		Total		Total	
	Others	Total	Trucks	Cars	Others	Total
Military	254	1,187	3,290	29	631	3,959
Government	95	4,442	7,826	1,219	243	9,288
Commercial	—	—	1,424	—	—	1,424
GRAND TOTAL	349	5,629	12,549	1,248	874	14,671

* This table does not include vehicles in occupied territories.

Maintenance and Repairs.—According to the figures available ending September, 1942, there were 220 repair shops, 38 repair sheds, and 116 maintenance yards in Southwest and Southeast China, as well as in the unoccupied territories in the Southwest. Most of them belong to commercial concerns. The percentages of distribution are as follows:

	Per cent
Commercial	31
Provincial Governments	21
Other Transport Organizations	19
Transport Administrations Under Central Government Control (11% Exclusively Military)	29
TOTAL	100

Distributed according to highways, the percentages are as follows:

	Per cent
Yunnan-Burma Line	18
Chungking-Kweiyang Line	12
Szechuen-Sikang Line	9
Kweiyang-Kunming Line	7
Szechuen-Hunan Line	3
Lines in Northwestern China	10
Lines in Southwestern China	41
TOTAL	100

Warehouses and Storages.—The warehouses and store sheds along the trunk and branch lines were almost entirely erected by the Government. According to the latest figures available for December, 1941, the storage capacity on the various routes was as follows:

	Metric Tons
Yunnan-Burma Line	300,000
Szechuen-Yunnan Eastern Highway	102,236
Lines in Northwestern China	1,312,082
Lines in Southwestern China	6,359,863
Lines in Southeastern China	2,082,888
Along Waterways	35,246
TOTAL	10,192,315

Traffic.—Formerly, passenger and freight traffic was centred principally in the Southwest. In the Northwest, traffic was comparatively light, due to the vast distance across thinly populated regions and to the lack of repair, lodging and boarding facilities en route. With the fall of Burma, however, and the consequent interruption of traffic on the principal supply route in the Southwest, the burden of traffic on the northwestern highways has assumed a substantial increase.

In the Southwest, passenger service on the Chungking-Kweiyang, Kweiyang-Kunming, Kweiyang-Liuchow and Kweiyang-Taoyuan lines was formerly maintained by the China Transport Corporation. To economize on petrol, passenger service may cut down to a minimum—passengers were carried even on trucks whenever the loading capacity permitted. With the introduction of gas as a motive power and the conversion of gasoline motors, traffic has shown a lively increase along the trunk and branch lines.

Passenger traffic in the Northwest was maintained by the Northwest Highway Transport Bureau. The lines operated remain practically the same as before and, except for some increase in traffic, there has been no material change.

Upon the opening of the Burma Road in 1939, which soon became the principal international route, imported materials found their way into China in considerable quantity. The monthly figure ranged from 1,000-2,000 tons to 10,000-20,000 tons. Had it not been for the fall of Burma, we had every reason to expect a still greater increase in tonnage carried. From statistics available as of October 1940 to September 1941, the total hauling capacity from Wanting to Kunming

was 58,625,588 ton/kilometres, or about 61,068 tons. From October 1941 to September 1942, the capacity increased to 146,498,922 ton-kilometres, or about 152,603 tons, showing an increase of 87,873,334 ton/kilometres or about 91,535 tons over the corresponding period. Taking the trunk lines of the Southwest as a whole and for the year ending September 1942, the annual returns show a total of 223,193,017 ton/kilometres, an increase of 125% over the previous period. The Burma Road contributed 66%; the Kunming-Kweiyang Line 14%; the Luchow-Kunming Line 9%; the Chungking-Kweiyang Line 7%; and the Kweiyang-Kinchengkiang Line 4%.

Fuel Supply.—The problem of fuel supply has always existed in China. Though there are some oil fields in West and Northwest China, their output is limited and is inadequate to meet the urgent requirements. The Government, therefore, launched upon a policy of large-scale refining of vegetable oils and production of alcohol as substitutes. Commercial enterprises have been encouraged. In fact, as early as when the war began, refineries were found in all the tung-oil producing centres, both north and south of the Yangtze. They produced a total amount of almost a million gallons a month. Apart from helping these refineries by means of subsidies, the Government has also established 25 refineries of its own.

The number of distilleries for alcohol, both government and private-owned, now totals 101. The alcohol produced by these distilleries, as well as the refined oil above mentioned, now constitutes a sizeable portion of the fuel supply for the highways.

Highway Construction.—In 1940 when most international routes were closed to China, the Government never flinched from its established policy of continued road construction. It tolerated the three months' closing of the Burma Road in the firm belief that it was soon to be reopened. Not only the construction of the Loshan-Sichang highway was rushed, steps were taken to undertake the building of the Sichang-Hsiangyun highway. The project would thus connect the Burma Road with the principal highways of Szechuen, Sikang and Yunnan and would aid materially to the flow of international shipments and the exploitation of natural resources of the interior provinces. In the Northwest, a new Kansu-Szechuen highway was being constructed, running from Lanchow to Szechuen. Its completion would shorten the international route in Northwest China, and, at the same time, improve the operating efficiency. In the interior, some 930 kilometres of new highways were built and over 1,200 kilometres improved.

Upon the reopening of the Burma Road in 1941, highway construction received a renewed impetus. Both the Loshan-Sichang and Sichang-Hsiangyun highways were completed and opened to traffic during the year. The annual construction of new highways was over 3,920 kilometres, of which over 2,270 kilometres are already open to traffic. Improved highways totalled over 9,630 kilometres. Among the principal undertakings may be mentioned the improvement of road-bed and surfacing of over 100 kilometres on the Burma Road; new bridges to replace ferries; and permanent bridges substituting the temporary wooden structures. A significant survey of a projected highway

III. STAGE TRANSPORT

Stage transport, commonly known as pack animal transport, seems an anachronism in 20th century China. Yet, the revival of this system of transportation is indispensable, in view of the exceptional conditions brought about by the war.

The development of stage transportation began with the inception of mule transport. When, pursuant to a resolution adopted by the National Through Traffic Conference, pack animals and man power were resorted to for transportation purposes after the fall of Hankow in the autumn of 1938, a mule transport office was established, on December 1st of that year, by the Ministry of Communications to manage and make use of the existing mules and horses already in service, with a view to further development. The lines operated then in this system of transport were as follows: (1) Hsufu-Kunming, (2) Kwangsi-Kweichow, (3) Szechuen-Kweichow, (4) Szechuen-Shensi, (5) Luehow-Kunming, and (6) Szechuen-Sikang-Yunnan.

In order to enlarge its scope and activities, the office was reorganized in February, 1940, into the Cart and Mule Transport Office with a branch for each of the above lines. As a result of the National Stage Transport Conference held in July of the same year, its scope was further enlarged and the said office was reorganized into the Stage Transport Administration to include under its management all trunk lines of an international character. Reorganization was also effected, at the same time, in all the branch offices with increased scope and activity.

Truck and Branch Lines.—According to the National Stage Transport Conference, all lines under the management of the Central Government were designated as trunk lines and those under the management of provincial and local authorities, branch lines. But during the last two years, these two categories have undergone considerable changes from one to the other to meet the demands and exigencies of war.

The lengths of lines operated in September, 1942, and distributed according to provinces, were as follows:

TABLE 8

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>Kilometres</i>
Szechuen	2,067
Fukien	5,366
Kansu	3,448
Kwangsi	4,026
Hunan	4,020
Kiangsi	3,448
Yunnan	412
Kwangtung	901
Cheklung	3,419
Hupeh	30
Honan	1,147
Shansi	1,297
Anhui	1,916
TOTAL	31,497

Equipment.—The various means of transport such as carts, carriages, mules, camels, etc., are provided either by the Government or by the civilian population. The number and categories employed in September, 1942, were as follows:

TABLE 9

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Number</i>
Iron Wheel Carriages (Horse-Driven)	390
Rubber-Edged Carts (Man Power)	1,857

590

COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORTATION

all important cities. Many more stations are in the process of installation. International radiophone and radiophoto services are being planned to link China with other members of the United Nations.

TABLE 12. LENGTH OF TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH LINES, 1940-42
(in Kilometres)

Province	1940		1941		1942 (Jan.-June)	
	Telephone Lines	Telegraph Lines	Telephone Lines	Telegraph Lines	Telephone Lines	Telegraph Lines
Kiangsu	6,739	4,319	6,739	4,319	6,739	4,319
Chekiang	3,851	4,484	3,851	4,819	3,851	4,819
Anhui	3,076	4,563	3,076	4,704	3,076	4,704
Kiangsi	5,006	7,955	5,297	7,955	5,389	7,955
Hupeh	6,561	8,599	7,067	8,877	7,240	8,877
Hunan	9,645	6,743	10,314	6,743	10,340	6,874
Shantung	5,521	4,807	5,521	4,807	5,521	4,807
Hopei	2,842	3,251	2,842	3,251	2,842	3,251
Honan	4,903	5,000	5,107	5,000	5,107	5,000
Shansi	2,926	2,136	2,926	2,136	2,926	2,136
Shensi	5,483	5,532	5,656	5,752	5,656	5,752
Kansu and Ninghsia	2,515	5,234	2,643	5,234	2,643	5,234
Fukien	3,676	4,516	3,783	4,516	3,783	4,516
Kwangtung	4,018	8,638	4,077	9,050	4,077	9,000
Kwangsi	2,441	6,510	3,357	7,009	3,357	7,009
Yunnan	606	4,366	1,663	5,241	3,659	5,470
Kweichow	940	4,848	940	4,938	940	5,040
Liaoning, Kirin and Heilung- kiang	—	15,415	—	15,415	—	15,415
Szechuen, Sikang and Tibet	4,927	11,914	4,951	11,973	5,818	12,278
Sinkiang and Chinghai	—	7,238	—	7,238	—	7,238
Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan and Mongolia	1,562	5,347	1,562	5,347	1,562	5,347
... ..	76,428	131,415	81,372	134,414	84,526	135,230

TABLE 13. NUMBER OF DOMESTIC MESSAGES TRANSMITTED BY TELEGRAPH, 1940-42

Category of Traffic	Government and Military Telegrams		Private Telegrams		Total	
	No. of Messages	No. of Words	No. of Messages	No. of Words	No. of Messages	No. of Words
1940	2,210,473	200,195,492	3,866,985	84,211,153	6,077,458	284,406,645
1941	2,178,420	211,753,191	5,703,803	121,180,647	7,882,223	332,933,838
1942 (Jan.-June)	1,186,693	116,132,418	3,407,781	71,217,708	4,594,474	187,350,126

TABLE 14. NUMBER OF LONG-DISTANCE TELEPHONE CALLS, 1940-42

Period	No. of Calls
1940	2,728,258
1941	3,414,233
1942 (Jan.-June)	1,903,674

V. POSTAL SERVICE

Postal service forms another principal department of activities of the Ministry of Communications. All mail matters, therefore, apart from being transmitted by couriers, are carried on a contact basis by transport concerns, such as, aviation, railway, steamship, and highway transportation companies, all under the jurisdiction of the Ministry.

Postal Statistics.—Owing to the greater density of population, higher development of commerce and better communication facilities, post offices and mail lines were formerly centred in the coastal provinces, such as, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, etc.

With the outbreak of war and the consequent migration of population westward, as well as the removal of industrial and commercial centres to the southwestern and northwestern provinces, post offices and mail lines in interior China increased tremendously. Owing to the lack of sufficient transport facilities, no mail lines were so well developed as courier lines which underwent the greatest expansion. Consequently, the increase of post offices and mail lines resulted in a corresponding increase of postal employees.

Tables 15-20 give some of the important statistics on the postal service for the period 1938-1942.

Postal Trucks.—Originally, the post office possessed very few trucks of its own, and these were used for the carriage of mail matters within the city limits in Shanghai and Tientsin. With the outbreak of war, however, and the attendant shortage of transport facilities, the post office has to undertake long distance transportation itself to implement the transport companies in carrying the lighter mail matters, such as, letters and post cards. The number of trucks owned

TABLE 10. NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES IN VARIOUS PROVINCES, JUNE, 1942

Provinces	District Head Offices	First Class Offices	Second Class Offices	Third Class Offices	Fourth Class Offices	Fifth Class Offices	Agencies	Total
Kiangsu				1	1	2	1	5
Chekiang	1	1		7	7	9	6	31
Anhui	1		1	5	7	20		34
Kiangsi	1	2	6	14	17	11	7	58
Hupch	1	3	3	8	10	22	5	52
Hunan	1	6	3	26	11	24	5	79
Honan	1	1	3	7	10	54	2	78
Shansi						7		7
Shensi	1	1	4	10	12	49	12	89
Kansu and Ninghsia ...	1		2	9	7	38	10	67
Fukien	1	1	5	16	16	17	9	65
Kwangtung	1	3	7	26	16	29	3	85
Kwangsi	1	3	5	8	10	36		63
Yunnan	1			2	4	42	1	50
Kweichow	1			12	9	14	5	41
Szechuen, Sikang and Tibet	1	3	9	14	19	73	22	141
Shikang and Chinghai ...	1			2	2	21		26
Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan and Mongolia ...				1		4		5
TOTAL	15	24	48	168	161	472	88	976

Chengt'u, Sian and Lanchow; Kweichow and Hengyang; Kweichow and Wuchow; Hengyang and Chikiang, etc., are equipped with such multiple circuits.

In order to increase traffic facilities, carrier-wave has been introduced on many long-distance lines, with automatic relays, thus rendering multiple-channel communication possible on a single pair of wires. Eighteen such lines have been completed. The line connecting Chungking, Kweichow and Chengtu comprises three such carrier-wave circuits.

To provide against damage and destruction by enemy air-raids, tele-

graph and telephone equipments were carefully protected by removing them to air-raid shelters. With such precaution, it has been possible to maintain normal communication during air-raids, and the extent of damage suffered has been reduced to the minimum.

The telephone system in Chungking has been changed from the common-battery type to the automatic-dial type. The number of common-battery telephones dismantled totalled 1,400. To substitute this, two central exchanges of the dial type, totalling 2,500 numbers, were installed in underground shelters.

In Chengtu, a sub-exchange of 200 numbers of the dial type has been added to the existing equipment. In Ipin, a telephone-exchange of the common-battery type was also established. Up to the end of June 1942, municipal telephones comprised a total length of circuits of 787,312 kilometres,

equivalent to a length of lines of 18,879 kilometres. The corresponding number of telephone poles used were 15,210.

Table 11 shows the position of telegraph and telephone lines in September, 1942.

TABLE 11. TELEGRAPH AND LONG-DISTANCE TELEPHONE LINES IN FREE CHINA, SEPTEMBER 1942

Before Outbreak of War (July 7, 1937)	Telephone Lines (in Kilometres)	53,776
During the War	Erected Before July 7, 1937, Remaining in Our Hands	29,848
	Erected After July 7, 1937	30,830
		60,678
	Under Erection	801
	Projected	61,479
Before Outbreak of War (July 7, 1937)	Telegraph Lines (in Kilometres)	95,322
During the War	Erected Before July 7, 1937, Remaining in Our Hands	48,697
	Erected After July 7, 1937	42,048
		90,745
	Under Erection	534
	Projected	91,279
		6,224

Wireless.—There are eight high-power wireless stations in Free China. Besides, 24 more stations are being projected. The total number of medium and small-power stations operating at present is 248. The Ministry is planning to increase the number to 300. So far, 67% of the project has been completed. The rest will be ready for operation in the immediate future.

International wireless communication was originally established between Chungking and Hongkong, Manila,

and Moscow. At the outbreak of the Pacific war, contact was also established with Singapore, San Francisco, and Los Angeles. The new international wireless stations maintain contact with most of the principal cities of the world, such as London, San Francisco, Moscow, Sydney, Bombay and Calcutta. A few reserve stations are being established to provide against possible damage by the enemy.

As a complement to telegraph, wireless-telephones were installed at

TABLE 16. TOTAL LENGTH OF MAIL LINES, 1938-1942

<i>Lines</i>	1938 (in Kilo- metres)	1939 (in Kilo- metres)	1940 (in Kilo- metres)	1941 (in Kilo- metres)	1942 (Jan.-June) (in Kilo- metres)
<i>Courier Lines</i>					
Major	237,826	252,395	279,751	312,690	318,044
Minor	188,129	195,050	194,711	178,910	178,959
Steamer and Boat Lines ...	58,383	47,443	50,093	46,352	47,022
<i>Railway Lines</i>	9,209	8,515	8,735	9,771	10,247
<i>Motor Car Lines</i>	55,185	39,000	33,516	31,628	31,684
<i>Coast Lines</i>	3,963	4,108	7,755	10,098	10,098
<i>Air Mail Lines</i>	8,050	11,000	9,600	8,100	8,400
TOTAL	560,745	557,520	584,161	597,549	604,454

TABLE 17. CLASSIFICATION OF MAIL MATTER, 1938-1942

<i>Mail Matter</i>	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-June)
<i>Ordinary Mail Matter</i> ...	487,168,970	565,726,170	799,291,000	798,057,200	384,901,000
<i>Special Mail Matter:</i>					
Registered Articles* ...	24,354,580	32,847,420	47,679,500	50,515,200	23,495,000
Express Delivery Articles ...	9,508,480	14,954,960	20,088,800	21,469,000	10,494,400
Insured Letters	143,510	156,000	98,000	77,900	23,600
Insured Boxes	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	34,006,570	47,958,380	67,866,300	72,062,100	34,013,000
GRAND TOTAL	521,175,540	613,684,550	867,157,300	870,119,300	419,004,000
<i>Including C.O.D. Articles as Follows:</i>					
Number	42,100	12,500	28,000	28,900	9,400
Value	\$7,374,846	\$264,881	\$751,881	\$1,364,545	\$790,550

* Air mails included.

TABLE 18. MAIL MATTER POSTED FOR AIR TRANSMISSION, 1938-1942

Year	Letters and Post Cards		Newspapers		Other Articles		Total		No. of Acknowledgment of Receipt
	No.	Weight (Kilos)	No.	Weight (Kilos)	No.	Weight (Kilos)	No.	Weight (Kilos)	
1938 ...	7,962,010	92,036	120,540	6,445	84,560	15,340	8,157,110	113,821	60,640
1939 ...	14,390,370	169,020	166,010	9,902	118,370	18,350	14,674,750	197,272	375,980
1940 ...	19,576,200	238,771	177,400	15,938	100,900	12,389	19,854,500	267,008	447,800
1941 ...	21,088,501	230,234	180,262	12,078	138,015	17,125	21,407,408	250,437	562,260
1942 (Jan.-June)	7,240,010	71,594	54,179	2,608	26,770	3,356	7,321,550	77,848	154,207

TABLE 19. PARCELS POSTED, 1938-1942

Year	No.	Value (in Chinese Dollars)	Weight (in Kilos)
1938 ...	4,608,450	139,254,610	64,169,110
1939 ...	4,008,140	164,379,520	50,771,220
1940 ...	4,007,920	297,555,410	48,229,250
1941 ...	2,148,360	280,470,290	21,150,930
1942 (Jan.-June)	841,950	215,782,880	5,904,150

NOTE: Air parcels included.

TABLE 20. NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL EMPLOYEES APPOINTED TO VARIOUS DISTRICTS IN FREE CHINA, JAN. 1940 TO JUNE 1942

District	Chia-teng Yu-wu-yuan (1st Clerk)	I-teng Yu-wu-yuan (2nd Clerk)	Yu-wu-tso (Assistant Clerk)	Postmen and Below	Total
Hunan ...	24	149	313	781	1,267
Kwangsi ...	—	158	57	476	691
Yunnan Kweichow ...	9	244	7	323	583
...	18	79	74	314	485
E. Szechuen ...	23	208	397	706	1,334
W. Szechuen ...	65	341	256	443	1,105
Shensi ...	3	137	113	389	642
Kansu ...	2	44	80	103	229
TOTAL ...	144	1,360	1,297	3,535	6,336

by the post office in Free China, at the end of June, 1942, was 472. Among these, 153 were for long distance transport, and 41 for use in the cities. The remaining 278 were laid up for lack of fuel supply and spare parts or otherwise unserviceable on account of obsolescence or damage beyond repair.

Postal Steamers.—The number of steamers owned by the post office at the end of June, 1942, was 13, distributed as follows:

Shanghai ...	2
Fukien ...	4
Kiangsu ...	1
Shantung ...	1
Kwangtung ...	2
Hupoh ...	2
Eastern Szechuen ...	1

Bicycles.—In the various postal districts, bicycles are extensively used

to expedite the delivery of mail in large cities as well as on the important mail routes. The number of bicycles so provided was as follows:

1940 ...	2,312
1941 ...	2,340
1942 (Jan.-June) ...	2,477

Hand Carts.—Hand carts are used in those mail lines where more than one courier are employed for each shift, or where they complement other means of conveyance already existing. They are also provided for such contingencies as the breakdown of mail trucks in the various municipal districts, or the sudden increase of traffic on those routes where only one courier is employed and additional help is required. These hand carts are either pushed by one man, or pushed and pulled by two or four. Their carrying capacity ranges from 100 to 200 kilo-

596

COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORTATION

grams, and their rate of speed from 30 to 50 kilometres a day. The number of such carts employed up to June, 1942, totalled 75, distributed as follows:

Eastern Szechuen	...	...	3
Western Szechuen	...	...	19
Hunan	...	...	21
Kiangsi	...	...	4
Chekiong	...	...	16
Kwangsi	...	...	8
Kwangtung	...	...	2
Hupoh	...	...	2
Anhui	...	...	5
Fukien	...	...	4

Steel-Axled Four-Wheelers. These vehicles are made in the Soviet Union. The district head office in Sinkiang acquired 48 of them in July, 1941, for use between Tihua and the border, as well as on other principal mail lines to the south. They are drawn by horses, either singly or in pairs. They carry from 360 to 540 kilograms each, and travel approximately 50 kilometres a day. These vehicles can now be made in Sinkiang.

VI. POSTAL SAVINGS AND REMITTANCE

Postal savings and remittance in China fall under the jurisdiction of the general Postal Administration. The activities are supervised by a central organization called the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank, the director of which is concurrently Assistant Postmaster-General. Of the two functions, postal remittance enjoys a much longer history. The remarkable growth during the recent years reflects the healthy economic position of the small savers in interior China,

as the statistical tables given in the following paragraphs will show. The significance has reached sufficient proportion to justify our separate treatment in the present issue.

Postal Savings. Postal savings in China began in 1919. At the beginning, post offices engaged in such form of banking activities were few and the volume of deposits received was very small. Even at the beginning of the war in 1937, the total amount was only \$60,000,000 odd. After the outbreak of hostilities around Shanghai on August 13, 1937, the volume of deposits dropped to something over \$40,000,000. As a result of energetic efforts on the part of the postal savings banks and the issue of Patriotic Savings Bonds behind the fronts in interior China, the total amount of deposits rose to over \$73,000,000. In 1939, business underwent further expansion until the total amount exceeded \$100,000,000 at the end of 1940.

In 1941, the issue of Patriotic Savings Bonds was further extended and, as a result of increased activities, the volume of deposits at the end of the year jumped up to \$240,000,000. The first half of 1942 saw a further increase of \$80,000,000 odd, making a total of about \$330,000,000.

With regard to Patriotic Savings Bonds, as they were issued at different times and redeemable on varying dates of maturity, especially in the case of the first few issues, the volume of deposits remained practically stationary for some time but gradually rose to \$34,000,000 in 1940, \$120,000,000 in 1941 and \$130,000,000 in June, 1942.

The total volumes of deposits and savings bonds at the end of 1940, 1941 and June, 1942, were as follows:

	Dec. 1940	Dec. 1941	June 1942
Savings Deposits	\$108,900,140	\$247,412,908	\$330,208,586
Patriotic Savings Bonds	34,576,070	120,069,966	133,660,008
TOTAL	\$143,476,216	\$367,482,874	\$463,868,594

Recently, activities were further expanded to include postage stamp deposits and deposits in United States dollars. With the extension of such activities, it is estimated that the total volume of deposits will reach \$600,000,000 at the end of 1942.

Postal Remittance. -Postal remittance began over 40 years ago. At the beginning, remittance was limited to flourishing towns and cities only, and the volume of business done was very small. Even in 1912, the total volume was less than \$6,000,000. In 1919, international remittance was introduced, and in 1938, overseas Chinese emigrants' remittance was accorded special facilities. Apart from ordinary remittances, postal orders, telegraphic transfers, collection of sums on C.O.D. purchases and regis-

tered articles and other forms of collection were also undertaken, so that the volume of business transacted increased from year to year. On the outbreak of war, however, remittances with the northeastern provinces and North China were practically suspended, and the outbreak of the European war interrupted foreign money transfer. But, as a result of the extension of business to the small towns and villages behind the fronts in interior China, the establishment of paying centres to meet remittance payments, as well as the installation of wireless stations to increase speed and efficiency, the volume of business transacted showed a most favourable increase. The following tabulation shows the volume of remittances transacted during 1940, 1941 and the first half of 1942:

	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-June)
International and Domestic Remittances	\$613,747,929	\$1,078,378,936	\$639,830,581
Remittance of Overseas Chinese Emigrants	114,558,188	170,203,941	12,989,283
TOTAL	\$728,306,117	\$1,248,582,877	\$652,819,864

With regard to international and domestic transfers, it may be mentioned that the figures for 1941 and 1942 are for domestic only and that

the figure for remittances of emigrants for the first half year of 1942 refers to remittance payments made on behalf of the Bank of China.

Funds received by the Postal Savings and Remittance Bank, except a certain amount retained for current needs in the ordinary course of business, are deposited with the Central Bank of China, Bank of China, Bank of Communications, and the Farmers Bank of China, and invested in government bonds and important productive enterprises. These investments totalled \$54,081,578 in 1940, \$96,371,047 in 1941, and \$99,599,369 in June, 1942, and were made on real mortgages and other dependable securities.

VII. SHIPPING

One of the most important measures carried out in recent years in the realm of shipping is the delimitation of power between the local and Central Government. Concomitant with this, certain measures regulating shipping were also revised to improve both the shipping services and organization. Thus, in August, 1941, the Hankow Bureau of Navigation was reorganized into the Yangtze Bureau of Shipping with enlarged scope and power. Besides, navigation bureaus were also established at Luhsien, Hochuan, Nanchung and Ipin to regulate shipping on the Yangtze basin and tributaries. The Canton Bureau of Navigation was also enlarged to administer the whole Pearl River basin.

Another important step taken was the opening of provincial ports for foreign shipping. Special regulations were set up to govern the loading and unloading of goods as well as accommodations for passengers in the war areas along the coast. These ports, several in number, have done much in replacing the treaty ports blockaded by the enemy. However, the arrange-

ment was short-lived as a result of the fall of Hongkong.

Development of New Lines.—Three new lines have been opened in recent years: the Yuan River line, the Kialing River line and the Kinsha River line.

The Yuan River line extends from Changteh to Yuanling, a distance of 199 kilometres. The water being shallow, only wooden craft plied on that river. In 1938, the Ministry of Communications ordered the S.S. *Minning* to make a trial run and found that it took 22 hours to go up-stream and only 10 hours and 45 minutes down-stream. After this successful trial run, all shipping companies joined in for the transportation of passengers and cargo. Business is now pretty brisk, and steps are being taken to extend the service from Yuanling to Chenchil.

The Kialing River line operated from Chungking up-stream as far as Hochuan. In view of the importance of this line, a trial run was made from Hochuan to Nanchung. Although successfully undertaken, it was found that navigation was still impossible during low-water season. Gas-engined shallow-draught vessels had to be utilized to make all year round shipping possible.

The Kinsha River line, though not through shallow water, abounds in shoals and rapids and is, therefore, unsafe for navigation. After repeated dredgings by the conservancy authorities, the Ipin-Pingshan section of this line has become navigable by steamers with fixed schedules for passenger service. Steps are being taken to extend the service still farther to Manyishi.

Through Traffic by Highways and Waterways.—The progress of the war has rendered inland waterway communication more and more important. But, as most of the highways and waterways were interrupted by military operations, communication had to be maintained through devious routes to get round the different war areas. Hence, the necessity of through traffic by highways and waterways in interior China. The most successful routes thus far established are those from Szechuen to Shensi and from Szechuen to Hunan.

The Szechuen-Shensi route runs from Chungking up to the Kialing River by river steamer as far as Hochuan, from Hochuan to Kuangyuan through Nanchung, Lanchung and Chiaohua by wooden vessels, and from Kuangyuan by bus along the Szechuen-Shensi highway right up to Paochi. An alternate route from Kuangyuan is by wooden vessels to Yangpingkuan and from Yangpingkuan by highway through Likingpa to Paochi.

The Szechuen-Hunan route runs from Hengyang to Changteh by river steamer, and from Changteh to Lungtan through the Yuan River and Yu River by wooden vessels. From Lungtan upward, transportation is undertaken either by mule transport to Kungtan, and then to Fuling by wooden vessels along the Wu River to link up with the Yangtze where the journey is completed by river steamers to Chungking, or by bus to Pengshui and then by wooden vessels to Fuling and proceed as before. The whole distance is approximately 1,640 kilometres, mostly waterways; the mule transport route being only 125 kilometres and the bus route 323 kilometres.

Table 21 shows the tonnage of

vessels and kilometrage of lines operated as of September, 1942.

Wooden Vessels.—In order to cope with the growing demands for wooden vessels for navigation on inland waterways, loans were granted by the Government for the shipping merchants to increase the building of such vessels. The Government also undertook to build such vessels itself and then loan them to the merchants. The number of wooden vessels completed up to June, 1942, totalled over 2,500 or above 30,000 tons, distributed among the various rivers in Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan and Kiangsi.

Mechanical Heaving Equipment.

The waterways in the three provinces of Hupeh, Hunan and Szechuen are equipped with mechanical heaving devices in order to aid vessels to go over rapids. Fifty-six heaving stations are established along the following waterways:

Upper Yangtze	...	...	...	18
Kialing River	...	...	...	25
Yuan River	...	...	...	5
Yu River	...	...	...	5
Wu River	...	...	...	3
TOTAL	...	...	...	56

Among these stations, those at Tsintan and Sitan along the upper Yangtze are the best equipped, capable of heaving up-stream 3,000-ton steamers. Those at Hsinlungtan, Tungyangtze, Wutan and Nukoutan came next, capable of heaving steamers up to 2,000 tons. Other stations have a heaving capacity of 1,000 tons and less.

General Business.—The blockade of coastal ports has brought about a tremendous increase of shipping busi-

TABLE 21. TONNAGE OF VESSELS AND KILOMETRAGE OF INLAND WATERWAYS, SEPTEMBER 1942

Period	Description	Steamships (in Tons)	Junks† (in Tons)	Total (in Tons)
Before the Outbreak of War (July 7, 1937)	Vessels owned	500,000	665,744	1,165,744
During the War	Vessels Remaining in Free China...	105,838	316,986	
	Vessels Sold to Foreign Interests or in Occupied Areas	221,009*	287,696*	
	Vessels Used for Defences	118,767*	—	
	Vessels Damaged	54,386*	61,062*	
	Vessels Newly Built	34,228	24,368	481,420
Before the Outbreak of War (July 7, 1937)		(in Km.)	(in Km.)	(in Km.)
	Inland Waterdays	17,946	38,580	56,526
During the War	Routes Established before July 7, 1937, Remaining in Free China	7,741	22,000	
	Routes Established After July 7, 1937	2,492	2,285	34,518
	Projected	1,302	—	1,302

† Only junks of over 20 tons and registered with the Ministry of Communications are included.
* Not included in the total figure of 481,420 tons.

ness in the interior. By far, the largest shipping concern is the Minsheng Industrial Company. Its principal business was originally centred on shipping along the upper Yangtze. After the removal of the national capital to Chungking, the company had to increase its shipping activities almost 10 times of its former scope, and, with the purchase of additional steamers from the middle and lower

reaches of the Yangtze, they were able to extend their services to the Min River, Kialing River, Kinsha River and other rivers in Szechuen. The company has recently started to build shallow draught vessels in large numbers. When completed, they will further add to the development of the Company's shipping facilities.

Besides the Minsheng Industrial Company, the Yangtze Shipping Ad-

ministration Office of the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company controls the various branch offices and business of shipping in Hunan and Szechuen. Under its direction, large numbers of gas-engined, shallow-draught vessels have recently been completed and put into operation on the Kialing River.

There are various other shipping concerns, such as, the Ho-Chung, Hwa-Chung and Chiang-Hwa companies. They mostly operate on the upper reaches of the Yangtze.

VIII. COMMERCIAL AVIATION

Commercial aviation in China received a serious setback at the outbreak of the war. By readjusting the existing services and developing the international air lines in 1938 and 1939, business gradually returned to its former level. At the beginning of 1940, the air lines operated by the China National Aviation Corporation and the Eurasia Aviation Corporation were as follows:

TABLE 22

A. China National Aviation Corporation (CNAC):

- (1) Ichang-Chengtu
- (2) Chungking-Kiating
- (3) Chungking-Kunming
- (4) Chungking-Hongkong
- (5) Chungking-Hanoi
- (6) Chungking-Rangoon

B. Eurasia Aviation Corporation (EURASIA):

- (1) Kunming-Lanchow
- (2) Chungking-Kunming
- (3) Chungking-Hongkong
- (4) Chungking-Hami
- (5) Chungking-Hanoi
- (6) Chengtu-Hanchung
- (7) Lanchow-Ningshia
- (8) Kunming-Kwellin

General Development.—The air lines operated by these two companies totalled 15,128 kilometres, exceeding the total kilometrage operated before the war. When Japanese troops landed in Indo-China in September, 1940, the Chungking-Hanoi lines of both companies were suspended, thus depriving them of one of the most important international air lines in Southwest China. The CNAC was ordered, therefore, to open an air line between Hongkong and Shaokwan (Kukong) on the northern border of Kwangtung. The line was officially opened on October 18 of the same year and, as passenger and freight traffic between Hongkong and Southeast China depended to a great extent on this line, the volume of business was more than it could take care of. The Eurasia was then ordered to open a new line between Hongkong and Nanshiung in northern Kwangtung. This line was officially opened on August 29, 1941. During brisk season, the schedule on this line averaged 10 flights each day.

The importance of linking up the frontier province of Sikang in West China by air has been upheld for some years but, owing to the difficulty of finding suitable landing sites, the establishment of an air line with that province was not realized until June, 1941, when air service was established between Chengtu and Yaan, with provision for further extension to Kangting.

During the years 1940 and 1941, the business of the two aviation companies increased considerably, and the volume of traffic exceeded even that before the war. The fall of Hongkong and Rangoon changed the whole situation.

Before the outbreak of the Pacific war, arrangements were concluded with the British and Indian Governments for the opening of an air line connecting Chungking, Kunning, Lashio and Calcutta. The line was officially opened at the end of December, 1941. On the fall of Lashio in April, 1942, an air station was hastily established at Myitkyina, Burma. On the fall of Myitkyina, it was shifted to Dinjan (Dibrugarh), India. Owing to the high mountainous terrain and bad weather conditions, flying was extremely difficult. This difficulty was soon overcome, however, by the installation of the necessary transmitter for operational and weather report purposes. The vigilance and industry of

the crew contributed in a large measure to the success of the flights.

The Eurasia originally concerned itself with the development of the Northwest. With the interruption of the air lines in Southwest China, its task became increasingly important. Apart from increasing the number of flights on the existing air lines, direct communication was established between Lanchow and Chungking. Further steps will be taken to extend the line to Tihua to link up with Russia.

The accompanying tables (Tables 23 and 24) show the number of kilometres flown and volume of traffic carried by the aircrafts of the two companies in 1939, 1940, 1941 and during the first half of 1942.

TABLE 23. CHINA NATIONAL AVIATION CORPORATION'S OPERATIONS

Description	1939	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-April)
Kilometres Flown	1,108,581	1,670,927	2,274,670	506,929
Passengers Carried	15,961	17,527	22,583	8,504
Paid Passenger-Kilometres	8,072,987	11,340,724	16,310,768	7,139,615
Mail Carried (in Kilograms)	73,729	82,756	91,465	18,709
Freight Carried (in Kilograms)	100,769	494,107	3,559,095	291,724
Baggage Carried (in Kilograms)	200,978	264,190	370,830	120,199

TABLE 24. EURASIA AVIATION CORPORATION'S OPERATIONS

Description	1939	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-June)
Kilometres Flown	919,687	1,192,364	1,015,872	144,185
Passengers Carried	11,555	11,048	6,503	2,218
Paid Passenger-Kilometres	7,377,950	7,482,642	5,336,230	1,281,820
Mail Carried (in Kilograms)	67,058	102,296	102,639	23,954
Freight Carried (in Kilograms)	139,853	443,385	585,700	28,537
Baggage Carried (in Kilograms)	173,448	170,318	107,178	35,015

The air lines of the two companies at the end of June, 1942, were as follows:

TABLE 25

Air Lines	Kilometres
A. China National Aviation Corporation:	
Chungking-Kunning Line	650
Chungking-Calcutta Line	1,755
Chungking-Chengtou Line	290
Chungking-Kweilin Line	610
B. Eurasia Aviation Corporation:	
Chungking-Kunning Line	650
Chungking-Kweilin Line	610
Chungking-Chengtou Line	290
Chungking-Lanchow Line	750
Chungking-Hami Line	2,190
Chengtou-Yaan Line	140

Equipment.—The two aviation companies possessed 30 airplanes before the war. As some of them had either reached the serviceable age limit or been destroyed by enemy action during the war, replenishments were badly needed. But it was extremely difficult to effect any purchases on account of their high cost, the scarcity of foreign exchange available for payment and also the very scanty supply of commercial aircraft available due to the fever of war preparation in the countries of the manufacturers. During 1940, CNAC acquired only one plane of the Douglas DC-3 type and three Condors. Eurasia acquired two planes of the Condor type during the same period. During 1941, CNAC was able to increase its equipment by the addition of one more plane of the Douglas DC-3 type.

Owing to the extreme difficulty of acquiring any airplanes from abroad and the severe restrictions imposed on their export by the foreign govern-

ments, steps were taken to obtain them from the United States under the Lend-Lease Act. A number of planes were thus obtained in the course of the year 1942, all of the C-53 transport type. They were assigned to the CNAC for the sole transportation of government and military supplies.

Training of Personnel.—The Ministry of Communications has always paid close attention to the training of pilots and other personnel engaged in aviation. For several years, it has been the practice of the two aviation companies to train a fixed number of pilots, mechanics and radio-operators each year. Training was somewhat interrupted at the beginning of the war. But as the two companies gradually adjusted themselves to the new conditions, and as business again picked up, personnel training was resumed with renewed activity in 1940. Apart from those trained locally, promising youths were sent abroad for training as pilots. According to the program adopted by the Ministry of Communications for each of the two years 1940 and 1941, a definite number of pilots, mechanics and radio-operators should be trained. The two companies responded well by strict adherence to the program.

In 1940, the German staff of Eurasia were discharged and replaced by Chinese nationals. That there was no hitch nor technical difficulties encountered consequent on the change-over reflected most favourably on the successful training program carried out in the course of years.

* * *

In conclusion, wartime communications in China have succeeded to maintain the scope and competence

against increasing odds and handicaps. What were lost and denied by the reverses of war have been more than made up by human industry, resourcefulness and devotion. Greater self-reliance and self-respect have developed in the minds of all communication workers. They have played a vital part in these years of efficient resistance. And their deprivation and sacrifices shall forever stand out as prominently as the soldiers at the front. May their exemplary devotion inspire a greater spirit of service in their colleagues so that they may achieve an equally, if not more, glorious record in the struggle that still lies ahead!

PART V

CULTURAL AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

KU CHENG-KANG¹ (谷正綱)

ORGANIZATION

ESTABLISHMENT of Government offices in charge of social administration in China dates back to only two years. In the National Government there is now the Ministry of Social Affairs, in the provincial government the department of social affairs, in the special municipal government under the direct control of the Executive Yuan the bureau of social affairs and in the hsien or municipal government the division of social affairs. In addition, there is the provincial cooperative bureau in charge of cooperative administration in each province.

The Ministry of Social Affairs is the highest social administrative organ. It is in charge of people's organization and training, social welfare, cooperative enterprises and mobilization of manpower. It has under it three departments, two bureaus, several offices and committees (*see* Chart under General Appendix).

The provincial department of social affairs is the highest social administrative organ in each province. In accordance with the social administrative policy and plans laid down by the Ministry of Social Affairs it directs and supervises the different hsien in the execution of government decrees. In view of the close relation between cooperative enterprises and social and economic reconstruction, a provincial

cooperative administration is formed. It coordinates and collaborates with the provincial department of social affairs.

In provinces partially or wholly occupied by the enemy, social and cooperative administration is temporarily either placed under special divisions in the provincial departments of civil affairs and reconstruction or entrusted to the provincial party organ.

Table 1 shows the social administrative organs in different provinces.

To date 206 hsien or municipal governments have established special divisions to take charge of social administration. Cooperative enterprises have been vigorously promoted in more than 1,200 hsien and municipalities while in over 520 hsien and municipalities cooperative advisory offices have been set up.

ADMINISTRATIVE WORK

Popular Organization and Training.—

Organization and training of the people of the whole country to enable them to wield the four political powers of suffrage, recall, initiative and referendum and to mobilize in time of war are tasks of paramount importance in social reconstruction. In accordance with the social policy in the *San Min Chu I* (Three Principles of the People), the Program for Armed

¹ Minister of Social Administration. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Hsu Chao-yung (許兆熊) of the Central News Agency.

TABLE 1. PROVINCIAL SOCIAL ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANS

<i>Forms of Organization</i>	<i>No. of Provinces</i>	<i>Names of Provinces</i>
Department of Social Affairs	11	Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kansu, Shensi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, and Hunan.
Cooperative Administration	15	Shensi, Kweichow, Hupeh, Honan, Fukien, Yunnan, Sikkim, Szechuan, Kiangsi, Szechuen, Chekiang, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Kansu and Chinghai.
Bureau of Social Affairs	1 (Municipality)	Chungking (Municipality)
Social Affairs in Charge of a Division under the Department of Civil Affairs	9	Hupeh, Shantung, Anhwei, Honan, Shansi, Sikkim, Ninghsia, Chinghai and Chahar.
Cooperative Affairs in Charge of the Department of Reconstruction	6	Honan, Anhwei, Kiangsu, Shansi, Shantung and Ninghsia
Social Affairs Entrusted to Provincial Tangpu	6	Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol, Kiangsu and Hopet.

Resistance and National Reconstruction and the Organic Law for Popular Organizations in War Time, the Ministry of Social Affairs is bending its efforts toward the organization and training of the people. The work falls into the following categories.

1. *Constitution and Readjustment of Popular Organizations.* After its formation, the Ministry of Social Affairs has called for a new registration of all people's organizations. These organizations are classified under two categories: professional and social. Professional organizations are such as agricultural unions, labour unions, chambers of commerce, trade unions and guilds while social organizations are such as cultural, religious, charity and public welfare associations. Table

2 shows the existing professional and social organizations.

The total memberships of the organizations of a national nature as well as of the salt workers, road builders, miners, postal workers, telegraph workers, seamen and railway workers has reached 159,363. These organizations are all under the direct control of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

Among the cultural associations the Chinese-American Cultural Association, the Sino-British Cultural Association, the Sino-Soviet Cultural Association and the People's Foreign Relations Association of China are of great help in the promotion of people's foreign relations, while the different political, economic, engineering, scientific and other academic societies are

TABLE 2. POPULAR ORGANIZATIONS

<i>Classification</i>	<i>No. of Organizations</i>		<i>Membership</i>
	<i>No. of Units</i>	<i>Total</i>	
Agricultural Unions	Provincial	9	9,406
	Hsien or Municipal	593	
	Hsiang	8,804	
Fishermen's Unions	Provincial	3	90
	Hsien or Municipal	69	
	Branches	18	
Labour Unions	Various Trades	3,678	4,027
	Hsien or Municipal Federations	227	
	Special	122	
Industrial and Commercial Guilds	Provincial Chamber of Commerce	13	7,833
	Hsien or Municipal Chamber of Commerce	671	
	Various Trades	7,149	
Liberal Profession Organizations		224	224
Educational Associations	Provincial or Special Municipal	9	1,328
	Hsien or Municipal	582	
	Chu, Hsiang or Chen	737	
Social Organizations	Under Direct Control of Ministry of Social Affairs	236	7,207
	Branch Organizations under Direct Control of Ministry of Social Affairs	2,640	
	Provincial or Municipal	3,804	
	Women's Organizations	527	
TOTAL	10 Groups	30,115	30,115
			3,127,543

playing an important part in the advancement of science and technique.

2. *Supervision and Training of Popular Organizations.*—The Ministry of Social Affairs also takes charge of the supervision and training of the people's organizations in order to help their development.

With a view to strengthening the different organizations, people engaged

in various trades and professions are required to join the unions, guilds or associations concerned. Only after joining are they entitled to legal privileges. Meanwhile, strict restrictions are imposed upon their withdrawal from the unions, guilds or association which they have joined. Organizations of a lower grade are at the same time

required to join organizations of a higher grade as members.

The Government has established in such big cities as Chungking, Kweilin, Chengtu and Kunming model agricultural unions and labour unions and has delegated specialists to supervise their operation. Particular attention is given to the coordinated development of different affiliated organizations. For instance, agricultural unions collaborate with cooperatives in the development of rural subsidiary enterprises, extension of rural credit loans, reclamation of waste land and establishment of farmers' reception houses. During the past year 3,165 cooperatives have been formed by the agricultural unions in the 13 provinces and municipalities of Shensi, Kansu, Szechuen, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Honan, Fukien and Chungking. Members of these agricultural unions who joined the cooperatives totalled 115,267. Agricultural unions developed out of cooperatives totalled 883. Members of these cooperatives who were at the same time members of the agricultural unions numbered 134,986. Rural credit loans extended by agricultural unions amounted to \$102,370,420. In the provinces of Fukien and Kwangtung 192 farmers' reception houses were established. Appreciable progress was also achieved in reclamation and increase of production.

The object of training in respect to people's organizations is to heighten their administrative efficiency, strengthen their constitution and expedite social reconstruction based on the *San Min Chu I*. Training is divided into two categories; training of responsible officers and training of members. Leisure time is fully utilized for training in the form of group

discussions, class-work and meetings. Textbooks and other materials for training are compiled by the Ministry of Social Affairs.

Training of responsible officers has been undertaken in 10 provinces and municipalities. There 3,050 responsible officers of various people's organizations have undergone training. Training of members has been undertaken by the workers' unions of the Burma Road, the Southwest Highway, the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway, the Lunghai Railway and the Szechuen salt industry. Workers of these unions numbering approximately 150,000 have mostly completed their training. Training of members of other popular organizations is meanwhile being undertaken in accordance with plans and schedules.

3. *Activities of Popular Organizations*.—The responsibility of people's organizations is usually twofold: first, to lay the foundation of democracy through training the people in self-government and secondly, to assist the Government in armed resistance and national reconstruction through the development of social force. A survey shows that during the past years, people's organizations in various places have been energetically assisting the Government in price control, economic reconstruction, canvassing for comfort articles and funds for the armed forces, relief of refugees, collection of materials and other wartime activities.

As an illustration, the Chungking Workers' Service Corps organized by 26 trade unions has rendered praiseworthy social service. The two Chungking Air Raid Service Corps composed of more than 2,500 workers selected from communications, municipal and other organizations have been very

helpful in air raid relief work. In addition, over 10,000 transport workers have been sent out to help in food transportation.

4. *Public Campaigns*.—Important public campaigns which have been launched include the following:

(A) *NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION CAMPAIGN AND THE NEW LIFE MOVEMENT*.—Both these campaigns aim at improving the mode of living, heightening the people's morale and making the nation a strong fighting body. With the participation of people's organizations they are widely promoted in all provinces in Free China.

(B) *THRIFT AND SAVINGS CAMPAIGN*.—This campaign has been promoted by the National Thrift and Savings Association under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs. The association has 23 branches and 942 sub-offices in different provinces and municipalities. In addition, 38 savings societies have been organized in the different ministries and commissions under the National Government and people's organizations at home and 286 savings societies by overseas Chinese. Savings thus far realized amount to more than U.S. \$1,442,574,000. Subscriptions pledged to savings certificates recently issued have also reached the U.S. \$10,000,000 mark.

(C) *DOLLAR AIRPLANE CAMPAIGN*.—This campaign has been promoted by the National Commission on Aeronautical Affairs with the cooperation of the Ministry of Social Affairs. It raised more than \$30,000,000 during the year 1943.

(D) *TROOP COMFORTING CAMPAIGN*.—This campaign takes either of three forms: comfort funds, comfort

articles and cultural service. Comfort funds amounting to \$11,000,000 have been raised by different provinces and municipalities and remitted to the frontline troops. Comfort articles are collected on the Dragon Boat Festival, the Mid-autumn Festival, New Year's Day and other special occasions and presented to the frontline troops as gifts. The Army Cultural Service Campaign promoted by the All-China Troop-Comforting Association under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs has set as its goal \$20,000,000 for instituting a wide variety of educational service for the Chinese armed forces as well as to all Allied units in China.

Social Welfare.—Since its transfer under the Executive Yuan, the Ministry of Social Affairs has spared no efforts to promote social welfare work undertaken by organizations, schools or individuals. Grants-in-aid were given to those with good records. During the past year more than 40 kinds of welfare work including child welfare, medical relief, social service, professional guidance, farmers' and labour welfare, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., departments of sociology in universities, and relief and support of honour soldiers and their families have received grants-in-aid totalling \$1,288,000. Special care has been taken by the Ministry of Social Affairs in the direction and promotion of the following kinds of social welfare:

1. *Social Relief*.—The Government's social relief policy aims at positively developing the people's financial, economic and other resources rather than negatively expending the Government's funds for mere relief. In accordance with this policy the Ministry of Social Affairs has reorganized,

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

TABLE 4. CHARITY ORGANIZATIONS AND THEIR ACTIVITIES (ENDING OCT. 31, 1942)

Province or Municipality	No. of Charity Organ- izations	No. of Staff Members	Annual Finance		Relief Activities Undertaken and Number of Charity Organizations										
			Revenue (in \$)	Expenditure (in \$)	Free Porridge	Free Rice	Free Clothes	Loan Service	Columbity Relief	Charity Schools	Child Welfare	Child Nursing			
Chekiang	6	34	1,780	1,880	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kiangsi	45	318	172,557	194,136	—	6	2	1	—	—	—	5	13	—	—
Hunan	13	195	236,760	214,980	—	6	5	—	—	—	3	2	3	—	—
Szechuen	106	2,408	19,261,942	24,266,827	4	52	27	49	1	1	1	2	13	—	—
Honan	4	12	72,108	72,620	—	—	3	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Shensi	23	555	248,476	395,194	3	4	3	1	1	—	—	11	3	—	—
Kansu	8	146	13,674	17,994	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	3	—	—	—
Chinghai	2	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Fukien	6	238	14,592	19,122	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kwangtung	42	302	176,914	166,888	2	—	3	—	2	—	—	—	1	—	—
Kwangsi	4	16	48,000	4,800	—	2	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Yunnan	2	77	8,000	8,000	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ningbata	1	—	120	120	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chungking	1	9	5,000	5,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	266	4,324	20,216,723	25,367,561	10	73	44	52	5	5	24	34	—	—	—

TABLE 4. CHARITY ORGANIZATIONS AND THEIR ACTIVITIES (ENDING OCT. 31, 1942)—*contd.*

Relief Activities Undertaken and Number of Charity Organizations													
Province or Municipality	Care of the Aged	Care of the Disabled	Care of Tramps	Refugee Relief	Medical Service	Medical Supply	Midwifery	Disposal of Corpses	Free Coffins	Burial	Public Cemeteries	Road Repairs	
Chekiang	—	1	—	—	3	4	—	—	2	—	—	—	
Kiangsi	6	3	—	—	11	24	—	1	23	11	1	4	
Hunan	3	1	—	—	5	8	—	2	9	2	1	1	
Szechuen	36	14	1	4	66	100	16	—	96	38	16	1	
Honan	—	—	—	—	4	4	—	—	—	1	—	—	
Shensi	4	3	—	3	15	15	—	—	6	3	—	—	
Kansu	2	—	—	2	5	5	—	—	3	—	—	—	
Chinghai	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	
Fukien	—	—	1	—	4	5	—	—	4	1	—	—	
Kwangtung	—	—	—	2	23	29	1	6	22	21	—	10	
Kwangsi	—	—	—	1	2	2	—	—	1	—	—	—	
Yunnan	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	2	—	—	—	
Ningbata	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Chungking	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	
TOTAL	52	22	2	12	141	198	17	9	168	79	18	16	

NOTE: Statistics are based on reports submitted by charity organizations in different provinces and municipalities prior to Oct. 31, 1942.

improved or subsidized public and private charity and relief institutions throughout the country. Altogether 581 relief organizations and 266 charity organizations have registered with the Ministry as listed in Tables 3 and 4.

The Ministry of Social Affairs has established in Chungking a model poorhouse in which are an old men's home, a nursery, a workshop, a home for the disabled, a midwifery ward, and a clinic. There are more than 600 inmates. The Ministry has also established a Loafers Training Institute in the wartime capital where the inmates are taught productive arts. In addition, there are a school for the disabled, free clinics and new villages all operated on an experimental basis.

2. *Social Service.*—In accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's bequeathed teaching that "life is for service" the Ministry of Social Affairs has energetically undertaken social service. It supports social services taken up by different public and private organizations as well as inaugurates social service centres itself. To date a social service centre has been set up each in Chungking, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Hengyang, Neikiang, and Tsunyi. Each centre has usually a hostel, a dining hall, a barber's room, a bathroom, a social room, a library, a recreation room, a gymnasium and equipment for ball games. It engages in such services as board and lodging, travelling guidance, supplementary education, books and newspapers supply, public lectures, discussion meetings, athletics and ball games, employment assistance, public health, medicine, midwifery, inquiry, loan service, savings campaign and technical guidance in production.

Social service centres have also been set up in different provinces and muni-

cipalities by either the local governments, or the local party organs, or people's organizations. They total 725. Table 5 shows the numbers of social service centres in different provinces and municipalities.

3. *Social Insurance.*—Chinese society needs most insurance against ill-health, injuries, old age and disability, and unemployment. Group insurance has been instituted for party members, public functionaries, factory workers, miners and company employees. The Ministry of Social Affairs is now proceeding with insurance legislation, establishment of a Central Insurance Administration and training of insurance personnel.

4. *Employment Assistance.*—Employment sections have been established in different social service centres on an experimental basis. Their functions include the receipt and registration of applications from employers and employees, introduction or recommendation of employees for work, investigation of the ability, specialty and personality of the applicants for employment and maintenance of contact with them, investigation of the supply and demand of personnel of various fields, and direction in vocational training and service.

The Ministry of Social Affairs has devised a card index system for keeping record of applications, recommendations, etc. and also designed different forms and blanks to meet practical needs.

Statistics of the social service centres for 1942 show that applicants for employment totalled 9,903, and applicants for employees 4,570, while 952 persons secured employment through recommendations. There are altogether 4,932 employment offices throughout China as shown in Table 11.

TABLE 5. NUMBER OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES

Sponsoring Organizations	Ministry of Social Affairs	Provincial or Municipal Governments	Local Party Organs	Total
Chungking	1	—	14	15
Chekiang	—	4	72	76
Kiangsi	—	2	14	16
Szechuen	1	1	88	90
Hupeh	—	—	3	3
Hunan	1	2	49	52
Sikang	—	1	5	6
Honan	—	—	49	49
Shensi	—	—	34	34
Kansu	—	—	60	60
Chinghai	—	—	8	8
Fukien	—	1	141	142
Kwangtung	—	1	46	47
Kwangsi	1	3	2	6
Kweichow	2	2	60	64
Suiyuan	—	—	5	5
Kiangsu	—	—	3	3
Anhui	—	1	12	13
Yunnan	—	1	2	3
Ninghsia	—	1	18	19
Shansi	—	1	5	6
Special Party Organ in Central Political Institute	—	—	1	1
Other Special Party Organs	—	—	7	7
Total	6	21	698	725

TABLE 6. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES
(1) CULTURAL ACTIVITIES, 1941

Province	Night Schools			Training Class		Reading Rooms		Letter-Writing Service	
	No. of Schools or Classes	No. of Students	No. of Classes	No. of Trainers	No. of Rooms	No. of Readers	No. of Decks	No. of Letters Written	
Kiangsi	12	181	8	108	9	26,523	17	2,574	
Hupoh	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Hunan	40	2,955	5	137	40	290,309	74	13,909	
Szechuen	2	45	2	—	2	11,549	1	—	
Sikang	2	120	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Honan	4	—	1	30	10	—	22	2,756	
Shensi	13	1,812	2	150	6	2,807	1	671	
Kansu	23	38	3	45	8	—	1	1,269	
Chinghai	4	60	—	—	5	11,240	37	819	
Fukien	17	427	6	—	30	118,484	11	924	
Kwangtung	68	1,468	10	302	78	108,012	5	5,535	
Kwangsi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
TOTAL	185	7,086	37	772	183	488,104	169	28,577	

TABLE 6. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCE AND MUNICIPALITIES—*contd.*

Province	Lecture and Discussion Meetings		Popular Reading Material				No. of Musical and Dramatic Performances
	No. of Meetings	No. of Attendants	No. of Issues of Wall Sheets	No. of Periodicals	No. of Cartoons	No. of Cultural Contests and Exhibitions	
Kiangsi	5	540	14	12	3	7	6
Hupoh	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan	48	6,690	2,962	65	4	2	1
Szechuen	2	—	11	—	—	—	1
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan	8	—	5,730	—	—	7	4
Shensi	5	—	7	1	—	1	13
Kansu	12	500	2	—	—	4	8
Chinghai	58	4,458	32	—	—	7	—
Fukien	87	2,181	422	6	100	18	17
Kwangtung	125	37,340	46	11	1,211	11	33
Kwangsi	1	18	—	—	—	—	—
Kweichow	1	200	—	—	—	1	—
TOTAL	352	51,927	9,246	95	1,318	58	83

TABLE 7. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES
(2) ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES, 1941

Province	No. of Cooperative Societies	Small Credit Loan Service : Loans Extended	Savings Cam- paign : Savings Deposited	Fund-Raising Campaign : Funds Raised	Tree-Planting Campaign : No. of Trees Planted	No. of Productive Campaigns	No. of Productive Exhibitions
Kiangsi ...	—	—	\$150	\$2,264	65,800	10	4
Hupei ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan ...	3	100	6,145	16,645	3,730	6	—
Szechuen ...	15	—	800	700	1,200	—	1
Sikang ...	—	—	—	1,500	—	—	—
Honan ...	31	—	300	350	6,000	12	2
Shensi ...	6	—	36,285	6,000	22,000	5	1
Kansu ...	12	300	5,200	11,600	66,040	15	3
Chinghai ...	—	200	6,500	24,000	—	12	—
Fukien ...	17	33,270	357,051	68,773	800	46	2
Kwangtung ...	11	359,000	6,304	288,955	4,800	38	2
Kwangsi ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kweichow ...	—	—	—	120,000	—	—	—
TOTAL ...	95	\$993,020	\$422,145	\$432,787	176,370	144	15

TABLE 8. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES
(3) PUBLIC WELFARE AND RELIEF ACTIVITIES, 1941

Province	Poor Relief		Famine Relief		Medical Service		No. of People Vaccinated or Injected Against Epidemics	No. of Times of Bridge and Road Building	No. of Times of Canal and Well Dredging
	No. of Times of Relief	No. of People Relieved	No. of Times of Relief	No. of People Relieved	No. of Patients Treated	No. of People Receiving Medicine			
Kiangsi ...	1	30	1	30	—	6,144	3,354	1	4
Hupei ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,349	—	—
Hunan ...	2	2,534	3	126	9,238	2,477	2,878	—	—
Szechuen ...	—	—	4	1,467	158	129	65	—	—
Sikang ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan ...	2	467	1	236	—	37	143	—	5
Shensi ...	3	3,124	1	371	941	—	80,095	1	—
Kansu ...	2	586	2	597	55	—	5,996	6	2
Chinghai ...	2	781	3	1,345	1,269	207	1,945	2	—
Fukien ...	27	9,526	3	1,217	7,236	1,559	11,094	6	3
Kwangtung ...	13	145,726	4	5,239	21,082	3,086	42,348	7	2
Kwangsi ...	—	—	—	—	463	512	—	—	—
Kweichow ...	2	1,040	—	—	238	159	—	—	1
TOTAL ...	54	164,424	22	10,828	40,753	14,310	152,267	23	17

TABLE 10. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES

(5) RESISTANCE AND RECONSTRUCTION ACTIVITIES AND INQUIRY SERVICE, 1941

Province	No. of Winter Garment Campaigns	No. of Food Offering Campaigns	No. of Resistance and Reconstruction Propaganda Drives	No. of Conscription Propaganda Drives	No. of Times of Aid in Resistance and Reconstruction Work	No. of Troop-Comforting Campaigns
Kiangsi	—	—	2	—	—	1
Hupei	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan	7	3	—	—	—	17
Szechuen	—	—	5	3	3	—
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	1
Honan	—	—	5	—	—	10
Shensi	1	—	2	1	—	49
Kansu	1	3	3	—	—	9
Chinghai	1	—	—	—	—	1
Fukien	4	—	10	8	—	24
Kwangtung	13	2	12	4	2	41
Kwangsi	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	5
TOTAL	27	8	48	16	5	158
Province	No. of Medical Consultations	No. of Consultations on Legal Matters	No. of Consultations on Conscription Matters	No. of Consultations on Miscellaneous Matters	No. of Mediations in Disputes	No. of Mail Matters Received and Forwarded
Kiangsi	153	6	80	1,163	70	—
Hupei	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan	12	216	84	1,323	18	265
Szechuen	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shensi	—	—	—	8	3	—
Kansu	—	—	—	394	55	—
Chinghai	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fukien	6	50	1	606	28	—
Kwangtung	156	518	—	634	15	9,218
Kwangsi	—	—	—	19	—	—
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	103	—
TOTAL	327	700	165	4,147	287	9,483

TABLE 11. EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1942

	Employment sections in social service centres of the Ministry of Social Affairs	
	Employment offices established by different provincial departments of social affairs or provincial departments of civil affairs	Employment offices established by different social service centres of the various grades of party organs
Government	6	19
	661	223
	900	
Private	Employment offices established by different civic organizations	3,689
	Servants employment agencies	334
	4,023	
TOTAL		4,932

In addition to the employment offices above listed there are in Chungking the Office for the Allocation of Wartime Social Service Personnel, the Chungking Students' Advisory Office, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, the Central Committee on Coordination between Reconstruction and Education, the Technical Inquiry Bureau, the Employment Department of the New Life Movement Service Centre, the Chungking Employment Advisory Bureau, the Employment Office of the Chungking Institute of Popular Education and the Employment Office for Honor Soldiers.

5. *Labour Welfare*.—With a view to improving the livelihood of the workmen and increasing wartime production, the Government has undertaken the following measures relative to labour welfare:

(A) *FACTORY INSPECTION*.—Inspectors are sent out frequently to inspect the factories. Special attention is paid to child labour, women labour, and apprenticeship, allowances and

pensions, accidents, casualties, injuries, safety devices, sanitary equipment, etc. Measures are taken to minimize sickness, injuries, and casualties among the workmen and to increase efficiency. Altogether 207 factories in and around Chungking have thus far been subjected to inspection. Factories in different provinces are inspected by local social administrative organs, while the Ministry of Social Affairs send out inspectors to visit various factory areas from time to time.

(B) *PROMOTION OF LABOUR WELFARE WORK*.—Labour Welfare work is undertaken either by the provincial or municipal governments, or the factories or mines, or the labour unions. Such work falls usually into the following categories: board and lodging, entertainments, health and medicine. The Ministry of Social Affairs has promulgated regulations governing the encouragement of such work. Generally speaking, most of the factories and mines in various places have set aside special appropriations and

TABLE 9. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES
(4) LIFE GUIDANCE, 1941

Province	No. of Times of Guidance in New Life	No. of Sanitary A.R.P. Advice	No. of Labour Service Campaigns	No. of Health Contests	No. of Amusement Houses	No. of Athletic Fields	No. of Times	Athletes and Entertainments Participants
Kiangsi	4	11	4	—	2	3	5	100
Hubei	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan	2	18	8	2	3	5	8	22,389
Szechuen	1	7	—	1	—	1	—	—
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan	4	29	1	3	—	—	3	—
Shensi	1	15	2	2	3	2	7	—
Kansu	11	21	5	1	2	—	6	—
Chinghai	4	21	4	5	—	2	7	100
Fukien	16	91	4	3	13	13	74	20,023
Kwangtung	6	40	13	4	4	1	32	1,861
Kwangsi	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	29
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	49	253	41	21	27	27	143	44,502

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

TABLE 9. WORK OF SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES—contd.

Province	Vocational and Academic Advisory Bureaus		Reception Houses		Restaurants		Hotels		Mass Wedding	
	No. of Bureaus	No. of Participants	No. of Reception Houses	No. of Lodgers	No. of Restaurants	No. of Diners	No. of Hotels	No. of Lodgers	No. of Weddings	No. of Couples Wedded
Kiangsi	3	391	2	570	2	20,900	—	—	1	18
Hubei	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan	3	298	2	87	6	—	7	9,650	—	—
Szechuen	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sikang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shensi	5	192	4	—	3	14,500	4	4,422	1	—
Kansu	1	8	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chinghai	2	118	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fukien	1	98	13	907	6	1,600	5	428	4	—
Kwangtung	5	1,542	7	416	1	1,500	1	—	1	2
Kwangsi	1	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	21	2,655	30	1,980	18	38,300	17	14,500	7	26

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

626

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

appointed special men to undertake such work.

The Ministry of Social Affairs had established in the industrial districts in the suburbs of Chungking two workers welfare centres. There were dormitories, barber's rooms, laundry rooms, sewing rooms, reading rooms, workers' class, schools for workers' children and conference rooms. Letter-writing, employment and loan services were run and medical and judicial consultations were given. Workers' choruses and dramatic troupes were organized. Both welfare centres were, however, destroyed by Japanese aerial bombs.

Recently the Ministry has established another workers' welfare centre at Huishnikou in Chungking. It has a dormitory, a tea house, a dining hall, a bathroom and a barber's room.

Labour welfare committees have been organized under the direction of delegates from the Ministry for the oil mines in Kansu and tin mines in Yunnan and subsidies are provided for by the Ministry for welfare work undertaken by the committees. Workers advisory committees have been organized to take care of the welfare of the workers of the Szechuen-Yunnan Highway, the Southwest Highway, the Northwest Highway and the Szechuen salt industry.

A set of regulations drafted by the Ministry governing employees' welfare funds has been promulgated by the Government in order to ensure the derivation of funds for welfare work.

6. *Child Welfare.*—The Ministry of Social Affairs has under it a Child Welfare Division to take care of child welfare work which is along the following lines:

(A) *CHILD CARE.*—Protection and care of refugee children in war

time is a task of supreme importance. There are now 423 war orphanages, 177 refugee children's homes and homes for the children of honour soldiers, and 17 nurseries, accommodating a total of 191,685 children. The Ministry has established four model orphanages in the suburbs of Chungking where scientific management and up-to-date equipment are employed. Each orphanage accommodates more than 1,000 children.

(B) *CHILD HEALTH.*—The Ministry subsidizes government and private hospitals to establish pediatrics departments to give free treatment to poor children. Meanwhile, the importance of better nutrition for children is impressed upon parents and guardians.

(C) *GUIDANCE IN CHILD WELFARE WORK.*—The Ministry gives guidance in child-bearing, child protection, medical cure, nutrition, sanitation, health contests, children's recreation, juvenile reading materials, singing, lectures and other forms of child welfare work. While organizations and individuals are encouraged to undertake such welfare work, the Ministry itself and other government offices concerned also engage in one kind or another.

Cooperative Enterprises.—The Ministry of Social Affairs has taken the following measures for the promotion of cooperative enterprises in China:

1. *Improvement of Cooperative Organization.*—The Ministry has taken great pains to improve the organization of different cooperatives, to revise the regulations governing their operation and to effect the collaboration between cooperatives and agricultural and industrial organizations. As a result of efforts at improvement, the number of cooperatives increased from 133,542

with a total membership of 7,237,317 in December, 1940 to 160,393 with a total membership of 10,141,682 in December, 1942. This meant an increase of 26,851 cooperatives or 20.1% and of 2,904,365 members or 40.1%. Tables 12-13 show the distribution of cooperatives and the classification of their businesses.

The development of cooperative enterprises in the far interior or border provinces was more sluggish. After general improvements were made in the cooperative enterprises in the various provinces and municipalities listed in Tables 12-13, the Ministry of Social Affairs turned its special attention to those in the provinces of Kansu, Suiyuan, Chinghai and Sikang.

In Kansu province credit cooperatives were first organized in Hsiaho, Lintan, Choni and Siku where Mongols and Tibetans co-inhabited. Loans were granted in aid of their development. In Suiyuan province emphasis was laid upon the development of cooperative enterprises in the Ikh Chao League, Paotow, Saratsi and Tohsien. Cattle-rearing and distribution and marketing of furs and leather were the principal cooperative work. In Chinghai province cooperatives were organized in Sining, Lotu, Huchu, Tatung, Minho, Hualung, Kweitch, Tanyuan and Hsunhua. Subsidies were allocated by the Government. In Sikang province cooperative advisory offices were set up in Yaan, Lushan, Lihua, Paan, Tao-cheng and other hsien city, the Taining administrative bureau, and the Shihto, Wuyi and other special political districts, to promote the development of cooperative enterprises.

In enemy "occupied" areas and places adjacent to these areas the Ministry arranged with the Kwang-

tung, Suiyuan, Chekiang, Shansi, Hopei, Chahar, Shantung and Honan provincial governments to inaugurate a war zone cooperative loan agency in Honan and to organize cooperative units in Kiangsi to supply daily necessities to the civilians and members of the armed forces in the war zones and to scramble for materials from the war zones. During 1941 commodities supplied by different cooperatives were valued at \$358,000 and the amount of materials scrambled and shipped in from the war zones were considerable. In Hunan province the joint office of the four government banks, namely, the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers Bank of China, extended war-area rural loans amounting to 2,000,000. In Hupeh province the Farmers Bank of China set aside 1,000,000 for the extension of rural loans. In Kiangsu, Shantung, and Shansi provinces cooperative units made frequent tours to promote and direct cooperative enterprises.

2. *Development of Cooperative Enterprises.*—In the past China's cooperatives were mostly credit cooperatives. To meet the exigencies of war and to strengthen the nation's economic foundation, the Ministry of Social Affairs has during the past year striven for the balanced development of cooperatives in agricultural and industrial production, marketing and consumption.

As a result of the rise of commodity prices, there has been a marked growth of consumers' cooperatives. To cope with such development the Ministry of Social Affairs arranged with the joint office of the four government banks for a loan of 5,000,000 as capital for the National Cooperative Commodities Supply Agency. The

TABLE 13. COOPERATIVES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES,* 1942

* *Unpublished Co-operatives*

Total

Province or
Municipality

	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital
Chekiang	5,970	556,965	\$2,716,720	3,427	110,365	\$ 712,447
Anhui	8,900	616,589	5,131,115	6,161	384,934	1,553,165
Kiangsi	11,033	1,489,161	22,275,765	9,340	1,074,987	7,767,272
Hupoh	13,440	472,217	4,728,865	8,248	278,254	2,080,392
Hunan	17,530	888,790	3,725,850	14,885	710,061	3,403,671
Szechuen	23,586	1,473,040	9,737,742	21,292	1,282,005	7,850,083
Sikang	1,297	82,894	560,978	1,167	73,717	534,733
Honan	9,827	679,333	10,079,045	8,883	558,874	6,938,185
Shensi	11,260	592,942	5,066,226	8,075	417,750	4,298,464
Kansu	6,752	373,075	2,624,004	6,513	372,143	2,399,968
Fukien	7,730	456,033	2,990,883	4,948	242,600	1,323,839
Kwangtung	8,604	468,740	4,337,588	1,227	33,939	981,305
Kwangsi	15,661	778,620	5,839,974	78	248	18,810
Yunnan	7,266	254,272	4,355,039	7,219	250,210	4,095,473
Kweichow	10,416	554,757	4,507,966	9,263	404,178	1,483,767
Ninghsia	205	45,965	484,403	390	45,965	484,403
Suiyuan	316	18,533	332,779	11	292	20,230
Chungking	380	139,723	3,787,041	370	136,810	3,657,448
GRAND TOTAL	160,393	10,141,682	\$93,291,330	111,697	6,355,786	\$49,422,945

TABLE 13. COOPERATIVES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES,* 1942—*contd.*

Cooperatives under New Hsien System

Province or
Municipality

Hsiang or Chen Cooperatives

Pao Cooperatives

	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital
Chekiang	379	196,405	\$ 849,451	982	106,779	\$ 465,029
Anhui	628	84,936	1,842,828	1,624	113,500	1,583,026
Kiangsi	817	371,188	11,068,296	—	—	—
Hupoh	289	69,091	1,231,383	1,199	124,873	1,283,850
Hunan	18	5,641	50,988	967	100,733	247,131
Szechuen	93	30,284	969,955	759	72,671	599,825
Sikang	—	—	—	24	1,557	9,892
Honan	204	48,041	1,315,525	708	71,819	1,807,325
Shensi	71	16,049	283,286	408	54,695	519,096
Kansu	24	5,063	181,808	215	15,872	132,228
Fukien	225	56,583	721,535	2,107	141,083	768,033
Kwangtung	197	24,894	252,278	3,687	290,232	2,569,995
Kwangsi	119	32,018	1,207,409	11,598	640,431	4,591,795
Yunnan	16	945	117,160	31	3,117	140,424
Kweichow	321	77,195	1,145,348	782	73,384	843,141
Ninghsia	5	30	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan	19	1,125	21,897	286	17,206	290,652
Chungking	—	—	—	—	—	—
GRAND TOTAL	3,425	1,020,688	\$21,260,277	25,317	1,827,954	\$15,851,432

TABLE 12. CLASSIFICATION OF BUSINESS OF COOPERATIVES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES, 1942

Province or Municipality	Number of Cooperatives						
	Total	Credit	Supply	Agricultural Production	Industrial Production	Transportation and Marketing	Insurance
Chekiang	3,427	1,344	123	1,527	114	231	82
Anhui	6,161	4,018	105	845	431	530	231
Kiangsi	9,540	7,552	62	202	801	414	499
Hupeh	5,248	5,988	9	1,893	50	174	154
Hunan	14,889	13,783	17	378	344	119	244
Szechuen	21,292	20,403	30	735	—	19	91
Sikang	1,167	1,028	3	70	22	4	34
Honan	8,883	4,444	233	1,030	1,984	311	548
Shensi	8,073	7,228	12	100	571	9	94
Kansu	6,513	6,224	5	54	149	9	67
Fukien	4,948	3,944	1	302	311	206	93
Kwangtung	1,227	793	4	309	94	3	8
Kwangsi	78	2	—	17	18	—	41
Yunnan	7,219	6,857	46	151	146	3	11
Kweichow	9,265	8,204	10	150	840	6	55
Ninghsia	390	372	—	18	—	—	—
Suiyuan	11	—	—	—	10	—	1
Chungking	370	—	—	—	52	1	317
GRAND TOTAL	111,667	92,134	689	7,841	5,967	2,128	2,570
							380
							8

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

TABLE 12. CLASSIFICATION OF BUSINESS OF COOPERATIVES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES, 1942—contd.

Provinces or Municipality	Percentage						
	Total	Credit	Supply	Agricultural Production	Industrial Production	Transportation and Marketing	Insurance
Chekiang	100.0	39.3	3.6	44.0	3.9	6.7	0.1
Anhui	100.0	65.2	1.7	13.7	7.0	8.6	0.1
Kiangsi	100.0	79.1	0.7	2.1	8.4	4.3	0.1
Hupeh	100.0	72.3	0.1	22.8	0.9	2.1	—
Hunan	100.0	92.7	0.1	2.5	2.3	0.8	—
Szechuen	100.0	95.8	0.2	3.4	—	0.1	—
Sikang	100.0	88.2	0.3	5.9	1.9	0.3	—
Honan	100.0	50.1	2.6	11.6	22.3	3.5	0.1
Shensi	100.0	89.5	0.1	2.0	7.1	0.1	—
Kansu	100.0	95.9	0.1	0.8	2.8	0.1	—
Fukien	100.0	79.7	0.2	6.1	6.2	5.8	—
Kwangtung	100.0	64.6	0.3	25.2	7.7	0.2	0.1
Kwangsi	100.0	2.5	—	21.8	23.1	—	—
Yunnan	100.0	95.0	0.6	2.1	2.0	0.1	—
Kweichow	100.0	88.5	0.1	1.6	9.1	0.1	—
Ninghsia	100.0	95.4	—	4.6	—	—	—
Suiyuan	100.0	—	—	—	90.9	—	—
Chungking	100.0	—	—	—	14.0	0.1	—
GRAND TOTAL	100.0	82.4	0.6	7.0	5.5	1.8	0.1
						2.3	
						0.3	

NOTE: Statistics are based on monthly reports on cooperative enterprises submitted by different provinces and municipalities.

agency dispatches its staff members to various factories and producing centres to purchase daily necessities for distribution to the cooperatives in and around Chungking that supplied the needs of the public functionaries. It is seeking to increase its capital to \$7,000,000 with a view to expanding its distribution and marketing activities and to engaging in manufacture with better methods to improve the quality and reduce the cost of the commodities. The joint office of the cooperative commodities supplies agen-

cies and the cooperative factories under the auspices of the Third War Zone Economic Commission was taken over by the Ministry and reorganized as the southeast branch of the National Cooperative Commodities Supply Agency. The total worth of commodities purchased by the National Cooperative Commodities Supply Agency from the date of its establishment in 1941 to the end of 1942 was \$20,514,113.30 and the total worth of commodities distributed and marketed was \$21,957,031.80. Table 14 shows the progress of the agency's business.

TABLE 14. NATIONAL COOPERATIVE COMMODITIES SUPPLY AGENCY, BUREAU OF COOPERATIVES, MINISTRY OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS: GOODS PURCHASED AND DISTRIBUTED, 1941-1942

Date	Total Value of Purchased Goods	Total Value of Distributed Goods
Jan.-Dec., 1941	\$3,462,215.02	\$2,952,064.49
January, 1942	854,336.25	545,560.05
February, 1942	314,758.95	541,603.20
March, 1942	998,936.80	1,213,576.81
April, 1942	578,795.61	911,232.25
May, 1942	1,154,016.37	1,312,130.49
June, 1942	2,658,501.53	1,828,760.64
July, 1942	763,082.27	1,484,456.10
August, 1942	1,274,223.11	1,076,020.60
September, 1942	1,989,354.93	1,737,903.25
October, 1942	1,457,806.60	2,177,115.15
November, 1942	2,145,382.80	2,845,929.80
December, 1942	2,863,103.06	3,330,778.97
TOTAL	\$20,514,113.30	\$21,957,031.80

Cooperative commodities supply agencies for various cooperatives other than those organized by the Ministry of Social Affairs have been established in Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Szechuen, Honan, Sikang, Fukien, Kweichow, Shensi, Kwangtung, Suiyuan, Hupeh and Yunnan. They have played a major part in the stabilization

of commodity prices and improving the people's livelihood. Their effect upon the development of consumers' cooperatives was great. Statistics show that the number of consumers' cooperatives in 1942 was 2,570 as compared with 1,461 in 1940, showing an increase of 807 or 75.9%

The Ministry of Social Affairs has

also promoted agricultural and industrial producing and marketing cooperatives on the principles of increasing agricultural and industrial products, controlling their distribution and marketing and bettering their quality through the employment of scientific methods. Up till the end of January, 1942 there were 13,808 producing and 2,128 marketing cooperatives.

3. *Cooperative Finance.*—The Ministry of Social Affairs is planning to establish a Central Cooperative Treasury to be in charge of cooperative finance. The procedure for contracting cooperative loans will be simplified. Table 15 shows the distribution and classification of cooperative loans in various provinces and municipalities.

At the end of 1940 the total amount of shares of cooperatives was \$25,523,370 while at the end of 1942 it reached \$93,291,530, an increase of \$67,768,160 in one year and eight months.

Mobilization of Manpower.—In aid of national general mobilization the Bureau of Labour was set up in August, 1942 under the Ministry of Social Affairs. Its main functions are the investigation and registration of manpower throughout the country, conscription and control of technical men and skilled workers, and the popularization of the citizens' voluntary labour service. Its principal activities include: (1) establishment of circuitous registration stations in various important districts to investigate and record the distribution of manpower in various places as a preliminary step toward control of manpower, (2) distribution of questionnaires related to national general mobilization to various organizations, factories and mines to collect information about the kinds

and numbers of personnel wanted as a basis for replenishment, regulation and distribution, (3) regulation of the supply of manpower and restriction on its waste, (4) control over the appointment and dismissal of technical men and skilled workers and redistribution of personnel in accordance with individual service, and (5) promotion of citizens' voluntary labour service among people at their leisure, farmers in the slack farming season, youths, women and honour soldiers. The aim of labour service is to mobilize and utilize manpower to its fullest extent to meet the demands of armed resistance and national reconstruction, to cultivate the habit and spirit of diligence and service, to improve the physique and livelihood of the people and to tighten group training.

Training of Responsible Personnel.—

In view of the importance of well-trained responsible personnel, the Ministry of Social Affairs has undertaken the following forms of training:

1. *Training of Administrators.*—The Ministry summoned 427 staff members (above the "recommended" rank) of various provincial departments of social affairs and cooperative administrations, chiefs of the divisions of social affairs in the provincial departments of civil affairs, or of reconstruction, and chiefs of the divisions of social affairs in various hsien governments to undergo training in the Central Training Institute. After a period of training, they have been sent back to their posts and have proved to be more efficient than before.

2. *Training of Social Workers.*—The Ministry established in 1940 a Social Workers' Training Class. The first class trained 187 social workers, including 13 for the rural rehabilitation

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Province or Municipality	Unregistered Cooperatives			Mutual Aid Societies			Preparatory Cooperatives		
	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital	No. of Societies	No. of Members	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members		
Chekiang	1,107	343,416	\$623,113	—	—	—	—	—	
Anhui	—	—	—	275	33,210	—	—	—	
Kiangsi	—	—	—	276	43,884	—	—	—	
Hupeh	—	—	—	1,430	—	2,203	—	—	
Hunan	—	—	—	514	9,721	1,187	62,684	—	
Szechuen	556	43,707	88,264	—	—	699	44,315	—	
Sikang	102	7,820	15,240	—	—	—	—	—	
Honan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Shensi	27	1,360	2,720	2,153	75,501	511	26,978	—	
Kansu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Fukien	—	—	—	268	16,275	—	—	—	
Kwangtung	3,380	119,675	522,410	—	—	—	—	—	
Kwangsi	—	—	—	2,410	72,608	1,401	30,315	—	
Yunnan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Ningbala	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Salyuan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Chungking	7	2,904	119,363	—	—	—	—	—	
GRAND TOTAL	5,379	518,742	\$1,371,110	7,316	254,218	6,001	164,292	—	

TABLE 13. COOPERATIVES IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES, * 1942—*contd.*

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Provinces or Municipality	Chu Joint Cooperatives			Joint Cooperatives			Hsien Joint Cooperatives		
	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital	No. of Cooperatives	No. of Members	Capital
Chekiang	56	632	\$ 17,664	19	464	\$ 49,025			
Anhui	200	1,908	134,118	12	90	17,978			
Kiangsi	327	2,694	637,342	73	1,015	2,802,795			
Hupeh	67	1,017	103,710	4	115	29,620			
Hunan	15	274	8,593	4	149	16,967			
Szechuen	187	4,652	229,615	—	—	—			
Sikang	3	12	708	1	14	415			
Honan	31	398	16,620	1	48	1,340			
Shensi	7	130	8,120	10	404	44,540			
Kansu	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Fukien	170	2,269	104,100	12	123	82,376			
Kwangtung	1	11	1,600	2	23	10,000			
Kwangsi	—	—	—	4	31	21,980			
Yunnan	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Kweichow	28	586	34,140	20	1,443	1,001,570			
Ninghala	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Suiyuan	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Chungking	1	18	2,800	2	28	8,680			
GRAND TOTAL	1,093	14,601	\$1,299,130	164	3,047	\$4,086,616			

* Numbers of cooperatives and members in provinces in the war zones as registered previously are given below :

	Total	Chekiang	Hopei	Shantung	Shansi	Chahar	Nanking	Shanghai	Tsingtao	Waihaiwei
Number of Cooperatives	...	3,884	6,045	2,579	44	5	115	85	16	2
Number of Members	...	134,155	116,340	62,199	1,440	135	7,209	3,552	9,602	158

TABLE 15. COOPERATIVE LOANS IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES, 1942

Province or Municipality	Nature and Amount of Loans						
	Total (in \$)	Credit (in \$)	Supply (in \$)	Agricultural Production (in \$)	Industrial Production (in \$)	Distribution and Marketing (in \$)	Consump- tion (in \$)
Chekiang	25,187,160	1,311,153	1,767,303	13,967,975	989,006	1,642,184	3,013,972
Anhui	2,403,692	231,670	113,880	1,275,422	339,000	—	69,793
Kiangsi	6,940,156	1,402,175	79,817	358,935	2,268,883	879,084	216,760
Hubei	14,219,513	6,287,888	50,393	5,589,081	—	352,238	1,867,793
Hunan	55,543,091	28,093,364	30,710	26,339,945	679,922	148,150	97,151
Szechuen	65,034,728	—	—	—	—	—	251,000
Sikang	4,472,221	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan	13,286,903	2,710,760	—	—	70,000	—	—
Shensi	21,316,075	1,049,297	—	—	—	—	—
Kansu	29,182,967	25,592,206	30,000	599,700	1,150,250	3,700	332,870
Fukien	11,482,610	3,617,609	20,000	5,683,263	1,942,920	86,333	37,500
Kwangtung	43,878,719	1,814,390	—	34,143,877	3,619,766	90,000	90,164
Kwangsi	53,672,624	31,414,823	17,097,321	969,760	1,149,647	214,044	—
Yunnan	16,866,679	—	—	—	—	—	133,011
Kweichow	18,916,714	18,024,941	9,322	392,234	349,766	106,641	33,810
Ninghsia	1,885,515	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan	1,685,250	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chungking	1,719,891	—	—	—	449,391	—	—
GRAND TOTAL	387,694,457	121,460,276	19,207,746	99,806,335	13,008,471	3,722,224	7,249,341
						122,511	3,446,815
							119,669,758

movement, 97 for the labour movement and 74 for party work and social service. The second class began in July, 1941 with an enrolment of 103, including 45 of the staff members of the Ministry and its subordinate organizations and 58 college graduates specializing in social sciences. The third class which began in July, 1942 trained 326 men selected by competitive examinations or summoned from various subordinate organizations of the Ministry.

3. *Training of Cooperative Workers.* The National Cooperative Workers Training Institute has graduated more than 800 students after undergoing training in cooperative theory and practice for periods ranging from two to four months. Its special and service classes have graduated 526 students while its research classes which aim at training higher cooperative personnel has graduated 46 students after a training period of six months.

Survey and Statistics.—Since its establishment, the Ministry of Social Affairs has laid stress on social survey and statistics and formed a Bureau of Statistics. The following forms of survey and statistical work has been undertaken:

1. *Home Economy Survey.*—This survey was undertaken for the purpose of compiling index of the cost of living. A survey of the home economy conditions of workers was conducted in Chungking, Chengtu, Tzukung, Loshan, Neikiang, Wanhhsien, Sian, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Hengyang, Hsinhua, Kian, and Fouliang where 1,600 workers' homes were chosen as the object of survey. A survey of farmers' home economy conditions was meanwhile conducted in Kiangpei, Chung-

hsien, Luhsien, Wenkiang, Suining and Nanchung, all situated in Szechuen province. In Chungking, the wartime capital, surveys of home consumption of the people and the cost of living of workers and public functionaries were conducted and indexes were compiled. Other cities where indexes of the cost of living were compiled included Chengtu, Tzukung, Wanhhsien, Loshan, and Neikiang.

2. *Survey of Wages.*—A survey of wages was conducted simultaneously by the Ministry in those hsien where a home economy survey was undertaken. In Chungking wages of workers of 14 trades were surveyed: namely, rickshaw pullers, cart drivers, sedan chair carriers, boatmen, ferrymen, wharf coolies, carpenters, stone workers, masons, water carriers, machine workers, printers, flour millers, and weavers. The survey was made by investigators dispatched by the Ministry and the findings were compiled into wage indexes.

3. *Social Survey.*—Social survey was undertaken in the rural reconstruction experimental districts in Chengtu and Sanchia on the Kialing River. It was under two categories: general survey and survey on special topics. General survey comprised environs, politics, population, land, agriculture, mines, commerce, industry, currency, communications, education, health, policing, religion, customs, entertainments, and social abnormality. Survey on special topics included people's organization, social relief, labour conditions and living standard.

Research and Planning.—Research in social conditions and problems is an important task in social administration. Since China is in a stage of social rebuilding, careful research and planning

by sociologists and social administrators are necessary. After its transfer under the Executive Yuan, the Ministry of Social Affairs invited noted sociologists and experts to form a Social Administrative Planning Committee. A research section was formed under the committee to study various social problems and draw up social programs. Other research committees on population policy, labour policy, child welfare, social personnel system, and social relief were formed. More than 70 programs, projects and policies were drawn up and enforced. As reference material a series on social administration, including such subjects as social policy, people's organization, social welfare, social work and cooperative enterprises was compiled.

LEGISLATION FOR SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

In accordance with the high ideals of social reconstruction and policies in the *San Min Chu I* and taking cognizance of the actual social conditions of this country as well as the social tendency in various countries, the Ministry of Social Affairs has drawn up and promulgated more than 100 laws and regulations on people's organization and training, social welfare, cooperative enterprises, and mobilization of manpower. Important ones are listed below:

1. Organic law of the Ministry of Social Affairs.
2. Organic law of the bureau of cooperatives of the Ministry of Social Affairs.
3. Organic law of the labour bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs.
4. Organic law of the provincial department of social affairs.

5. Provisional regulations governing social administration by the municipal government.
6. Organic law of the provincial cooperative administrations.
7. Organic law of cooperative units under the hsien.
8. Organic law for people's organizations in emergency time.
9. Regulations governing compulsory entry for members into professional organizations and restrictions on their withdrawal in emergency time.
10. Regulations governing the administration of labour unions in emergency time.
11. Regulations governing the administration of industrial and commercial organizations in emergency time.
12. Measures for supervising charity organizations.
13. Regulations governing employees' welfare funds.
14. Measures for the stabilization of wages.
15. Regulations governing employment service.
16. Fundamentals for social service.
17. Provisional measures for the encouragement of social welfare.
18. Cooperative law.
19. Measures for the advancement of cooperation in agricultural production.
20. Measures for the advancement of cooperation in industrial production.
21. Measures for the advancement of cooperation in consumption.
22. Measures for the advancement of cooperation in distribution and marketing.

EDUCATION

KU YU-HSIU¹ (顧毓琇)

ATOX in China has been making considerable progress during the past five years. This progress has assumed its full swing since 1940 as numerous projects have been formulated and many cultural and educational institutions have been reestablished. The readjustment of curricula, the redistribution of educational institutions, the improvement in the method of teaching and the training of teachers, the formation of educational districts, the inauguration of the National Council of Higher Learning, and the addition of the Division of Cultural Relations in the Ministry of Education—these and other steps indicate that education in China has been gradually approaching its ideal goal. The new institutions thus created and the emergency placement of teachers and students not only meet wartime needs but also help solve numerous cultural and social problems. The triple emphasis on character cultivation, intellectual accomplishment and physical training enables the youths of the country to enjoy a balanced development. In fact, Chinese education is achieving coordination between theory and actual life. The following is a brief account of the achievements of the Ministry of Education and the progress of the different grades of educational institutions during the past two years.

I. HIGHER EDUCATION

Immediately before the Lukouchiao incident, there were in China 108

¹ Vice-Minister of Education.

institutions of higher education with 7,560 faculty and staff members and 41,922 students. In the year 1937-1938, the number dropped to 91 institutions, 5,657 faculty members and 31,188 students. After three years of rebuilding, the number of institutions went up to 113 in the year 1940-1941, while the total number of students increased to 52,376. At present, there are altogether 132 institutions of higher education, among which 40 are universities, 45 independent colleges, and 47 technical schools. The number of students in these 132 institutions in the year 1941-1942 was 57,832. In 1936, the annual expenditure of these institutions was \$39,275,386, national currency; in 1937, the sum was reduced to \$30,431,556; but it was raised to \$58,296,680 in the academic year of 1940-1941 and \$91,196,550 in the academic year of 1941-1942.

The outstanding reforms and improvements of higher education may be stated under the following headings:

A. Innovations and Reforms of the System of Higher Education.—One of the most important innovations is the establishment of national teachers' colleges. In order to train better teachers for secondary schools, the Ministry of Education started to set up national teachers' colleges in 1938. At present there are altogether nine teachers' colleges in the country; five being affiliated respectively with the

National Central University, National Southwest Associated University, National Sun Yat-sen University, National Chekiang University, and National Szechuen University; while the other four being independent colleges located at Chengku, Shensi province; Lantien, Hunan province; Kweiyang, Kweichow province; and Peisha, Szechuen province respectively. The one at Peisha is a college for girls. The students in the teachers' colleges receive five years' training. After having completed the required courses of study each student receives a bachelor's degree and a teacher's certificate which qualifies him or her to teach in secondary schools.

As to technical education, the period of training has, since 1938, been prolonged from two or three years to five years, the qualification for admittance being extended to graduates from junior middle schools. This reform was introduced because the former two or three years' technical training proved to be insufficient for the graduates to practise with competence. At present there are a number of technical schools of music, art, veterinary science, sericulture, agriculture, and engineering, experimenting the five year system.

Formally there were some regulations governing the qualifications, treatment, protection, and examination of the teaching personnel of the institutions of higher education, but these were not put into practice. In 1939 the Ministry of Education again promulgated a set of regulations and in 1940 it authorized the National Council of Higher Learning to examine carefully all the teaching personnel in the various institutions with reference to their qualifications and readjust their treatment accordingly.

Other measures for improving the social status and material conditions of the faculty and staff members were also adopted. Up to the end of 1941, 2,559 faculty members were examined by the council.

The Chung-Cheng Scholarship established in 1940 in honour of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek is the first national scholarship established by the Government for promising but poor youths to receive university education. This scholarship together with the scholarship established in the following year in honour of Chairman Lin Sen of the National Government and the multifarious loans and scholarships for students whose families are in the war areas have enabled a large number of penniless youths to continue their education.

B. Raising of the Standard of the Institutions of Higher Education.

This problem has been tackled from various angles. In 1938, well-recognized authorities in different fields of learning were invited by the Ministry of Education to survey and examine the curricula of the different universities and to devise a common curriculum for all universities. This standard curriculum, which sets out the required courses of study for every student but provides elasticity for individual and local conditions and differences, was completed and proclaimed in 1938 and has been since adopted by all the universities. After five years' experimentation, it will be further revised in order to meet future needs and changes.

Among other measures taken by the Ministry to raise the standard of higher education, the more important ones are the compilation of texts and reference books for university uses, the

investigation into the students' scholastic attainments and records, the competitive examinations among students throughout the country and the co-ordination of university education and the work of national reconstruction.

C. Encouragement of Post-Graduate Study and Research Work.

Post-graduate study and research work has shown remarkable progress since the beginning of the war. Firstly, both the research departments in the universities and the research students have increased in numbers. Prior to the war China had 26 research departments in 12 universities. Now facilities for post-graduate work are offered at 76 research departments belonging to 20 universities, not mentioning the independent institutes such as the Academia Sinica, National Research Institute of Peiping, Fan Memorial Research Institute, etc. In 1937 there were only 20 students in the university research departments; in 1939 there were 144; and in 1940 there were 284. To all these research departments and students, government grants and subsidies are annually granted. Secondly, private research work carried on by individual professors and instructors, in spite of great difficulties incurred by the war, has been steadily kept on. In 1938, the Ministry of Education issued a series of orders and regulations to encourage such work. In response to the call 20 universities submitted 210 dissertations on various subjects for examination. Thirdly, the National Council of Higher Learning was inaugurated in the spring of 1940 as the highest authority in the supervision, direction and coordination of research work in the country. Since its establishment, this council has passed a number of

important resolutions concerning higher education and has already made definite contributions in elevating the cultural and educational level of the country. Fourthly, private cultural and educational organizations have also been developed and strengthened. Before the war there were some 150 private cultural organizations registered with the Ministry. Since then these private organizations have steadily increased in number, and the Ministry has been giving them support in various ways. For instance, since 1938, the Ministry has been granting annual appropriations for private cultural organizations. Today most such organizations are receiving either annual allowances or special aids. Lastly, the Ministry also encourages noteworthy writings, scientific inventions and creative work of arts. In 1941, the Ministry allotted an appropriation of \$100,000 to be used as prizes for such works done by private individuals. Up to the end of that year, over 500 pieces of work have been sent to the Ministry for examination.

D. International Intellectual Cooperation.

Since the outbreak of the Pacific war, international cultural cooperation has attained an unprecedented importance among the United Nations, and various measures have been taken for the consolidation of their cultural front. The exchange of goodwill missions, professors, students, books, magazines and films, the organization of cultural campaigns, and the widening of publicity scopes all indicate the growing realization of the importance of cultural cooperation as an instrument of modern warfare. In this respect, China has also done her part, for early in May, 1940, the

Division of Cultural Relations was set up under the Ministry of Education for the accomplishment of this goal. Among some of the main activities undertaken by this division are the exchange of professors, students, books and periodicals with the United States, Great Britain, India, Burma and other countries; the establishment of contact with some 316 institutions of higher learning in 16 countries; the organization of goodwill missions; the interchange with the educational authorities in friendly countries of views and opinions concerning intellectual cooperation; and the project for the publication of "The International Series," which will include outstanding translations and original writings in various languages along different lines.

II. SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education consists of three kinds of schools—the middle schools, the normal schools and the vocational schools. According to the nature of their administration and the source of their income, the middle schools and the vocational schools are either public or private, but all the normal schools are maintained and controlled by the Government. In 1936-1937, there were 3,264 secondary schools in China. In the next year, as a result of the war, the number dropped to 1,896. In 1941-1942, however, we have altogether 2,819 secondary schools, which include 2,099 public and private middle schools, 383 normal schools and 337 vocational schools.

Before the war, all the public middle schools were maintained and controlled by the provincial, municipal or district governments; there were no national schools. In order to meet

wartime needs, the Ministry of Education has, since 1938, established 25 national middle schools under its direct control. These schools are distributed over the provinces of Szechuen, Kweichow, Hunan, Shansi, Kansu, Hupeh, Shensi, Anhwei and Suiyuan. In the past, middle schools, like the institutions of higher education, were not evenly distributed in the country: some provinces were overcrowded with schools while others were badly in need of them. To remedy this situation, the Ministry ordered each province to be divided into several middle school districts in accordance with the size of population, financial conditions, cultural level and communication facilities. It is hoped that a more rational distribution of middle schools will soon be accomplished.

Other measures of reform have also been put into effect in the middle schools. The straight six-year system, introduced in 1940, was to remedy the shortcomings of the division of middle schools into senior and junior grades. The tutorial system has been widely enforced as a means to improve school discipline. Patriotism, loyalty, faithfulness, diligence and perseverance are among some of the fundamental virtues taught in the schools, and military training, scouting, manual labour, and wartime service, which are required of all students, are employed to cultivate these virtues. Administrative functionaries and curriculum have also been improved and schools libraries and laboratories replenished with respect to wartime needs.

Vocational education, another part of secondary education, aims at building up a sound middle cadre for the professions and industries. Of the 337 vocational schools, five are directly

under the control of the Ministry. A number of special classes and short courses have, since the war, been opened which give training in mechanics, electrical communications, metal work, chemical engineering, automobile repairing, dyeing and tanning, etc. There are now 60 mechanical and electrical training classes with an enrolment of 3,000 students and 26 one-year short courses in various trades with 3,290 graduates. Moreover, attempts have been made to add productive courses to the middle school curriculum. In the junior middle schools courses are given in handiwork, woodwork, simple gardening and farming, while in the senior middle schools students are taught blacksmithery, farming, foundry, and other related subjects. The results are quite satisfactory.

As to the third part of China's secondary education, there are in the country 374 normal schools with an enrolment of 78,342 students. These schools may be classified into normal schools, simplified normal schools, rural normal schools, and simplified rural normal schools, besides a number of short training classes. With the exception of five national normal schools, the rest are financed by provincial, municipal or hsien governments.

Since 1927 when the Ministry of Education promulgated a series of plans for the improvement of normal education, making the normal schools independent, normal education in China has grown rapidly. After the outbreak of the war, normal schools suffered the same fate as other educational institutions. The Government, however, has tried every means to maintain them. In May 1938, for instance, the Ministry ordered the

provinces to investigate into the conditions of normal education, to open at least one normal school or one rural normal school in each district, to make tentative schemes for the better treatment and protection of primary school teachers, and to draw up a plan of normal education for a number of years. Before the end of 1940, the provinces of Kweichow, Yunnan, Szechuen, Hunan, Kwangsi, Sikang, Chinghai and Ninghsia responded to this order and submitted their plans to the Ministry for approval. Last year the Ministry promulgated five more regulations for the purpose of improving the quality and increasing the number of primary school teachers:

1. The period of service for the graduates of the normal schools is fixed at three years.
2. Normal school graduates should be distributed for work in different hsien by the provincial or municipal authorities.
3. The period for the postponement of service is limited to not more than two years.
4. The graduates of normal schools who have lost their posts on grounds which cannot be justified should be given back their posts or assigned to others.
5. The graduates of normal schools are not permitted to enter schools of higher learning until after they have completed their service for at least one year with distinctive accomplishment, and the graduates of the junior normal schools may only enter the normal schools, while the graduates of normal schools may only enter the teachers' colleges.

III. PEOPLE'S EDUCATION

People's education aims at educating children and illiterate adults of both sexes. Early in the summer of 1935, the Government promulgated a comprehensive program for compulsory education for school-age children. According to the plan, over 40% of the entire number of school-age children would receive one year's compulsory education by the end of 1939; more than 80% would receive two years' compulsory education by the end of 1944; and all the illiterates would become literate citizens by the end of 1949. This program was launched in 1935 and was advocated by the Central and local governments, which cooperated in raising the funds required. In 1935 alone, there were established 25,901 part-time schools and 35,174 ordinary primary schools with 11,974 supplementary classes attached to the former. Besides, 211 grades were added with 775 two-division elementary classes attached; and there were 129 simplified elementary schools, 11 groups of visiting teachers and more than 3,841,930 pupils. In the following year, 38,117 part-time schools and 13,267 ordinary primary schools were established with 21,444 part-time supplementary classes and 1,916 two-division classes attached. In addition, 161 new simplified primary schools were founded and 736 groups of visiting teachers and 4,405,291 pupils were added. The sum total of primary schools attendance in that year was 21,433,334. Had it not been for the war, the plan would have been fulfilled as originally set out. Unfortunately the war interrupted its enforcement.

In March 1940, however, a new five-year plan for people's education

was promulgated. According to this plan, there should be during the first two years at least one people's school in every three *pao*—a civic and military unit for both peace and war times, consisting of from six to 15 *chia*, which again consists of from six to 15 families. Each people's school is composed of three divisions: for men, women and children. In this way there was to be more than 260,000 people's schools for the 800,000 *pao* of the country at the end of the first two years. During the next two years there should be at least one people's school in every two *pao*; and in the fifth and last year there was to be at least 800,000 people's schools for the 800,000 *pao* of the country, besides 80,000 or more nucleus or village schools and 200,000 schools of similar grades now existing to provide education for at least 90% of the children of school age. At present certain provinces have already succeeded in establishing one or even two people's schools in each *pao*. In 1941, there were 138,073 people's schools, 18,510 nucleus schools, and 75,562 other schools of primary grade, making a total of 232,145 schools of elementary education with an enrolment of 22,424,884 pupils. It is hoped that the 171,376,224 illiterate adults at the present time will become intelligent citizens within the coming four years.

IV. SOCIAL EDUCATION

Social education aims at the examination of adult illiterates and the intellectual enlightenment of the masses. It enables the people to read and write; it imparts to them common sense and general knowledge for their daily life; and it inculcates them moral principles so that they may

become useful and good citizens. Public libraries, public reading centres, continuation schools, asylums, orphanages, art galleries, museums, theatres, public lectures, exhibitions, concerts, broadcasts, circuit carts and troupes are some of the means to realize this end. The task is tremendous and expensive. During the year 1939-1940, the Government spent \$11,205,095 for the social educational institutions in the provinces. The main activities may be classified into four categories:

A. Supplementary Education for Illiterates.—In 1939, the Ministry of Education inaugurated a program of wartime supplementary education for the masses, laying special emphasis on reading, writing and civic training. Several provinces carried out the program with fruitful results. For instance, the year of 1939 was called "the year for adult education" in the province of Kwangsi, which made the resolve to eradicate its 1,860,000 illiterates within that year. Today the remaining illiterates numbered 171,000,000, about 38% of the entire population.

B. Preparation of Reading Material for the Masses.—Of the wartime public reading matter which the Ministry of Education undertook to compile, 44 volumes have been published so far. It has also edited and published a series, called "The People's Library," of which about 300 volumes have been distributed to social and cultural institutions all over the country.

C. Dramatic and Musical Education for the Masses.—Music and play are two of the best devices for educating the masses. The Experimental Circuit Singing Corps and the Experimental

Circuit Dramatic Corps, organized in 1939, have been very successful in spreading general knowledge and information among the people. A short training course was opened by the Ministry of Education in 1939 to train music teachers to work among the masses, and more than 40 persons were graduated from this class, who are now doing splendid work at various places. The National School of Drama is an institution to train talents for the stage as well as to provide healthy recreation for the people.

D. Cinematographical Education.—Radio and films are effective instruments in educating the populace. In order to make possible the extensive use of electrical instruments, efforts are being made in diverse directions. Not only educational films are often shown, but good music, patriotic songs, talks and lectures on different topics are also frequently broadcast. Thousands of radio sets have been distributed in the provinces, and a dry cell factory was opened in cooperation with the University of Nanking to supply them with batteries.

The establishment of a system of institutions for social education throughout the country is a project cherished by the Ministry of Education. From the national capital down to the small village, there ought to be everywhere adequate institutions for social education. Every *pao* should have one people's school and every village or town one nucleus school to act as a cultural centre. In every district or *hsien* there should be a people's centre of education to co-ordinate all the works of social education in that district or *hsien*; and in every province there should be a large number of people's education

centres, public libraries, science halls, arts galleries, museums, public playgrounds, circuit teaching corps, and the like to assist and supplement the work of the hsien. The Central Government should also set up such institutions with better equipments and administration so that social education throughout the country may rapidly progress.

In order to accomplish this program, training of competent workers is indispensable. To meet this need, the National College of Social Education has recently been established at Pishan, a district near Chungking, where ample training for social educational personnel has been given.

V. EDUCATION FOR THE FRONTIER DISTRICTS

Much to our regret, education in China's frontier districts has long been neglected. In 1929 the Ministry of Education defined for the first time its policy in regard to frontier education. In 1940 it was revised to meet the war situation. According to this revised policy, the chief purpose of frontier education is the unification of the cultures of the different peoples in China. According to the program, the frontier elementary school is to emphasize the training of citizenship, national language, hygiene and vocations; the frontier secondary school is to pay special attention to the development of technical abilities and a clear understanding of our nation and culture; while the frontier school of higher education aims at the training of leadership and technical personnel for national reconstruction.

During the last two decades, frontier education has been steadily progressing. Many competent workers have

been trained and have gone far into the remote districts to work for the promotion of the cultures of the different peoples in the comparatively backward districts. In the summer of 1941, several universities in Chengtu organized an expedition to the border districts in northwestern Szechuen to investigate into the cultures of the peoples there. This expedition was financed and directed by the Ministry of Education and achieved excellent results. This year, the Ministry of Education is planning to send out a number of teachers to Sinkiang to help the local schools. These are but some of the instances showing the attention and enthusiasm we now have for the education of our border land. At present, besides private institutions, we have in the remote border districts five normal schools, four vocational schools and a number of elementary schools all established and financed by the Ministry of Education. Mention should also be made of the School of Frontier Education of the Central Political Institute and the several universities which offer special education for students from the frontier areas.

VI. EDUCATION FOR OVERSEAS CHINESE

Overseas Chinese education is under the joint direction of the Ministry of Education and the Overseas Affairs Commission under the Executive Yuan. In 1940 they decided (1) to establish national overseas Chinese secondary schools; (2) to inaugurate an overseas Chinese education planning committee; (3) to improve overseas Chinese education at Hongkong and Macao; (4) to form a committee for organizing an overseas Chinese educa-

tion association; and (5) to give facilities to overseas youths who come back to the fatherland for education. The government appropriation for overseas Chinese education in 1940 amounted to \$200,000. In 1941 another appropriation of \$1,000,000 was given.

For the 8,000,000¹ overseas Chinese scattered over some 50 countries and dominions on five continents, there are altogether 3,231 colleges and schools. In China all the educational institutions are open to the overseas Chinese who come back for education. The National Chunan University, National Sun Yat-sen University, National Amoy University, University of Canton, Kuomin University of Kwangtung, Lingnan University, Yenching University and University of Nanking have always had some students coming from the overseas.

Since the fall of Hongkong, Singapore and Rangoon, thousands of overseas youths have come back to China and special efforts have been made to enable them to continue their education. At present there are for them three middle schools, one at Tsunyi, Kweichow province, one at Chikiang, Szechuen province, and one at Kwangtung province; and two national normal schools, one at Changting, Fukien province and one in Kwangtung province.

VII. MEDICAL EDUCATION

In 1940, the Ministry of Education reorganized its Commission on Medical Education and consolidated its seven committees on midwifery, nursing, dentistry, pharmacology, Chinese medicine, health education and medical compilation and supervision. A

five-year plan was launched, according to which the first half of the five years is to be devoted to the readjustment of existing medical institutions and the establishment of medical research institutes for the training of teaching personnel, and during the next half of the period, additional medicine institutions are to be opened and the student enrolment enlarged. At present there are in China 22 medical colleges, eight medical schools and classes, five schools of pharmacy, three schools of dentistry, 22 schools of midwifery, and 317 schools of nursing. The annual appropriation for medical education is more than \$3,000,000.

VIII. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physical education aims at the parallel development of body and mind. Since physical education was made a required study of every student between the age of seven and 18, the health of the entire people has been considerably improved. This is evidenced by the fact that the average height of the Chinese population during the last 30 years has shown an increase of one inch and that no less than 95% of our military pilots are men who have received sound physical education in schools. During recent years, special endeavour has been made to encourage and popularize physical education such as the establishment of the National School of Physical Education at Kiangching, Szechuen, the enforcement of boy scouts and girl guides training in all the primary and secondary schools, the enforcement of military drill in the senior middle schools and universities, the encouragement given to systematic study of Chinese boxing and other sorts of physical

¹ *Supra*, p. 123.

exercises, the popularization of physical education among the masses by means of contests and organized hikes, rambles and other kinds of competitive exercises, the enlarged program for health education, and the inauguration of the Gliders' Association. During the last four years, more than 700 students have been graduated from different schools and classes of physical education. At present there are 524 students majoring in physical education in the universities and colleges.

IX. MUSICAL EDUCATION

In ancient China, great attention was paid to the education of music. As a matter of fact, music was deemed one of the fundamental rudiments of education. Unfortunately, however, they have been overlooked in the course of time. Recently a re-awakened recognition of the value of music in education prompted the authorities to make new attempts to restore their proper place in modern education. Consequently, the Ministry of Education set up the Commission on Musical Education to perform this significant task. This commission is composed of educators and trained musicians in both Chinese and Western music and is divided into four sections, namely, educational, editorial, research and social.

The educational section deals chiefly with school music. Enquiries were made some years ago into the methods and materials of school music teaching, and subsequently music curriculum for elementary and secondary schools were revised to suit the present war conditions. School choruses were organized and simple musical instru-

ments, like the mandolin and flute, were introduced in instrumental music in schools. Plans and projects for the training of music teachers were also drafted.

The editorial section undertakes to compile music literature. Eight books are at present being printed—Chinese Ceremonial Song Book, Chinese Military Song Book, Chinese Modern Song Selections, Chinese Song Selections Through the Dynasties, Chinese Instrumental Music Album, Chinese Alma Mater Song Book, Chinese Folk Song Selections and Famous Songs of the World. The commission has published a music periodical entitled "Yueh Feng," which means "The Music Trends."

The research section is located in Kunming, Yunnan. Its purpose is to study and collect music of the primitive tribes in the Southwest. A comprehensive index of music publications throughout all dynasties has already been started by this section. Moreover, a committee of musicians and scholars has been appointed to write a book entitled "Introduction to Chinese Music."

The social section works on music education for the general public. Its activities are manifold: organizing travelling choruses, giving concerts to the public, and sponsoring weekly broadcasts on patriotic and classical music.

For the training of music talents, facilities are offered at three national colleges of music; namely, National College of Music at Ching Mu Kuan, Chungking; National School of Music at Shanghai; and National Fukien School of Music at Yungan, Fukien; and also at two colleges of liberal arts which have music departments.

X. STATISTICS

A. Comparative Statistics on Higher Education, 1936-1942.

1. NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Year	Universities and Independent Colleges		Technical Schools		Total
	Government	Private	Government	Private	
1936-1937	36	42	19	11	108
1937-1938	20	38	15	9	91
1938-1939	32	38	18	9	97
1939-1940	36	37	20	8	101
1940-1941	41	39	21	12	113
1941-1942	48	37	33	14	132

2. NUMBER OF FACULTY AND STAFF, STUDENTS AND GRADUATES

Year	Faculty and Staff	Students	Graduates
1936-1937	7,560	41,922	9,154
1937-1938	5,657	31,188	5,137
1938-1939	6,079	36,180	5,085
1939-1940	6,514	44,422	5,622
1940-1941	7,598	52,370	7,710
1941-1942	—	57,832	—

3. ANNUAL EXPENDITURES

Year	Amount
1936-1937	\$39,275,336
1937-1938	30,431,556
1938-1939	31,125,068
1939-1940	37,348,870
1940-1941	58,296,680
1941-1942	91,196,550

EDUCATION

B. Comparative Statistics on Secondary Education, 1937-1942.

1. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

Year	Middle	Vocational	Normal	Total
1936-1937	1,956	494	814	3,264
1937-1938	1,240	292	301	1,833
1938-1939	1,246	250	312	1,808
1939-1940	1,652	287	339	2,278
1940-1941	1,900	332	374	2,606
1941-1942	2,099	347	383	2,829

2. FACULTY AND STAFF

Year	Middle	Vocational	Normal	Total
1936-1937	41,180	8,645	10,222	60,047
1937-1938	23,505	4,844	5,148	33,497
1938-1939	28,028	4,619	5,693	38,340
1939-1940	29,491	4,811	5,812	40,114
1940-1941	39,199	6,278	6,973	52,450

3. NUMBER OF STUDENTS

Year	Middle	Vocational	Normal	Total
1936-1937	482,522	56,822	87,002	626,346
1937-1938	309,563	31,592	48,793	389,948
1938-1939	380,000	31,897	56,679	468,576
1939-1940	524,395	38,977	59,431	622,803
1940-1941	642,688	47,503	78,342	768,533

4. NUMBER OF GRADUATES

Year	Middle	Vocational	Normal	Total
1936-1937	76,804	10,294	24,102	111,200
1937-1938	48,267	7,023	9,396	64,686
1938-1939	52,532	6,618	11,200	70,350
1939-1940	64,285	5,644	12,478	82,407
1940-1941	83,978	7,329	18,964	110,271

EDUCATION

5. ANNUAL EXPENDITURES

Year	Middle	Vocational	Normal	Total
1936-1937	\$41,453,700	\$8,730,591	\$10,851,224	\$61,035,515
1937-1938	20,866,634	4,217,857	5,312,267	30,396,758
1938-1939	24,615,400	4,340,550	5,691,929	34,647,885
1939-1940	32,027,520	5,464,554	7,397,214	44,889,288
1940-1941	35,138,753	11,015,002	15,550,164	61,703,919

C. Statistics on Elementary Education, 1941-1942.

1. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

Provinces and Municipalities	Pro	Nucleus Schools	People's Schools	Other Schools	Total
Szechuen	61,819	4,037	31,379	—	97,235
Kweichow	15,123	502	957	2,873	19,455
Yunnan	14,367	1,001	3,070	6,964	25,302
Kwangsi	23,092	2,541	19,297	3	44,933
Kwangtung	91,926	2,065	8,906	5,275	108,172
Fukien	15,400	1,441	4,384	467	21,692
Chekiang	42,817	1,291	7,031	—	51,139
Kiangsi	22,070	471	2,557	17,013	42,111
Hunan	20,126	1,679	22,639	6,275	50,719
Hupeh	36,806	466	8,467	—	45,739
Honan	10,400	1,505	12,712	—	24,617
Shensi	7,377	915	11,470	1,397	19,759
Kansu	7,055	517	4,834	168	12,574
Anhui	—	—	—	7,589	7,589
Sikang	—	—	—	1,196	1,196
Sinkiang	—	—	—	1,387	1,387
Chinghai	—	—	—	1,152	1,152
Ninghsia	—	52	310	8	370
Shansi	—	—	—	8,450	8,450
Suiyuan	—	—	—	589	589
Chahar	—	—	—	97	97
Hopei	—	—	—	114	114
Shantung	—	—	—	6,451	6,451
Kiangsu	—	—	—	7,030	7,030
Chungking	772	27	45	34	878
Shanghai	—	—	—	1,040	1,040
TOTAL	377,368	18,510	138,073	75,562	599,513

EDUCATION

3. ANNUAL EXPENDITURE ON SECONDARY EDUCATION

Provinces	1936-1937	1937-1938	1938-1939	1939-1940	1940-1941
Ninghsia	\$ 121,928	\$ 71,993	\$ 6,178	\$ 8,412	\$ 252,858
Kansu	1,565,319	608,252	687,501	709,955	1,876,856
Chinghai	163,488	114,209	106,410	59,413	407,124
Sinkiang	255,206	411,433	419,773	419,773	—
Sikang	78,387	59,922	336,458	467,525	1,045,718
Yunnan	731,361	750,013	1,315,983	2,324,173	4,607,060
Kweichow	618,816	764,878	819,157	842,600	2,155,539
Kwangsi	1,218,529	1,439,769	3,268,554	3,620,707	4,845,449

4. ANNUAL EXPENDITURES ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Provinces	1936-1937	1937-1938	1938-1939	1939-1940	1940-1941
Ninghsia	\$ 272,991	\$ 210,815	\$ 241,331	\$ 333,483	\$ 145,728
Kansu	439,674	800,784	1,182,129	1,353,900	1,890,653
Chinghai	210,124	211,149	317,397	358,644	808,653
Sinkiang	140,338	728,902	617,416	—	—
Sikang	59,417	89,495	314,104	583,783	1,228,341
Yunnan	2,961,950	3,081,341	3,600,084	3,124,008	14,031,500
Kweichow	1,139,410	1,333,610	1,374,238	1,801,075	5,050,575
Kwangsi	7,061,778	6,813,273	8,992,543	3,847,697	4,960,857

F. Statistics on Educational Relief Work.

1. NUMBER OF FACULTY AND STAFF WHO REGISTERED FOR RELIEF AND WERE GIVEN RELIEF FUNDS OR ASSIGNED WORKS

Year	University and College Faculties	Middle School Teachers	Elementary School Teachers	Educational Administrators	Social Education Workers	Total
1938	390	5,416	8,467	60	1,343	15,666
1939	508	5,994	9,500	65	1,788	17,855
1940	599	6,131	9,797	65	2,007	18,599
1941	637	6,200	10,063	66	2,053	19,019

EDUCATION

2. NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO REGISTERED FOR RELIEF AND WERE SENT TO SCHOOLS AND GIVEN RELIEF FUNDS

Year	University and College Students	Secondary School Students	Students Studying Abroad	Returned Students	Total
1938	3,216	25,082	245	—	29,143
1939	3,825	36,393	543	170	40,931
1940	4,777	48,270	678	214	53,937
1941	5,156	52,160	792	224	58,332

3. SPECIAL CLASSES FOR STUDENTS FROM WAR AREAS

Classes	No. of Teachers	No. of Students
Chungking Continuation Class	50	672
Loyang Continuation Class	64	788
Southeastern Continuation Class	55	895
Agricultural Class	40	168
Industrial Class	35	212
Accounting and Auditing Class	39	254

EDUCATION

2. NUMBER OF PUPILS

Provinces and Municipalities	Nucleus Schools		People's Schools		Other Schools	Total
	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	
Szechuen ...	1,149,160	455,164	2,278,651	1,243,704	317	5,117,396
Kweichow ...	79,926	45,900	73,731	139,308	213,801	552,066
Yunnan ...	165,940	76,640	255,460	216,120	273,907	979,067
Kwangsi ...	340,944	54,548	1,235,288	274,950	685	1,906,415
Kwangtung ...	241,490	107,659	390,167	229,886	422,796	1,391,908
Fukien ...	183,472	—	185,499	384,548	76,942	827,461
Chekiang ...	—	—	959,687	—	24,303	983,990
Kiangsi ...	83,266	34,869	102,280	135,902	754,259	1,112,576
Hunan ...	188,336	94,588	1,024,724	312,760	285,514	1,905,922
Hupeh ...	102,526	76,560	677,360	677,360	8,459	1,542,265
Honan ...	397,678	55,954	1,383,722	247,950	32,804	2,118,088
Shensi ...	136,317	37,314	517,792	973,685	80,792	1,745,900
Kansu ...	73,502	28,292	196,405	74,863	15,055	389,017
Anhui ...	—	—	—	—	435,740	435,740
Sikang ...	—	—	—	—	67,729	67,729
Sinkiang ...	—	—	—	—	101,460	101,460
Chinghai ...	—	—	—	—	65,002	65,002
Ninghsia ...	10,466	—	24,440	—	816	35,722
Shansi ...	—	—	—	—	280,701	280,701
Suliyuan ...	—	—	—	—	4,833	4,833
Chahar ...	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hopei ...	—	—	—	—	4,860	4,860
Shantung ...	—	—	—	—	267,412	267,412
Kiangsu ...	—	—	—	—	374,416	374,416
Chungking ...	10,705	—	6,087	—	8,370	26,062
Shanghai ...	—	—	—	—	188,177	188,177
TOTAL ...	3,156,728	1,058,488	9,411,593	4,908,016	3,990,659	22,424,884

D. Comparative Statistics on Social Education Expenditures, 1936-1941

Provinces and Municipalities	1936-1937	1937-1938	1938-1939	1939-1940	1940-1941
Kiangsu ...	\$ 707,400	—	—	—	—
Chekiang ...	306,229	\$ 375,123	\$ 55,935	\$ 165,768	\$ 438,921
Anhui ...	143,910	—	—	—	106,771
Kiangsi ...	181,562	—	—	—	270,224
Hupeh ...	158,114	275,058	34,405	32,383	2,000,000

EDUCATION

Hunan ...	158,286	160,243	86,264	99,050	—
Fukien ...	260,126	175,047	117,270	1,239,892	93,682
Kwangtung ...	217,731	—	—	—	—
Kwangsi ...	408,260	—	—	—	421,367
Shensi ...	138,012	131,088	65,664	74,856	99,350
Shansi ...	55,756	127,507	328,600	270,925	—
Honan ...	97,906	—	—	—	—
Hopei ...	110,583	—	—	—	—
Shantung ...	215,197	—	—	—	—
Ninghsia ...	—	2,214	1,107	5,101	18,357
Suliyuan ...	26,457	—	—	—	—
Sikang ...	2,860	—	—	—	145,108
Yunnan ...	41,675	—	—	—	—
Kansu ...	39,527	17,315	7,797	56,880	61,067
Chinghai ...	7,657	2,545	1,263	9,545	5,658
Szechuen ...	130,900	191,300	122,500	254,860	—
Kweichow ...	53,718	60,056	30,028	151,216	240,017
Sinkiang ...	—	—	—	—	—
Chungking ...	—	—	—	—	60,000

E. Comparative Statistics on Frontier Education, 1936-1941.

1. NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Provinces	1936-1937	1937-1938	1938-1939	1939-1940	1940-1941
Ninghsia ...	8	4	1	3	6
Kansu ...	28	32	36	42	65
Chinghai ...	8	10	7	8	11
Sinkiang ...	9	12	13	13	9
Sikang ...	2	2	13	16	21
Yunnan ...	139	144	143	146	156
Kweichow ...	39	50	46	54	83
Kwangsi ...	67	90	109	120	130

2. NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Provinces	1936-1937	1937-1938	1938-1939	1939-1940	1940-1941
Ninghsia ...	334	211	277	350	589
Kansu ...	2,600	3,887	4,099	4,576	5,026
Chinghai ...	746	748	800	915	1,152
Sinkiang ...	130	2,197	1,387	—	—
Sikang ...	90	110	1,210	1,204	1,196
Yunnan ...	12,022	14,163	17,069	16,286	10,639
Kweichow ...	2,914	3,171	3,443	3,905	4,218
Kwangsi ...	23,932	24,276	23,450	21,283	21,571

APPENDIX

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES OF ACADEMIA SINICA¹

As the highest research organization under the National Government, the Academia Sinica, despite the limitations on its finances, personnel and equipment, has carried on an extensive program throughout Free China. It maintains 10 institutes: physics, chemistry, engineering, geology, astronomy, meteorology, zoology and botany, psychology, history and philology, and social sciences. Until July, 1937, the first three institutes were located in Shanghai, while the central office and the other seven institutes were all in Nanking. At present, the central office is temporarily located in Chungking; the institutes of zoology and botany, meteorology, history and social sciences in two localities in Szechuen; the institutes of chemistry, astronomy and engineering in Kunming; and the institutes of physics, geology and psychology in Kweilin. The work of the institutes during the war has been as follows:

The Institute of History and Philology.—Four lines of work are carried on, namely, history, archaeology, ethnology and physical anthropology and philology and linguistics. The institute possesses an extensive archaeological and ethnological collection, including a number of treasures, such as the tortoise inscriptions of Yin dynasty from the site of Anyang. These treasures are in a small city in Szechuen. The collection of books,

anthropometric records, and linguistic records in the institute is also extensive and remains intact. The institute members work in a village in southern Szechuen.

Prof. Chen Yin-ko has completed his treatise on the political history of Tang dynasty. Lao Kan of the institute has made a study of bamboo inscriptions of the Han dynasty found in the vicinity of the Gashian Nor, Ninghsia, and for this work he was awarded the Yang Chuan prize of the academy in 1941. Chuan Han-sen has studied the economic history of the Sung period and was awarded the Yang Chuan prize of the academy in 1942. Fu Lo-huan wrote a paper on the methods adopted by the Liao emperors for administering the various racial groups. Other work include the editing of historical records of the Ming dynasty, editing of the sources of Kin history, and compilation of a critical bibliography of the astrological works of the Han dynasty.

In the archaeological section of the institute, excavation reports of the following sites have been completed: Hsiaotun Tsun, Liangchen Chen, Houchia Chuang, Sunhsien, Hwehsien Chihhsien, and Tashihkung Tsun. Reports about archaeological investigations in Suiyuan, western Szechuen, and Sikang are ready for publication. Prof. Tung Cho-pin has profoundly analysed the tortoise inscriptions of Anyang and thereby obtained a possible solution of

Yin chronology as well as a knowledge about the method of calendar making adopted by the Yin people. The excavation of Han tombs in Pengshan, Szechuen and archaeological investigation in the Northwest, especially the study of Buddhist paintings in Tunhuang grottoes, Kansu, are in progress. The latter work was taken up in collaboration with the National Central Museum. A party of three experts, consisting of Prof. Hsiang Ta of National Southwest Associated University, and Lao Kan and Shih Chang-ju of the institute left Chungking for the Northwest in April, 1942 and are still going on with their work.

In the field of anthropology, the principal items of work have been ethnological and anthropometric investigation of the Miao people of Kweichow and the ethnological investigation of the racial groups of western Szechuen and Sikang. Reports about the measurements of the bones of the Chinese people are ready for publication.

In the field of linguistics, detailed surveys of dialects of Hupeh, Hunan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Szechuen and Yunnan have been carried out by Prof. Li Fang-kuei and his assistants. A survey of Miao dialects, Tung dialects, and Tai dialects of Kweichow and Kwangsi was also carried out and a comparative study of Tai dialects was made. Prof. Chao Yuen-ren, who has headed the section of philology and linguistics since the founding of the institute, went to the U.S.A. in the autumn of 1938 to lecture in American universities.

The longer publications of the institute of history and philology appear in the form of treatises, monographs, and excavation reports, while the shorter ones appear in the periodical entitled *The Bulletin of the Institute of History*

and *Philology*. The latest number of this bulletin was published in November, 1942.

The Institute of Social Sciences.—

The work of the institute has been concentrated along five lines: (1) the economic history of China, (2) the problems of wartime economy in China, (3) finance, currency and trade, (4) the history of army organization, and (5) public administration.

In the field of economic history of China, treatises on the history of land taxation in the Ming dynasty, on the Ching dynasty, and on the development of modern cotton industries are ready for publication.

The National Resources Commission asked the institute to study the problems of wartime economy. Reports written by the members of the institute include those on the fluctuation of commodity prices during war time, on a general survey of industry and currency conditions in Free China, on the economic conditions of the occupied territories and on the estimated war losses of China.

In the field of public finance, studies on the financial relations between the Central and provincial governments since the founding of the Chinese Republic, on district finance, on the finance of Yunnan, and on the provincial and district finances of Kwangsi have been completed. In 1942, in collaboration with the Ministry of Food, the institute sent a party of investigators to study on the spot the actual working of the new government regulations on (a) the payment of land tax in kind, and (b) government purchasing of cereals. Studies on currency problems include an estimate of silver stock in China and investigation on the finances and

¹ Abridgment of an article published by the China Information Committee.

cooperative undertakings in the farm villages of Chekiang province. Statistics on Sino-Japanese trade in recent years and on the interport trade of China during 1936-1940 were compiled and the evolution of international trade of China was studied.

Lo Erh-kang of the institute has chosen the history of army organization in China as his special field of study. He has written a book on the history of the Hunan Army organized by Marquis Tseng Kuo-fan. His two manuscripts, one on the history of "Green Barracks" and another on the army organization during the last decades of Manchu dynasty are also ready for publication.

In the field of public administration, a book on the relations between provincial and district administrations in Kwangsi province is near completion.

The Institute of Zoology and Botany.

The work of the institute falls under four sections, namely: (1) fresh-water biology, (2) entomology and parasitology, (3) mycology and plant pathology, and (4) seed plants and forestry.

In the field of fresh-water biology, ichthyological surveys have been made in the provinces of Hunan, Kwangsi, Szechuen and Sikang. Food supply and feeding habits of various edible common fishes found in Szechuen were studied in the hope of increasing the fish supply of the province. For a most valuable edible fish, *monopterus javanensis*, detailed studies on its respiratory mechanism in both the embryonic and the adult stages, its behavior, breeding habitat, and embryonic development, and on its circulatory system in the adult stage were carried out with remarkable success yielding results of particular interest. To help forward the anti-malaria cam-

paign, a selected group of native mosquito-devouring fishes has been studied under conditions of artificial cultivation and distribution. Studies have also been made on entomostrea, protozoa, and fresh-water algae.

In the field of entomology and parasitology, systematic studies have been carried out for a beetle family chrysomalidae. Observations have been made on the life history of insects injurious to horticulture. Means of natural control of mosquito multiplication and the parasitic round worms found in domesticated and wild animals have been investigated.

In the field of mycology and plant pathology, a monograph on Chinese fungi, including about 2,000 species, was completed in 1938. Successful studies on the life history and methods of control of various fungus diseases affecting tung oil trees have been made. Experiments have been performed on the preservation of sweet potatoes, oranges and other horticultural products.

Systematic studies have been made on the umbellatae and the grass families. Extensive forest survey was carried out in Sikang province for three successive years. Particular attention was laid on the preservation of natural forests. Utilization, growth rate, and fungus diseases of economic trees were carefully noted. In collaboration with the Kansu provincial government, a similar survey is now in progress in that province.

Most of the research papers of the institute appear in its own periodical *Sinensia*. The 13th volume of this periodical will be published in 1943.

The Institute of Meteorology.

Since its founding, the institute has been in charge of both service work and

research work. Before the Japanese invasion, with the Central Meteorological Observatory in Nanking the institute had in its charge a number of weather stations and rainfall stations scattered throughout the country. After successive removals which took place after the fall of Nanking in 1937, the institute settled down again in a town near Chungking, carrying with it a part of the observational equipment of the Central Meteorological Observatory. The number of instruments now in use in the temporary quarters is, of course, much less than that formerly in use in Nanking. In fact, the restarting of self-registered weather records did not begin until January, 1942.

Members of the institute have been faced with many difficulties. For instance, they realized the importance of observations of upper air wind drift; but from October, 1941 to May, 1942 only 66 balloons could be sent up, because balloons were not available.

In the autumn of 1941, the National Government inaugurated the National Weather Bureau. The 17 weather stations and 100 rainfall stations formerly under the direction of the institute were transferred to the bureau. Henceforth the members of the institute devoted themselves to research in the science of meteorology itself, to statistical analyses of weather data, and to the climatology of China.

The papers of the institute, besides appearing in monographs and memoirs, mainly appear in the *Meteorological Magazine*, published by the Meteorological Society of China. To the latest issue of this magazine, P. K. Chang of the institute contributed an article on the climatic regions of Szechuen, and C. C. Yang contributed an article on

the upper air currents over southern Szechuen.

The Institute of Geology.—Since its removal to Kweilin, members of the institute, to meet wartime needs, have paid much attention to the mineral resources of southwestern China. In cooperation with other Chinese geological institutes, the mountainous area in western Hupeh, western Hunan, the eastern border of the Kweichow plateau, the "Kwangsi plateau" and the Nauling ranges have been explored. These are areas in which metalliferous deposits abound. Hitherto they were comparatively little known geologically owing to their highly mountainous character. With the rapid development of motor roads in these areas, field work has been greatly facilitated. Consequently, important results have been obtained within the past few years regarding ore deposits as well as geological development.

Ore bodies either in the form of lenticular layers or persistent veins, or else of irregular masses have been located with respect to principal structural trend and to the alignment of igneous intrusions. They are mainly formed in the older rocks. Tin, tungsten, gold, antimony, lead, zinc, mercury, together with iron and coal are among the principal elements being studied.

Stratigraphical, tectonic and geomorphological observations made in the mountainous area are contributing much toward the elucidation of important geological events. Of wider scientific interest is the investigation of the extensive distribution of an ancient glacial deposit along the eastern border of the Kweichow plateau. This deposit can be com-

pared, in point of time, with a similar formation well known in Scandinavia. North America and elsewhere in the world. In these same regions, but to a much greater extent, "remains" of quaternary glaciations are also found. Boulder-clays with typical ice-scratched boulders occur far and wide in association with fluvio-glacial gravels. Along numerous ancient valleys descending from the high mountains on the edge of the Kweichow plateau, and from the high ranges of western Hupeh, western Hunan and northern Kwangsi, it is possible to trace, step by step, the distribution of the vanished glaciers. With unequivocal evidence in hand, geologists and climatologists must now find a new interpretation of the cause of glaciation.

Substantial data obtained in the course of the last few years regarding the structural elements of the country shows the importance of a mesozoic movement or movements that were responsible for the general "layout" of China. The results of investigations now fully establish the fact that the broad belt of mountainous country stretching from northern Kwangsi, past western Hunan and eastern Kweichow, continues to the Yangtze Gorge area of western Hupeh. This formidable, complex range extends farther to the north-northeast forming the eastern border of the Shansi plateau, and still further north, the Great Khingan Range running between Mongolia and Northeastern China. On the eastern side of this so-called Neocathaysian up-lift lies an elongated, depressed area embracing the Northeast China plain, the North China plain and the Central Yangtze basin. Palaeontological research by members of the institute has brought out the

interesting fact that this elongated basin of northeasterly trend was from time to time invaded by marine fauna in the geological past.

The Institute of Physics.—Up to July, 1937, the institute was located in Shanghai where it had the advantage of using modern laboratory facilities which are not all available in the interior. In 1938, the institute moved to Kunming; and then in October, 1940, it moved again to Kweilin, following a government order. Its reestablishment at Kweilin was completed only towards the end of 1941. In its temporary quarters, it has a magnetic laboratory, a radio laboratory, an observatory of terrestrial magnetism, and a machine shop. The shop was bombed by enemy planes in the summer of 1941 and suffered much damage.

The majority of members of the institute were occupied with problems which demanded immediate attention such as those of radio communication, making of permanent magnets, making of scientific apparatus, and ore prospecting by magnetic and electrical methods. A few members, however, still found time to carry out a survey of terrestrial magnetism in Fukien and Kiangsi provinces. While in Fukien, they had the opportunity of observing the magnetic disturbances during the total solar eclipse of September 21, 1941. Their findings substantiated the view that these magnetic disturbances were caused by the cutting-off of ultra-violet radiation from the sun. The survey of terrestrial magnetism in Kiangsi province will be completed in 1943, and at the same time the work will be extended to Hunan province.

In the magnetic laboratory, in 1942, methods for measuring the suscepti-

bility of minerals and rocks both in powder form and in bulk form were devised and compared. Results obtained with powders of different degrees of fineness were also compared. Measurements on the variation of magnetic constants with temperature for single crystals of nickel-cobalt alloys are now in progress.

Besides making the physical apparatus required by members of the institute for their own work, the machine shop also accepts outside orders.

The Institute of Psychology.—The institute temporarily located in Kweilin, is directed by Dr. C. H. Wang. Its principal work has been in the field of physiological psychology, the subject taken up being the physiological analysis of the developmental behaviour of the tadpole. The method adopted went further than the parallel observation of the various stages in the development of behaviour with those in the growth of the nervous system. Either a part of the central nervous system of the frog embryo or of the tadpole was destroyed by surgical operation or one of the sensory organs was cut off, and the resultant changes in the development of behaviour were observed. In 1940, observations were made of the normal development of the swimming and righting reflexes of the frog and the effect produced upon this development by transaction of the various parts of the central nervous system before hatching. The results of this experiment were published in the *Journal of Neurophysiology*. In 1941, the effect of strychnine and other drugs on the developing nervous system of the frog was studied. In the same year, H. Y. Chu, assistant in

physiology in the Army Medical College, worked in the institute and observed the ciliary movement and the circulation of the cerebro-spinal fluid in the brain ventricles of anurans. His paper was published in the *American Journal of Physiology*. In 1942, Dr. C. H. Wang made experiments on the effect of the development of the higher nervous centres in embryo on the spinal cord. Preliminary results seemed to demonstrate that the first was that of inhibition. Experiments on tadpole behaviour after the reconstruction of the nervous system by the method of grafting with the embryonic nervous system were started in May, 1942, the first step being to develop a grafting and feeding technique.

Since 1941, Dr. C. H. Wang has been attempting to propound a theoretical system to embrace all the reflex actions of the spinal cord as studied by Sherrington and his associates.

In the field of comparative neuro-anatomy, research has been carried out on (1) a comparative study of the septum of the forebrain, (2) structure of mesencephalon and rhombencephalon of the hedgehog, (3) a kind of recurrent fibers in the cerebellar cortex of the monkey, (4) nucleus of the trapezoid body in the mammalian brain, and (5) the central system of man. The first mentioned work was by Dr. Y. T. Lu and the last three were by H. T. Chang. The third was published in the *Journal of Comparative Neurology*.

The Institute of Astronomy.—The institute was founded in 1928, but the construction and equipment of its observatory on the Purple Mountain in the suburbs of Nanking were not completed until 1934. After only three years of using this equipment,

the institute had to move to Kunming and lost much of the heavier equipment. Since Kunming is noted for the clearness of its sky during the dry season, it was decided to build there a small observatory which was completed in 1938. The spectroheliograph was again set up and is used for daily observations of sunspots. A Ross camera with 4-inch objective for the study of variable stars was also set up again.

The total solar eclipse of September 21, 1941 was a rare opportunity for the Chinese astronomers. The path of the shadow swept across the country from the Northwest towards the Southeast, covering a distance of over 4,000 kilometers. A number of years ahead of the event, a plan of collaboration was organized by the institute, the National Central University, the university of Nanking, and the Institute of Physics of Academia Sinica. The exigencies of the war demanded the curtailment of the original program, and only two observation parties were sent out, one to Fukien province, and another to Kansu province. Clear sky did not greet the former party, but did greet the latter, the members of which successfully photographed the corona, determined the times of contacts, and found that the light intensity of the corona was .39 of that of the full moon. Coincidentally, it was found that the eclipse expedition made a great impression upon the populace who had formerly never realized that modern science could predict a celestial event with such precision.

The Institute of Chemistry. The institute is now located in Kunming where its laboratory was completed in

July, 1940 with funds partly provided by the British Indemnity Fund.

The work of the institute falls under three headings: (1) physical and inorganic chemistry, (2) organic chemistry and (3) applied chemistry.

Since 1933, Dr. Woo had been photographing and measuring the ultra-violet absorption spectra of gases. After coming to the interior he found it impossible to continue this work for gases and had to shift to liquids and solutions. The results obtained from solutions made possible the detection of molecular structure and photochemical behaviour of compounds in their solution state. The work was so far confined to the electronic spectra of compounds containing the carbonyl group.

Dr. K. Liu and H. P. Chung have carefully analysed the contents of the principal rock salt of Yunnan. They found no trace of iodine by ordinary methods; and if iodine is present, its amount must be less than .000008%. Sodium sulphate is present in the salt liquor to the extent of 13.22%.

Studies made in applied chemistry include the purification and thermal treatment of castor oil, the preparation of phosphorus and phosphate fertilizers from the phosphate ores of Yunnan, the preparation of paper pulp from weeds and corn stalks, and the making of silicon iron from Yunnan minerals. Experiments on low temperature distillation of Yunnan lignite have also been performed.

The Institute of Engineering.—The institute, after being moved from Shanghai to Kunming, found itself in an entirely different environment where the facilities for experimental work were inadequate. The two experimental plants of the institute, one

on glass-making and another on steel-making, were fortunately moved to Kunming with the institute itself; and work along these two lines could still be carried on. The plant for glass-making was bombed by enemy planes in September, 1940, but was soon reestablished in a village near Kunming. Although it has had to operate on a reduced scale, it has been able to furnish much glassware needed in medical service and in scientific work.

The equipment in the experimental plant for steel-making includes a rolling mill. For supplying the wartime need of special kinds of steel, most of the equipment of the plant was loaned to a steel manufacturing plant jointly organized by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Yunnan provincial government. The members of the institute also lent their technical service to this plant.

In 1941, the Central Electro-technical Manufacturing Plant of the National Resources Commission asked the institute to make tungsten magnetic steel which was needed in making telephones and electric meters. The tungsten magnetic steel produced in the laboratory of the institute has been found satisfactory, being comparable in quality with the American product. The making of cobalt magnetic steel was also attempted in 1941. The cobalt ores of Yunnan were found to contain 1.5%—6.7% cobalt oxide. From these ores, cobalt oxide of purity above 90% was prepared, the remaining impurity being mainly iron oxide. This cobalt oxide can be used as the starting material for making cobalt magnetic steel.

The material testing division of the institute has carried out an extensive

series of tests on Yunnan timber, including tangential and radial shrinkage, mechanical properties, specific gravity, and moisture content. For certain selected kinds of timber, dry distillation experiments will also be carried out for the purpose of obtaining acetone, wood alcohol, and acetic acid.

The National Research Council.—

The National Research Council was organized as a part of Academia Sinica in 1935. Its function is to promote and to coordinate scientific research in the whole country, the word "scientific" being used in the wider sense, including the social and historical sciences. Members of the council consist of the president of Academia Sinica, the directors of its research institutes, and 30 members elected by professors of national universities. The term of office of elected members is five years. The council ordinarily meets once a year.

In 1941, the council decided to publish two journals: *Science Record* and *Bulletin of Academic Research*. The former contains short communications of original scientific research by Chinese scientists, the language used being English, French, or German. The latter is published in Chinese, and contains general reviews of the significant advances in various fields of study and abstracts of scientific papers by Chinese scientists and of those by foreign scientists on subjects related to China. On account of the difficulties of printing in the interior, the first number of the *Bulletin of Academic Research* did not appear until December, 1942, and the first number of *Science Record* until February, 1943. In 1941, the council recommended that an institute of

mathematics be organized as soon as it could be properly equipped with books and periodicals.

The Academia Sinica was founded in 1928 in Nanking with the late Dr. Tsai Yuan-pei as its president. After his death in March, 1940, the National Government appointed Dr.

Chu Chia-hua acting president. During the period 1939-41, Messrs. H. C. Jen and Fu Szu-nien successively served as secretary-general. The latter resigned in the autumn of 1941 and Dr. Yeh Chi-sun, professor of physics in the National Tsinghua University, was appointed to the post.

THE PRESS

HSU CHAO-YUNG¹ (徐兆鏞)

INTRODUCTION

THE war has brought many changes to the Chinese press. Whatever material imperfections it may have under the impact of war, it has risen to become an effective vehicle of publicity to arouse the war consciousness of the people and steel their determination to fight to ultimate victory. Some of the outstanding changes in the Chinese press as a result of the war may be traced here.

Before the war Chinese newspapers were printed on newsprint imported from Canada, Finland, Sweden or Japan. Since the war, the scarcity of foreign paper has caused more and more newspapers resort to the use of native paper until now all are printed on the latter kind. The great demand of newsprint has greatly boosted the home paper industry. Today many mills established after the war as well as a host of paper makers working at home are producing at top-speed to meet the demand.

Whereas before the war Chinese newspaper offices were usually housed in big buildings in the cities, they are now scattered in the suburban districts and housed in huts to avoid enemy air raids. The printing presses of many newspapers are well protected in dugouts or caves. The newspapers print as usual even when an air raid is going on outside.

Japanese aircrafts hold a high record for their bombing, intentional or unintentional, of Chinese newspaper offices as of other cultural institutions. Most of the papers in Chungking have had their share of bombs from enemy planes. The Ta Kung Pao's premises were damaged during the sustained air attacks on Chungking in May, 1939. Its new building twice received direct hits in July, 1941, suffering heavy loss in equipment. The China Times was hit eight times by bombs in 1940-41. The Yi Shih Pao's business and editorial offices were destroyed in a raid on August 30, 1941. The Hsin Min Pao, the Sin Xua Rihbao (Hsin Hua Jih Pao), and the Sao Tang Pao also suffered heavy damage in the same raid. The Nanking News, Evening Edition, was twice bombed, the Hsin Min Pao five times and the Commercial Daily News 11 times.

The spirit of cooperation among Chinese papers and their resoluteness to carry on in defiance of enemy air attacks were demonstrated by the Chinese press during the mass bombings in May, 1939. Ten newspapers representing diverse shades of political opinion published a joint edition known as the Joint Edition of the Chungking Dailies.

Japanese terrorism has failed to arrest the growth of Chinese newspapers. In the interior of China where there were few newspapers

¹ Chief, English Department, Central News Agency.

before the war there has been a marked increase. For instance, in Chungking most of the papers were started or moved there from other cities after the war. Most of the leading newspapers, including the Central Daily News and the Ta Kung Pao, were moved from the coastal provinces to the far interior. The growth of the press in the interior has the salutary effect of elevating the cultural level as well as arousing national consciousness. Today there are more people reading the daily papers than ever before. It is not uncommon to see a crowd straining their necks at a newspaper posted on the wall in the street. The growing desire for news—news of China and news of the world is evident in cities and villages alike.

If there is any point on which the press has gone back, it is the format. Before the war many of the big papers came out in 12 or more pages and on special occasions such as New Year's Day or the Double Tenth, even 20 or more pages. Today practically all dailies appear in four or at most six pages on ordinary days. To meet the popular desire for news in war time there have sprung up a large number of so-called army papers which are usually published by the political workers of the army. Another popular paper published both in cities and villages is the Pi Pao (wall sheet).

The exigencies of war require the papers to be printed in a more modest manner and sometimes by improvised methods. Papers are type printed, lithographed, mimeographed and even handwritten as circumstances permit. It is not unusual to see an army news corps armed with a radio receiving set, a mimeograph machine, stencils, paper and ink print circularizing news sheets as it goes about.

News gathering has improved to no small extent since the war. Not a few papers and news agencies have war correspondents on various fronts, or send out correspondents to far off places who write and mail back vivid stories. During the Battle of Hsuehchow quite a number of correspondents were in the besieged city but later slipped out.

The editorials in the papers during war time are usually forceful and instructive. Such editorials generally representative of enlightened opinion serve to guide and stimulate the masses. Readers nowadays pour over the editorials of the dailies with no little enthusiasm as they read the news. Press comments on current topics are widely discussed.

An infallible yardstick to measure a Chinese paper is its editorials. Today papers are quick to react to any big current event of national or international importance. On Sundays many papers carry in their editorial columns special articles by experts on different lines which afford very informative and instructive reading.

In contrast with the traitor press in "occupied" China the press in Free China is clean and decent. The latter is well aware of its responsibility in this war and takes no delight in publishing scandals or sordid stories and cartoons. The journals under Japanese control are, however, a mass of gossip, sex stories, love stories and pictures of an obscene nature.

NEWSPAPERS AND NEWS AGENCIES

According to statistics available at the News Department of the Ministry of Information, the total number of newspapers up till October 31, 1942

TABLE 1. NUMBERS OF NEWSPAPERS AND NEWS AGENCIES, OCTOBER 31, 1942

Province or Municipality	Newspapers	News Agencies
Chungking	14	5
Kiangsu	10	2
Chekiang	64	14
Anhui	42	1
Kiangsi	50	27
Hupei	32	1
Hunan	98	43
Szechuen	75	28
Yunnan	11	2
Kweichow	11	2
Kwangtung	73	21
Kwangsi	38	3
Fukien	42	8
Hopei	2	—
Shantung	2	—
Honan	50	5
Shensi	26	3
Kansu	18	7
Ninghsia	2	—
Chinghai	1	—
Sikang	7	—
Suiyuan	2	—
(Army)	121	6
TOTAL	791	183

NOTE: The newspapers and news agencies in the table above include only those which have duly registered, or have been given permission to register or ordered to register.

was 791 and the total number of news agencies was 183.

The majority of the papers are published daily but some of them, especially the army papers, appear every two or three days or weekly.

Since the removal of the National Government from Nanking to Chungking after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937 and particularly following the fall of Hankow into Japanese hands in October, 1938,

Chungking as China's wartime capital has assumed the leading position in newspaperdom, superseding enemy-occupied Nanking and Shanghai, both newspaper centres prior to the war. Many newspapers removed from enemy-occupied cities to this city in the interior to continue publication. They as well as those newspapers originally in Chungking served both to boost the morale of the people at war and to present public opinion. The

THE PRESS

14 newspapers published in Chungking | directors and addresses are listed during 1942 together with their | below :

TABLE 2. NEWSPAPERS PUBLISHED IN CHUNGKING, 1942

Newspaper	Director	Address
Combined Edition of Central Daily News and Sao Tang Pao	Chen Po-sheng	Chung Cheng Road
Ta Kung Pao	Liu Wei-feng	
Hsin Shu Pao	Tsao Ku-ping	96, Chung I Road
China Times	Chow Chin-yueh	88, Pei Hsiang Kai
Sin Xua Rhbao	Chang Wan-li	185, Chung Cheng Road
	Pan Tzu-nien	128, Min Sheng Road
Kuo Min Kung Pao	Kang Hsin-chih	25, Min Sheng Road
Hsin Min Pao	Chen Ming-teh	43, Chung Kan Road
Shang Wu Jih Pao (Commercial Daily)	Kao Yun-jin	13, Chung Ta Kai, Shang Yeh Chang
Yi Shih Pao (Social Welfare)	Yang Mu-shih	138, Chung Hua Road
Chien Tzu Pao	Kuo Teng-ao	7, Chiu Tao Men
Hsin Min Pao Evening Edition	Chen Ming-teh	57, Chung I Road
Nanking Wan Pao	Chang Yu-he	1, St. Joseph Church Lane, Chung I Road
Hsin Wen Lei Pien	Soviet Embassy	Pi Pa Shan
Shih Min Chou Pao	Chao Yu-pei	9, Shu Ching Wan, Shensi Road

Party Papers.— Statistics compiled by the News Department of the Ministry of Information show that there are 455 papers maintained by the Kuomintang in various provinces and municipalities. Of these 17 are under the direct control of the Central Kuomintang, 41 under the control of provincial or special municipal tangpu and 397 under the control of municipal or hsien tangpu.

The 17 Party papers under the direct control of the Central Kuomintang are listed in Table 3.

TABLE 3. PARTY NEWSPAPERS UNDER CONTROL OF CENTRAL KUOMINTANG

Province	City	Paper
Szechuen	Chungking	Central Daily News
Szechuen	Chengtu	Central Daily News
Kweichow	Kwelyang	Central Daily News
Yunnan	Kunming	Chungking Central Daily News, Kunming Edition
Hunan	Shaoyang	Chungking Central Daily News, Hunan Edition
Hunan	Chihkiang	Kwelyang Central Daily News, Chihkiang Edition

THE PRESS

Shensi	Shan	Sikang Jih Pao
Shensi	Nancheng	Sian Sikang Jih Pao, Nancheng Edition
Hupei	Enshih	Wuhan Jih Pao
Kwangtung	Shlukwan	Chungshan Daily News
Kwangtung	Meih sien	Chungshan Daily News, Meih sien Edition
Kwangsi	Wuchow	Chungshan Daily News, Wuchow Edition
Fukien	Yungan	Fukien Central Daily News
Fukien	Foochow	Fukien Central Daily News, Foochow Edition
Anhui	Tunkl	Anhui Central Daily News
Chinghai	Sining	Chinghai Min Kuo Jih Pao
Sikang	Kangting	Kuo Min Jih Pao

Table 4 shows the numbers of Party papers under the control of provincial or special municipal tangpu.

TABLE 4. PARTY NEWSPAPERS UNDER CONTROL OF PROVINCIAL OR SPECIAL MUNICIPAL TANGPU

Province	No. of Newspaper
Szechuen	1
Kiangsu	1
Chekiang	1
Fukien	6
Anhui	2
Kiangsi	6
Honan	2
Shensi	4
Kansu	1
Ninghsia	1
Suiyuan	1
Kwangtung	8
Kwangsi	6
Yunnan	1
TOTAL	41

Table 5 shows the numbers of Party papers under the control of municipal or hsien tangpu :

TABLE 5. PARTY NEWSPAPERS UNDER CONTROL OF MUNICIPAL OR HSIEN TANGPU

Province	No. of Newspapers
Szechuen	32
Kiangsu	4
Chekiang	29
Fukien	13
Anhui	37
Kiangsi	19
Honan	27
Hopei	1
Shensi	10
Kansu	19
Ninghsia	1
Chinghai	2
Sikang	1
Kweichow	2
Kwangtung	51
Kwangsi	28
Yunnan	19
Hunan	75
Hupei	27
TOTAL	397

Army Papers. Army papers are an important medium for the transmission of news and knowledge to the armed forces as well as the people. They take the form of dailies, weeklies, news-sheets or news-letters, printed, mimeographed or even hand-written. In war time they serve to strengthen public confidence in ultimate victory, heighten fighting morale, provide reading matter for the rank and file and bring about cooperation between the army and civilians.

The earliest army paper of revolutionary China was the Whampao Jih Kan (Whampoa Daily) published by the Whampoa Academy. During the Northern Punitive Expedition the Nationalist Army published a new army paper Keh Min Chun Jen Jih Pao (Revolutionary Soldier's Daily) as a means to propagate revolutionary ideas among the army and the masses. The Sino-Japanese war has been a great impetus to the growth of army papers. Following are the more popular existing army papers:

The Sao Tang Pao (Bloom), a three-day small-size paper, was published in March, 1931 under the Political Training Department of the Generalissimo's Provisional Headquarters in Nanchang. On June 23, 1932 it was enlarged as a single sheet of standard size. In February, 1933 it was suspended but resumed publication in March the same year in smaller size. In February, 1935 it was removed to Hankow where it resumed publication on May 1, the same year. Upon the reorganization of the Political Training Department in February, 1938 it was placed under the Political Training Board of the National Military Council. It was then distinguished by its abundance of military news because of its large number of correspondents on

various fronts. Upon the Chinese withdrawal from the Wuhau cities on October 25, 1938 it was removed to Kweilin where it put out a Kweilin edition on December 15. In August, 1939 it established its head office in Chungking and published a Chungking edition. On June 1, 1942 its Chungking edition was merged with the Central Daily News as the Combined Edition of the Central Daily News and the Sao Tang Pao.

The Chen Chung Jih Pao (Battle News) has several editions. The Eastern Battle News appeared during the Shanghai-Woosung phase of the Sino-Japanese war toward the end of 1937. The Northern Battle News later made its debut in Chengchow, junction of the Peiping-Hankow Railway and the Lunghai Railway. Similar to the Battle News are the Chien Hsien Jih Pao (Frontline Daily) and the Chien Wei Jih Pao (Vanguard Daily) published by the political departments of various war zone headquarters. There are now 11 such papers. They receive monthly subsidies from the Political Training Board of the National Military Council and the political departments of the war zone headquarters concerned. Their circulation ranges from 4,000 to over 10,000.

The Sao Tang Chien Pao (Flash News Broom) are printed, mimeographed or lithographed dailies published by the Chien Pao Pan (Flash News Corps), groups of young newspapermen trained and sent out by the Political Training Board of the National Military Council. Equipped with radio sets, mimeograph or printing machines they pick up news broadcast by the Central News Agency and other news distributing organs and publish and distribute them. There are now

50 groups scattered all over Free China and characterized by their great mobility. In addition to the dailies they also put out pamphlets, pictorials, weeklies and commemorative publications. Fighting with such "paper bullets," they run constant risks on the front and not a few members were killed. Since the war, practically all military academies have started publication of their own papers. The Tien Chun Jih Pao (Party Army Daily) is published by the Central Military Academy. The Hsin Chun Jih Pao (New Army Daily) published by the Fourth Branch Military Academy and other papers by other military academies are patterned after it. These papers are under the political departments of the different academies.

Wall Sheets.—The Pi Pao or wall sheet is a popular means for disseminating news and propaganda during war time where lithography, mimeography and the printing press are deficient or unavailable. It is not an innovation during the war as it existed even before the war. However, the war has given it a wide use and popularity. Hand-written and drawn, it can be readily produced and posted for public perusal. Its contents include news items, editorials, essays, poems, cartoons, drawings, pictures, etc. Here is a field for not only journalistic but also literary and artistic talents. It is issued periodically or irregularly and often on special occasions or for special purposes. Thus there may be a Revolutionary Martyrs' Day Pi Pao on March 29, a Sun Yat-sen Death Anniversary Pi Pao on March 12 or an Air Defense Pi Pao. Because of its immediate and wide appeal through its illustrations

and display, it appears in villages and townships as well as big cities where many large papers exist.

REPRESENTATIVE PRESS ORGANS

Central News Agency—The Central News Agency established in Nanking in 1927 by the Central Kuomintang has grown until it became the leading news agency in China. Since the war, it has assumed an even more important role in the dissemination of news both within and without the country.

Before the war the Central News Agency maintained 11 bureaus respectively at Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Hankow, Canton, Nanchang, Sian, Chungking, Chengtu, Kweiyang and Hongkong besides 21 special staff correspondents stationed at various important news centres. Since the war, it had established additional bureaus at Changsha, Kweilin, Kunming, Lanchow, Loyang, Enshih, Foochow, Singapore and New Delhi and attached war correspondence groups to various armies. (Each group is composed of one or two correspondents and one or two radio operators bringing with them a radio set for receiving and transmitting news.) However, in the course of the war some of the bureaus located on the path of the enemy advance had either to close down or move inland. It has now bureaus at Chungking, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Kunming, Kweilin, Shuiukwan, Changsha, Taiho, Sian, Lanchow, Tunki, Enshih, Loyang and Yungan and war correspondence groups at Yuanling, Changsha, Changteh, Hengyang, Laohokow, Shangjiao, Kih sien, Wenshan and Pao-shan and special correspondents in South Anhwei, West Suiyuan, Lihuang, Kanhsien, Yulin, Kangting, Sining, Nancheng and North Kiangsu. In

addition, it has one correspondent in Washington, one in London, one in Geneva and three in the New Delhi Bureau (one stationed at Calcutta).

The head office of the Central News Agency was removed after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war from Nanking first to Hankow and then to Chungking. It has six departments: editorial, English, reporting, news photo, business and radio, a reference room and a personnel office. According to statistics compiled in October, 1942, the staff of the head office numbered 201 and that of the whole news agency 655. T. T. Hsiao is director of the organization.

The Central News Agency concluded agreements for exchange of news with Reuters in 1932, Havas in 1933, United Press in 1937 and the International News Service in 1940. Both the agreements with Havas and the International News Service have already terminated but those with Reuters and United Press are still in effect whereby the Central News Agency releases Reuters news in Chinese and United Press news in both Chinese and English. Though the Central News Agency had no formal agreement with Transocean, it had news exchange with the latter until the severance of Sino-German relations in the summer of 1941.

In addition to news-exchange arrangements with foreign news agencies, the Central News Agency maintains close cooperation with the American Information Service (representative organ in China of the Office of War Information), the British Press Attache's Office (representative organ in China of the Ministry of Information), and other publicity organs of Allied nations for the dissemination of news pertaining to the Allied war effort.

The Central News Agency is sending out daily both English and Chinese news broadcasts. The English news broadcast (QST) is sent abroad through the Chinese Government Radio Administration in two emissions daily, numbering some 4,000 words. The Chinese news broadcasts are divided into two kinds: CAP and COP. The CAP broadcast numbering approximately 15,000 words daily supplies news to the Central News bureaus and subscribers, while the COP broadcast numbering 1,500 words daily supplies news to the armed forces in the war zones and the small papers in various places.

The Central News bureaus at Kweiyang, Changsha, Chengtu and Yungan (formerly at Foochow) also make daily news broadcasts on a provincial scale. By this means they supply news, particularly provincial news, to various papers, government offices and other organizations within their respective provinces.

Central Daily News.—The Central Daily News, the official organ of the Kuomintang, was founded in Hankow in February, 1927. It was reorganized in winter the same year and removed to Shanghai when it was removed to Nanking in February, 1929.

From the date of its founding to April, 1932 the Minister of Information of the Kuomintang was concurrently the managing-editor of the paper. This system was changed in May, 1932 when Cheng Tsang-po was appointed managing-editor on a full-time basis. Under his capable management the paper experienced a period of growth. Its circulation increased from 7,000 or 8,000 copies to more than 30,000 copies.

After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in July, 1937 the paper

was removed from Nanking to Changsha on December 1 the same year. On September 15, 1938 it established its head office in Chungking and began to publish a Chungking edition while the Changsha office was changed into a branch. After the big fire at Changsha on November 12, 1938, the Changsha branch was removed to Kunming. It was renamed the Kunming branch and published a Kunming edition as from May 15, 1939.

Under instructions of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as concurrently Tsungtsai (Director-General) of the Kuomintang the Changsha branch was revived in the summer of 1919 and published a Hunan edition as from April 10 in the same year. But hardly one week after the resumption of publication, the Changsha branch had to remove to Shaoyang in Central Hunan because of the Japanese offensive on Changsha. There it now exists as the Hunan branch of the paper.

On June 1, 1942 the Central Daily News in Chungking was amalgamated with the Sao Tang Pao, the army organ, as the Combined Edition of the Central Daily News and the Sao Tang Pao.

Notwithstanding the amalgamation, the paper retains its principal characteristics and remains an official organ reflecting the attitude and policy of the Kuomintang and the Chinese Government.

Ta Kung Pao.—The Ta Kung Pao (L'Impartial), the leading private-owned paper, was founded in Tientsin 40 years ago (1902). During its initial period the paper did not achieve much distinction and it actually suspended publication for several months in 1926 on account of financial and other difficulties. In that year

the paper was reorganized as the Ta Kung Pao Corporation, Ltd. Under the capable management and editorship of Wu Ting-chang, Hu Cheng-chih and the late Chang Chi-luan, it entered into a period of growth until it emerged as the leading paper in China.

In the winter of 1935 the paper established a Shanghai office which issued an edition in that port city. With the fall of Tientsin and Shanghai after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, both its Tientsin and Shanghai editions suspended publication, incurring heavy losses.

A part of its staff at both Tientsin and Shanghai escaped to Hankow where a new printing press was installed and a Hankow edition was published as a successor to the Tientsin edition. A part of the equipment in Shanghai was removed later to Hongkong where a Hongkong edition was published as from August 13, 1938 as a successor to the Shanghai edition. Less than two and a half months after the publication of the Hongkong edition Hankow fell into enemy hands. The Hankow staff evacuated to Chungking where a Chungking edition was published as from December 1, 1938. Whatever equipment in Hankow which was not removed to the interior before the fall of the city was lost.

In view of the tension prevailing in the Pacific which might endanger Hongkong, a Kweilin edition was started in the Kwangsi provincial capital on March 15, 1941. Upon the Japanese attack on Hongkong at the outbreak of the Pacific war the Hongkong edition suspended publication on December 13, 1941. After the fall of the British Crown Colony on December 25 that year, Hu Cheng-chih, general manager, and other members

of its Hongkong staff escaped by batches to Kweilin after hazardous trips. All equipment in Hongkong was lost.

The Chungking Ta Kung Pao premises were thrice bombed by enemy aircrafts: once in May, 1939 and twice in July, 1941, sustaining a total loss of more than \$300,000.

But a loss even greater than such material damage was the passing away of its editor-in-chief Chang Chi-luan on September 6, 1941 after a period of sickness. It was considered a loss not only to the paper itself but also to Chinese journalism as he was generally recognized as doyen of Chinese journalism.

The Ta Kung Pao was awarded the "Medal of Honour for Distinguished Service in Journalism" by the School of Journalism of the University of Missouri during the 32nd annual Journalism Week ceremonies on May 15, 1941. The award was considered as not only a tribute to the Ta Kung Pao but also to the loyal, progressive and fearless wartime press of China.

The citation reads: "For the excellence and thoroughness of its national and international news coverage throughout one long period in which China has faced serious internal and external problems; for the power and wide influence of its fearless and trenchant editorials; for its unusual liberal and progressive policies since its founding in 1902; for its provision, adaptability and persistence in continuing through the years of war and its long established tradition of constructive journalism; for its unchanged prestige despite financial difficulties, threats and mechanical handicaps; for its courage, ingenuity and resourcefulness in removing its press, machinery and staff against

tremendous odds from Tientsin to Shanghai, to Hankow, to Chungking and to Hongkong as the fortunes of war have demanded; for its spirit and determination in publishing in bomb-proof shelters and madsheds and missing only one or two issues; for its determination to maintain despite successive bombings its outstanding position as China's most respected, enlightened and best-edited Chinese newspaper; and for its career without parallel in the history of journalism in China."

NEWSPAPERMEN AND MARTYRS

If newspaper work is a thrilling experience, it is the more so in wartime China with its attendant hardships, dangers and excitement. The struggle of Chinese newspapermen under overwhelming difficulties and at great personal risks will forever shine in the history of journalism.

Newspapermen in the rear frequently work under aerial bombings and face many wartime inconveniences such as the shortage of paper and printing materials and lack of transportation facilities. Even more risky and difficult is the work of newspapermen in enemy occupied areas who are subjected to persecution by both the Japanese and the puppet regime.

Typical of the role played by Chinese newspapermen in the Shanghai who for four years, until Japanese occupation of the whole the port city upon the outbreak of the Pacific war on December 8, continued to work in the face of coercion, threats, violence and terrorism.

In June 1939, Wang Ching-wei, of the Nanking regime,

published a blacklist of 83 "traitors" among whom were 47 newspapermen. Since the publication of the blacklist, there had been a wave of terrorist activities perpetuated against newspapermen in Shanghai who were loyal to the National Government. However, despite such terrorism, newspapermen continued their work with great courage, though with extreme precautions, often secluding themselves in their guarded offices and going about under armed escort or in disguise, and newspapers were published under armed guards and behind sand-bags and iron grills. Under such circumstances there was actually no difference between the newspapermen who fought with the pen and the frontline warriors who fought with guns.

Many examples of the courage and patriotism of newspapermen may be mentioned. Suffice it to cite the case of Chu Hsing-kung, editor of the Literary Page of the American-owned Ta Mei Wan Pao, Shanghai. Chu who had written many articles against Wang Ching-wei one day received a threatening letter from Wang Ching-wei's Secret Service Headquarters warning that if any more anti-Wang Ching-wei literature should appear on his page, he would be subjected to "death penalty." Instead of being coerced, he wrote another article under the title "Confession of One Who Has Been Sentenced to 'Death Penalty'" in which he defied death in the following terms: "There are many causes of death: poverty, suffering, accident and poisoning. But the most glorious death is to be murdered by the puppets for then the victim becomes a martyr...I shall neither submit nor beg for mercy. For what I do I follow the dictates of my con-

science. Alive I am only an insignificant person but dead I shall become a heroic ghost." A bullet from a gunman hired by the puppets ended his life while he was on his way back home from office in the afternoon on August 24, 1939.

Tribute must also be paid to the American and British journalists in Shanghai for their fearless fight against the Japanese and the puppets' oppression of the press after the Chinese evacuation from the city. In defiance of intimidation and violence they sought to maintain the freedom of the press.

Not long after the publication of the "blacklist" of Chinese newspapermen Japanese sources announced that Wang Ching-wei, head of the Nanking puppet regime, had ordered the deportation of the following foreign journalists: C. V. Starr, publisher of the Shanghai Evening Post & Mercury (American); Randall Gould, editor of the same paper and correspondent of the Christian Science Monitor (American); J. B. Powell, editor and publisher of the China Weekly Review (American); Hal P. Mills, publisher of the Hwa Mei Wan Pao (American); Norman F. Allman, member of the Shanghai Municipal Council and a director of the American registered Shun Pao; Carroll D. Alcott, well-known American radio commentator; and J. A. E. Sander-Bates, publisher of the Morning Leader (British).

While the Chinese on the "blacklist" were branded as "rebels," the foreign newsmen were charged with "cooperating with traitors, and distributing rumours and improper statements." The puppets specifically singled out J. B. Powell as a "propagator of communist theories" and

Carroll D. Alcott as "Chungking's leading radio mouthpiece."

These seven foreign journalists simply ignored the Nanking puppets' order; meanwhile, they refused special police protection as asked for by U.S. Acting Consul General Richard Buttrick for the Americans. C. V. Starr and Randall Gould issued a joint rejoinder in the Shanghai Evening Post & Mercury on July 17, 1940, asserting their right as American citizens under the protection of American law "to print uncensored news and write fearless and hard-hitting editorials," and declaring it was their privilege to decide upon matters of editorial policy. They said that "as long as freedom of speech prevails in Shanghai, we will not yield to violence or coercion."

Following is a list of acts of terrorism perpetrated by the Japanese and puppets in Shanghai during the period under review:

TABLE 6

Newspapermen murdered	4
Newspapermen attacked but escaped alive	3
Newspapermen who died from wounds received during bombing attacks on newspaper offices	4
Bombings of newspaper offices	6
Attempted bombings of newspaper offices	7
Kidnappings of Newspapermen	13
Sending of threatening letters to newspapers	over 20

The following newspapermen are known to have been killed by the Japanese or the puppets since the war:

TABLE 7

Sheng Pao-tang	Director of the Yi Shih Pao, Tientsin.
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Hsiao Han-chu	Editor-in-chief of the Hsing Hwa Pao, Nanking.
Wu Chih-yu	Sports reporter in Haug-chow.
Chao Kuotung	Circulation manager of the Ta Mei Wan Pao, Shanghai.
Chu Shao-yi	Editor of the Shun Pao, Shanghai.
Chu Hsing-kung	Editor of the Literary Page of the Ta Mei Wan Pao, Shanghai.
Samuel H. Chang	Director of the Ta Mei Wan Pao, Shanghai.
Cheng Chen-chang	Editor of the International Page of the Ta Mei Wan Pao, Shanghai.
Li Chun-ying	Manager of the Ta Mei Wan Pao, Shanghai.
Shao Hsu-pai	Director of the Ta Kuang News Agency, Shanghai.
Chin Hua-ting	Staff member of the Shun Pao, Shanghai.
Chen Tung-hsuan	Staff member of the Business Department of the Wen Hui Pao, Shanghai.
Kan Chao-chuan	Staff member of the Business Department of the Shun Pao, Shanghai.
Wang Ah-hu	Employee of the Shun Pao, Shanghai.
Chin Chung-huan	Secretary of the Ta Chung News Agency, Shanghai.
Chang Chih-ping	Manager of the Kiang Nan Jih Pao, Kiangsu.
Chiang Hui-tang	Editor-in-chief of the Kuo Min Jih Pao, Shantung.
Chang Hsiang-chiu	Member of the Kuo Min Jih Pao, Shantung.
Chang Hsiang-shih	Member of the Kuo Min Jih Pao, Shantung.
Kou Min-chiu	Member of the Kung Pao, Shantung.
Chang Tze-hung	Director of the Licheng Weekly, Shantung.
Chiang Tze-cheng	Director of the Min Yen News Agency and concurrently director of the Kiating War Zone News.
Kou Yun-shu	Member of the North China Newspapermen's War Zone Service Corps.
Wang Yu-min	Member of the North China Newspapermen's War Zone Service Corps.

The following newspapermen are known to have been killed by enemy air bombs:

TABLE 8

Chen Jui-chai	Member of the Shang Pao, Kiangsi.
Li Mi-lin	Reporter of the Hsin Hua Jih Pao, Hankow.
Pan Mei-nien	Member of the Hsin Hua Jih Pao, Hankow.
Lu Tsung-tao	Member of the Hsin Hua Jih Pao, Hankow.
Chang Mu-chen	Member of the Central Daily News, Chungking.
Li Yao-ching	Manager of the Hankow Branch of the Central News Agency.
Liu Pal-sheng	Radio operator of the Central News Agency.
Hsieh Yun-peng	Assistant editor of the Yi Shih Pao, Chungking.

FOREIGN PRESS

Before the Sino-Japanese war, the foreign press in China was centred at treaty ports, notably Shanghai. As the Japanese forces advanced inland and occupied many of these ports, the foreign press other than that section with Axis affiliations encountered great

difficulties with the Japanese military.

With the outbreak of the Pacific war the Japanese closed down all British, American and other Allied papers in cities under their occupation and interned Allied newspapermen. For instance, in Shanghai with the exception of the Shanghai Times which had been brought over by the Japanese, Havas and Transocean, English papers and news agencies including the North China Daily News, the China Press, the China Weekly Review, Reuters and United Press were closed down.

Since Chungking was proclaimed China's wartime capital, it has become the principal news centre in China. Here many foreign newspapermen have come to gather first-hand information about China's resistance. With the Japanese occupation of the International Settlement following the outbreak of the Pacific war not a few newspapermen of Allied nationalities succeeded in escaping from Shanghai to Chungking.

Following is a list of foreign correspondents in Chungking in 1942 together with the newspapers or news agencies they represented:

TABLE 9. FOREIGN CORRESPONDENTS IN CHUNGKING, 1942

Date of Registration	Name	Newspaper or News Agency
January	George K. T. Wang	United Press
	Robert P. Martin	United Press
	W. MacDougall	United Press
	F. M. Fisher	United Press
	W. Burchett	London Daily Express
	Harrison Forman	London Times and New York Times
	I. Nomerotsky	Tass News Agency
	M. F. Yakshamin	Tass News Agency
	A. H. Monin	Tass News Agency
	Charles Fenn	Friday Magazine.
	Jack Belden	International News Service

THE PRESS

January	James L. Stewart	Time
	Guenther Stein	Manchester Guardian
	Margit Stein	London News Chronicle
	Spencer Moosa	Associated Press
	G. M. MacDonald	London Times
	Roderick K. MacDonald	Sydney Morning Herald
	Peter Klang	International News Service
	Thomas Chao	Reuters
	L. C. Smith	Reuters
	Betty Graham	London Daily Mail and International News Service
	Francis Lee	International News Service
February	Eve Curie	New York Herald Tribune
March	Andre Guilbault	France Independent
	Raymond Clapper	American News Columnist
April	Douglas Wilkie	Sydney Sun
	A. Wagg	London Allied Newspapers
	Mark Tannan	Field Mar, New York
	Water Bosshard	Zurich Zeitung
	R. Barnett	Institute of Pacific Relations
	E. Karaka	Bombay Chronicle
May	Arthur Moore	Statesman, Calcutta
June	Edgar Snow	London Daily Mail
	G. Waterfield	Reuters
	Henry Bough	Reuters
	W. McGaffin	Associated Press
	David An	Korean National Herald
	Chung Han-fu	Supress, Moscow
July	Norman Soong	Overseas News Agency
	I. Epstein	Allied Labour News
	A. W. Tozer	20th Century Fox Movie Co.
September	Karl J. Eskeland	United Press
	J. Fischbacher	France Independent
	J. R. O'Sullivan	Associated Press
	Theodore White	Time and Life
	M. Subhan	Indian Journalist
October	E. O. Hauser	American Reader's Digest
	N. E. Protsenko	Tass News Agency
November	A. T. Steele	Chicago Daily News
	Martin Moore	London Daily Telegraph
	S. Tomara	New York Herald Tribune
	P. Grover	Associated Press
	H. Matthews	New York Times
December	S. Speight	Sydney Morning Herald
	Brooks Atkinson	New York Times
	F. Cancellare	A.C.M.E.
	H. S. Newsreel Wang	United News

THE PRESS

In view of the importance of publicity in China many Allied countries have established additional publicity organs in Chungking. Among them are the American Information Service of the American Embassy, the Press Attache's Office of the British Embassy, the Press Bureau of the Soviet Embassy, the Chungking branch of the Polish Telegraphic Agency under the Polish Embassy, the Netherlands Press Agency under the Netherlands Embassy and the press service of the Australian Legation.

The American Information Service was established in Chungking in December, 1941. Though it operates as a part of the American Embassy, its parent organization is actually the United States Office of War Information. It supplies a daily file of news from the United States to the Central News Agency for release in both English and Chinese. It maintains a translation department which makes available to Chinese papers translations in the Chinese language of leading articles appearing in authoritative American periodicals. For the English-speaking public in China it issues a weekly digest which is mainly a collection of articles published in American journals. It also relays special radio programs from America and through the cooperation of both Station XGOY and General Stilwell's headquarters in China it puts on a daily radio program of American music and news.

The British Press Attache's Office has its head office in Chungking and branches in Chengtu, Kunming and Kweilin. While working under the British Embassy, it is also a part of the British Ministry of Information. Its wartime program includes the release of news and views to the

Chinese press, the publishing of daily bulletins in English, monthly digest of magazine articles, pamphlets, booklets, maps, posters and all manners of printed material. A Chinese weekly is produced called "Information Please" which aims to answer all those questions which readers care to ask. Much material is printed bilingually as this is of special use to universities and middle schools, while a Students Sino-British Weekly of purely educational value is produced for use as textbook in middle schools.

The Press Bureau of the Soviet Embassy issues an English bulletin "News and Views from U.S.S.R." which publishes news dispatches of the Tass News Agency and special wires from the Soviet Information Bureau, and also a Chinese bulletin "Hsin Wen Lei Pien."

The Chungking branch of the Polish Telegraphic Agency under the Polish Embassy, the Netherlands Press Agency under the Netherlands Embassy and the Australian Legation issue daily or occasionally news releases in English for distribution to the local press through the Central News Agency.

The American Information Service, the British Press Attache's Office and the Chinese Government jointly founded the United Nations Filmstrip Library which aims to provide filmstrip projectors and a constant flow to all schools and political bodies of films relative to the United Nations' efforts.

Free China is now served by only two English dailies, the National Herald (formerly the Hankow Herald) removed from Hankow, and the Chengtu News Bulletin, a small-sized paper published by the Canadian

Mission in the Szechuen provincial capital.

WARTIME PRESS CENSORSHIP

In 1939 in accordance with government orders the existing Wartime Press Censorship Bureau was established under the control of the National Military Council as well as the supervision of the Ministry of Information. The bureau is the highest wartime press censorship organization. In each province or special municipality there is a censorship department located at the seat of the provincial or special municipal government. In each hsien or ordinary municipality there is a censorship office. In any important hsien or ordinary municipality where there are many newspapers the censorship office is under the direct control of the Wartime Press Censorship Bureau which appoints its director; otherwise, the censorship office is organized jointly by the local party, government and military organizations and is placed under the control of the provincial censorship department concerned.

REVISED WARTIME PRESS CENSORSHIP REGULATIONS

(Approved by the National Military Council on Dec. 11, 1939)

CHAPTER I. MILITARY AFFAIRS TO BE CENSORED

Publication of writings or pictures pertaining to any of the following articles shall be prohibited unless promulgation or report of such is approved by the National Military Council.

ARTICLE 1. Names of naval, army and air force organizations and the organization, system and equipment of their subordinate operational services.

ARTICLE 2. Mobilization plan, tactical programs and location of naval, army and air forces and the transportation of troops and military supplies.

ARTICLE 3. Movements, military classifications (including warships and airplanes classifications), military strength (including naval tonnage), designations and names of higher officers and commanders.

ARTICLE 4. Day and hour of mobilization and units under mobilization as well as the date marking the completion of mobilization.

ARTICLE 5. Actual conditions of armament, equipment, provisions and all kinds of military supplies, and their manufacture, purchase and transportation and location.

ARTICLE 6. Location and equipment of forts, fortresses, naval bases, warships, barracks, supply depots, airdromes, airports, arsenals, dockyards, survey offices and other military structures or blockade or defense works.

ARTICLE 7. Date of establishment and location of military and other offices relative to national defense.

ARTICLE 8. Manner of enforcement of military education and training (for military and police units and in schools, classes and institutes).

ARTICLE 9. Relations between national armament and friendly nations.

ARTICLE 10. Movements of high military commanders.

ARTICLE 11. Conversations of high military commanders bearing upon military affairs, except duly approved reports on their conversations.

ARTICLE 12. Comparatively heavy losses sustained by naval, army and air forces in action and conditions of replenishment.

ARTICLE 13. Casualties of naval, army and air forces, names of military officers taken prisoner and actual numbers of troops, (however, after the conclusion of a battle, stories about the gallantry of officers and men may be drafted and submitted for approval and publication).

ARTICLE 14. Details regarding the destruction by the enemy and/or traitors of naval, army and air defense works, communication lines and intelligence network.

ARTICLE 15. Enemy units, designations, strength and organization.

ARTICLE 16. Details of disturbances created by the enemy and/or traitors in our rear.

ARTICLE 17. Details of enemy air raids (including the kind and amount of bombs dropped) and military damage sustained.

ARTICLE 18. Intelligence reports and enemy designs as obtained by our side.

ARTICLE 19. Important confessions of a confidential nature by war prisoners.

ARTICLE 20. Military reports or documents which may be utilized by the enemy.

ARTICLE 21. Plans and enforcement of conscription and military labour as well as reports prejudicial to conscription and military labour.

ARTICLE 22. Organization, training and activities of our forces in the enemy rear.

ARTICLE 23. Strategic topography of places adjacent to the war zones and communications with the rear.

ARTICLE 24. Comments on the merits and demerits of our and enemy tactics.

ARTICLE 25. All other reports prejudicial to our military operations.

CHAPTER II. PARTY AND POLITICAL AFFAIRS TO BE CENSORED

Publication of writings or pictures pertaining to any of the following articles shall be absolutely prohibited.

ARTICLE 26. That which endangers the safety of the Republic, slanders responsible government officials, undermines national unity and impairs the prestige of the National Government.

ARTICLE 27. That which contravenes or distorts the *San Min Chu I* and the political platform and policy of the Kuomintang.

ARTICLE 28. That which contravenes the Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction and the Citizens' Pact.

ARTICLE 29. That which instigates, alienates and disintegrates the different sections of the nation.

ARTICLE 30. Movements or reshuffle of responsible party and Government personnel (including all who have foreign missions), publication of which information has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 31. Establishment and removal of important party, government, cultural and educational organizations, promulgation of which information has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 32. Actual conditions of various forms of reconstruction by the National or local governments, promulgation of which information has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 33. News reports of local banditry, publication of which has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 34. All other reports derogatory to the prestige of the Government.

CHAPTER III. FOREIGN AFFAIRS
TO BE CENSORED

Publications of writings or pictures pertaining to any of the following articles shall be absolutely prohibited.

ARTICLE 35. China's foreign policy and activities and conversations between responsible government officials and foreign diplomatic representatives, publication of which has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 36. Interviews, speeches or articles by public functionaries at home and abroad, publication of which has not been approved by the Ministry of Information or the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

ARTICLE 37. News unfavourable to China's foreign relations which news have not been confirmed or have been proved groundless.

ARTICLE 38. International news which are derogatory to the prestige of China's friendly relations.

ARTICLE 39. Utterances and reports contradictory to the standpoint of the state or nation and detrimental to the cordial relations between China and friendly relations.

ARTICLE 40. That which slanders the chief of government of a friendly nation and impairs the friendly relations between the two countries.

ARTICLE 41. All other reports derogatory to China's foreign relations.

CHAPTER IV. FINANCIAL AND
ECONOMIC AFFAIRS TO BE
CENSORED

Publication of writings or pictures pertaining to any of the following articles shall be absolutely prohibited.

ARTICLE 42. Financial measures such as currency reforms, exchange control and shipment of gold and silver, publication of which information has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 43. International loans, commercial contracts and trade agreements, publication of which has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 44. Measures for servicing foreign loans and administering domestic loans, publication of which information has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 45. Location and equipment of factories of heavy industries.

ARTICLE 46. Estimates and statistics relative to military resources.

ARTICLE 47. Projects and measures for international communication lines, publication of which has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 48. China's important economic reconstruction projects, publication of which has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 49. Matters pertaining to tax exemption by special agreement between China and foreign countries, publication of which has not been approved by the competent organ.

ARTICLE 50. All other reports derogatory to China's finance and economy.

CHAPTER V. SOCIAL AFFAIRS
TO BE CENSORED

Publication of writings or pictures pertaining to any of the following article shall be absolutely prohibited.

ARTICLE 51. Alarming rumours which may disturb peace and order, undermine the war effort or even cause riots endangering life and property.

ARTICLE 52. Perverse thoughts and superstitions having disturbing effects upon society.

ARTICLE 53. Malicious attacks on religions recognized by government laws and decrees.

ARTICLE 54. Reports of an obscene and immoral nature.

ARTICLE 55. All other kinds of reports prejudicial to good social morals.

NEWS TRANSMISSIONS

The telecommunication system in China is administered and operated entirely by the Ministry of Communications of the National Government. There are altogether 1,179 telegraph offices at present, which handle all kinds of telegrams including domestic, international and press services. It is almost possible to send telegrams from any place in this country to any other place in the world and *vice versa*.

For the domestic wire network, there were 48,697 kilometers of telegraph lines in the interior provinces. The newly constructed lines are 42,550 kilometers. Those under construction are 1,032 kilometers and those in planning 5,224 kilometers. Altogether there are 97,503 kilometers of telegraph lines. As to the long-distance telephone lines, 29,848 kilometers are in existence, 31,717 kilometers newly constructed, 914 kilometers under construction, 5,070 kilometers in planning, totalling 67,549 kilometers. In addition, there are 262 radio stations in use and 119 stations under construction and planning by the Ministry of Communications. Among them 20 stations have transmitting power exceeding one kilowatt, 106 above 100 watts and below one kilowatt, and 255 below 100 watts.

For international radio telegraphy, a number of direct circuits are linked between Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, and San Francisco, Los Angeles, London, Moscow, Geneva, Sydney, Honolulu, Bombay and recently Tehran. The heaviest traffic is with the United States, which may be routed via RCA, Mackay and Press Wireless circuits. Previously there had been direct circuits to Singapore, Manila, Batavia, Bandoeng, Rangoon and Hongkong, which were unfortunately lost after the Pacific war broke out. Beginning December 15, 1942, the new radio photo service has been inaugurated between Chungking and Los Angeles for government and press uses. Broadcast of press telegrams are being regularly maintained by Chungking and Chengtu radio stations of the Ministry of Communications.

The regulations governing press telegrams were promulgated by the Ministry of Communications on October 3, 1941 which consist of 28 articles. There are two categories of press telegrams: one is the pre-paid and the other is receiver-to-pay or collect. All correspondents are required to obtain press cards from the Ministry of Communications before they may file messages at the telegraph offices. The process of applying for a card is to fill up an application form and send it to the Department of Telegraphs, together with photos and necessary amount of card fee. In case of a foreign correspondent, the certificate of registration issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs will be necessary. When the Department of Telegraphs obtains confirmation from the news agency, a card is then issued to authorize the applicant to file messages at telegraph offices in the places de-

signated. For sending news to the United States, any one of the three routes may be specified by the sender. Up to the present, 193 press cards have been issued by the Department of Telegraphs. Among these, 99 collect

cards and 8 pre-paid cards are given to the foreign correspondents and 84 collect cards and 2 pre-paid cards to the Chinese correspondents.

Statistics of press telegrams during the year 1942 are shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10. PRESS MESSAGES, 1942

	No. of Messages	No. of Words
Domestic Press Messages	3,176	575,400
International Press Messages:		
Incoming Press Messages:		
Europe	2,165	869,128
Soviet Union	6,191	1,454,548
America	5,657	1,095,588
Australia	70	16,285
India	248	62,055
Total	14,841	3,497,599
Outgoing Press Messages:		
Europe	1,184	308,389
Soviet Union	923	122,998
America	7,959	881,182
Australia	172	20,716
India	134	67,792
Total	10,072	1,407,027

PRESS ASSOCIATION

The Chinese National Press Association is the sole press association of a national nature now existing. It was formed in Nanking not long before the Sino-Japanese war broke out but was suspended after the fall of Nanking into Japanese hands. On March 16, 1941 it was inaugurated anew in Chungking. Its object is the study of journalistic science and advancement of the Chinese press. It has now more than 300 members. Officers for the year 1942-43 are as follows:

Board of Directors:

Chairman: T. T. Hsiao.

Standing Committee: Peng Keh-chen, Tsao Ku-ping, Chang Wan-li, and Chow Chin-yueh.

Secretary: Chen Ming-teh.

Directors: Chen Posheng, Hu Cheng-chih, Ma Hsing-yeh, Chien Tsang-shih, Pan Kung-pi, Cheng Shu-wo, Thomas Ming-heng Chao, Wang Yu-ming, H. P. Tseng, Liu Kuang-yen, Hu Chien-chung, Feng Yuchen, Huang Tien-peng, Tsao Yin-chih and Tu Hsieh-min.

Reserve Directors: Pan Tzu-nien, Chang Ming-wei, Yang Mu-shih, Chao Mo-yeh, C. J. Chen, Chang Yu-huan, and David C. H. Lu.

Board of Supervisors:

Standing Supervisor: Pan Kung-chun.

Supervisors: Wang Yun-sheng, Huang Shao-ku, Hollington K. Tong, Cheng Tsung-po, Ku Chih-chang, and Hsu Hsiao-yen.

Reserve Supervisors: Lo Cheng-keh, Sung Sou-shih and Chun Ju-sheng.

Research Division:

Chief: Ma Hsing-yeh.

Deputy Chief: Hsu Chun-yuan.

Publication Division:

Chief: Lo Cheng-keh.

Deputy Chief: Li Chung-ping.

Collection of Information Division:

Chief: Chien Tsang-shih.

Deputy Chief: Hsu Yin.

Service Division:

Chief: Thomas Ming-heng Chao.

Deputy Chief: Chow Chung-kuang.

CONSTITUTION OF THE CHINESE NATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION

CHAPTER I. GENERAL PROVISIONS

ARTICLE 1. The name of the Association shall be the Chinese National Press Association.

ARTICLE 2. The object of the Association shall be the study of journalistic science and advancement of the Chinese press.

ARTICLE 3. The headquarters of the Association shall be located at the seat of the National Government. Branches may be established both inside and outside the country.

CHAPTER II. ACTIVITIES

Article 4. The activities of the Association shall be as follows:

- Research in theory and practice of journalism.
- Editing and publication of books and periodicals on journalism.
- Coordination and cooperation of and collection of information about press and cultural organizations both inside and outside the country.
- Advancement of knowledge, technique, morals and friendship of newspapermen.
- Other affairs pertaining to newspapermen's welfare.

CHAPTER III. MEMBERSHIP

ARTICLE 5. Any person who believes in the *San Min Chu I*, concurs

with the object of the Association and fulfils one of the following qualifications, may upon the joint recommendation of three or more members of the Association and with the approval of the General Meeting or the Board of Directors become a member:

- Having served with merit two or more years in newspaper work.
- Having served for more than one year in newspaper work after graduation from the department of journalism in any technical institute or college.
- Having made contributions to journalism or the press.

ARTICLE 6. Any veteran newspaperman who ardently supports the activities of the Association may upon the recommendation of the General Meeting or the Board of Directors be invited to become an honorary member.

ARTICLE 7. A new member shall fill out an application form and pay an initiation fee of \$5.

Each member shall pay an annual membership fee of \$10. However, if he pays a total membership fee of \$100 at one time, he shall be exempt from further payment of annual membership fee.

ARTICLE 8. Each member shall have the rights of speech, vote, election and other usual public rights and privileges.

ARTICLE 9. Members shall have the following obligations:

- To observe the Association's regulations and resolutions.
- To pay membership fees.
- To assist in the activities of the Association.

ARTICLE 10. Any member who is found to have violated the regulations or resolutions of the Association or have impaired the prestige of the press and the Association and is impeached by the Board of Supervisors, may be referred to the General Meeting for disciplinary action.

CHAPTER IV. ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS

ARTICLE 11. The General Meeting shall be the highest governing body of the Association. During its adjournment the Board of Directors shall be the highest governing body.

ARTICLE 12. There shall be 21 Directors, seven Reserve Directors, seven Supervisors and three Reserve Supervisors to be elected by the General Meeting. Those who obtain the largest numbers of votes shall be elected Directors or Supervisors while those who obtain the next largest numbers of votes shall be Reserve Directors or Reserve Supervisors. They shall hold office for one year and are eligible for reelection.

ARTICLE 13. The Directors shall constitute the Board of Directors whose functions follow:

- (a) To represent the Association.
- (b) To carry out the resolutions passed by the General Meeting.
- (c) To convene the General Meeting.
- (d) To plan and carry out activities outlined in Article 4.
- (e) To draw up the Association's budget and financial reports.

ARTICLE 14. The supervisors shall constitute the Board of Supervisors whose functions follow:

- (a) To supervise the activities of the Association.
- (b) To audit the accounts of the Association.

- (c) To supervise the members in the performance of their duties.

ARTICLE 15. The Board of Directors shall elect five from among the members of the Board to form a standing committee and one member from the standing committee shall be elected by the Board to become the chairman of the Board. The Board of Supervisors shall elect one from among the members of the Board of Supervisors to become the standing supervisor.

ARTICLE 16. There shall be a secretary of the Board or Directors to be elected from among the members of the Board by the Board of Directors.

The secretary shall be in charge of secretarial, accounting, and business affairs, registration of members and organization of and contact with branch associations.

ARTICLE 17. The Board of Directors shall have under it four divisions: research, publication, collection of information and service. Each division shall have a chief, a deputy chief and a number of assistants who are to be appointed by the Board.

The functions of the various divisions shall be as follows:

- (a) Research Division. Planning for all kinds of research work, collection and custody of publications, direction and supervision of research work by the members and other related affairs.
- (b) Publication Division. Editing, examination and publication of books and publications of the Association.
- (c) Collection of Information Division. Collection of information about and contact with newspaper enterprises and press

organizations both inside and outside the country and members of the Association.

- (d) Service Division. All affairs pertaining to members' welfare and social service work.

The Board of Directors may, when and if it deems necessary, establish other divisions or committees.

ARTICLE 18. A branch association may be formed at any place inside or outside the country if a joint petition from 10 or more members at such place is approved by the General Meeting or the Board of Directors. Regulations governing branch associations shall be drawn up separately.

CHAPTER V. MEETINGS

ARTICLE 19. The General Meeting shall be held once every year. However, when and if the Board of Directors deems it necessary or at the request of one-third of the members, an extraordinary General Meeting may be convened.

ARTICLE 20. The Board of Directors shall meet once every two months and the standing committee of the Board once every month. The Board of Supervisors shall meet once every six months but may call extraordinary meetings whenever necessary. The Board of Directors and the Board of Supervisors may hold joint meetings.

CHAPTER VI. MAINTENANCE FUND

ARTICLE 21. The maintenance fund of the Association shall be derived from the following sources:

- (a) Initiation fees and membership fees.
- (b) Sinking fund and contributions.

CHAPTER VII. APPENDIX

ARTICLE 22. The Constitution may be revised by a resolution of the General Meeting.

ARTICLE 23. By-laws governing the administration of the Association shall be drawn up separately.

ARTICLE 24. The Constitution shall come into force after being approved by the General Meeting and duly filed with and approved by the governing offices.

JOURNALISTIC EDUCATION

Chinese realized the importance of journalistic education as early as 1911. During that year the National Association for the Advancement of the Press proposed the establishment of a school of journalism. In 1920 the National Press Association drew up a Constitution of the University of Journalism. As both associations were short-lived, they failed to materialize their plans.

In 1918 students of the National Peking University founded a Society of Journalism which marked the beginning of the study of journalism in China. In 1920 the first Department of Journalism was established in the College of Arts of St. John's University. In 1921 journalism was made one of the eight courses in Amoy University. A Department of Journalism was founded in the Peking Ping Min University in 1923, in the Peking Min Kuo University and Yenching University in 1924 and the Nan Fang University in Shanghai in 1925. Other universities that established departments of journalism later were the Kuang Hua University, the Fu Tan University and the Central Political Institute.

After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, departments of journal-

ism in universities in enemy invaded areas have either closed down or been removed to the interior. Following are the three prominent existing institutes of journalism in Free China:

Department of Journalism of Yenching University. The project for the establishment of the Department of Journalism of Yenching University was conceived at the 1922 annual meeting of the Council of Higher Education of the China Christian Educational Association. The department was formally inaugurated in 1924 with Mr. Roswell S. Britton as head and Mr. Vernon Nash as professor. Owing to financial difficulties it was temporarily suspended in 1927 when Mr. Nash who succeeded Mr. Britton as head of the department returned to America to launch a fund drive. With donations amounting to U.S.\$50,000 from the School of Journalism of the University of Missouri and other individuals and organizations, the department was resumed in the summer of 1929 upon the return to China of Mr. Nash. Cooperation in the form of exchange fellowships and professorships was maintained between the department and the School of Journalism of the University of Missouri. Upon the outbreak of the Pacific war on December 8, 1941 the department was again suspended with the closing down of Yenching University by the Japanese. However, it was revived upon the reopening of Yenching University in Chengtu in October, 1942 with a donation of N.C.\$100,000 from the Chang Chi-huan Memorial Scholarship Fund. There are 60 major students. The faculty is composed of three full-time members and two part-time members. The present department head is Mr. Chiang Yin-en, formerly chief editor of the Ta Kung

Pao in Kweilin. The department publishes a tabloid-size weekly paper "Yenching News" with both Chinese and English editions, which is wholly run by students with the faculty only supervising. It has a circulation of about 1,000.

Department of Journalism of Fu Tan University. The Department of Journalism of the Fu Tan University was founded in 1929 in Shanghai with Mr. Hsieh Lu-yi as head. After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937 it was removed with the university to Peipei in the suburbs of Chungking. In 1939 Mr. Cheng Tsang-po succeeded Mr. Hsieh Lu-yi as head of the department but relinquished his post in the summer of 1942 when he was succeeded by Mr. Chen Wan-tao.

During the past 14 years about 400 students have graduated from the department. These graduates are serving in various newspaper offices, news agencies and cultural and educational organizations. The present enrolment is around 60.

The curriculum of the department stresses both theory and practice of journalism. While in Shanghai, students of the department edited and published both the Chinese and English editions of the Fu Tan Bulletin which was printed by the university press and also ran the Fu Hsin News Agency which supplied news to papers in Shanghai as well as other parts of China. After the removal of the department to Szechuen, both the Chinese and English editions of the Fu Tan Bulletin were suspended but the Fu Hsin News Agency was resumed. Reporting, writing, editing, copying and issuing of the service are all done by students who thus get a chance to practise what they have studied. The students are also publishing a mimeo-

graphed small-size paper called the Peipei Shih Yen Chien Pao in collaboration with the Ministry of Information and a pictorial wall sheet.

Journalistic Education in Central Political Institute.—This institute established a Department of Journalism in 1935 with Prof. Ma Hsing-yeh as head. After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in July, 1937 the institute was removed from Nanking to Lushan in north Kiangsi, thence to Chihkiang in west Hunan and finally to the Little Hot Springs in the suburbs of Chungking. In 1941 the department was reorganized as the Journalism Short Course wherefrom students take two years to graduate instead of four years as from the Department of

Journalism. There are now 47 students in the first year class and 42 students in the second year class of the Journalism Short Course.

In 1940-41 the institute opened Journalism Training Classes to give advanced training in journalism to newspapermen connected with party papers or news agencies as well as college students or graduates interested in journalism. The following table shows the numbers of graduates of journalism from the institute during 1937-40.

The students have organized a Society of Journalism and put out wall papers and the "Hsin Wen Hsueh Chi Kan" (Quarterly of Journalism) in Chinese.

TABLE 11. NUMBERS OF GRADUATES OF JOURNALISM, 1937-1940

Year	Department or Training Class	Year of Study	No. of Graduates
1937	Department of Journalism	4 years	10
1938	Department of Journalism	4 years	8
1939	Department of Journalism	4 years	3
1941	Department of Journalism	4 years	8
1942	Department of Journalism	4 years	11
1940	Training Class A-1	1 year	52
1940	Training Class A-2	1 year	35
1940	Training Class B-1	1 year	28
TOTAL	...	...	155

PUBLIC HEALTH

P. Z. KING¹ (金 哲 基)

INTRODUCTION

DURING the period under review (1940-1942), the country has entered its fourth and fifth years' war of anti-aggression. Our coast line remained blockaded by our enemy. The only convenient outlets to the outside world were the air route to Hongkong and Yunnan-Burma road to Rangoon. Even these routes were later closed to us through the fall of Hongkong and Lashio. Yet China stands adamant in its determination to fight to a victorious finish. In the China front there have been successes and reverses of battles fought, but generally the lines have remained as they were three years ago. Towards the latter part of the period under review, we saw heartening events occurring rapidly in the world. All the aggressor nations discarded their masks to reveal their real intents and purposes. The democratic nations quickly took the cue to line up a solid and united front, thus giving birth to the concept of "United Nations."

In the field of public health one found it increasingly difficult to carry on because of the nation's dependence upon friendly countries for supplies and equipment. Yet we are able to report that the morale of the health personnel continued to be kept at an incredibly high level, and that for the period under review there were no large scale epidemic, save the two plague epidemics which were brought

about by the enemy's unscrupulous bacterial warfare. On the whole, the health of the nation has been kept in good condition and the manpower well preserved upon which the fighting forces of the country depend so much. Nor is the Government slow in recognizing the importance of the role played by the health organizations in the prolonged warfare. Hence early in 1940 the status of the Weishengshu (National Health Administration) was elevated from its previous departmental level to one slightly below that of a Ministry. It has since been directly under the Executive Yuan.

While striving to preserve and promote the health of the nation under wartime conditions, the health authorities have not relaxed in their effort in laying down a permanent and basic health structure for the postwar period of reconstruction.

I. PROMOTION OF STATE MEDICINE

A. System of Health Organizations in the Country. The establishment of a system of health organizations in the country is prerequisite to the proper execution of its health program. The system adopted for this country for the promotion of state medicine bases its structure upon hsien health centres of the provinces, thus tallying with the Central Government's policy to organize all hsien into auto-

nomous units of local administration. Supervising the work of all hsien health centres in a province is the provincial health administration. The National Health Administration as the highest central health authority then supervises and coordinates the activities of all provincial health administrations. The nomination of the director of the provincial health administration rests also in the authority of the National Health Administration. Feeding each of the hsien health centres are four or five sub-centres, each of which in turn is served by 20 or so health stations, one for each town, village or group of villages. The smallest health unit is the village health worker, one for each *pao* (borough) comprising about 100 families (See Chart 1).

1. *National Health Administration.* The National Health Administration proper functions through its four main departments—general affairs, medical administration, health services, and epidemic prevention—and its several offices for accounting, statistics and control of native medicine. Directly under the Administration, there are over 100 field units for epidemic prevention, highway health service, medical relief, research, training, and for the provision of drugs and medical supplies (see Chart 2). Through its national institute of health, the National Health Administration undertakes the higher training of technical personnel and scientific research required for the wise planning of the national health program. And, through its epidemic prevention bureaus (serum institutes), narcotics bureau, surgical instruments and hospital equipment factory, etc., the necessary biological products, narcotics, medical supplies

and equipment are manufactured for use in the health services.

2. *Provincial Health Administrations.*—The standardization of the system of provincial health administration was begun in June 1940. As an integral part of the provincial government, the provincial health administration is responsible for the health program of the entire province. To meet the local needs of its municipal and hsien health organizations, it maintains a well-equipped hospital, a hygienic laboratory for diagnostic purposes as well as for vaccine production, an institute for the training of public health personnel, a factory for the manufacture of medical supplies and equipment, and other services.

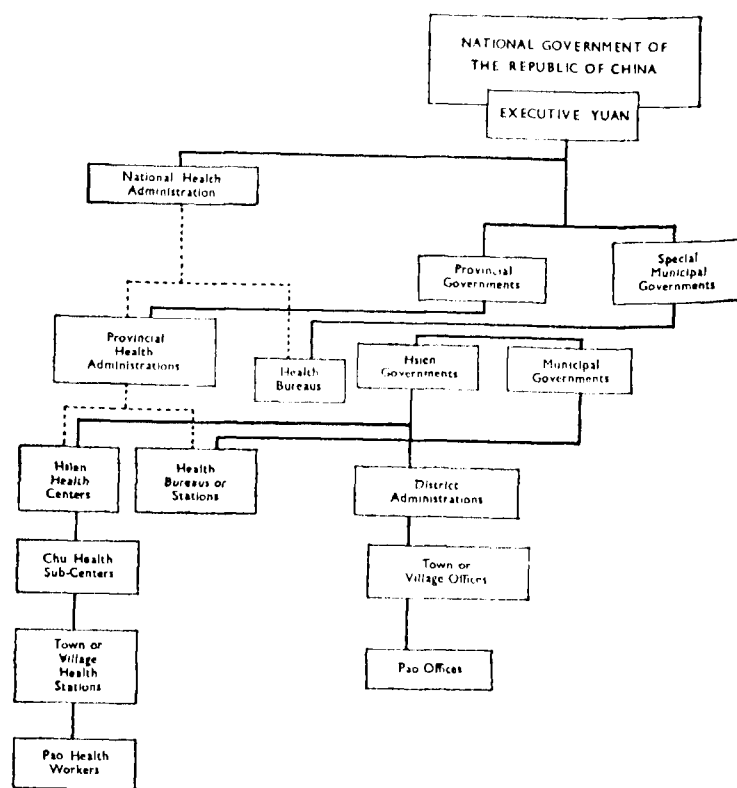
Chart 3 illustrates the organization of the Kiangsi Provincial Health Administration, which is the oldest and best developed in the country.

3. *Municipal Health Bureaus.*—In municipalities where finance and personnel do not permit the establishment of municipal health bureaus, the health work is undertaken by the police bureau, social welfare bureau, or the municipal government itself. Of the two special municipalities directly under the Executive Yuan in Free China, namely, Chungking and Sian, a health bureau was organized for the former in 1939 while that for the latter has been under preparation. Of the seven municipalities under the provincial governments, health bureaus have been organized for Kweiyang and Kweilin, while Kunming, Lanchow and Chengtu are provided with health stations. Preparations have also been made to set up municipal health organizations in Changsha and Hengyang.

¹ Director-General, National Health Administration.

CHART 1

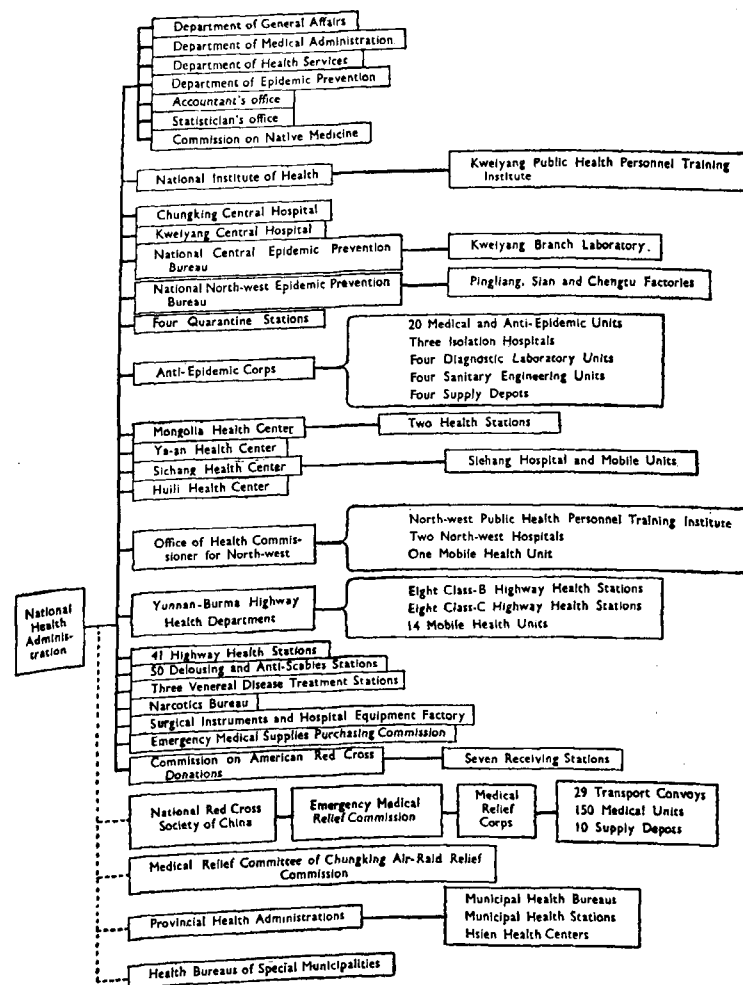
SYSTEM OF HEALTH ORGANIZATION IN THE COUNTRY



————— Indicates direct control
 Indicates supervision only

CHART 2

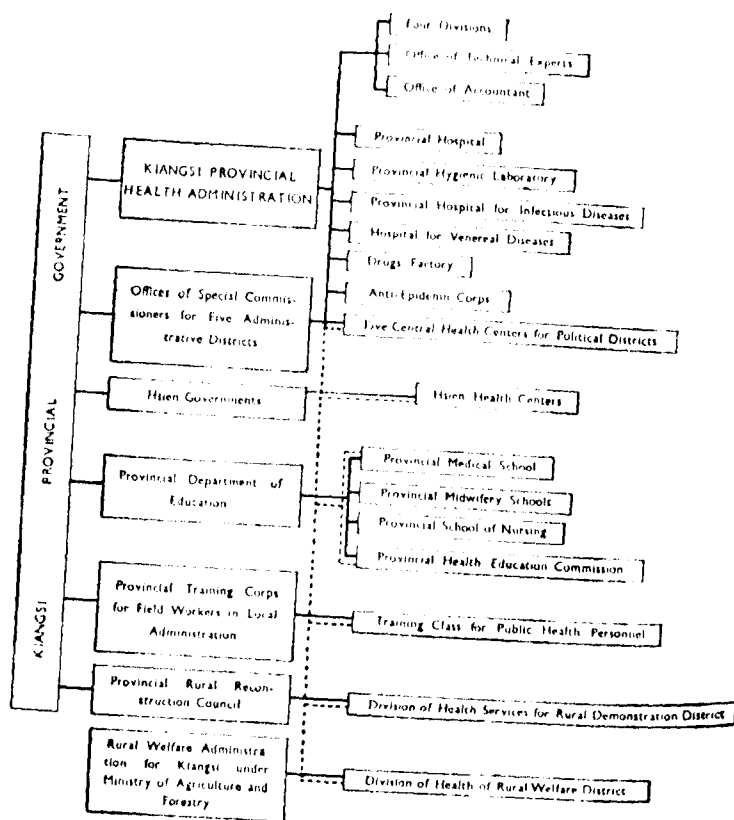
ORGANIZATION OF THE NATIONAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION AND ITS SUBSIDIARY ORGANIZATIONS, June, 1942



————— Organizations under direct control of the National Health Administration.
 Organizations under supervision of the National Health Administration.

CHART 3

ORGANIZATION OF THE KIANGSI PROVINCIAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION WITH ITS SUBSIDIARY ORGANIZATIONS



— Organizations under direct control of Kiangsi Provincial Health Administration.

..... Organizations under supervision of Kiangsi Provincial Health Administration.

CHART 4

ORGANIZATION OF THE HEALTH BUREAU OF CHUNGKING MUNICIPALITY

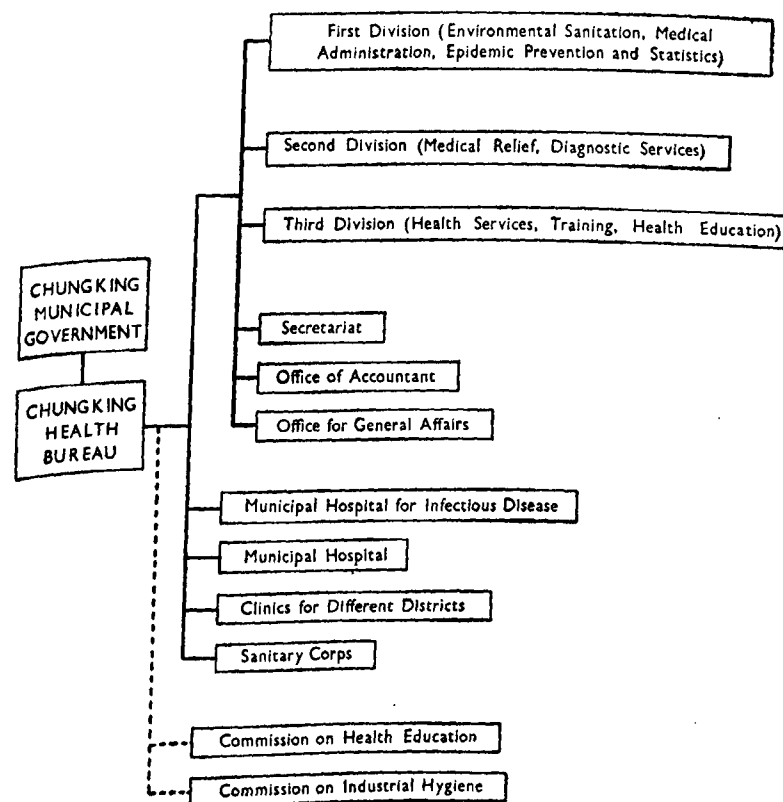
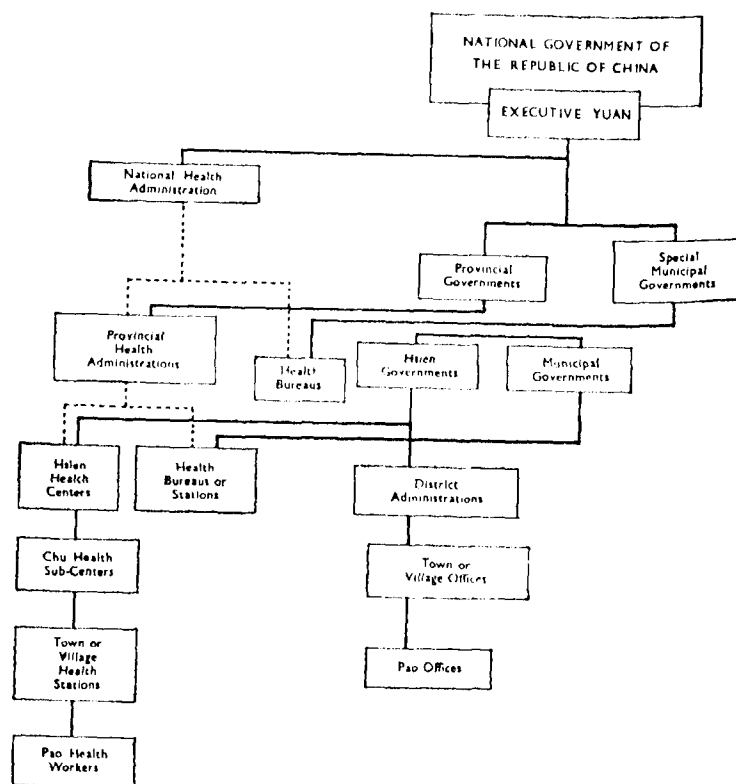


CHART 1

SYSTEM OF HEALTH ORGANIZATION IN THE COUNTRY

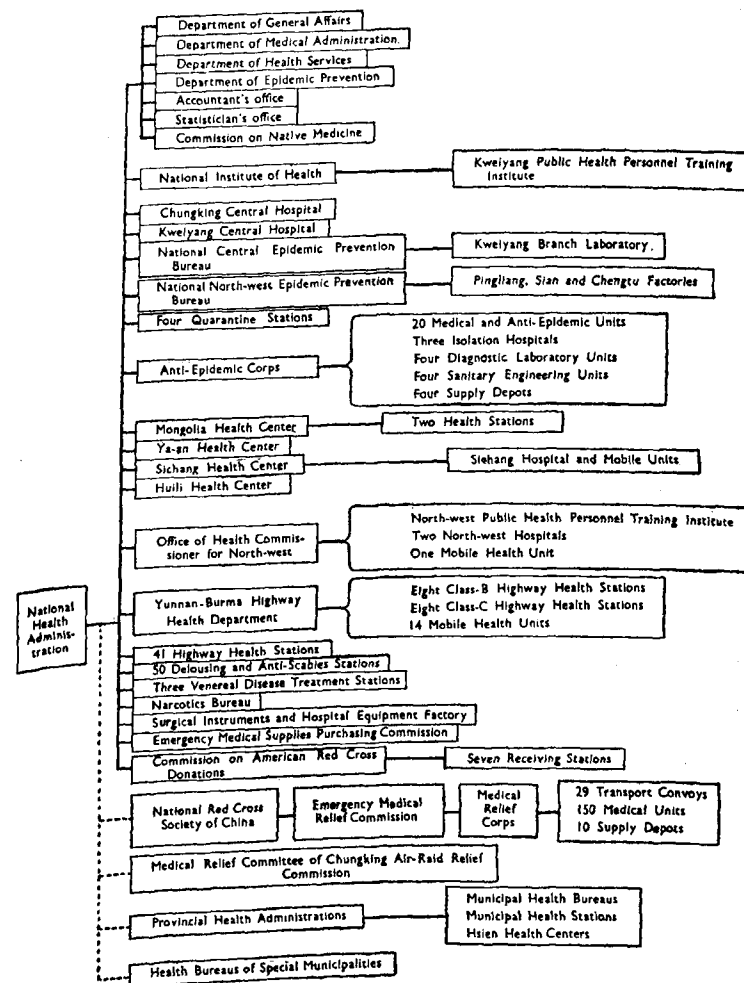


— Indicates direct control

- - - Indicates supervision only

CHART 2

ORGANIZATION OF THE NATIONAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION AND ITS SUBSIDIARY ORGANIZATIONS, June, 1942



— Organizations under direct control of the National Health Administration.

- - - Organizations under supervision of the National Health Administration.

Chart 5

ORGANIZATION OF THE HSIEN HEALTH CENTRE

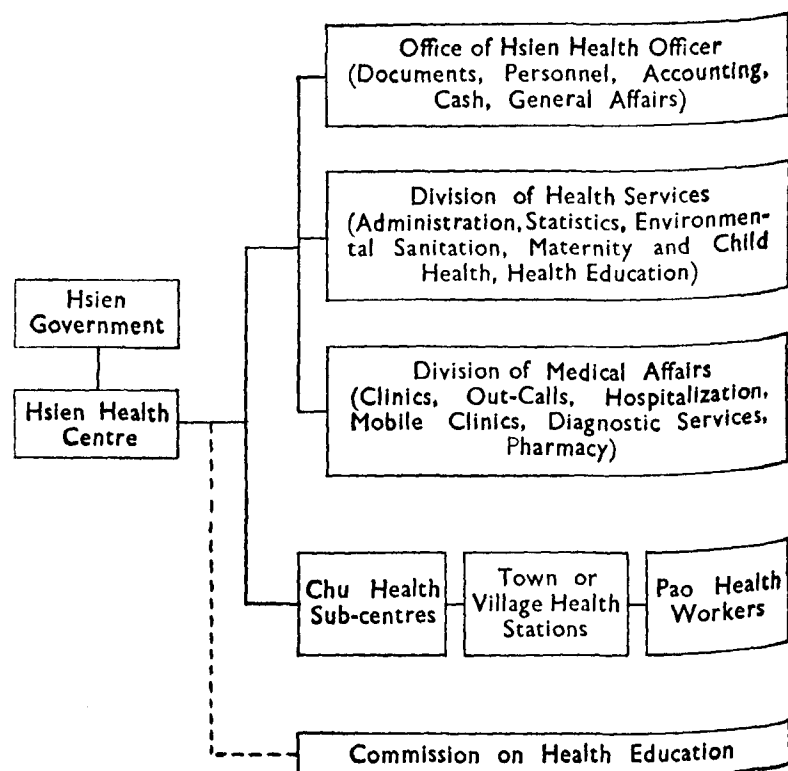


Chart 4 shows the organization of the Health Bureau of Chungking Municipality.

4. *Hsien Health Centres*.—The hsien health system was adopted in May 1940. It provides a hsien health centre for each hsien, a health sub-centre for each *chu*, a health station for each town, village, or group of villages, and a health worker for each

pao (an average of 100 families). (See Chart 5 and Table 1.)

Each hsien health centre maintains a 20-40 bed hospital, a simple laboratory and one or more mobile medical units; the health sub-centres and health stations render dispensary services, and the health workers are equipped to do first-aid work.

TABLE 1. HEALTH MACHINERY FOR THE HSIEN

District	Average Population	Name of Autonomous Organization	Health Organization	Estimated No. of Health Organizations Throughout Each Hsien
Hsien ...	200,000—400,000	Hsien Government	Hsien Health Centre ...	1
District ...	75,000—150,000	Chu Governments	Chu Health Sub-centres	3
Village (or Town) ...	5,000	Village (or Town) Offices ...	Health Stations ...	50
Pao ...	500	Pao Offices	Pao Health Workers ...	500

B. The Hsien Health System as the Foundation of State Medicine.—The hsien health centre constitutes the basic unit for the promotion of state medicine. It is also an integral part of the New Hsien System adopted by the National Government. Parallel with education, public safety, co-operatives and other constructive enterprises, its development in the hsien administrative system is evolved from experiences gained during the past 10 years. The system is also based upon the following principles:

- (1) To utilize the limited available medical personnel as basic staff to train local auxiliary health workers.
- (2) To consider the prevailing disease and health problems of the people as a whole with special emphasis on prevention.

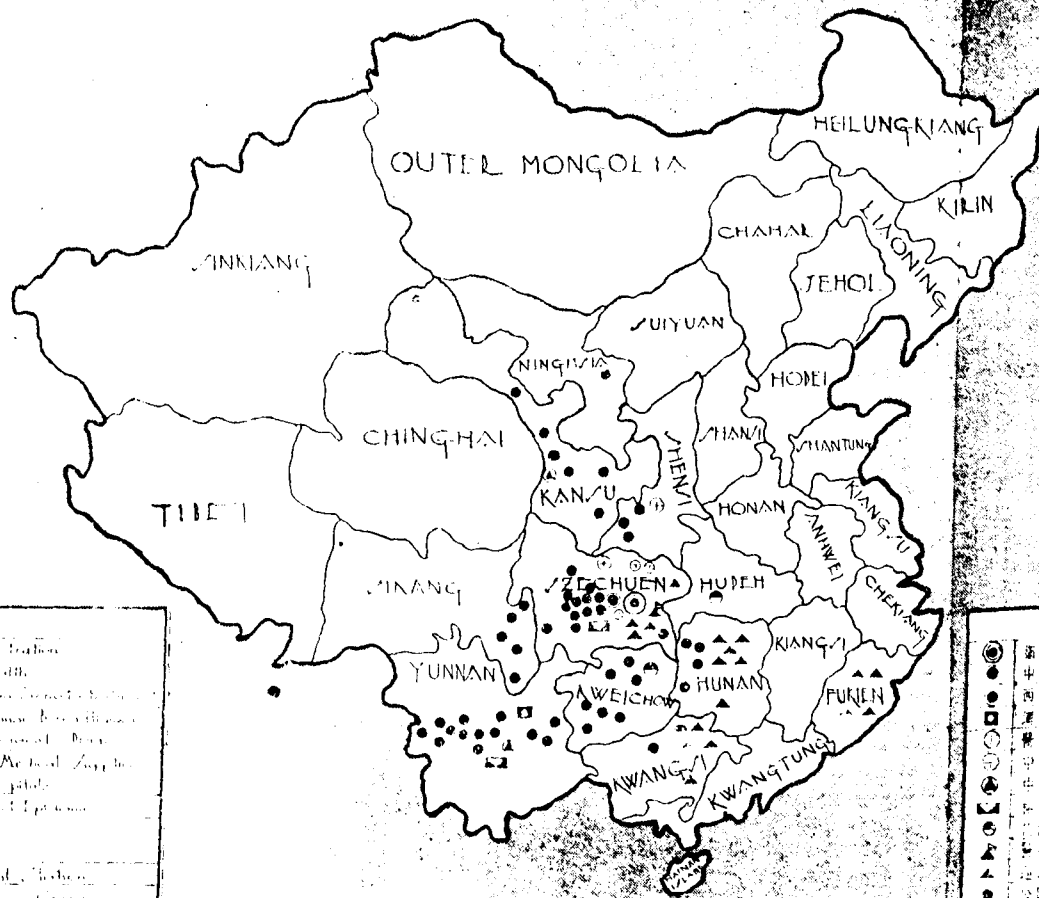
- (3) To make available the fundamental health services to the people with due consideration of their economic limitations.

1. *Functions*.—The functions of the hsien health centre include the following:

- (a) General Administration.—Planning of health programs, budget and accounting, supervision of health stations, control of drugs and medical supplies, compilation of reports, etc.;
- (b) Medical Relief.—Clinic, hospital, and first-aid services;
- (c) Epidemic Prevention.—Reporting, investigation, and control of epidemic and endemic diseases, and provision of simple diagnostic services;
- (d) Environmental Sanitation.—Water supply, refuse and night-

MAP I DISTRIBUTION OF CENTRAL HEALTH ORGANIZATIONS IN CHINA

OCTOBER 1942



Legend

- National Health Administration
- National Institute of Health
- Office of Health Commissioner
- Health Department of Yunnan Province
- Organizations for the Prevention of Disease
- General Instruction Office Medical Supplies
- Central and Northern H. H. Institute
- ▲ National Central and Northern H. H. Institute Prevention Bureau
- ▲ Quarantine Station
- ▲ Venereal Disease Treatment Station
- ▲ Westphalia Anti-Typhoid Corps
- ▲ Medical and Anti-Typhoid Corps
- Highway Health Station

圖例

- 衛生署
- 中央衛生醫院
- 西北衛生專員辦事處
- 滇省公路衛生處
- 醫務器材供應總機關
- 中央西北醫院
- 中央西北防疫處
- ▲ 防疫所
- ▲ 梅毒治療所
- ▲ 西德軍醫隊
- ▲ 公路衛生站

PUBLIC HEALTH

69

TABLE 2. INCREASE IN NUMBER OF HEALTH ORGANIZATIONS IN CHINA, 1928-1942

	1928	1934	1937	1942
Central Administrative Health Organization ...	1	1	1	1
Provincial Administrative Health Organizations ...	—	4	7	16
Municipal Administrative Health Organizations ...	2	5	6	3
Local Administrative Health Organizations ...	—	43	217	783
Central Field Health Organizations ...	2	7	12	175
Provincial Field Health Organizations ...	—	35	73	185

TABLE 3. STATUS OF DIFFERENT PROVINCIAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATIONS IN CHINA, OCTOBER 1942

Province*	Time of Establishment	No. of Subsidiary Organizations	No. of Hsien Health Centres in Province
Kiangsi ...	June 1934 ...	16	83
Chekiang ...	Sept. 1940 ...	6	61
Hupeh ...	Feb. 1941 ...	24	17
Hunan ...	Jan. 1941 ...	23	75
Szechuen ...	Oct. 1941 ...	11	65
Fukien ...	Feb. 1938 ...	15	64
Kwangtung ...	Sept. 1940 ...	21	72
Kwangsi ...	July 1941 ...	24	99
Yunnan ...	July 1936 ...	6	77
Kweichow ...	July 1941 ...	7	76
Honan ...	Oct. 1940 ...	9	20
Shensi ...	July 1937 ...	8	54
Kansu ...	April 1941 ...	3	20
Ninghsia ...	Dec. 1934 ...	6	—
Chinghai ...	Jan. 1941 ...	6	—
Anhui ...	Oct. 1942 ...	—	—

* All provincial health administrations are directly under the provincial governments with the exception of Yunnan and Kwangsi where they are placed under the provincial bureau of civil affairs.

TABLE 4. PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN NUMBER OF HSIEN HEALTH CENTRES SINCE THE ADOPTION OF "NEW HSIEN SYSTEM"

Year	No. of Hsien Health Centres	Percentage Increase (as compared with 1937)
1937 (Before Outbreak of War) ...	217	100%
1939 (When the New Hsien System Was Adopted) ...	404	232%
1942 ...	783	361%

PUBLIC HEALTH

TABLE 3. EXTENT OF HSIEN HEALTH WORK IN CHINA, 1941

Province	No. Hsien in Province	No. Hsien Provided with Hsien Health Centre	No. Hsien Not Provided with Hsien Health Centre	No. Hsien in Occupied Areas*
Kiangsu	61		61	57
Heckiang	76	61	15	23
Anhui	62		62	20
Kiangsi	81	81		12
Hupeh	70	17	53	30
Hunan	75	75		2
Szechuen	115	65	60	
Sikang	46		46	
Hopel	130		130	130
Shantung	107		107	105
Shansi	101		101	90
Honan	111	20	91	40
Shensi	92	54	38	
Kansu	67	20	47	
Chinghai	17		17	
Fukien	64	64		3
Kwangtung	97	72	25	36
Kwangsi	99	99		
Yunnan	112	77	35	
Kweichow	85	76	9	
Liandong	30		30	59
Kirin	41		41	41
Heilungkiang	43		43	43
Jehol	16		16	16
Chahar	16		16	16
Suiyuan	16		16	13
Ninghsia	10		10	
Sinkiang	59		59	
TOTAL	1,954	783	1,171	

* Based on statistics issued by the Directorate of Statistics in May 1942. Excluding those in occupied areas, about two-thirds of the hsien in Free China are provided with hsien health centres.

In 1941 and 1942, 69 and 71 senior medical officers were respectively dispatched by the National Health Administration to participate in the work of the health organizations in 13 provinces (Chekiang, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kwangtung, Anhwei, Hupeh, Hunan, Kweichow, Yunnan, Honan, Kwangsi, Szechuen, Sikang) and in Chungking Municipality. In order to direct and supervise local health work, other senior members were dispatched from time to time to give technical advice to the existing health organizations on the Szechuen-Hunan, Hunan-Kweichow, Chungking-Chengtou, Loehai-

Sichang, Sichang-Hsiangyun, Yunnan-Burma and Szechuen-Yunnan highways and in the northwestern provinces.

Although there has been a significant increase in the local health budgets during recent years, funds are far from being sufficient to cope with the rapid rise of the cost of living. To help meet the deficit, the National Health Administration offered in 1941 and 1942 grants-in-aid to four provinces (Kwangsi, Szechuen, Kweichow and Hunan) for the establishment and maintenance of their model hsien health centres, and to 12 provinces (Szechuen, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Anhwei and Honan) for 35 ordinary hsien health centres.

In addition, subsidies were granted in the form of medical supplies and equipment, and in cash for sanitary engineering projects. In 1941 and 1942 such assistance was extended to 76 organizations.

3. *Health Work in Northwest.*—Special efforts are made to extend health work to the northwestern and border provinces, where medical and health services are heretofore almost completely lacking. For the seven northwestern provinces, the National Health Administration continues to maintain the office of the health commissioner for the Northwest established in 1939, with two hospitals, one mobile medical unit and one public health personnel training institute as its service units. Special subsidies of \$10,000 each are provided each month for the Kansu, Shensi, Ninghsia, and Chinghai provincial health administrations, for subsidizing hsien health centres and travelling clinics, and for

demonstrations in rural health, and maternity and child health.

4. *Health Work in Mongolia, Sichang, Ya-an, Huili and Other Border Regions.*—For Mongolia, a Mongolia Health Centre was established with headquarters in Holanshan and health stations in the Ikh Chao League and Ulan Chap League. Each of the latter health stations are provided with two mobile units to look after the local medical needs.

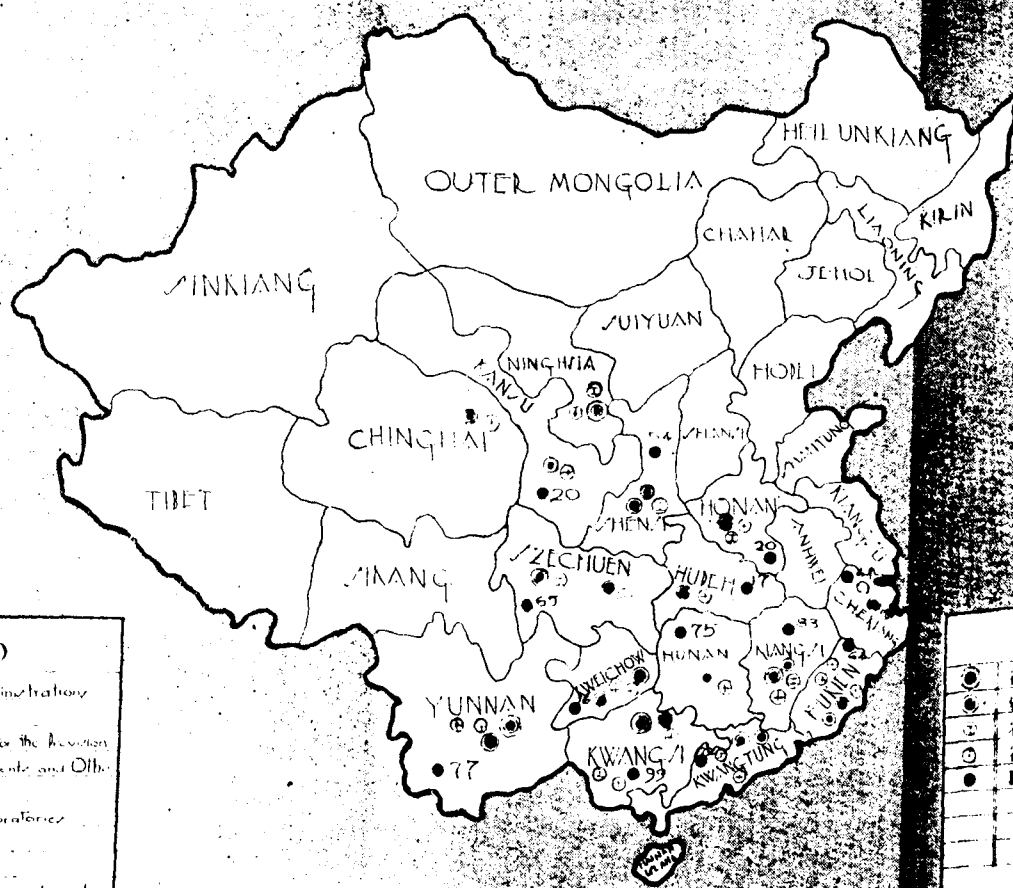
For Sikang, there are three health centres directly under the National Health Administration, namely, Sichang, Ya-an, and Huili. The Sichang Health Centre maintains a hospital in Sichang and two mobile medical units for Chaochueh, Hanyuan, Yuehchun, and Yenyuan.

II. EXPANSION OF HIGHWAY HEALTH SERVICE

A. *Nature and Functions.*—With the enemy's blockade of the coastal provinces, China has to depend upon newly constructed highways in the Northwest and the Southwest for the transportation of supplies from abroad to the interior and upon other highways for communication from the war areas to the rear and between provinces. In order to render curative and preventive services to the large number of travelers, refugees, highway labourers and villagers in the neighbourhood and to encourage the provinces to establish health service in under-developed areas, the National Health Administration set up in 1939 special health stations at strategic points on the highways, each provided with a small hospital for serious and emergency cases, an out-patient dispensary and a small diagnostic laboratory, besides conducting the regular health program

12393
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MAD II DISTRIBUTION OF LOCAL HEALTH ORGANIZATIONS IN CHINA OCTOBER 1942



LEGEND	
⊙	Provincial Health Administration
●	Municipal Health Bureau
②	Provincial Organizations for the Revision of Drugs, Surgical Instruments and Other Medical Supplies
⊗	Provincial Hygiene Laboratories
⊕	Provincial Hospitals
•	Local Health Centers

The numbers denote the number of local health centers in the respective provinces.

圖例	
⊙	省立衛生處或市衛生局
●	省衛生試驗所
②	省醫療器材藥品供應機關
⊗	省立醫院
⊕	縣衛生院
•	(數字表示各該省縣衛生院數)

衛生署衛生工程室製

702

PUBLIC HEALTH

which includes health education, environmental sanitation, maternity and child health, etc.

B. Distribution. During the past two years, additional highway health

stations have been established and the total number has been increased from 18 in 1939 to 57 in 1942. Table 6 gives the locations of these highway health stations.

TABLE 6. DISTRIBUTION OF HIGHWAY HEALTH STATIONS, 1942

Name of Highway	No. of Highway Health Stations	Localities
Hankai-Lanchow Line	2	Chia-huan, Yangtong.
Shensi-Kansu Line	3	Tinghsu, Pingliang, Changwu.
Hanchung-Peiho Line	1	Hanchung.
Huashien-Shuang-shihpu Line	2	Tien-hui, Shuang-shihpu.
Shensi-Szechuen Line	1	Mienyang.
Chengtu-Chungking Line	9	Neikiang, Chinmukuan, Hsinlungchang , Hsi-chun-chang, Sanshengmiao, Yang- hsin-chang, Chinkangpu, Laoyinyen, Hsin- Chiao.
Chungking-Kweichow Line	2	Tungtzu, Nanchuan.
Szechuen-Hunan Line	4	Shenchu, Chienkung, Lungtan, Shouli.
Kweichow-Kwangsi Line	3	Hochu, Tushan, Machangping.
Hunan-Kweichow Line	1	Huanghsien.
Kweichow-Yunnan Line	4	Anshun, Annan, Fankhsien, Chuching.
Sichang-Hsiangyuan Line	1	Fayao.
Szechuen-Yunnan Line (Eastern Section)	3	Hsuanwei, Weiching, Pichieh, Hauyang , Luhhsien.
Loshan-Sichang Line	3	Onok, Tuling, Mienning.
Yunnan-Burma Line *	16 (plus 14 mobile units)	Class B: Tushing, Hsiangyuan, Hakama , Yungping, Pao-han, Lungling, Mang- shih, Chifang. Class C: Chennan, Yunnanyi, Yangsi , Wavao, Ichutien, Lameng, Tafshih , Wantung.
TOTAL	57	

* Owing to the cessation of traffic on the Yunnan-Burma Highway, the health stations on that route have been suspended since August 1942.

C. Composition and Budget of Class-A, Class-B and Class-C Highway Health Stations. In conformity with local conditions and for convenience of administration, the highway health

stations are classified into three categories: Class-A, Class-B, and Class-C. The composition and budget of these three categories of highway health stations are shown in Tables 7 and 8.

TABLE 7. COMPOSITION OF CLASS A, CLASS B AND CLASS C HIGHWAY HEALTH STATIONS

	Class-A Highway Health Station	Class-B Highway Health Station	Class-C Highway Health Station
Chief	1	1	1
Doctors	3	2	1
Superintendent of Nurses	1	1	—
Nurses	6	3	2
Midwives	2	2	1
Pharmacist or Dispenser	1	1	1
Laboratory Technician	1	—	—
Sanitary Inspector	1	1	1
Nursing-aids	10	6	4
Clerks	4	2	2
TOTAL	30	19	13

TABLE 8. BUDGET OF CLASS A, CLASS B, AND CLASS C HIGHWAY HEALTH STATIONS, 1942

	Class-A Highway Health Station	Class-B Highway Health Station	Class-C Highway Health Station
Capital Expenditure	\$160,000—\$200,000	\$120,000	\$80,000
Construction	100,000—140,000	70,000	40,000
Equipment and Supplies	45,000—50,000	40,000	32,000
Transportation and Miscellaneous	15,000—10,000	10,000	8,000
Running Expenditure	120,900	60,000	30,000

D. Activities of Highway Health Stations During 1941.—Table 9 gives a summary of the more important activities of the highway health stations during 1941.

III. MEDICAL RELIEF

In addition to highway health stations, health centres for border provinces, and other special health services, as initial efforts for forcing the policy of state medicine, the National Health Administration has undertaken medical relief in various other forms.

TABLE 9. IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF HIGHWAY HEALTH STATIONS, 1941

Service	No.
Medical Care:	
First Visits	266,670
Subsequent Visits	541,593
Emergency Calls	5,771
Hospital Admissions	3,750
Deliveries	3,097
Preventive Inoculations:	
Smallpox	192,021
Cholera	248,517
Typhoid	25,663

A. Central Hospitals. The Central hospital is the direct continuation of the one once housed in capacious and up-to-date buildings in Nanking. After several movings the hospital was finally located in 1940 in Chungking with a branch hospital in Kweiyang.

In 1942 the Central Hospital in Chungking was further improved by replenishing its equipment and by erecting more buildings with a special grant of NC\$250,000 from the Government. It has now a capacity of 220 beds. In the same year, the Kweiyang branch of the Central Hospital was enlarged and made independant, and now possesses a capacity of 200 beds, known as Kweiyang Central Hospital.

Both hospitals are equipped with X-ray and modern clinical facilities.

B. Northwest Hospitals. In May 1939 when the special office of the health commissioner for the Northwest was organized, a Northwest hospital was established in Sian. In November 1940, another Northwest hospital was established in Lanchow. The Lanchow hospital is provided with 150 beds and that in Sian 80 beds. There is a large field open for the development of modern medicine in the Northwest and the two hospitals are serving as demonstrations as well as meeting an acute local medical need.

Table 10 gives a statistical summary of the patients treated in the four national hospitals during 1941.

TABLE 10. PATIENTS TREATED AT THE CENTRAL AND NORTHWEST HOSPITALS, 1941

	Chungking Central Hospital	Kweiyang Central Hospital	Lanchow Northwest Hospital	Sian Northwest Hospital
Out-patient Department	31,293	54,445	23,344	32,497
First Visits	12,314	17,121	9,244	11,025
Subsequent Visits	18,980	37,324	14,100	21,472
Hospital Admissions	2,907	3,363	739	1,214

C. Free Medical Care for Wounded Soldiers and Civilians, Air Raid Victims, and Sick Refugees: 1. *Through National Red Cross Medical Relief Corps.* Supplementing the medical service for the wounded soldiers undertaken by the Army Medical Administration and the medical division of the Service Board of the National Military Council, medical units organized by the National Red Cross Society of China under the supervision of the National Health Administration have rendered technical and material assistance to the military hospitals. During 1942 there were in operation nine divisions, each for one war zone, consisting

of 150 medical units (curative, preventive and ambulance) which were assigned to help the field and base hospitals and receiving and dressing stations along the main lines of evacuation; a transport corps with 29 convoys of ambulances, trucks, mules and boats with their associated repair shops and service stations, for the transportation of wounded soldiers, medical personnel and materials; and one supply centre with 10 depots for the preparation storage, and issuance of medical equipment and supplies; and a total technical staff of over 1,600 persons.

Their work include operations, X-ray examinations, medical treatment, first

aid, preventive inoculations, delousing and scabies treatment, improvement of environmental sanitation, transportation of wounded, and training of auxiliary personnel.

2. *Through Mission Hospitals and Local Health Services.*—Out of a total of less than 400 hospitals in China, the overwhelming majority of 300 are non-governmental hospitals; and of these, 235 are Protestant mission hospitals. With a view to making the best possible use of this important group during the present emergency, the Government has continued to subsidize the non-governmental hospitals for the free treatment of wounded or sick soldiers and refugees, and in this way the mission and other non-governmental hospitals are playing a very important role in medical relief work throughout the country. In 1940-1942, such cooperation was obtained from 220 hospitals, of which over 70 were in occupied China where subsidies were extended through the medium of the Chinese Medical Association. A total sum of NC\$2,033,619.42 was expended in this way from January 1940 to October 1942.

Through subsidies from the National Health Administration, the International Relief Committee of China cooperated in this matter by giving these hospitals additional medical supplies either at cost or free of charge.

In Szechuen, where bombing was more severe than elsewhere, the Central Government allocated special subsidies for purchasing and storing medical supplies for the relief of air-raid victims.

IV. EPIDEMIC PREVENTION AND CONTROL

A. Epidemiology.—Under war conditions, our first concern is the control

of epidemic diseases. Among the infectious diseases occurring in epidemic proportions during the period 1940-1942, plague and cholera deserve our most serious attention.

1. *Plague.*—For many years plague had been more or less a local problem in a few semi-isolated areas. In Fukien, 31 hsien have been infected at one time or another since its introduction in 1894. In 1941, there were 626 cases with 395 deaths occurring in 21 hsien; namely, Kienyang, Hsienyu, Shuichi, Chengho, Nanan, Kienow, Nanping, Changpu, Lungchi, Changtai, Putien, Yungchun, Tehua, Changting, Yungan, Shaowu, Shunchang, Pingho, Lienkiang, Loyuan and Sungchi. In 1942, plague outbreaks were reported from 18 hsien of Fukien, but details regarding the total number of cases have not been received.

In Kwangtung, there are epidemic centres of many years' standing in the Lienchiang district and on Hainan Island. There were 85 cases occurring in Lienchiang and Shuichi in 1941 and 33 cases in 1942.

A small outbreak of plague occurred on the Yunnan-Burma border in February-July 1940, but none has been reported since then.

In Chekiang plague occurred for the first time in Ningpo and Chuhsien in the winter of 1940, claiming 99 victims in 34 days and 21 victims in 24 days respectively. Subsequent investigation revealed that before the outbreak of the plague, Japanese planes had dropped wheat and oat grains over the infected area; and according to the report from Chuhsien there were fleas mixed with the grains. It was at about the same time when plague broke out in Ningpo and Chuhsien that Japanese planes again visited Kinhua of Chekiang and

706

PUBLIC HEALTH

there they scattered small yellowish granules of shrimp-egg size which contained numerous gram-negative bipolar-stained microorganisms that resembled morphologically the plague bacilli. Fortunately, no plague occurred in Kinkua. On the strength of these circumstantial evidence, it was believed that the plague in Ningpo and Chuhsien was the result of Japanese attempt at bacterial warfare. Most unfortunately the disease became enzootic among rats and reappeared in epidemic form in Chuhsien in the spring of 1941. From March to July 1941, there were in Chuhsien 157 human cases with 148 deaths.

On October 2, 1941, bubonic plague appeared in Iwu, about 131 kilometers from Chuhsien by rail. It was probably a direct extension of the infection from Chuhsien. During the period, October 2, 1941 to March 5, 1942, there were 145 cases, of which 110 ending fatally. From Iwu, plague continued to spread southeasterly to Tungyang in December 1941 where it became epidemic in the spring of 1942, resulting in 71 cases with 67 deaths.

In Kuangsi, bubonic plague broke out in April 1941 in Kuangtse as a direct extension of infection from Fukien. From April 12 to June 5, the disease claimed 36 cases with 30 deaths. On June 7, one case appeared in Shangjiao, as an importation direct from Chuhsien. Fortunately no secondary cases resulted.

In Hunan on November 11, 1941 bubonic plague broke out for the first time in Changteh. It was reported that seven days prior to the outbreak, Japanese planes came over to Changteh and scattered grains and rags. And it was over the same area where these strange materials were found that the first few plague cases occurred. In

view of similar occurrence in Chekiang about a year ago, the Hunan situation was considered extremely serious and plague experts were dispatched to conduct a thorough investigation. In the opinion of Dr. R. Pollitzer, epidemiologist of the National Health Administration and of other senior members of the administration, who investigated the situation, circumstantial evidence strongly suggests that the Changteh plague was caused by enemy action, and that plague-infected fleas were most probably embedded in the grain and rags. Although Anti-epidemic units were immediately dispatched to Changteh to check the epidemic, the disease had worked its way into the rat population and established a focus of infection among the rodents. A second epidemic outbreak appeared in March 1942 which lasted about four months and claimed 31 victims.

From Changteh the disease spread to Taoyuan in May 1942, and caused an epidemic of pneumonic plague, that caused 16 deaths in about three weeks. The source of infection was definitely traced to a case that had escaped from Changteh. Strict quarantine measures helped to keep the epidemic in check within a short period of time.

The most serious epidemic of plague in 1942 occurred in Suiyuan, Ninghsia, Shensi and Shansi. It was the flaring up of an old epidemic infection. Most of the cases were of the pneumonic type and the disease was spread very rapidly. The epidemic lasted from January 1 to April 4, and caused a total of 689 deaths distributed as follows:

Suiyuan (Wuyuan, Idaho,	...	540
Tungsheng, Anpei and Paotou)	...	24
Singhsia (Tungchow)	...	24
Shensi (Fuku)	...	99
Shansi (Hochu)	...	26

2. *Cholera*.—At the outbreak of war in 1937 there was an epidemic of cholera in the coastal provinces. With the increase in extent of the war areas the disease worked its way into the interior in the following year and claimed 40,645 cases in nine provinces. It continued to spread in 1939, resulting in 34,945 cases in 14 provinces and reaching as far west as Yunnan, Szechuen and Sikang and as far north as Shensi and Kansu. The epidemic was apparently on the decline in 1940, as the disease occurred in relatively large numbers in only four semi-isolated areas, namely: Chekiang, Fukien-Kwangtung, Hunan and northern Szechuen. It should be mentioned here that as far as it is known cholera has been endemic in Hunan, Kwangtung and possibly also Fukien for many years, as sporadic cases have occurred in winter and spring in those regions, and often assumed epidemic proportions in the summer months.

The year 1941 was the first quiet year since the onset of war as far as cholera is concerned. Except in Hunan, Kwangtung and Fukien where there were 349 cases distributed in 34 hsien, all the other provinces were free from the infection. However, in 1942, following the enemy's occupation of Hongkong and Burma and the return of oversea Chinese to Free China, cholera was again brought in and rapidly spread along the main routes of communication. It was reported in April 1942 that cholera was epidemic in Mandalay and its neighborhood. In May the disease broke out in Hsiakuan of Yunnan province and then followed the Yunnan-Burma highway to reach Kunming. From Kunming the disease spread in all directions, reaching the Kweichow border in June.

In Kwangtung, cholera appeared in February, 1942, in Hokshan and Szechui, being probably imported from Hongkong or Canton. In April, cases were reported from Shuichi near Kwangchowwan, which was another portal of entry of the infection. Starting from Canton and its neighbourhood, the disease spread along the East, North and West Rivers and continued via the main roads of communication, reaching Hoyuan and Fengshun in the east, Chuchiang in the north and Wuchow in the west. From Kwangchowwan and Shuichi, the disease invaded Kuangsi and marched on into Kweichow there to meet its counterpart that had come in via Yunnan.

For the year 1942, up to the end of September when the epidemic wave was gradually subsiding, there were 11,923 cases distributed in 218 hsien of 12 provinces.

3. *Other Diseases*.—The prevalence of malaria south of the Yangtse, particularly in Yunnan, Kweichow and Kuangsi provinces, is of serious concern. Although no accurate statistical information about the prevalence of malaria is available, there is no doubt that it is one of the most important causes of ill health in Free China. On the initiation of the National Health Administration, the Yunnan Anti-malaria Commission was organized in 1939 to launch a large-scale malaria control campaign in that province. In 1941 a similar organization was formed in Kweichow. As the control program is still experimental in nature, its result can not as yet be evaluated.

At the request of our Government a special medical mission was dispatched by the United States Government primarily for the control of malaria along the projected Yunnan-Burma Railway while it was under construc-

710

PUBLIC HEALTH

The more important activities of the Weishengshu Anti-epidemic Corps in 1941 are indicated in Table 12.

TABLE 12. IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF THE WEISHENGSHU ANTI-EPIDEMIC CORPS, 1941

1. <i>Preventive Inoculations:</i>	
Cholera	230,670
Typhoid	12,583
Cholera and Typhoid Combined	678
Smallpox	265,324
Plague	40,694
Diphtheria	278
2. <i>Communicable Disease Control:</i>	
Cases Investigated	3,687
Cases Isolated in Hospital	729
Contacts Examined	19,765
Laboratory Tests Performed	12,487
3. <i>Sanitary Services:</i>	
Drinking Wells Disinfected	37,995
River Water in Buckets Disinfected	1,078,020
Water Sources Improved	5
Latrines Disinfected	4,987
Latrines Constructed	12
Sewage Pits Constructed	7
Sanitary Inspections	4,742
Persons Deloused	2,589
Clothing Deloused	10,704
4. <i>Medical Relief:</i>	
First Clinic Visits	241,324
Subsequent Clinic Visits	380,308
Deliveries	530

TABLE 13. ACTIVITIES OF THE QUARANTINE STATIONS, 1941

Service	Hankow-Chungking-Ichang Quarantine Station	Tengyueh Quarantine Station	Wanting Quarantine Station
Inspection of Bus Passengers		478,939	9,692
Inspection of Passengers on Steamers and Vessels	79,707		—
Inspection of Passengers at Airfield	662		—
Tonnage of Ships Fumigated	30,654		—

3. *Quarantine Services.* In 1940-1942, quarantine services were maintained at the upper Yangtze and on the Yunnan Burma and Yunnan-Indo-China borders. The stations are known as Hankow Ichang-Chungking, Mengtsz, Tengyueh, and Wanting quarantine stations. As heretofore, these quarantine stations are responsible for inspection of airplane, bus and boat passengers, fumigation of ships and the control of spread of communicable diseases by other means. Preventive inoculations were given by these stations against cholera, typhoid fever, small-pox, plague, and diphtheria.

A statistical summary of the activities of these quarantine stations during 1941 is given in Table 13.

4. *Veneral Disease Treatment Stations.* The National Health Administration established in 1941 five veneral disease treatment stations in Enshih, Hengyang, Chuhsien, Sian and Kweilin. Later the Sian and Hengyang stations were turned over to the local authorities, as it is the policy of the Central Government to initiate and have the provincial health administrations continue to include veneral disease control in their

routine program. Table 14 gives a summary of the number of patients treated by the veneral disease treat-

ment stations during the period October 1941 to July 1942.

TABLE 14. PATIENTS TREATED BY THE VENEREAL DISEASE TREATMENT STATIONS, OCTOBER 1941 TO JULY 1942

Stations	First Visits	Subsequent Visits	Period
Sian	227	1,049	Oct. 1941-Dec. 1941
Kweilin	778	4,307	Oct. 1941-June 1942
Enshih	210	1,052	Oct. 1941-July 1942
Chuhsien	180	470	Oct.-Dec. 1941

5. *Bathing, Delousing, and Anti-Scabies Stations.*—For the control of relapsing fever and typhus fever, which are widely prevalent among the army and refugees, 50 bathing and delousing stations were set up and maintained by the National Health Administration throughout the country. From October 1941 to August 1942, the work of these stations may be summarized as in Table 15.

TABLE 15. WORK OF 50 BATHING, DELOUSING, AND ANTI-SCABIES STATIONS, OCTOBER 1941 TO AUGUST 1942

No. Persons Deloused	46,736
No. Persons Received Scabies Treatment	24,878
No. Clothings Deloused	97,078

6. *Provincial Medical and Anti-epidemic Units.*—To assist the hsien health centres in the control of epidemics, special medical and anti-epidemic units, mobile in character, were organized by the provincial health administrations. In 1942, there were 11 such units in Kiangsi, one in Fukien, two in Chekiang, eight in Hupeh, five in Kwangtung, six in Szechuen, two in Shensi, one in Honan, two in Ninghsia, and four in Chinghai,

making a total of 42 units. In addition, in time of serious epidemic outbreaks, temporary quarantine stations, isolation hospitals and epidemic prevention stations were organized to meet the emergencies.

V. CONTROL OF MEDICAL PERSONNEL AND MEDICAL SUPPLIES

A. *Medical Personnel:* 1. *Registration.*—As heretofore, registration with the Central Government was required of all medical personnel before they are permitted to practise their profession. The increase in the number of registered doctors, pharmacists, dentists, nurses, midwives, and dispensers during 1940, 1941 and 1942 is shown in Table 16.

TABLE 16. MEDICAL PERSONNEL REGISTERED WITH THE NATIONAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION, 1940, 1941, AND 1942

	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-Oct.)
Doctors	10,566	11,229	12,018
Pharmacists	706	784	798
Dentists	307	317	322
Nurses	5,198	5,533	5,796
Midwives	4,189	4,895	5,008
Dispensers	3,316	3,694	4,010

In 1937 it was decided to examine and pass for registration doctors possessing certain qualifications although not having graduated from acceptable medical colleges. There were over 3,000 applicants, of whom 2,700 were given permission to take the examination. Owing to difficulties of transportation and various other reasons, the examination was postponed. In 1940, to meet the pressing need of medical personnel, the plan was altered whereby it was arranged that qualified applicants who serve for a period of six months in a designated public health or army medical organization are granted special permission for registration if their work proves to be satisfactory and if their qualifications are passed by a special committee organized for this purpose. Up to the end of August 1942, of 1066 persons who have applied, 480 have been registered through this procedure, while 310 are still in service on probation.

Graduates of St. John's University Medical School were heretofore not qualified to register, as the school was not registered with the National Government; but to meet the need of medical personnel, special provisional licenses are likewise to be granted during war time to graduates from this school after a period of satisfactory service with the Government.

The authority to register practitioners of native medicine is vested in the hands of the local governments, but such registration should be reported to the National Health Administration for record. Since 1939, the National Health Administration has granted registration also directly to qualified applicants from war areas to meet the war exigencies. To end of October, 1942, the record of the

National Health Administration shows that a total of 513 persons have been registered as practitioners of native medicine, including those registered directly with the Central Government.

2. *Conscription.* Conscription of doctors and pharmacists was started in 1940 when new graduates in medicine and pharmacy were required to work in a designated civil or army medical organization for at least one year before being allowed to choose their own position. In 1941 the conscription was extended to cover newly graduated dentists and nurses; and in 1942 midwives were also included. Of all the conscripts, 40% were for army medical service, 30% for the National Health Administration, and 15% each for the Chinese Red Cross Society and the medical schools. Those who refused to follow the order were deprived of the qualifications to graduate from their respective schools. Table 17 gives the number of newly graduated doctors, pharmacists, dentists, nurses, and midwives conscripted for public service during the years 1940 to 1942.

3. *Subsidies to Medical Personnel for Travel from Occupied Areas and Abroad.* In order to further increase the number of medical and public health workers, qualified medical personnel in occupied areas and abroad are encouraged to come to the interior by means of subsidies towards their travelling expenses. During the period under review many have taken the advantage of the offer and are now in various branches of government services.

4. *Restriction of the Right to Resign from Public Service.* The low remuneration in public service has led a number of the medical personnel to go for lucrative private practice; and

TABLE 17. NUMBER OF NEWLY GRADUATED DOCTORS, PHARMACISTS, DENTISTS, NURSES AND MIDWIVES CONSCRIPTED FOR PUBLIC SERVICE BY THE NATIONAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION, 1940-1942

	1940	1941	1942 (Jan.-Oct.)	Total
Doctors	186	129	91	406
Pharmacists	2	17	10	29
Dentists	—	7	9	16
Nurses	—	85	54	139
Midwives	—	—	53	53
TOTAL	188	238	217	643

its effect, if unchecked, will be detrimental to the public health program. While striving to conserve the technical personnel by special subsidies, the National Health Administration has issued orders to restrict the individual right to resign from public services during war time.

B. Drugs and Medical Equipments.

While health work was rapidly expanding throughout the country, the importation of drugs and medical instruments from abroad has become more and more difficult owing to the coastal blockade and the resulting difficulties in transportation. In February 1942, a set of regulations was promulgated requiring all local pharmacies to register their stock of drugs and medical supplies with the local governments. Several cases of hoarding were discovered and the goods were confiscated for subsequent sale at cost through the Emergency Medical Supplies Purchasing Committee.

The sale of patent medicines are still restricted to those licensed by the National Health Administration. 102 and 115 licenses respectively were issued during 1940 and 1941.

VI. PRODUCTION & PROVISION OF DRUGS, BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS AND MEDICAL EQUIPMENT

As China is dependent upon foreign countries for most of her essential drugs and medical supplies, the increasing difficulty of importation has become a matter of grave concern. It is therefore necessary to strive for adequate local production to meet the required needs. By means of legislation restricting the use of non-essential drugs, and with prizes in cash encouraging local pharmaceutical concerns to produce whatever medical supplies considered indispensable, it is aimed to limit the importation to certain essential items such as quinine, arsenicals, sulfonamides and a few other specific drugs which we cannot as yet produce owing to the fact that our basic industries are still underdeveloped.

At the same time, the importation of emergency relief drugs and medical supplies is encouraged through the issuance of special certificates for duty exemption. During 1941, 253 such certificates were issued to hospitals,

tion. The mission consisted of 16 members including medical officers, malariologists, sanitary engineers and entomologists. To assist them in this important task, the National Health Administration detailed nine medical officers, nine sanitary engineers, six entomologists, 15 sanitary supervisors and 116 sanitary inspectors. The mission began active service in January 1942, but unfortunately the work had to be suspended in April when Burma was lost to the enemy and the railway section became a fighting zone.

Among all the communicable diseases in China, dysentery is perhaps the most important but the least heeded, because it is so common. However, it is a serious cause of infant mortality and of adult debility. More vigorous effort for a sanitary environment, particularly the provision of safe drinking water and food supply, is necessary for its control.

Under war conditions there have been serious outbreaks of typhus fever and relapsing fever among the soldiers and refugees. In the last three years with the establishment of many de-lousing stations among the troops, in the military hospitals and for the civilian population in different parts of the country, there seemed to be a definite decrease in the total incidence of these louse-borne diseases.

Regarding diphtheria, there have been reports of large epidemics in Kansu, while elsewhere the disease has only appeared sporadically.

Although smallpox is a disease that can be easily controlled, it has continued to occur in small outbreaks in different provinces all through the war years.

Table 11 gives the number of cases of reportable communicable diseases throughout the country during 1941.

B. Organized Control of Epidemic Diseases: 1. Epidemiological Intelligence Service.

In June 1940, a Joint Office for Emergency Epidemic Control was established under the auspices of the National Health Administration, the Army Medical Administration, and the medical division of the Service Board of the National Military Council and has since functioned as a central organization for the coordination of all civil and military anti-epidemic forces and also as a headquarters of nationwide epidemiological intelligence service.

2. Weishengshu Anti-epidemic Corps.

The Weishengshu Anti-epidemic Corps, as a subsidiary organization of the National Health Administration, was formed in 1938 to help the local health authorities in the control of major epidemic outbreaks. The corps, with its headquarters in Chungking, consists of four divisions to take charge of four geographical areas, namely: (1) Szechuen-Kweichow-Yunnan, (2) Hunan-Hupeh, (3) Kwangtung-Kwangsi, and (4) Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien. Under each division there are four medical units, one engineering unit, one diagnostic laboratory unit, one anti-epidemic hospital and one supply depot. These units are mobile in character and ready for dispatch to areas where there are epidemic outbreaks. In the past few years the corps has participated in the control of plague in Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsi and Hunan; cholera in Hunan, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Yunnan and Szechuen; typhus and relapsing fever in Hupeh and Honan; epidemic meningitis in Fukien, Kiangsi and Kwangtung; malaria in Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechuen and other provinces; and small-pox in different provinces.

TABLE 11. CASES OF REPORTABLE COMMUNICABLE DISEASES THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY, 1941

Name of Province	Cholera	Typhoid	Dysentery	Typhus Fever	Relapsing Fever	Malaria	Smallpox	Diphtheria	Scarlet Fever	Cerebro-spinal Meningitis	Plague
Chekiang	...	56	1,899	—	46	4,464	6	1	1	—	352
Anhui	...	5	55	—	39	618	158	1	—	—	—
Kiangsi	...	848	9,176	100	852	74,368	555	31	3	38	37
Hupeh	...	669	4,743	190	1,444	12,245	591	10	—	2	—
Hunan	...	534	4,007	71	752	12,173	130	14	4	9	7
Szechuen	...	883	6,917	136	280	32,558	279	224	17	22	—
Shansi	...	65	206	225	638	311	2	7	1	—	—
Honan	...	3,748	10,963	1,426	2,878	15,323	987	450	511	277	—
Shensi	...	1,413	3,400	1,061	2,874	3,906	122	133	109	36	—
Kansu	...	423	1,283	283	422	308	200	913	39	4	—
Fukien	...	335	1,524	39	277	15,102	1,774	22	3	328	656
Kwangtung	...	2,409	25,744	495	195	73,850	3,163	84	26	141	85
Kwangsi	...	1,452	19,365	185	440	54,932	3,220	202	61	90	—
Yunnan	...	571	6,121	108	528	29,159	328	36	60	48	—
Kweichow	...	375	4,894	198	285	20,708	282	70	33	44	—
Sikang	...	560	267	420	344	1,087	6	12	—	—	—
Suiyuan	...	125	272	21	88	59	4	20	3	—	39
Ninghsia	...	747	860	362	426	60	169	152	9	1	—
TOTAL	...	15,218	101,686	6,320	12,808	351,431	11,946	2,332	880	1,040	1,146

pharmacies and other medical organizations.

A. Production of Drugs and Medical Instruments. For local manufacture of drugs and medical supplies, a Central Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Company, jointly financed by the Government and from private sources, was established in May 1940 with a capital of NC\$1,500,000. Two factories are maintained in Chungking and Chengtu.

TABLE 18. QUANTITIES OF THE MAIN NARCOTIC AND NON-NARCOTIC DRUGS PRODUCED BY THE NARCOTICS BUREAU, 1941

Narcotics	1941	Non-Narcotics	1941
Dover's Powder	3,657,222 tab.	Tannic Acid	261 lb.
Morphine HCl (Powder)	9,978 gm.	Ammon. Chlor.	1,429 lb.
(Ampoule)	13,351 bxs.	FDL. Ext. Glycyrrh.	284 lb.
(Tablet)	555,250 tab.	Bland's Pills	90,500 tab.
Codeine Phos. (Powder)	6,010 gm.	Magn. Sulphate	774 lb.
(Ampoule)	2,522 bxs.	Sodium Sulphate	2,106 lb.
(Tablet)	989,240 tab.	Brown Mixture	1,061,956 tab.
Strychnine HCl	184,875 tab.	Aspirin	76,946 tab.

The production of surgical instruments and medical apparatus was continued at the Surgical Instruments and Hospital Equipment Factory with the aim that it may ultimately meet the required needs of the medical service.

Further attempts were made to encourage the large-scale production of drugs by private factories through technical advice, rewards, provisions of raw materials, and loans of capitals. With this aim in view, an exhibit of drugs and medical instruments produced from purely local materials was held in Chungking in April 1942, with a total attendance of 30,000. Over 1,700 varieties of drugs and medical instruments prepared by 32 establish-

In 1941 the Narcotics Bureau was enlarged in scope, so that in addition to its function of controlling the distribution of narcotic drugs according to the International Convention Governing Dangerous Drugs and of manufacturing such drugs for medical use, it was charged with the manufacture of non-narcotic drugs with its existing facilities. Table 18 gives the quantities of the more important narcotic and non-narcotic drugs produced by the Narcotics Bureau during 1941.

ments were exhibited. At the end of this exhibit, about 50 representatives from government and private factories for the manufacture of drugs and medical instruments in various provinces were invited to attend a conference arranged by the National Health Administration to discuss methods and problems of production.

B. Production of Biological Products. The National Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Kunming and the National Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Lanchow continued to play an important part in the prevention and control of epidemic diseases by supplying all necessary vaccines and sera. Provided that

certain materials essential for their manufacture, such as agar-agar and peptone, are available in sufficient quantities, the two institutions are capable of producing sufficient quantities to meet the need throughout the country.

In 1942, the National Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau was enlarged in scope with the opening of a branch laboratory in Kweiyang. The National Northwest Epidemic

Prevention Bureau maintained three branch laboratories in Pingliang, Sian and Chengtu. In addition to vaccines and sera for man, biological products for animal use are also manufactured in the Northwest.

The more important products of the National Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau and National Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau are shown in Table 19.

TABLE 19. IMPORTANT BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS MANUFACTURED BY NATIONAL CENTRAL AND NORTHWEST EPIDEMIC PREVENTION BUREAUS, 1940 AND 1941

Items	Unit	Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau		Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau	
		1940	1941	1940	1941
Cholera Vaccine	c.c.	4,520,500	2,613,280	3,300,480	1,627,560
Typhoid-Paratyphoid Combined Vaccine	c.c.	590,000	30,150	58,000	—
Cholera-Typhoid Vaccine	c.c.	1,690,000	7,670,080	6,520,880	8,971,120
Cholera - Typhoid - Paratyphoid Vaccine	c.c.	430,240	110,080	—	94,840
Plague Vaccine	c.c.	—	1,562,295	—	200,000
Rabies Vaccine for Man	c.c.	10,620	28,824	3,612	400
Smallpox Vaccine	tube	1,654,038	1,624,171	1,113,552	582,030
Anti-Meningococcus Serum	c.c.	188,600	97,000	27,240	27,560
Anti-Dysentery Serum	c.c.	101,600	61,500	—	—
Anti-Plague Serum	c.c.	—	59,000	—	—
Diphtheria Antitoxin	unit	22,133,400	27,437,500	24,141,000	21,684,000
Tetanus Antitoxin	unit	11,368,200	20,260,000	38,142,000	9,203,000
Diphtheria Alum Precipitated	c.c.	93,970	30,000	23,830	50,960
Toxoid	c.c.	—	—	6,400	221,270
Rinderpest Vaccine	—	—	—	—	11,680
Boveseptic Vaccine	—	—	—	—	92,915
Anti-Rinderpest Serum	—	—	—	—	—

C. Provision of Medical Supplies for Civilian Use.—In order to ease the situation of shortage of medical supplies and keep down their market prices, the National Health Administration established an Emergency Medical Supplies Purchasing Committee in November 1939 for the provision of

medical supplies for civilian use. With a capital of NC\$1,000,000 it purchased during the period from November 1939 to July 1942, 415 kinds and imported 2,806 cases of drugs and medical instruments from abroad, with a total value of NC\$84,574.73, HK\$657,791.06, US\$33,096.79 and £547-8-0.

The imported supplies are sold in the proportion of 60% for public health and medical organizations, 20% for educational and other government organizations, and 20% for the general population through the committee's retail sale offices, which also undertake the task of dispensing for prescriptions from registered doctors and hospitals. Drugs and medical instruments of \$4,880,694.35 worth were thus distributed during this period. Provinces benefitted by this arrangement include Szechuen, Kweichow, Yunnan, Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Fukien, Szechuan, Shensi, Shansi, Hunan, Ninghsia, Kansu, and Mongolia.

VII. TRAINING OF PUBLIC HEALTH PERSONNEL

The development of public health work requires a large number of medical personnel. It has been estimated that there are at present in Free China about 6,000 qualified doctors of whom about 85% are in civil health and military medical service. For the enforcement of the hsien health system alone about 10,000 doctors with public health training will be necessary. The lack of public health personnel has been further augmented by the war situation, because of the great demand of medical and auxiliary workers for emergency services. As it is the policy of the Government that resistance and reconstruction must be carried out simultaneously, and as public health occupies a significant part in this dual program, the training of professional, technical, and auxiliary personnel for public health service therefore requires uninterrupted attention now and for many years to come.

A. Advanced Training of Senior Public Health Personnel: 1. Fellow-

ships for Public Health Officers from the Rockefeller Foundation.—In the development of public health in this country, the Rockefeller Foundation has given a large contribution through the granting of foreign fellowships each year since the establishment of the Ministry of Health in 1928 for post-graduate training in public health in the United States, as well as local fellowships, to prepare personnel for specific posts in government health services. On account of the emergency needs, the dispatch of medical personnel for advanced study abroad was temporarily suspended during the first three years of war, but such training has been resumed since 1940. During the two years 1940-1942, five medical officers were dispatched to the United States on Rockefeller Foundation fellowships for specific training in the field of public health administration, maternity and child health, sanitary engineering, and public health nursing. In addition, travel grants were provided for two other medical officers to visit and study health projects in the United States in the fields of sanitary engineering, and maternity and child health, and for two other medical officers to go to India to learn to produce plague vaccine at the Haffkine Institute in Bombay.

2. *Malaria Courses under the Auspices of the Indian Government.*—The wide prevalence of malaria in the central, southern and southwestern provinces has brought about serious economic loss as well as devastating effects on the health of the people. In order to benefit by the experiences of the Indian Medical Service in malaria control, special arrangement was made with the Government of India for members of the National Health Administration to participate in the

short malaria courses given in India. There were altogether 15 fellows dispatched from China to attend the malaria training courses in July, August and September 1942.

3. *Plague Courses at Haffkine Institute, Bombay.*—For training on plague prevention, similar arrangements were made with the Indian Government for the opening of two special plague courses of three months each at the Haffkine Institute, Bombay. The first course was started in November 1942, to be followed by the second one in February, 1943. It is hoped that upon the completion of their special training in India, there will be 10 medical officers, five bacteriologists and five sanitary engineers ready for active service in the plague infected areas.

4. *Special Courses Offered by the National Institute of Health.*—The Central Field Health Station and the Public Health Personnel Institute were amalgamated and reorganized in April 1941 to become the National Institute of Health under the National Health Administration. It is responsible for undertaking research and field demonstrations on various technical problems relating to health, and is entrusted with the responsibility of determining training policies, supervising the local training centres and offering advanced courses in clinical medicine and public health. Since April 1941, short emergency courses were offered for the training of sanitary inspectors and overseers with a total of 152 students. Beginning from July 15, a sanitary engineering course and refresher course for sanitary inspectors and sanitary overseers have been started with a total enrollment of 24 students. Preparations have also been made to start public health courses for

health officers, pharmacists and nurses in January 1943.

B. Training of Staff Workers in Public Health.—Entrusted by the National Health Administration for the training of staff workers in public health, there are the Kweiyang Public Health Personnel Training Institute under the National Institute of Health and the Northwest Public Health Personnel Training Institute under the Office of the Health Commissioner for the Northwest.

1. *Kweiyang Public Health Personnel Training Institute.*—This institute was newly established in September 1941 as a regional training institute under the National Institute of Health. During the period November 1941 to October 1942, it offered seven courses for the training of public health officers, public health nurses and midwives, laboratory technicians, sanitary overseers and sanitary inspectors, with a total enrollment of 150, of whom six public health officers, 19 public health nurses and midwives, and 30 sanitary inspectors have completed training.

2. *Northwest Public Health Personnel Training Institute.*—This institute was newly organized under the auspices of the Office of the Health Commissioner for the Northwest in 1941. Eight courses were opened for public health officers, public health nurses, sanitary inspectors, and other staff workers in public health, with a total enrollment of 110.

C. Training of Junior and Auxiliary Workers in Public Health.—The training of junior and auxiliary health workers is undertaken by the provincial health administration. In 1942, there were training institutes under the provincial health administrations of Kiangsi, Szechuen, Shensi, Fukien,

Kwangsi, Hunan, Kweichow and Yunnan. These institutes undertake the training of public health nurses, nursing aids, dispensers, etc.

In addition, the training of *public health workers* is conducted at many of the *hsien health centres*.

VIII. FOREIGN MEDICAL AID

We are greatly indebted to foreign Red Cross societies and other relief agencies for material assistance in medical relief, which helps to solve our public health problems to a considerable extent. At the beginning of war in 1937, generous gifts of medical supplies were received from abroad through the medium of the League of Nations Health Organization, the International Red Cross Committee at Geneva, and various relief agencies in foreign countries. However, since the outbreak of war in Europe, foreign contributions for medical relief and public health work in China have largely come from the United States of America.

A. American Red Cross Society.

From the American Red Cross Society, large quantities of 15 kinds of essential drugs, as well as drugs for plague and malaria control, ambulances for the provincial health administrations and the Yunnan-Burma highway were received during 1941. Special stations were set up at Kunming, Kweichow, Luchow, Chungking, Paohi, Hochih, and Hengyang by the National Health Administration for receiving the donations. These donations were in turn distributed to 107 subsidiary organizations of the National Health Administration, provincial, municipal and other medical and health organizations throughout the country for free medical treatment.

For 1942, the American Red Cross Society is making arrangements to send drugs, chemicals, instruments and medical supplies for 150 *hsien health centres*, ten 300-bed hospitals and 10 hygienic laboratories.

B. American Bureau for Medical Aid to China.

As from February 1941 all the agencies in the United States for relief work in China were coordinated in the United China Relief Inc., of which the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China represents the participating agency engaged exclusively in medical relief. Timely assistance was received during 1941 for the control of plague, cholera, and small-pox epidemics in forms of vaccines, as well as for subsidizing three public health personnel training institutes.

Up to October 1942, the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China has so far earmarked a sum of US\$463,500 as cash subsidies for anti-epidemic projects, training of public health personnel, maternity and child health, and preventive dentistry.

C. British Aid.

From the British Red Cross Society and other organizations in Great Britain and British Territories, assistance in medical relief has continued to come from time to time in the form of cash subsidies, gifts of medical supplies, participation in Red Cross activities in China, etc.

Special mention should be made of the valuable transportation service rendered by the Friends' Ambulance Unit, through whose efforts large quantities of medical supplies were transported from the border towns in Yunnan to different parts of the country. The routes along which it operates in China total nearly 7,000 kilometers.

If public health work in China can be further extended and developed, there is no doubt that it will have much to contribute to the anti-aggression war by helping to conserve manpower for the United Nation and to the cause of national reconstruction by building up the nation's health for a

difficult task ahead. The National Health Administration shall therefore have to redouble its efforts to carry out its public health program so as to tide over the present critical juncture as well as to lay the foundation of state medicine in the country.

WAR RELIEF

NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION

HSE SHI-YING¹ (許世英) AND PENG SHU-JEN² (彭樹勳)

THE National Relief Commission has been in existence for four years and eight months, dating from its inauguration in April 1938 to December 1942. According to the regulations governing its organization, the commission is to consist of a chairman, a vice-chairman and 11 members, with five of the members as executives. It is divided into three departments, each taking charge of a special branch of administration, and there are also a counsellor's office, a secretariat, an accountant's office and an statistics office, for the discharge of its duties. In addition, there are various organizations under its direction and supervision, such as the provincial relief commissions, offices in field relief districts, general stations for the transportation and disposal of refugees, loan offices, service bureaus, work shops and war orphanages. Both the internal organization of the commission and the functioning of its affiliated bodies have from time to time been readjusted, improved or expanded to suit the changed conditions. The following is a resume of the principal activities of the commission since its inception:

Relief of War Refugees. As the relief of war refugees is closely related with political and military developments, it has been the policy of the

commission from the very beginning to adopt both preliminary and fundamental measures to cope with the situation, the former including the rescue of the destitutes from the war zones, transporting them to the interior regions and providing them with food and shelter, while the latter laying stress upon their organization, training and disposal and placing them on a productive basis. Help and cooperation has been secured from the international relief units and local philanthropic bodies, with regard to the disposal of the victims in areas where guerrilla warfare is staged. For reasons that relief measures might be worked out in a most efficient manner, territories affected by the war were divided into districts. These districts are liable to additions and amalgamations, depending on the situation of military developments. There were before 1939 11 such field relief districts, each under the supervision of a special commissioner with full powers to render assistance to those harassed by the ravages of war. At present there are six districts in all. The work of each district is to be carried out in cooperation with the Board of Political Training of the National Military Council and the Party and Government Joint Commission in War Areas, in accordance with the political and

relief measures. The special commissioner of each relief district is to be stationed in the same place with the respective high military commander and the representative of the Board of Political Training of the National

Military Council, so that their work may be best coordinated. During the period 1941-42, the field relief districts in operation and the areas included in each district are as follows:

TABLE 1. FIELD RELIEF DISTRICTS, 1942

District	Areas Included
I ...	Kiangsu and Chekiang.
III ...	Anhui, Kiangsu-Chekiang border region, East and West Chekiang, East Hupeh and North Kiangsi.
V ...	Shensi, Honan, Shansi and North Hupeh.
VII ...	Kwangtung and Fukien.
IX ...	Kwangsi and Kweichow
X ...	Hupeh and Hunan.

There have been erected in various provinces, municipalities and hsien relief associations to attend to local relief works, their total number at present being 1,166, including those recently established at Chungking, the wartime capital. In the period 1941-42 attention has been paid to strengthening the machinery for relief and stressing the improvement of the living conditions of the refugees. Such associations have been extended to different villages, towns and pao of the provinces where the new hsien administrative system has been adopted. The provinces where these relief associations are most universally established are Kwangsi, Yunnan and Kiangsi.

The transport of war refugees to the interior regions occupies an important part of the work of the National Relief Commission. In communication centres, a nation-wide network for the transport and disposal of refugees has been formed. There have been erected throughout the country a number of

general stations, which are linked up by sub-stations one for every 20 miles, and service stations one for every 10 miles, totalling 351 along the highways of Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Honan, Shansi, Szechuen, Kweichow, Chekiang, Kansu, Yunnan, Anhwei, Kwangtung and Fukien. The 100,000 workmen and porters sent to Chungking via Ichang and Shasi from Hankow were all taken care of by these stations.

After transporting the war refugees to the provinces of Szechuen, Shensi, Kweichow, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Honan, Sikang, Kansu, Ninghsia and Chinghai, measures were taken for their disposal. To help solve this problem, employment bureaus were established for their registration and recommendation. Service corps were organized for the purpose of employing refugees for relief works. For the organization and training of refugees special committees have been appointed, with a view to heightening their national

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722

WAR RELIEF

consciousness in connection with the significance of our resistance to enemy aggression and of the restoration of our lost territories. The places where such committees have been formed are the 1st, 2nd and 3rd War Zones, consisting of Chekiang, Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Hunan, Kiangsi and Shensi. With regard to the "occupied" territories, such as Shansi, Hopei, Chahar, Shantung, Honan and Kiangsi, appropriations were made to help the destitutes through the international relief organizations.

Emergency Relief. In view of the indiscriminate bombing of our open cities by Japanese air raiders, the National Relief Commission has undertaken to give as much relief to the victims as possible. Funds have been appropriated for the building of dug-outs in various localities, in addition to the measures taken for the evacuation of civilian population to the countryside. Joint offices for emergency relief, consisting of representatives from local governments, relief organizations, Kuomintang headquarters and military units, have also been established to render services to the wounded and killed and to the conflagrated areas. For the period ending December 1941, 451 such offices were formed in Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Yunnan, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Sikang and Suiyuan. The killed were usually paid \$30 each to their families, and the wounded were paid \$20 or \$10 each, depending on the condition of their wounds, beside sending them to temporary hospitals for dressing or treatment.

Chungking, the wartime capital of

China, was raided for 162 times within the period 1939-40. Relief work was in the nature of the burying of the dead, dressing and treatment of the wounded, giving shelter for the homeless, evacuation of a part of civilian population to the countryside and giving credit loans to the destitutes for productive purposes. The figures released for publication in this connection, during the two years, include 4,913 persons given treatment and discharged from hospitals, 1,469 bodies buried, 6,314 refugees given shelter, 7,347 evacuees transported to countryside, \$714,680 appropriated for emergency relief, \$297,150 for evacuation, \$129,800 for credit loans and \$77,855 for compensation of the families of the dead. The casualties of air raids in other parts of Free China from April 1938 to December 1941 were reported to be 174,360. For the emergency relief of victims in the places where joint offices were not yet established, remittances were sent through the local governments.

Flood Relief.—The Yellow River carrying its sand and soil from the mountainous provinces has ever and anon caused immeasurable trouble to China. When its dikes burst at Huayuankou and Chaokou of Honan as a result of Japanese bombardments, many cities in Honan, Anhwei and Kiangsu provinces were inundated. The National Relief Commission at once appropriated \$50,000 for emergency relief. At the same time, the Executive Yuan appropriated \$500,000, and Madame Chiang Kai-shek handed to the commission \$20,000 contributed by Philippine ladies, for the same purpose. An additional sum of \$50,000 appropriated by the commission, together with \$20,000 contributed by

the Honan provincial relief committee, were spent on providing temporary shelter for the homeless. \$8,000 were used for medical purposes, and 4,669 patients were among the beneficiaries, according to the report of the medical staff of the commission. After the withdrawal of Chinese troops from the flooded areas, the commission assigned \$3,000 to the Catholic mission and \$20,000 to the World Red Swastika Society to be spent at their own discretion. In order to prevent the flood from spreading to the west of Peiping-Hankow Railway, the commission employed 20,000 refugees to repair the dikes and to build a long wall east of, and parallel to, the railway. This work was completed in the fall of 1938 at a cost of \$300,000, of which one-third was contributed by the National Military Council and two-thirds by the National Relief Commission. Finally the commission earmarked \$200,000 for the settlement of flood refugees in Liping and the Yellow Dragon Mountain of Shensi and Tengtshien of Honan. Beside Honan, other provinces also suffered from floods in 1938, and the commission had to appropriate \$150,000 for Kiangsu, \$20,000 for Chekiang, \$34,000 for Hupeh, \$20,000 for Kweichow and \$5,000 for Anhwei.

In 1939 the flood condition assumed a more serious nature, as a result of the breakdown of the dikes of the rivers in Hopei by the Japanese troops. The Kuomintang headquarters appropriated \$100,000 and the Executive Yuan sent special commissioners to help relieve the refugees in Hopei with \$3,000,000, together with another \$200,000 from Shantung. A Flood Relief Commission for North China was created, charged with the duties of rehabilitating the inundated pro-

vinces. Of the sums appropriated, \$1,490,000 were allotted to Hopei, \$895,000 to Honan, \$375,000 to Shantung, \$350,000 to Shansi and \$80,000 for giving credit loans. The refugees from districts along the Yungting River mostly migrated to Tientsin, for whose emergency relief the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications each contributed \$100,000. The National Relief Commission has, since March 1940, appropriated a large sum for these refugees. Table 2 serves to illustrate how appropriations were expended for the relief of flood refugees in Hopei, Honan, Shantung and Shansi.

Other than the flood relief for the above-mentioned provinces were the emergency measures carried out for the relief of the disasters caused by the floods, droughts, plagues and earthquakes in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Shensi, Kweichow, Chinghai, Hupeh and Ninghsia. To meet the immediate requirements of these provinces, appropriations were made either through their respective provincial governments or through officials sent by the National Relief Commission to the spot. The sum spent totalled \$2,931,179.50 for the period 1939-40.

Constructive measures were also taken for the employment of refugees for repairing the Yellow River dikes, dredging rivers, canals, harbours and lakes and building bridges, roads, etc. in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Honan, Hupeh, Shansi, Shensi and Fukien. To help improve the farming conditions of the provinces seeds and farming implements were introduced.

Special Relief.—In view of the gravity of the problem of young students, engineers, mechanics, architects and railway workmen, who have

TABLE 2. SUMS EXPENDED FOR RELIEF OF FLOOD REFUGEES

Denomination	Hopei	Hunan	Shantung	Shansi
Emergency Relief	\$ 720,000	\$ 440,000	\$ 110,000	\$ 200,000
Shelter and Transport	80,000	60,000	40,000	20,000
Occupational Relief	100,000	80,000	20,000	—
Reduction Sale	80,000	60,000	40,000	20,000
Refugee Children	80,000	50,000	50,000	50,000
Credit Loans	120,000	100,000	50,000	30,000
Handicrafts	80,000	60,000	40,000	20,000
Packed Clothing	50,000	30,000	15,000	5,000
Medicals	20,000	15,000	10,000	5,000
Farming	100,000	—	—	—
TOTAL	\$ 1,400,000	\$ 895,000	\$ 375,000	\$ 350,000

moved to the hinterland together with the Government, measures have been taken for their disposal. Large numbers of school boys and girls flocked into the Wuhan area after the enemy penetration of Kiangsu in 1938. A Refugee Students' Relief Committee was organized by the Kiangsu Club at Hankow, and a sum of \$200,000 was appropriated by the National Relief Commission to open factories and work-and-study corps to cope with the situation. With the extension of the war to the interior, the committee moved from Hupoh to Hunan and subsequently to Szechuen, its factories being affiliated to this commission and renamed Relief Factory No. 3. Later the work for the relief of refugee students from occupied territories was handed over to the Ministry of Education, and an appropriation of \$100,000 was made to help them. As a part of the initial expenses, an appropriation of \$34,440 was handed to the secretaries of the Three People's Principles Youth Corps for the opening of a training class for the out-of-school

students at Shanghai. Another appropriation of \$45,000 was made for the transportation of these students to Chungking to participate in the activities of the corps, after their graduation from the training class. Appropriations were also made, through the Great China, Fu Tan and Kuang Hua universities as well as a number of middle schools, for the admittance of the refugee students from occupied territories, the appropriations being used as their clothing, bedding, and travelling expenses. The total appropriations made in this connection from August 1938 to the end of 1940 amounted to \$1,194,814.

With regard to the relief of marines and sailors who had been rendered jobless, \$3,000 were appropriated in 1938 through the China Navigation Technique Refugee Relief Committee, \$1,250 in 1939, \$30 each for the marines at Ichang, and another \$200,000 for them in 1941. The Japanese warships having from time to time caused disturbances to the fishermen along the coastal provinces,

the National Relief Commission has not failed to devise measures for the improvement of their living conditions. Appropriations made to this end included \$100,000 for the fishermen of Kwangtung and Chekiang through their respective provincial governments, \$10,000 for those of Fenghua, \$1,100 per month as subsidy for the Hongkong Fishermen's Association, \$10,000 for the emergency relief of the destitute fishermen at the adjacent regions of Hongkong, and other sums spent by the office of the 9th Field Relief District for the relief of the fishermen in Fukien.

Considering the importance of the technicians for the development of industries in the interior provinces, an amount of \$1,000,000 was appropriated in 1938 as reserve fund, out of which \$100,000 was granted to the Chinese industrial cooperatives as their capital and another \$300,000 as running expenses, \$50,000 to the Women's Advisory Board of the New Life Movement for the employment of technicians and workwomen, \$100,000 to the China National Tea Corporation for the improvement of silk and tea and employment of skilled workers from occupied provinces, and \$10,000 for the transportation of the workmen of the Shanghai Iron Works to Chungking. Other measures were also taken for the training of skilled workmen among the refugees and for the education of foremen for textile works to be distributed to various factories.

Railway officers and workmen had, in great numbers, evacuated to the hinterland, with the fall of the Tungpu and Chengtai railways of Shansi into the hands of Japanese troops. A wartime institute for the training of communication and transportation personnel was erected, in conjunction

with the ministries concerned, and an appropriation of \$72,000 was made for its initial expenses. The number of workmen admitted was 768 and that of the staff 85, totalling 853. In the institute they were given political, military and technical training, and were recommended to various communication and transportation organizations for employment after their graduation. There were more than 3,000 officers and workmen of the Peiping-Hankow Railway who had evacuated to Chengchow, after the fall of Hsinyang. For the temporary care of these refugees the sums of \$20,000 to the international relief committee and \$10,000 to the general station for the transportation and settlement of refugees at Chengchow were appropriated, and another appropriation of \$100,000 was made to help their families who were transported to the interior regions by various transport stations.

Prior to making a southward drive, the Japanese troops were prepared to encroach upon the territory of Indo-China. Many of the Chinese people at Hanoi and Haiphong evacuated to Langson for safety, for whose emergency relief the National Relief Commission appropriated \$50,000 to the Chinese consul-general at Hanoi. Another sum of \$50,000 was remitted to the Hongkong office of the Provincial Relief Commission of Kwangsi for the relief of the Chinese evacuated to Hongkong. For the relief of refugees at the border region of Yunnan and Indo-China and of those returned to their native land, an additional \$100,000 was placed at the disposal of the Provincial Government of Yunnan.

The emergency relief for the overseas Chinese has become an important part of the work of the National Relief

726

WAR RELIEF

Commission since the outbreak of the Pacific war in December, 1941. Measures were adopted early in 1942 for receiving and transporting Chinese nationals from Hongkong, Malaya, Burma, the Dutch East Indies and the Philippines Islands, in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Overseas Department of the Central Headquarters of the Kuomintang, the Overseas Affairs Commission and the Secretariat of the Kuomintang. There have been set up in the south-western provinces overseas Chinese emergency relief committees and 104 service stations, including 72 in Kwangtung, 14 in Fukien, 10 in Kwangsi and eight in Yunnan. In Lashio, prior to its fall into Japanese hands, there was a committee for the evacuation and assistance of Chinese nationals from the South Sea Islands, charged with the receiving, transport and relief of the overseas Chinese. Adequate funds were provided by the Executive Yuan for the relief of these refugees, in addition to the special relief fund deposited at Kowloon by the 9th Relief District of the National Relief Commission.

In speaking of the relief of overseas Chinese, the commission usually means the relief of (1) Chinese nationals abroad, (2) overseas Chinese returned to China, (3) residents in China depending upon remittances from their relatives abroad and (4) students and organizations in China depending upon remittances from abroad. According to reports submitted by the overseas Chinese emergency relief committees, the total number of overseas Chinese benefitted by the special relief measures and sent to the southwestern provinces during the period December 1941 to May 1942 was 1,332,878, including 771,855 to Kwangtung, 6,428 to

Fukien, 541,993 to Kwangsi, and 12,602 to Yunnan.

For the purpose of rendering assistance to the great number of Muslim refugees at the war zones, the Islamic National Salvation Federation had applied for appropriations. After giving its favourable consideration to the said application, the National Relief Commission granted \$200,000, of which \$120,000 were put at the disposal of the federation and \$80,000 were taken care of by the special commissioner's office of the 5th Relief District for the relief of the evacuees at Kansu from Sinkiang.

Another grant of \$10,000 was made to the Northeastern Refugee Relief Committee, organized by the native people and the Kuomintang headquarters of the four northeastern provinces, for the improvement of the living conditions of the evacuees from the northeastern provinces. To encourage the evacuees to engage in productive enterprises, an additional \$10,000 was allotted to the committee for giving credit loans, \$4,000 to the Northeastern Resistance and Reconstruction Association as subsidy and \$1,764 for the boarding of 98 students from the northeastern provinces for the year 1940.

Social Relief.—The establishment of the National Relief Commission was not only aimed at the temporary relief of the destitutes or mopping out plans for the prevention of calamities, but also at the institution of a social relief system of a permanent nature for the well-being of the people. It is for this reason that stress has been laid to adopting effective measures for social relief, in addition to the general relief for refugees from the war zones and occupied territories. For carrying out

these measures, the commission has undertaken to establish bureaus in the interior provinces for the training of tramps for productive work, institutes for the care of the crippled and clinics for the treatment of the sick and wounded, besides giving subsidies to various philanthropic organizations already in experience.

In accordance with a resolution adopted by the People's Political Council, there was established at the wartime capital a model centre for the training of tramps in May 1939. More than 500 vagrants were admitted to the centre, who were given a regular training on political and military subjects and taught of weaving, tailoring, printing and the making of chemicals, industrial and agricultural necessities. Two more courses were later added to the curriculum, namely, house-building and road-building. Two hundred and thirty-three of them were graduated from the centre during the period 1939-40. As a result of the amendment of the regulations relating to the organization of the National Relief Commission, the centre has been placed under the Ministry of Social Affairs.

A model asylum for the care of the crippled and invalid was established in December 1939 at Kiangching, Szechuen. It was the original plan of the commission to attach three departments to the asylum, namely the primary school department, middle school department and vocational school department. To begin with, the vocational school department was set up, in which the inmates were given a basic knowledge of art for acquiring their means of subsistence. Asylums for the deaf and blind in other parts of the country had at times received grants from this commission for their

upkeep. Relief work of this nature has at present been undertaken by the Ministry of Social Affairs, in accordance with the revised regulations governing the organization of the National Relief Commission.

The National Relief Commission has, during the period under review, erected hospitals and clinics in the interior provinces to give free admission and treatment for the poor and sick, in addition to granting subsidies to other hospitals and clinics, both Chinese and foreign, in Szechuen, Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Hunan, Hupeh, Anhwei, Fukien, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Kiangsi and the northern provinces. The total number of hospitals and clinics erected during the period ending August 1942 was 28, and the number of those subsidized by this commission within the same period was 56, the average number of patients treated and discharged from these hospitals and clinics being reported to be no less than 920,000 per year.

Occupational Relief.—As already cited elsewhere in this resumé, the most important task that has confronted the National Relief Commission has been the placing of refugees in productive enterprises. This is coincident with the fixed policy of the Government that reconstruction work should go side by side with the war of resistance. The National Relief Commission has during the period 1939-42 opened 19 relief factories, one women's work shop, one experimental farm and one training class for skilled workmen, distributed in Szechuen, Sikang, Hunan, Kiangsi, Yunnan, Anhwei, Kwangtung, Fukien, Shensi and Kansu, with a view to placing refugees in handicraft and industrial occupations.

TABLE 4. WAR ORPHANAGES UNDER THE NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION, 1943

<i>Denomination</i>	<i>No. of Children Admitted</i>
Chungking Warphanage, No. 2	285
Chungking Warphanage, No. 3	300
Chungking Warphanage No. 4	499
Kweilin Warphanage	1,000
Kwangtung Warphanage, No. 1	956
Kwangtung Warphanage, No. 2	999
Kwangtung Warphanage, No. 3	491
Northwestern Warphanage	700
Children's Reformatory	136
Kiangching Warphanage	246
Chungking Provisional Children's Home	305
Shouhsien Children's Home	150
Fungheng Children's Home	150
Sahu Children's Home	150
Chih-teh Children's Home	150
Ching-teh Children's Home	150
Laiping Children's Home	120
Wancheng Children's Home	124
Yinglu Children's Home	500
Wankang Children's Home	408
Chi-yuan Children's Home	500
Wangan Children's Home	496
Loyang Children's Home	493
Winghsia Children's Home	452
Fengyang Children's Home	395
Wanyueh Children's Home	496
TOTAL	10,750

loans, and the total loans made amounted to \$849,000, of which \$413,000 were refunded periodically. Appropriations made during 1941 were reported to be \$4,776,861 and the

number of refugees assisted was 267,500. The following is a list of credit loan offices in different localities, together with their sinking funds on hand.

TABLE 5. CREDIT LOAN OFFICES OF THE NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION, 1942

<i>Province or District</i>	<i>Loan Office</i>	<i>Sinking Fund</i>
Chungking Area	Chungking	\$ 350,000
	Wanhsten	60,000
	Tzukung	50,000
	Luhhsien	50,000
	Tzuchikou	30,000
	Sanhsia	30,000
	Nanchuan	30,000
	Fengchieh	45,000
	Wushan	15,000
	Hsiushan	40,000
	Liangshan	30,000
	Hochuan	20,000
	Fuling	22,000
	Kiangching	15,000
	Iping	30,000
	Nanchung	30,000
	Changshou	10,000
	Yungchuan	20,000
Szechuen	Chengtui	150,000
	Loshan	10,000
	Kuanhsien	10,000
Sikang	Kangting	70,000
	Yaan	70,000
	Sichang	70,000
Shensi	Sian	130,000
	Nancheng	60,000
	Weinan	20,000
	Paochi	30,000
	Huanglungshan	24,000
Kansu	Kaolan	100,000
	Pingliang	5,000
	Tienshui	20,000
	Lintao	20,000
	Yuchung	20,000
Shansi	Chihhsien	80,000
	Yuanchu	60,000
	Hsiangning	20,000
	Shihhsien	20,000
Sutuyuan	Shenpa	60,000
	Wuyuan	30,000
Honan	Loyang	100,000

WAR RELIEF

Forty other factories, schools and commercial organizations engaged in productive enterprises have either received special grants from or regularly subsidized by this commission. The

following table gives the names of the productive organs directly under this commission, together with the appropriations made during the same period:

TABLE 3. PRODUCTIVE ORGANIZATIONS UNDER THE NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION, 1939-42

Denomination	Location	Appropriation
Relief Factory		
No. 1	Kiangching, Szechuen	\$ 805,000
No. 2	Hochuan, Szechuen	319,000
No. 3	Kiangpei, Szechuen	470,000
No. 4	Kiangching, Szechuen	618,379
No. 5 (Preparatory Office)	Sanyuan, Shensi	400,000
No. 6	Yungchuan, Szechuen	35,000
No. 7		
No. 8	Hsianghsiang, Hunan	150,000
No. 9	Hengyang	200,000
No. 10	Kunming	319,580
No. 11	Yaen, Sikang	100,000
	Lihuang, Anhwei	100,000
No. 12		
No. 13	Chengtu	395,000
No. 14	Taiho, Kiangsi	250,000
No. 15	Shaowu, Fukien	215,000
No. 16	Shaowu, Fukien	200,000
	Chenchl, Hunan	400,000
No. 17		
No. 18	Lochang, Kwangtung	400,000
No. 19	Weinan, Shensi	400,000
Women's Work Shop	Tienschui, Kansu	400,000
Experimental Farm	Tungliang, Szechuen	250,000
Training Class for Skilled Workmen	Kiangching, Szechuen	162,000
	Chungking	200,000
TOTAL		\$6,788,985

Relief of War Orphans.—The outstanding organizations engaged in the relief of war orphans, since the outbreak of Sino-Japanese conflict, include (1) the National Wartime Association for the Care and Education of Refugee Children, under the leadership of Madame Chiang Kai-shek, who has been responsible for the nation-wide program for the welfare

of war orphans, beside rallying the women and girls of the country for the task of armed resistance and national reconstruction; (2) National Wartime Association for the Relief of Refugee Children; and (3) the National Child Welfare Association. In order to avoid the duplication of efforts in rescuing refugee children from the war zones, the National Relief Com-

WAR RELIEF

mission has consulted these associations with regard to the designation of areas within which their respective useful services may be best rendered. The areas thus designated are Central Hupeh, Chekiang, Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien for the National Wartime Association for the Care and Education of Refugee Children; Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi for the National Wartime Association for the Relief of Refugee Children; and Shensi, Shansi, Honan and North Hupeh for the National Child Welfare Association. Representatives of various field relief districts have been sent to assist these associations in the transportation of, and provision for, the children. With regard to the occupied territories, the relief of children was entrusted to the local Catholic and Protestant Missions and other philanthropic bodies.

The National Relief Commission has, in addition, instituted "warphanages" in various provinces, supplementing the work for the care of refugee children, and has appointed an auxiliary and supervisory party, consisting of more than 30 members, to help promote the activities of such orphanages and child welfare institutions. The standard and curriculum of warphanages and child welfare institutions is about the same as that of ordinary primary schools, stressing productive education which consists of agricultural, industrial, domestic and commercial courses, so as to enable the children to earn their own living after graduation. In the course of caring for and educating the "warphans," attention has been directed to their physical conditions. A health office is attached to each warphanage, giving physical examination and medical attendance to the inmates.

As the success of the work of child

welfare depends not only upon the temporary provision for the warphans but is also concerned with the building up of their personality and character, the National Relief Commission has undertaken to find the ways and means for the continuation of their education after the completion of their studies at the warphanages, and for enabling the poor but intelligent students of middle schools to pursue their higher education, in addition to the application of reformatory education to the undesirable and delinquent elements.

The National Relief Commission has up to the present set up 26 new warphanages and children's homes directly under its supervision, the names of which and the number of children admitted are shown in Table 4.

Credit Loans.—In most cases, the refugees, having been rendered homeless and destitute under the ravages of war and natural calamities, are not in a position to maintain their own living. The National Relief Commission has, since the very beginning, found it necessary to help secure their means of subsistence in terms of money. In so doing, credit loan offices, numbering 84 at present, have been erected in 16 provinces. Small sums of money varying from \$50 to \$800 have been loaned from these offices to the war refugees and the destitutes without interest, to be refunded in 10 instalments within a period of six months. According to investigations made, the recipients who have been engaged in small scale business, carving, weaving, tailoring, food-selling, etc. can at times command a net profit of from 40 to 100 dollars per day. The commission had in the years 1939-40 appropriated \$1,798,000 as sinking fund for credit

WAR RELIEF

Honan	Chenghsien	\$ 80,000 10,000
	Yencheng	
Kweichow	Kweiyang	100,000
	Tsunyi	50,000
	Anshun	40,000
Yunnan	Kunming	130,000
	Chiuching	30,000
	Iliang	20,000
Kwangsi	Kweilin	200,000
	Tsangwu	50,000
	Lukiang	30,000
	Yungfu	30,000
	Chuanhsien	30,000
Kwangtung	Chuklang	100,000
	Kaoyao	20,000
	Nanhsiung	12,000
	Lochang	12,000
Fukien	Chienou	100,000
	Yungan	50,000
	Nanping	20,000
	Tsingkiang	100,000
	Chienyang	22,000
Chekiang	Kinhua	100,000
	Lishui	28,000
	Yuchien	30,000
	Linhai	45,000
Kiangsi	Kian	110,000
	Kanhsien	60,000
	Wantsai	10,000
	Taiho	30,000
Hunan	Hengyang	150,000
	Laiyang	70,000
	Chihkiang	40,000
	Changteh	20,000
	Hengshan	40,000
	Yuanling	10,000
Hupeh	Enshih	100,000
	Lichuan	45,000
	Hsiangyang	30,000
Anhwei	Tunchi	130,000
	Lihuang	20,000
	Chihteh	20,000
	Huangshan	20,000
TOTAL		\$4,410,000

NATIONAL RED CROSS SOCIETY
OF CHINAC. T. WANG¹ (王正廷)

The National Red Cross Society of China was founded in the year 1904 with the enthusiastic promotion of such well-known local leaders as Mr. D. F. Shen in the city of Shanghai. No sooner after its founding, the society was invited to sign an official agreement with the International Red Cross Committee at Geneva, and thereby became one of its affiliated member societies. Such an international status has been maintained consistently since then.

In September, 1934, a general meeting of the representatives of the entire membership of the society was called in Shanghai, and out of it came many an important resolution regarding organization, personnel, and program of work. It was in compliance with the general opinion of that meeting as well as with the regulation of the Central Government that immediate actions were taken in readjusting the administrative organization of the society with all its subsidiary offices. Many changes were also made in the line-up of the personnel, honorary and otherwise. His Excellency the Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek then consented to be, and has since been the honorary president of the society, Dr. H. H. Kung and Dr. T. V. Soong, the honorary vice-presidents, Dr. Chengting T. Wang, the president, Mr. Y. S. Doo and Dr. O. S. Liu, the vice-presidents. With the introduction of these readjustments, the society gradually became better prepared to play its

¹ President, National Red Cross Society of China.

part, more important than ever, in the relief of human sufferings.

The controlling body of the society is the board of directors consisting of the president, vice-presidents, and some 30 other executive and supervisory directors. This board acts through the head office headed by the secretary-general, who, responsible to the board, runs the routine work and coordinates the activities of various departments of the head office and its subsidiary organizations.

The head office, as now set up in Chungking, is organized into three departments, with the first department taking charge of clerical work, general business, transportation, and personnel; the second department, of publications, statistics, and extension work; and the third department, of nursing, supplies, and medical services. There is also a department of accounting which makes budgets and audits all the accounts of the head office as well as its subsidiary organizations.

The head office used to maintain a good many branch offices and transport stations as the work of the time required so, but since the suspension of highway communications with the outside world, particularly with Burma, the number of such stations and offices has been gradually decreasing. It is now only necessary to keep those at Kunming, Luhsien, and Nanping.

A review of the recent history of the society reveals many instances of worthwhile undertakings along the line of relief work in the general sense, the most important of which is the part it played in connection with the repeated floods and plagues in North

China, the earthquakes in Japan, the Ohio flood in the United States of America, and the battles of our past warlords. The Red Cross Hospital in Shanghai also merits special mentioning.

Since the outbreak of the present Sino-Japanese war in 1937, the society has been changing its emphasis of service on the basis of concentrated efforts. It is now devoting almost all its support to the medical service of the wounded and sick soldiers, at the same time giving aid to civilians, refugees, and air-raid victims everywhere at the battle fronts and in the rear whenever necessary and possible. The services rendered are exceedingly valuable and have much to contribute to the country at war.

The following sections will sum up various activities of the society and give a general view of its extensive work as being carried on throughout the country. It is only possible to bring into discussion a few main topics.

Medical Relief Corps and War Relief.

The Medical Relief Corps, under the administration of the Medical Relief Commission consisting of seven members of the board of directors, is the immediate organ which runs all the medical services in the field ever since the beginning of the war. It may well be considered as the power house of the Red Cross. Its headquarters was organized in Hankow in the year 1939, and after moving from one place to another on account of the change of war situations, finally stationed at its present site in Tu Yun Kwan, Kweiyang. It now consists of three departments: medical, general administration, and accounting, all working

under the direction of the director-general and his two assistant directors.

The field work of the corps is composed of two divisions of coordinated services: medical units and truck-ambulance convoys. The former is the corps' atomic organization for medical relief, while the latter, an all-inclusive means of transportation which has proved to be uniquely important in medical relief work throughout the war areas.

Medical Units.—These medical units are assigned to work in the field and base hospitals as well as in the dressing and receiving stations along the main lines of transportation. With the exception of the X-ray and laboratory units, they all perform a three-fold functions: curative, nursing, and preventive. The units assigned to a particular line constitute a group (chung tui) while several groups in a war zone or a defined area constitute a division (ta tui). Up to the end of last October, there are seven divisions, 40 groups, and 100 units.

A geographical study of these units shows that they extend to 54 hsien of 12 different provinces: Kweichow, Shensi, Honan, Hupeh, Chekiang, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, and Szechuen. For one time, there were also units sent over to Burma and India to serve our Expedition and Allied Forces.

Each of these units has, in general, one doctor, two nurses, one nursing or sanitary assistant, in addition to four or six stretcher-bearers who are especially needed in the "roadless zones" not only to transport wounded to the rear, but also to bring forward rations and medical supplies. Such organization renders it easier for the units

to move from place to place according to changes of war situations and to needs for medical services, and makes for better adaptation to conditions under which these units work.

Here are a few statistics showing the total number of surgical and medical cases of the wounded soldiers treated by these units for the period January to June, 1942. They give a clearer view of the type and extent of the work done by these units:

TABLE 6

Types of Work	Cases
Surgical Operations	7,197
Reduction of Fractures	2,598
Dressings	567,445
X-Ray Examinations	3,645
Special Diets	66,767
Immunizations	420,036
Medical Cases	143,744

Most of the units also set up clinics administering to the medical needs of the local population. The civilians treated total up to as many as 324,554 cases during the same period.

Truck-Ambulance Convoys.—These convoys facilitate the work of the medical units to a very great extent. They make up the circulation system of the Red Cross relief work by transporting wounded soldiers, medical supplies, and personnel. The scope of this service often extends much farther beyond the needs of the corps. Indeed, the greater part of transportation undertaken are for the other relief organizations which the Red Cross assists. With this available service, the society has not only helped the military, civil and mission hospitals, the army and civil health services, and local relief committees in transporting their own medical supplies and personnel, but has also brought to them large quantities of the Red Cross medical supplies.

These convoys are assigned to station at four key cities: Kunming, Chungking, Hengyang and Kweiyang, under the direction of the transport stations. The defined area charged to the responsibility of these stations are respectively: the Yunnan-Burma frontier, Northwest, Southeast and Southwest of China. The following table shows distribution of convoys and vehicles, and line of operation:

TABLE 7

Location of Station	No. of Convoys	No. of Vehicles	Line of Operation
Chungking	2	14	Chungking-Chengtui-Paocheng-Lanchow
Kunming	2	14	Hsiakwan-Kunming-Kweiyang
Kweiyang	2	14	Kweiyang-Chinchengkiang, Kweiyang-Chikiang
Hengyang	2	14	Hengyang-Taiho-Nanping

In order to afford repairing services and to keep the vehicles in the best possible running condition, a repair shop is maintained at Kweiyang. In addition, mechanics are assigned to work with the transport stations to handle simple jobs of adjusting and repairing.

The shortage of fuel and replacement parts paralyzes these transportation services and thereby influence the relief work to some extent. To cope with the difficulties resulted from this situation, it is being projected to operate an alcohol factory and to solicit contributions for buying or making necessary replacement parts.

Project for Civilian and Air-raid Relief in Chungking.—The frequent and heavy bombing by enemy planes together with the constantly increasing cost of medical services called for an adequate project for civilian and air-raid relief on the part of the city of Chungking. The situation was quite challenging, and the Red Cross accepted the challenge by starting out to take up such responsibilities to the best of its ability.

The Red Cross project for Chungking is indeed a comprehensive one. It consists of a variety of medical operations, including one general clinic, two medical units, one isolation hospital, and one general hospital. The working of this project is obvious. The general clinic and clinics simultaneously administered by the medical units take the first look of the patients. Those detected to need hospital care after careful diagnosis are referred to the general hospital or the isolation hospital accordingly. The same holds true of the relief of air-raid victims, in which cases ambulance services are provided free of charge.

Since the medical units resemble those for war relief as treated in the foregoing section, it will only be necessary here to say a few words about the general clinic, the isolation hospital, and the general hospital.

General Clinic.—For the convenience of the general public, the clinic is established in the New Life Model Centre at the very centre of the war capital. It consists of six departments: medicine, surgery, gynecology, pediatrics, X-ray, and clinical laboratory. Patients are treated here free of charge, except those requiring more careful treatment or laboratory examination, in which cases, a small registration fee is charged in order to put into practice some kind of limitation, thereby affording the doctors and nurses more time to attend to these cases. Drugs are given to all patients without charge, a practice which is of help to, and appreciated by everyone in such times of distress as this one now. The clinic has been in operation for just about a year with a standing record of treating 600-800 patients everyday. This is indeed a useful and timely service, and the general public of the war capital, especially those unable to bear the high cost of medical services, is taking good advantage of it too.

Isolation Hospital.—Due perhaps largely to poor sanitary conditions, there is prevalent in Chungking some kind of infectious diseases all year round. One can find, for instance, cases of typhoid fever almost any time of the year. Surprising numbers of children still suffer from small pox, and cases of scarlet fever and diphtheria are also commonly found. With a view to affording special treatment to patients of these and other communicable diseases, an isolation

hospital has been put up in the South Bank, far away from the busy centres of the city. The site is well chosen for the purpose of isolating the sufferers.

At present, there is in this hospital enough accommodations for 50 beds. A bigger capacity is possible when necessary. It is also ready for use in time of air-raids and emergency cases.

General Hospital.—This hospital is located at Kao Tan Yen, some 20 kilometers out in the westside vicinity of the city, and is therefore quite safe from possible dangers and destructions of the air-raids. Everything here is modelled after the fashion of a good hospital in the ordinary times. It is no doubt the best possible under present circumstances.

The largest hospital in operation in the war capital at the present has only 150 beds, a number while seemingly impressive is really insufficient to meet the needs of the city. It consists of nine departments: medicine, surgery, gynecology and obstetrics, pediatrics, skin and venereal diseases, eye, ear-nose-throat, dentistry, and physical therapy. It is intended that of the 200 beds soon available, 10 will

be designated for the first class, 40 for the second class, and 150 for the third class, and that all wards of the third class will be free of charge except a nominal fee for food.

This project for civilian and air-raid relief has brought abundance of comfort and happiness to many people in this war capital. Greater values are expected to come out of it as the days roll by. In case of necessity, similar project of a smaller magnitude is to be extended to other key cities. As a matter of fact, steps have already been taken in this direction in Kweiyang, where the headquarters of our medical relief corps is stationed.

Supply Depots and Free Distribution of Medical Supplies.—The supply depots are closely related to the functioning of the medical units and the truck-ambulance convoys. They may just as well be considered as a third division of the coordinated services of the medical relief corps.

These depots are organized for the storage, preparation, and issuing of medical equipments and supplies. At present, there are altogether 13 depots distributed as follows:

TABLE 8

Depot	Location
Central Depot	Kweiyang
No. 1 Sub-Depot	Paocheng
2 Branch Depots	Shan and Laohokou
No. 6 Sub-Depot	Patung
No. 4 Sub-Depot	Liuchow
No. 5 Sub-Depot	Tushan
1 Branch Depot	Chinchengkiang
No. 7 Sub-Depot	Chukiang
No. 9 Sub-Depot	Chungking
No. 8 Sub-Depot	Nanping
No. 10 Sub-Depot	Hengyang
No. 2 Sub-Depot	Taoyuan

The central depot is under the direct administration of the head office. It consists of three divisions: drugs, chemicals, and instruments, all having to do with storage. There is, in addition, a production division which prepares or purifies certain local materials to replace imports. Sodium chloride, sodium sulphate, copper sulphate, etc. can now be provided in reasonable quantities.

The central depot also packs supplies in standard packages to be distributed to its sub-depots and branch depots for the use of the medical units, clinics, and hospitals. The standard supply list gives information as to what equipments, drugs, dressings, etc. are available, and must be maintained for the work in the field.

The scope of the Red Cross supplies service also extends much beyond the immediate needs of itself. Large quantities of supplies are issued for purpose of other military, civil, and relief organizations. The following tables show the standard value (this is calculated from a "standard price" representing the average local value obtained during January to June, 1939. The standard values of supplies thus derived are irrespective of the original currencies of prices. In many instances, they bear little relation to actual prices. They may, therefore, be better regarded as the means of expressing supplies under a common term, rather than the indices of value) of the supplies received and issued in the recent years.

TABLE 9. STANDARD VALUE OF SUPPLIES RECEIVED BY CENTRAL DEPOT

Year	Contributions from Abroad	Purchases from Hongkong	Purchases in China
1939	1,027,030.30	229,432.26	178,782.50
1940	1,223,877.72	125,847.24	182,810.65
1941	1,971,814.28	17,140.08	188,972.63
1942 (Jan.-Sept.)	1,165,720.85	—	50,520.45

TABLE 10. STANDARD VALUE OF SUPPLIES ISSUED BY CENTRAL DEPOT TO VARIOUS MILITARY AND CIVIL ORGANIZATIONS NOT BELONGING TO RED CROSS

Year	Military Organizations	Civil Organizations
1939	206,375.96	176,428.04
1940	373,743.68	132,559.22
1941	247,556.49	394,086.78
1942 (Jan.-Sept.)	31,316.80	29,029.50

Local Chapters and Their Activities.

The local chapters of the Red Cross are organized purely on the basis of voluntary service. There used to be 512 such chapters scattered throughout the country before the war. Only 74 are now in constant touch with the head office; all the rest in the occupied area have lost connection in the meantime. The following table shows the geographical distribution of these chapters:

TABLE 11

Province	No. of Chapters
Szechuen	34
Kweichow	2
Yunnan	4
Shensi	3
Honan	5
Hupei	2
Hunan	6
Kiangsi	1
Chekiang	1
Fukien	4
Kwangtung	6
Kwangsi	3
Kansu	1
Shantung	1
Anhui	1
TOTAL	74

These chapters are taking very active part in the way of medical relief. They have been operating altogether 31 hospitals, 63 clinics, and 37 medical units, all doing useful and good work. Such services of a voluntary nature ought to be made deep-rooted, and the head office is doing everything within its ability to help getting along.

This, in brief, concludes the present article on the National Red Cross

Society of China. Such nation-wide network of medical relief as maintained by the society and described here in these pages requires the devoted service of more than 2,000 paid medical and non-medical men and women and a regular running budget of no less than \$1,500,000 a month. This would never have been possible, if it were not because of the great assistance that has come from numerous organizations and individuals in China and abroad, in addition to its regular sources from the Central Government. Prominent among the contributors are the American Red Cross, the British Government, the Australian Red Cross, the New Zealand Red Cross, and the Indian Government.

The overseas Chinese in the Dutch East Indies were by far the chief contributor to the funds, quinine, and foodstuffs. Every town and even every village throughout Java, Sumatra, Dutch Borneo, Celebes, Bali, etc. where there was a Chinese population had sent in regularly its quota contribution until the Pacific war came along. Friends and Chinese in the United States have donated most of the ambulances and medical supplies.

In short, donations have come in from practically all corners of the earth. Much more, however, is required. The sort of help that the Chinese Red Cross needs at present includes: ambulances, spare parts, fuels, surgical instruments (especially X-ray machines, microscopes), hospital supplies, and a continuous flow of funds. With the ever-ready interests of its friendly organizations and individuals in China and abroad, the worthy relief work of the Chinese Red Cross will unfailingly continue on with its present dimensions and vitally national importance.

WORLD RED SWASTIKA SOCIETY¹

The work of the World Red Swastika Society in China, during the period 1939-42, may be summarized under two categories. Activities of its child welfare associations, schools, hospitals, clinics, factories, farms, orphanages, loan offices, etc. fall under the category of its work of a permanent nature, while the rescuing, sheltering and repatriating of refugees, extending of emergency relief to the destitute, distributing of congee and winter garments to the poor, and burying of the dead as carried on by its Joint Management Office at Chungking and branch offices in various provinces and municipalities are efforts under the category of its work of a temporary nature.

There are at present 10 *child welfare associations* and two *schools* under the auspices of this society, distributed at Pahsien, Wanhhsien, Chengtu, Kian, Lanchow, Kweilin, Hsuehchang, Chengchow, Changsha and Sian. Their titles correspond to the names of the places where they have been located, and the number of children admitted varies from about 100 to more than 1,000. Most of the children of the child welfare associations were rescued from war zones, while others have either been rendered homeless by air-raids or whose parents are in the battle-fields. The standard and curriculum of these associations are equivalent to those of ordinary primary schools, with the exception that vocational education has been applied for the purpose of enabling their graduates to earn their own living. The school at Wanhhsien which has been in existence since 1939 is named

Yinchuan Middle School, and among its students there are graduates from child welfare associations and wartime associations for the care and education of war orphans. In the day school at Kweilin there are more than 200 boys and girls, and it is expected that the number will be increased to 1,000 in 1943.

At Pahsien, Wanhhsien, Lanchow, Luhsien and Sian there have been erected by the society two *farms* and four *factories*. The farm at the North Hot Springs of Chungking comprises an area of 230 mow, bringing forth 200 piculs of cereals or 10,000 water melons per annum. Fruits, vegetables and cereals are produced in the farm at Wanhhsien, and there are raised at its nursery 400 chickens, 200 ducks, 10 cows, 30 sheep and 100 swine, occupying an area of 100 mow. The products of the factories include different kinds of bamboo, wooden and rattan furniture, toilet articles and earthen wares. Plans are being mapped out for the expansion of these farms and factories for the purpose of increasing their output.

With a view to giving medical treatment for the sick, this society has opened or subsidized *hospitals* and *clinics* in a number of cities. Methods of both Chinese and Western medical schools are applied, and patients treated and cured are counted by tens of thousands annually. The use of Chinese medicines have been encouraged, owing to the shortage of medical supplies from foreign countries. Besides, there have been in existence at Sian an *orphanage* and an *asylum* for the crippled and invalid, which should also be placed under the first category of the work of this society. Produ-

¹ Prepared by Mr. Peng Shu-jen of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs from information furnished by the World Red Swastika Society in China.

ve education and training are given to the inmates of both establishments.

The World Red Swastika Society in China has been endeavouring to render as much assistance to the refugees and air-raid victims as possible, since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, in addition to its work as described above. There have been organized in Chungking, Wanhhsien, Chengtu, Kweilin, Chengchow, Lanchow, Nanchang, Itu, Sian, Kian, Kunming, Luhsien and Changsha 19 *air-raid relief squads* for rescuing or assisting victims and burying the dead. On the 3rd and 4th of May, 1939, the three squads at Chungking made meritorious records in rescuing victims after terrific bombings, the number of corpses buried being 3,064. Similar services have been rendered by relief squads of other cities, where the enemy has not failed to rain large volumes of explosives and incendiaries on the

civilian populace. The number of refugee children rescued from the war zones by the Wanhhsien squad alone has been reported to be over 12,000, of whom 2,321 were repatriated, and the number of refugees received has totalled 13,961.

Beside rescuing the distressed from war areas and providing shelter for the homeless, the society has undertaken to erect in different places *congee kitchens* and *tea stalls* for the poor. And, in Chungking, Chengchow, Hsuehchang, Kweilin, Nanning, Foochow, Changsha and Hengyang, *medicals*, *winter garments* and *coffins* have been distributed, the beneficiaries being 275,255 for medicals, 1,944 for garments and 4,238 for coffins. The following table will help to illustrate the work of the Joint Management Office of this society and its branch offices during the period 1939-1942.

TABLE 12. RELIEF WORK OF THE WORLD SWASTIKA SOCIETY IN CHINA, 1939-1942

Location of Office	Children Cared and Educated	Refugees Assisted:			Persons Given Medical Treatment
		Clothed	Sheltered	Fed (Daily)	
Chungking	564	—	300	1,000	75,000
Wanhhsien	2,500	—	493	120	—
Lanchow	163	—	271	—	20,000
Sian	—	—	—	—	5,000*
Chengtu	236	—	—	—	—
Nanchang	483	—	—	—	46,000
Kweilin	200	—	—	700	—
Changsha	—	—	—	800	5,520*
Hsuehchang	—	—	—	3,300	3,600*
Chengchow	—	—	—	—	—
Luhsien	—	—	—	—	39,600*
Kweiyang	—	—	—	—	10,000
Itu	—	—	—	—	—
Kunming	—	—	—	—	4,700
Choukow	—	—	—	—	—

Leitao	—	—	—	—	10,000
Tienshui	—	—	—	—	5,000
Wuchungchen	—	—	—	—	7,000
Shenpa	—	—	—	—	6,400
TOTAL	—	1,944	—	—	275,255
<i>Location of Office</i>	<i>Victims Rescued</i>	<i>Refugees Repatriated</i>	<i>Corpses Buried</i>	<i>Coffins Distributed</i>	<i>Monthly Expenditure</i>
Chungking	—	—	3,064	—	\$ 57,275.00
Wanhien	12,000	2,312	400	—	48,400.00
Lanchow	—	—	—	—	9,792.30
Sian	—	—	—	—	3,000.00
Chengtu	—	—	—	—	11,500.00
Nanchang	—	—	—	—	—
Kweilin	—	—	—	—	1,395.17
Changsha	—	—	—	—	3,664.00
Hsuehchang	—	—	—	—	27,255.00
Chengchow	874	—	368	—	5,400.00
Luhhsien	—	—	—	—	12,455.00
Kweiyang	—	—	—	—	5,000.00
Shangyu	—	—	—	—	500.00
Foochow	—	—	—	—	250.00
Tungkwan	—	—	—	—	720.00
Itu	—	—	—	—	36,050.00
Kunming	—	—	—	—	—
Choukow	—	—	—	—	1,800.00
TOTAL	—	2,312	5,073	4,238	\$224,906.47

* Per year.

NOTE: In the above table, figures sent in by some of the branch offices are incomplete or not itemized.

FRIENDS OF THE WOUNDED SOCIETY

J. L. HUANG¹ (黃仁霖)

The Friends of the Wounded Society of the New Life Movement Headquarters was founded on December 28, 1939, at Hengyang in southern Hunan—about two months after the fall of

Hankow when a stream of wounded officers and men poured into the railway junction city. It is a spontaneous movement popularly supported by all classes of Chinese because through the F.O.W.S. the Chinese people have found a medium to express their desire to do something for the wounded heroes during this war.

¹ Secretary-General, Friends of the Wounded Society of the New Life Movement Headquarters.

Thanks to the inauguration of the F.O.W.S. and since its existence, the army medical authorities have been able to devote more time to technical work and attend to the pressing needs at the front. Even up to this date, there is a continuous need for environmental improvement, for better nourishment, for preventing the wounded from getting sick and for preventing the sick from getting sicker. As the base hospitals already have their hands full caring for the severe cases, the work needs to be done by some popular organization.

And the F.O.W.S. fills this gap. At the time of its inception, it was felt that the most pressing need for the wounded in the military hospitals was delousing, bathing and scabies treatment. So the F.O.W.S. set itself to undertake these services as a means to relieve the discomfort and suffering among the enlisted men as well as to prevent serious complications and ill-health. With these three branches of services (known as the D.B.S. work) well underway, the F.O.W.S. turned to the question of nourishment, and special diet for the sick and the wounded was added.

To further help improve environmental sanitation in the military hospitals, the F.O.W.S. inaugurated the much-needed laundry and mending services. And finally sanitary supplies were made available for the hospital inmates. Thus, D.B.S., Special Diet, Laundry and Mending Services came to be known as the F.O.W.S.'s **fourfold program**.

This fourfold program, carried out by the F.O.W.S. and not by the military hospitals, is doubly appreciated by the wounded because the F.O.W.S. is supported by the people. The F.O.W.S. is a spontaneous ex-

pression of army-civilian cooperation. It gives concrete indication that the soldiers, when wounded in action and when laid up with illness, are not forgotten by the people. By joining the F.O.W.S., the people become their *friends*, and the F.O.W.S. is performing practical services—it provides the wounded and sick with special foods, baths and many other facilities.

Sponsored by the New Life Movement headed by Dr. H. H. Kung, President of the F.O.W.S. Board of Directors, the F.O.W.S. depends solely on popular subscriptions at home and abroad. Every cent it spends on the wounded is accounted.

One added feature of the F.O.W.S. besides the special diet program is the provision of four ounces of pork or beef to each wounded every week to supplement his regular hospital fare, regardless of the fluctuation in meat prices.

The present object of the F.O.W.S. is to provide every military hospital with one F.O.W.S. unit. Each **service unit** is composed of not more than four officers and six workers headed by a captain. The captain directs the work and an accountant takes care of the money which is strictly budgeted. The rest are divided into four departments under the fourfold program. Usually the captain is responsible for one section of the work.

For an average of 500 patients, a service unit gets around N.C.\$3,000–7,000 a month for the fourfold program. The meat diet budget is unlimited, depending on the number of patients put on meat diet in each military hospital and the local market price of meat, principally pork.

Up to the end of November, 1942, the F.O.W.S. directly controlled 96 such service units, in addition to 29

"With one accord, the whole democratic world now acclaims the fortitude with which the Chinese people have successfully withstood the storm of aggression which has raged for the past five and a half years. Belatedly, but now fully and without qualification, the value of China's resistance to the common cause of human freedom has been recognized in all liberty-loving lands.

"While the tribute to the whole nation is more than justified, China's hero of heroes is the wounded soldier. It is hardly a figure of speech to say that he has heroically and silently opposed his bare flesh and blood to the brutal mechanized forces long prepared for his extermination. It is he who, though himself stricken in body as well as sick in soul at the unforgettable sights, sounds and smells of frontline conditions, has unflinchingly shown himself determined to continue the struggle until the last invader is expelled from his country.

"The Friends of the Wounded, as the name signifies, is a popular movement which has greatly helped to alleviate the sufferings of the hundreds of thousands of China's warriors who have been sorely stricken on the field of battle. This movement richly deserves the support of everyone, irrespective of race, whose heart has been stirred by admiration for the courage of China's defenders and whose sympathy has been kindled by a knowledge of the miseries they suffer as they fight their way back to convalescence...."

In closing, it is not too much to say that whatever success the F.O.W.S. has achieved since its existence four years ago has been due entirely to the

generous support of the people at home and friends abroad, but the authorities of the F.O.W.S. are far from being satisfied and they have resolved to enlarge the scope of work of the F.O.W.S. in order to give the public a greater chance to give even fuller expression of its appreciation for the gallant services of the heroic armed defenders who brave their lives for the country.

Much has been done for the wounded heroes of China, but much more remains to be done and the F.O.W.S. has dedicated itself to this all-important task.

REFUGEE CHILDREN RELIEF ASSOCIATION

VERA AI-CHEN CHANG¹

The National Wartime Association for the Care and Education of Refugee Children, under the leadership of Madame Chiang Kai-shek, has had a history of four and a half years. The work was started in 1938 at Hankow, and before long, 20,000 refugee children were cared for. Since then, the association has maintained this number, taking in new "warphans" as soon as there were vacancies. The original 20,000 refugee children have all grown up. Those who were originally in lower primary schools are now in higher primary schools; those who were originally in higher primary schools maintained by the homes for refugees children have by now been graduated; and those with high scholastic records have been sent to designated national middle schools, normal schools, vocational schools, or polytechnical colleges. For those with low scholastic records, they were given

apprenticeships in different trades so that they may learn to be economically independent.

While the refugee children have been growing up, the burden of the association has correspondingly increased. At the same time, due to the varied backgrounds of the refugee children, there were "problem children" as well as good and bright ones. If there are 10 children in a family, they are bound to have different futures. And there should be no wonder that such is the case with the 20,000 refugee children.

Among those who have left the homes for refugee children maintained by the association, a greater percentage of them have returned to their parents or guardians. The second came deserters, with the number of deaths due to illnesses coming last. Parents or guardians of some of the refugee children who finally found their way into the rear provinces generally claimed their children back. Others did so when they found themselves financially once more in a position to support their children. Such applications were granted by the association if they were found to be in order.

Our friends may ask: With so many refugee children claimed back by their parents or guardians, would not the homes for the refugee children be empty? Our answer is: Changing conditions have created fresh demands on the facilities of the association.

If we consult the map of China, we will understand that with the exception of the northwestern and southwestern portions of China, vast areas of the country have been ravaged by the enemy. With the extension of the zones of hostilities has come an increase in the number of refugee

children. Where could these helpless warphans go to? Naturally, they could not be permitted to fall into the hands of the enemy. Consequently, they waited for our care, and we have been continuing to rescue them from the war zones. Though the work was once suspended temporarily after the outbreak of the Pacific war which resulted in the interruption of the source of our economic assistance, it has been gradually resumed.

According to our **revised policy**, primary attention is to be paid to the care of the children of the officers and men who have given their lives for the country and to destitute overseas Chinese children. The reason for this is that it was the armed defenders and their families who have made the greatest effort, the greatest sacrifice and the greatest contribution during this war. As to the latter, it is because their families abroad have become the victims of war as a result of the outbreak of the Pacific hostilities, and we felt that it was our duty to extend a helping hand to their children now stranded in China. Thus we decided to allot vacancies in our homes for refugee children to these two groups.

However, we should like to stress the fact that an enterprise like the care of refugee children needs the economic support of all quarters, for without a spirit of service and material assistance from the public the fate of the 20,000 refugee children would be unimaginable.

If we do not deny that to feed, clothe and educate the refugee children forms the core of our program, then we may ask: Where is the money for the care of these 20,000 refugee children to come from? In this regard, we would first like to voice our deep appreciation to Madame Chiang Kai-

¹Director, Women's Advisory Board of the New Life Movement.

others jointly organized by other popular organizations, making a grand total of 125. At present (March 1943) the number has increased to 159.

The second step is to send another type of trained workers to go to localities where military hospitals are maintained but where F.O.W.S. service units are unavailable. These workers endeavour to get the local people to be responsible for the unit financially and to supply the personnel. The object is to get the local community take care of the service unit. As soon as the local community is capable of taking over the direct service to the wounded, the F.O.W.S. service unit will either be partly or completely withdrawn to participate in productive service for the crippled or go to other hospitals where their service is urgently needed.

This is a practical way of promoting the F.O.W.S. movement. By actually demonstrating the fourfold program to the local people, the service unit, knowing the soldier's temperament, not only teaches them how to serve the wounded and the sick but also arouses their interest in the work.

F.O.W.S. **workers** are drawn from college and high school students. It is more a patriotic sense of duty rather than the remuneration that attracts them, for they only get enough for their clothing and living expenses. But the F.O.W.S. gives either prizes or scholarship funds at the end of one or two years' service, depending on their length of service and their merits, after which they can go back to school again.

Some F.O.W.S. workers are drawn from various Protestant and Catholic missions, from social agencies like the Y.M.C.A., the Chinese Red Cross, the Salvation Army, the Women's Ad-

visory Board of the New Life Movement, the Y.W.C.A., and other similar organizations.

These workers are given one month's training on different branches. Some are sent to the Red Cross for training in special diet and delousing. Up to the end of November, 1942, training classes had been held at seven different centres in Kiangsi, Hupeh, Chekiang, Hunan, Anhwei, Shensi and Szechuen provinces. Three hundred and ninety-five students were graduated and they were organized into 78 units in the above-mentioned seven provinces.

Besides receiving training in the fourfold program, the workers are taught how to serve the wounded, how to improve environmental sanitation, how to sing, and how to perform first-aid. Spiritual and military training is emphasized side by side with technical training so as to give the workers an all-round training, for when they serve with the units, they are at once nurses, letter-writers, entertainers and teachers.

The following may give the reader some idea of the extent of **benefits** the sick and wounded have received from January, 1942 to May 31, 1942. During this period, 254,234 officers and men with doctors' approval, were put on special diet. Of these, 44,346 had to take liquid diet, 191,719 were put on semi-liquid diet, 7,262 were treated for beri-beri, and 10,907 were given special foods without salt.

Through the courtesy of the F.C.W.S., boiled water was served to patients in the military hospital during the same period under review. Meanwhile, the F.O.W.S. has set up delousing stations in 100 military hospitals throughout Free China.

As there are not enough service units to go around, the F.O.W.S.

enlists the cooperation of the Epidemic Prevention Corps, the Chinese Red Cross' Medical Relief Corps, and the New Life Medical Units in undertaking the delousing work with expenses borne by the F.O.W.S. Besides, the F.O.W.S. has started delousing work in the field hospitals and receiving stations, and there were 22 delousing stations operated by the F.O.W.S. in the 9th War Zone alone.

During the same period, 267,735 patients were bathed, 50,797 were deloused, and 61,885 were treated for scabies. The service units, meanwhile, washed and mended 625,053 pieces of underclothing, sheets and quilt covers for the sick and wounded.

In view of the increased cost of living and the subsequent danger of under-nourishment, the F.O.W.S., beginning from November, 1940, has been providing each patient with one standard catty (about one pound) of pork or beef in four installments—about four ounces a week. Up to the end of December, 1941, during the one year period, 2,907,440 had thus been benefitted.

No less than 4,000,000 **Friends** of the Wounded were registered with the F.O.W.S. up to the end of 1942. They were distributed among 73 chapters in China and six chapters abroad. In February, 1940, the F.O.W.S. sponsored a campaign to solicit "100,000" Friends. Within a few months the campaign brought in no less than 3,000,000 Friends and a total of N.C.\$6,639,385.68 in cash—an evidence of the enthusiasm of the general public towards the movement.

Later the F.O.W.S. launched a campaign in Chungking to enlist 50,000 Friends among the working class. Each member was asked to contribute only one Chinese national dollar. The

idea behind the campaign was not so much the solicitation of donations, but more of a movement to arouse mass interest in and the concern over the welfare of the sick and the wounded. The result was highly gratifying, for no less than 100,000 Friends signed up.

As the foundation for the fourfold program was laid, the F.O.W.S. on October 26, 1940, branched out into a new phase, viz., the rehabilitation of the **crippled soldiers** who could be taught a job, especially those who were once skilled workers, such as carpenters and blacksmiths.

In this program the F.O.W.S. co-operates with the Chinese Red Cross, which furnishes the orthopedic treatment and supplies artificial limbs where necessary, and with the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, which provides training in technical and co-operative methods. By advancing N.C.\$300,000 as sinking fund for loans to be repaid within three years, the F.O.W.S. thus enables thousands of crippled soldiers to establish co-operative ventures and become self-respecting and economically-independent citizens.

Such cooperatives have been established in Kiangsi, Shensi, Kweichow, Hunan and Kwangsi provinces with a sizeable membership. The plan for the rehabilitation of crippled soldiers has been in successful operation for more than two years, but more funds are needed to extend this worthy project to cover the whole field.

There is no more fitting closing to this brief review of the work of the F.O.W.S. than to present the following message from Madame Chiang Kai-shek on the **purpose** and work of the F.O.W.S.:

shek, our overseas Chinese and our friends abroad, particularly the United China Relief. In the last four and a half years, with the exception of a small portion, the bulk of our expenses has been raised by Madame Chiang Kai-shek from abroad. Needless to say, the funds were raised through the blood and sweat of many of our supporters. It was only through the patriotic enthusiasm of our overseas Chinese and the sincere help of our friendly Allies that it has been possible for us to continue our work. Although, due to changes in the international scene, our source of financial aid once diminished, the situation is now gradually turning for the better. As to the very small portion that we have just mentioned, it was a subsidy obtained by the association directly from the National Treasury.

Now let us see how our **budget** is distributed. This can be divided into two portions—for the homes of the refugee children and for the advance schooling and manual training of the refugee children.

At present, we maintain 36 homes for the refugee children, five agencies which help take care of our children, as well as one infirmary and one dormitory in Chungking for the faculty members and students. As far as the homes for the refugee children are concerned, due to the difference in commodity prices in different provinces, their budgets vary. According to our allocation of funds for 1942, the budgets for those homes in Kweichow, Shansi and Shensi provinces were the highest; the budgets for the homes in Kwangtung and Kwangsi provinces came second; the homes in Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hunan and Fukien came third; and the budgets for the homes in Szechuen came last.

As to the apportionment of the budget, besides salaries and office expenditures, the largest item of outlay was for the care and education of the refugee children. This includes such food items as rice, cooking oil, fuel, table salt, vegetables and miscellaneous; and such clothing items as uniforms, socks, stockings, straw sandals, cloth shoes, and towels; and such miscellaneous items as tooth brushes, soap, salt (as a substitute for tooth paste and powder), and hair-cuts. Included in the expense for the education of the refugee children are such items as the purchase of composition books, writing books, arithmetic books, notebooks, ink sticks, writing brushes, and educational equipment and apparatus in general. Detailed regulations are laid down as to how much of each item an inmate should be supplied annually. Other expenses cover medical and health care, including the provision of special diets such as bean milk, eggs, noodles, arrow-root powder, sugar, liver, spinach, bean curd and beef. However, due to the varied conditions in different provinces uniformity in the execution of the budget is an impossibility.

As to the expense for the refugee children in the care of the association who are now middle school students or apprentices, it is still being borne by the association. The budget includes uniform expense (summer uniform, winter cotton-padded uniform and mosquito nets), shoe and stocking expense (straw sandals, cloth sandals, rain boots, and umbrellas), daily article expense (wash basins, face towels, bath towels, tooth brushes, soap, and salt for cleaning teeth), travelling expense, medical expense and money for buying books, stationery, and other miscellaneous expenses.

However, it should be mentioned that the association is only responsible for the expense of the refugee children up to the first year in junior middle schools; after that, they will be supported by the Ministry of Education. As to the apprentices, with the exception of those who due to special circumstances may be granted an extension, their period is limited to three years. In these three years, they may receive stipulated amounts of subsidy from the association. However, in case of necessity, the amounts of subsidy may be reduced annually.

As a result of the trust placed in us by the public and by our international friends, we have taken up the responsibility of caring for and educating the refugee children. For this reason, we must not disappoint the public and our friends abroad; we must do our utmost to bring these refugee children up so that they may become useful citizens. And if by thus bringing them up one of these days they should have the opportunity of serving the cause of the United Nations in any small way, our highest hope will have been fulfilled.

WOMEN IN THE WAR

VERA AI-CHEN CHIANG¹ (張 露 農)

WOMAN workers and organizations throughout China have contributed a good deal to the common war efforts during the past year with a view to attaining ultimate victory and to securing in cooperation with other United Nations the collapse of the Axis aggressors. They work at the front as well as in enemy occupied territories, willing to sacrifice their lives for the cause of their fatherland with the same ardour as they did so heroically in the past. A few examples will suffice to prove it. According to a report of the Central News Agency Miss Chao Yu-cheng, who engaged herself in educating the masses at Huang-kow, was caught by the Japanese on March 11, 1942. She was finally executed after refusing to give any information about the Chinese forces despite the inhuman torture she suffered. In May, Miss Huang Chun-yu, a publicity worker in the war area near the Taihang Mountains, was surrounded by a group of Japanese soldiers. Failing to break through the Japanese encirclement, she hid herself in the nearby hills, erected a small radio station, and did liaison work single-handed. Perplexed and infuriated, the Japanese started a "mopping up" operation. She killed more than 10 enemies with her revolver and it was only at midnight when the Japanese climbed up the hill from the rear, putting burning wood into the

cave where she hid herself, that our heroine thought it futile to resist any more and threw herself over the precipice. These are but two of the numerous epic stories which entitle them to our admiration and esteem. In the rear the women workers, with the same spirit, are busy in training classes, hospitals, orphanages, and various fields of productive work. Owing to limited space, we can only treat summarily the chief items of women's work in the following paragraphs.

1. *Mobilization of Women through Extension of Organizations and Training of Staff Workers.*—During the past year, apart from the committees on women's work of the New Life Movement and other women organizations already established in Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Szechuen, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, and Hunan, similar organizations also came into being in Yunnan, Suiyuan, and Kirin. Under the auspices of the committees on women's work in different provinces, numerous branches were organized in Kweiyang, Anshun, Chingchen in Kweichow and Kanku, Tungwei, Chinta, Shantan, Liangtang, Chingchuan, Hsiaho, etc. in Kansu. With admirable skill and fervour, the Women's Advisory Board of Kiangsi undertook the task of organizing branch boards in the various hsien. In the occupied territories, women

organizations came under different names according to the special circumstances existing at different times. All these organizations are not a mere list of names; they stand for the fighting spirit of the Chinese women whose wartime work will be treated separately.

As good staff is necessary for the performance of any kind of work, every women organization pays much attention to the training of staff workers. Besides the promotion of individual members on merits of their work, the Women's Advisory Board of the New Life Movement has sponsored during the past year many large-scale training classes, such as Staff Members Training Class, Advisers Training Class, Factory and Rural Services Training Classes, etc. In Kwangtung, the branch committee on women's work opened a class for the training of higher staff workers. A same organization in Yunnan sponsored a Nurses Training Class in order to meet the needs of the Burmese campaign, while that of Kweichow trained a group of sanitation workers. The training of staff workers was carried on by the Women's Advisory Board of Kiangsi throughout that province. The same work was put in motion with even more zeal in the occupied territories.

2. *Improvement of Relations with Friendly Nations through Contacts with Foreign Peoples.*—With the increasing solidarity of the United Nations, women organizations, especially those in the wartime capital, began to realize the importance of coming in touch with foreign peoples and organizations. The Chinese and Soviet women in Chungking held a social meeting on January 27, 1942. On June 22nd, the first anniversary of the outbreak of the Soviet war of resistance, the

women's committee of the Sino-Soviet Cultural Association paid homage to their Soviet sisters and presented them a famous Hunan tapestry with the motto "Crushing the enemy shoulder to shoulder" on it. When Mr. Wilkie, the British Parliamentary Mission, etc. came to Chungking, they were warmly received by the Women's Advisory Board of the New Life Movement. They were introduced to the Chinese women leaders and invited to see what the Chinese women had done for the cause of humanity and world peace. It would be a platitude to add that the correspondence between women leaders of the United Nations and Madame Chiang Kai-shek had contributed much towards mutual understanding and borne out the perfect concord of interests and feelings.

3. *Participation in Productive Work.*—Free China was virtually blockaded on all sides after the fall of Burma into Japanese hands. There was a shortage of goods in the interior provinces, for the Japanese prevented the transportation of commodities to Free China from the occupied territories. In order to cope with the situation, various women organizations began at once to extend the work of the existing productive organizations and to embark upon new productive enterprises, utilizing native raw materials for the manufacturing of daily necessities. The productive enterprises in Szechuen under the Women's Advisory Board of the New Life Movement include the silk industry at Loshan, textile industry at Sungkai, weaving factory at Paisha, and the women's handicraft workshop of the New Life Movement. The past year witnessed a marked extension of work of all these enterprises. The silk industry at Loshan was particularly

¹ Director, Women's Advisory Board of the New Life Movement. Manuscript in Chinese translated by Mr. Cheng Chen-chlu (41 14 11) of the Waichiaopu.

prosperous and successful. The farmers were taught how to employ scientific methods in planting mulberry trees, in taking care of the silkworms and in improving the quality of silkworm eggs. Furthermore, an experimental station of silk industry was set up, producing raw silk of very fine quality which could be exported and was highly recommended by the Foreign Trade Commission. Mass production of towels, cloth, and hempen strings was made by the Soldiers' Families Factory. The same productive work was carried on with different degree of success in Kweichow, Shensi, Kansu, Kiangsi, Honan and Ninghsia. Under the management of the Women's Work Committee of Kwangtung are a dyeing factory and a sewing factory where hundreds of machines are in operation at one time, with admirable result. As regards the cultivation of arid lands to increase farm products, the women workers in North China have scored a considerable success in persuading women to run farms.

4. *Collection of Funds and Services for Soldiers and Their Families.*—The Women's Soldiers Comforting Association sent out last year many visiting groups to comfort the soldiers participating in the battle of North Hunan and the Allied soldiers in Burma. Large quantities of medicine were distributed to different war zones. On every festival day the honor soldiers and their families were given consolation and gifts. A self-governing experimental district for the honor soldiers was allotted at Peipei. In the hospitals for the wounded and sick soldiers along the Yangtze and the Kialing rivers, many working corps rendered service to the national heroes.

Funds were raised everywhere. Last

spring women workers in Yunnan collected a contribution of \$400,000 at one stroke. On July 7, 1942, women in Chengtu made a handsome contribution of \$1,000,000 to the war chest. The same zeal in collecting funds in Kweichow and Shensi was witnessed. The most encouraging aspect of this fund-raising campaign was the large contribution made by women in Ninghsia which is one of the poor border provinces.

The family members of the soldiers are sometimes left destitute and need urgent relief, for in many cases the man going to the front is one on whose income the livelihood of the whole family depends. During the past year women workers opened many workshops where the relatives of the soldiers might find employment. Offices extending small loans to the latter as trade capital were established at Wanh sien, Penghsien, and Kiang an in Szechuen. Similar work to help families of the soldiers was carried on at Kweilin, provincial capital of Kwangsi. Even in the occupied territories, regular relief works were done on a large scale. These partly account for the high morale of the Chinese soldiers fighting at the front.

5. *Enlightening of Women by Publicity Work.*—Much has been done along the line of educating peasant women and women labourers in the factories during the past year. Illiterate women were admitted to classes where reading and elementary knowledge were taught. Patriotic plays were performed and wall sheets were posted to attract a wider circle of readers. Among the important periodicals published by women organizations may be mentioned the *Women's New Life Movement Monthly*, the *Women's New Life Movement Weekly*, the *Women*

Monthly, the *Women's Echo*, the *Modern Women*, the *Young Women of China*, etc. All these publications have as their chief object the discussion of theories concerning women work and the description of women activities and daily life.

6. *Caring and Educating of Children.* Thirty-six orphanages are now in existence after some reorganization. More than 2,500 orphans have been sent to middle schools and 1,100 to various vocational schools. The caring and educating of the children of soldiers and oversea Chinese have become more and more urgent, and orphanages were ordered to give these children accommodation. Besides, the need of nurseries has directed public attention to the establishing of institutions for that purpose and nurseries have been called into being through the concurrent efforts of many women organizations, and may now be seen at Chungking, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Lanchow, and Kukong. The burden imposed upon the working women was thereby alleviated.

Apart from the work mentioned in the preceeding paragraphs, a word must be said about the efforts of women in Yunnan to relieve war refugees from Burma after the outbreak of war there. Helping to secure transportation facilities, women in Kweilin rendered a tremendous service to the oversea Chinese who fled back to their fatherland. Necessary information as regards the obtaining of employment or continuation of education was given to them. In Kwangtung, eight women working units were sent to the coastal districts to help Chinese refugees coming from Hongkong.

Nor were Chinese women in oversea countries idle during the past year. On the contrary, they have done their

best in raising funds for wounded soldiers and war orphans. Sixty Chinese women in New York hurried to make shirts, shoes and helmet for 2,000 Chinese officers and men in the United States army. To the admiration and respect of their compatriots three Chinese women worked in the bomber factory at San Diego.

To summarize the work done by the Chinese women in the past year, three points seem to be worthy of our attention. First, Chinese women have been adapting their work to changing situations. For instance, the contact of Chinese women with foreign peoples has become more frequent with the increasing solidarity of the United Nations. Relief was offered and service rendered to oversea Chinese refugees immediately after the outbreak of war in Hongkong and Burma. Similarly, deficiency in materials due to the blockade by the enemy made women organizations direct their energy to the productive enterprises. Secondly, the mobilization of women for work was effected with more satisfactory results than before. The past year noticed a remarkable extension of mobilization work to the border and remote provinces. The importance of mobilizing women in provinces like Yunnan, Kirin, Suiyuan, and Kansu had often been neglected. In the past year women workers succeeded in organizing women in these provinces to cope with new situations created by the development of the war. Thirdly, women workers strove hard to overcome difficulties. Despite the contributions they had made to the common war effort and the increasing support and sympathy they received from some enlightened circles, women were still told by some that they ought to confine themselves to house-

hold affairs. Financially, most organizations received no subsidy from the Government; they were maintained wholly on private contributions. The natural outcome of this was that women workers met obstacles everywhere in the performance of their work. However, all of them knew the virtue of perseverance and, instead of being disappointed, continued to work with unflicking courage.

But Chinese women workers are far from satisfied with their work. They are well aware of their own defects. At least two shortcomings may be mentioned. First, the organization of women for active service is inadequate. As already stated above, women have worked in harmony with an ever-changing situation. But this adaptation has been insufficient as far as the number of women organized for work is concerned. Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to Great Britain, not long ago delivered a speech in the People's Political Council, saying that 6,000,000 English women were in wartime service. Chinese women workers have much to learn from their British comrades. Secondly, further cohesion among women workers is still needed. Without any chance of

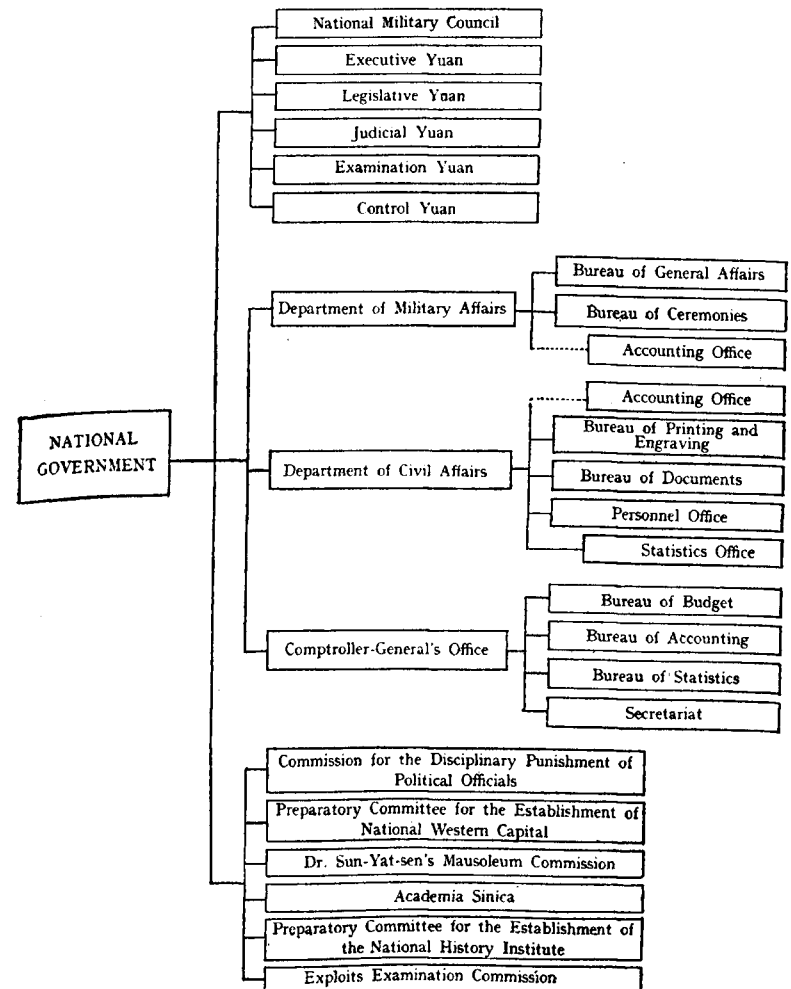
coming into regular contact with each other, they could not be benefitted from the experiences and suggestions of other workers which might prove conducive to the successful carrying on of their work. It is no doubt a great loss that there was no close co-ordination among various women organizations.

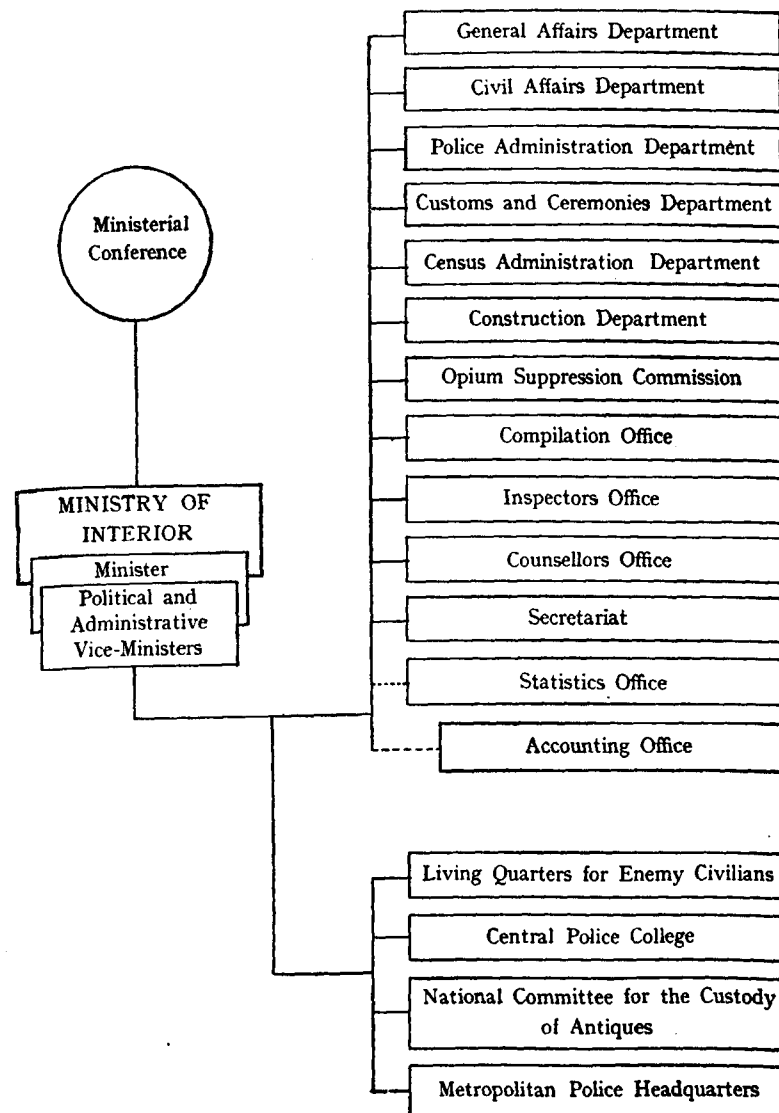
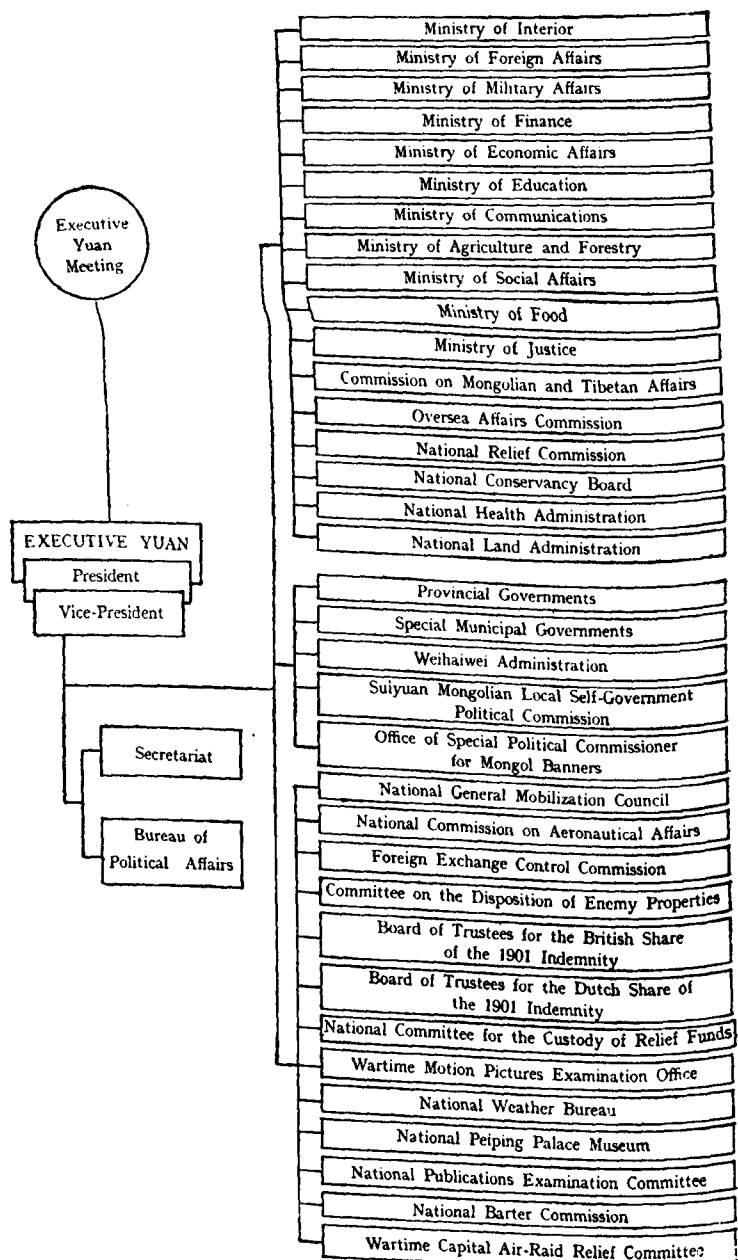
During a commemorative meeting on the Women's Day in Chungking, Madame Chiang Kai-shek said, "Brute force must be destroyed and civilization is destined to triumph. Women of this generation should consecrate themselves to this holy war against aggression." She added, "For us women the most important thing at hand is to discover, and make good use of, our own strength. When all the small streams of strength flow together into a mighty current, the effect it produces may well be imagined. So the necessity of solidarity is beyond any doubt." "With our eyes fixed on the noble ideal afar," she continued, "we have to take up the work nearest to us." It is believed that, in conformity with these instructions, the Chinese women will work harder for the restoration of human decency and establishment of an eternal peace.

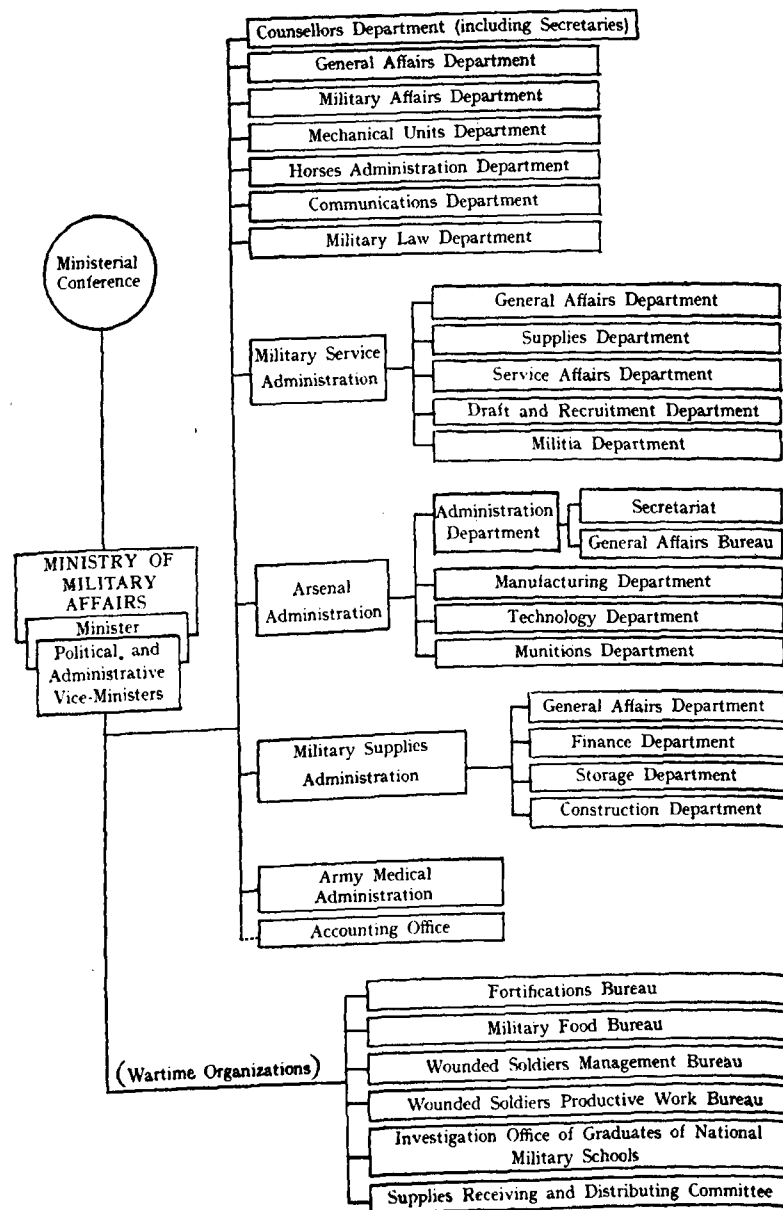
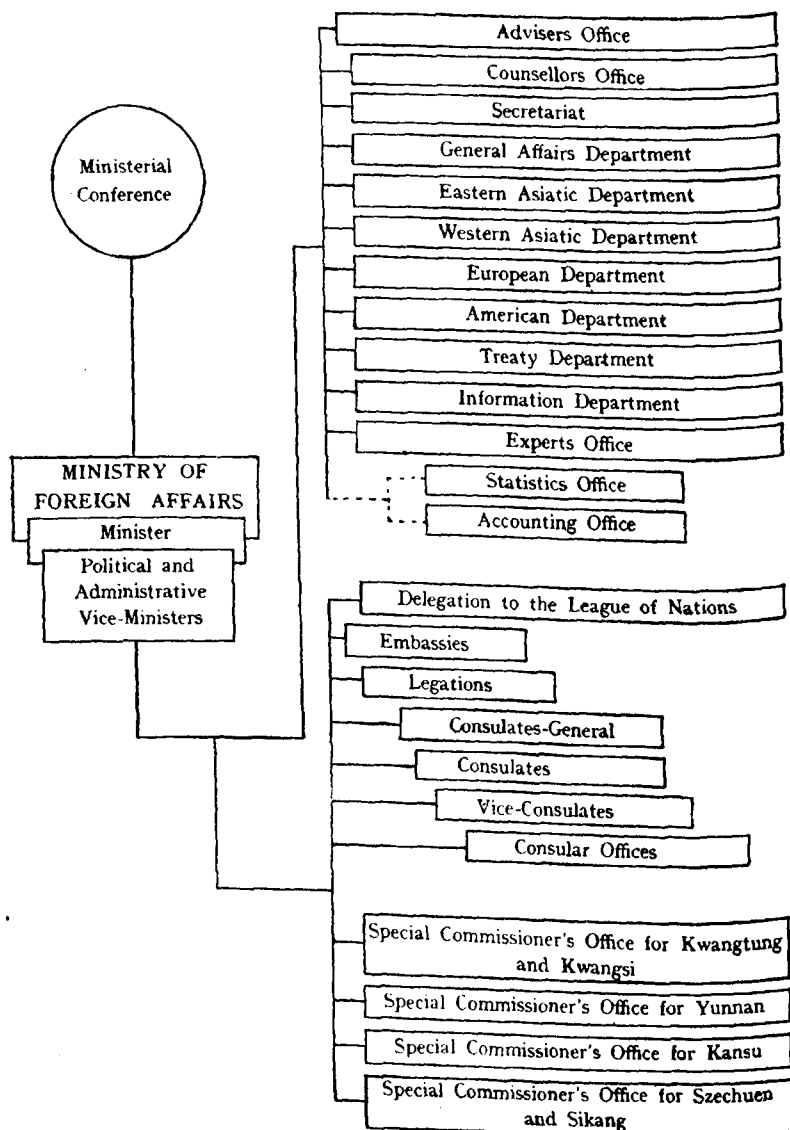
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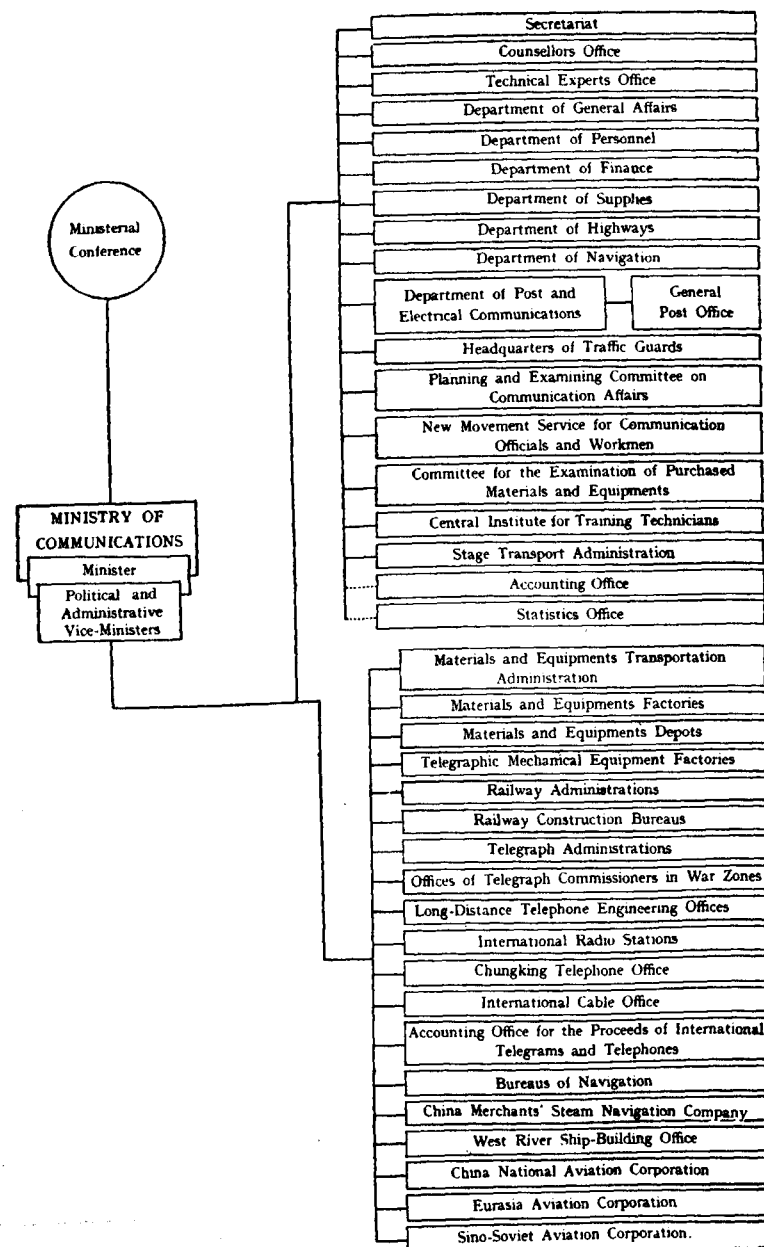
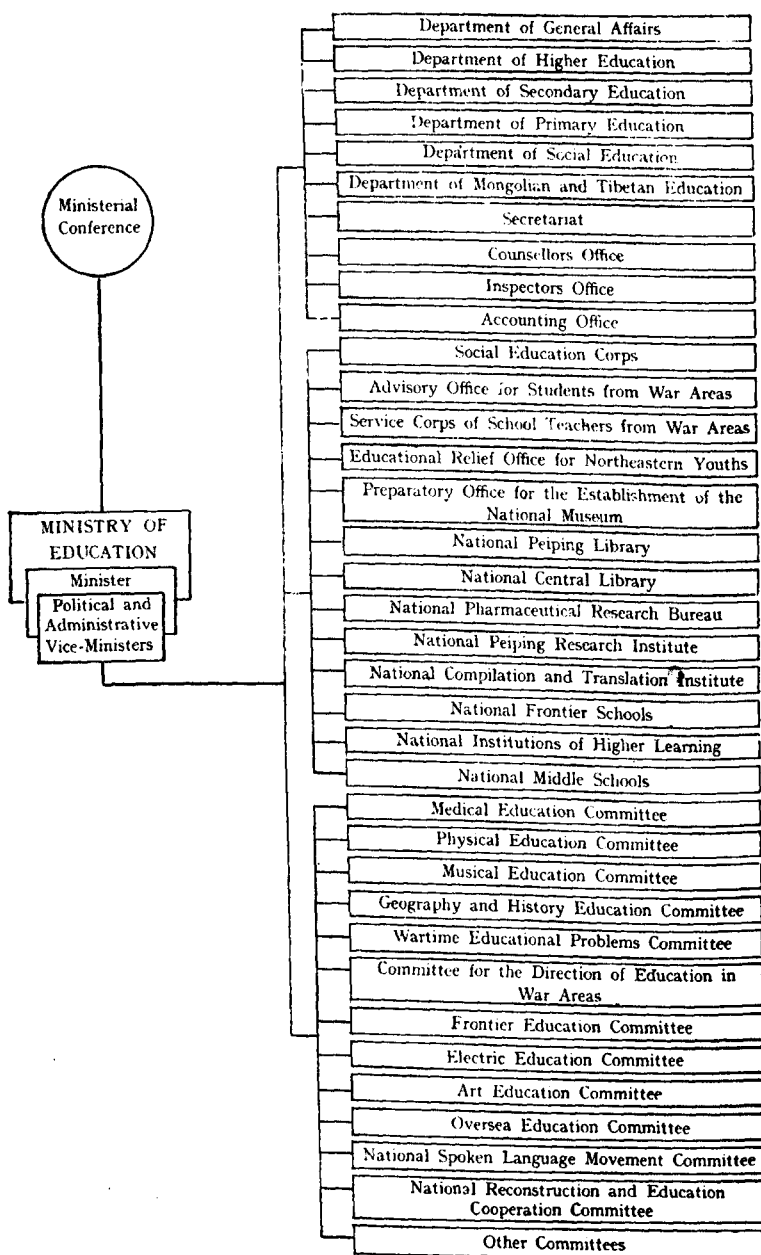
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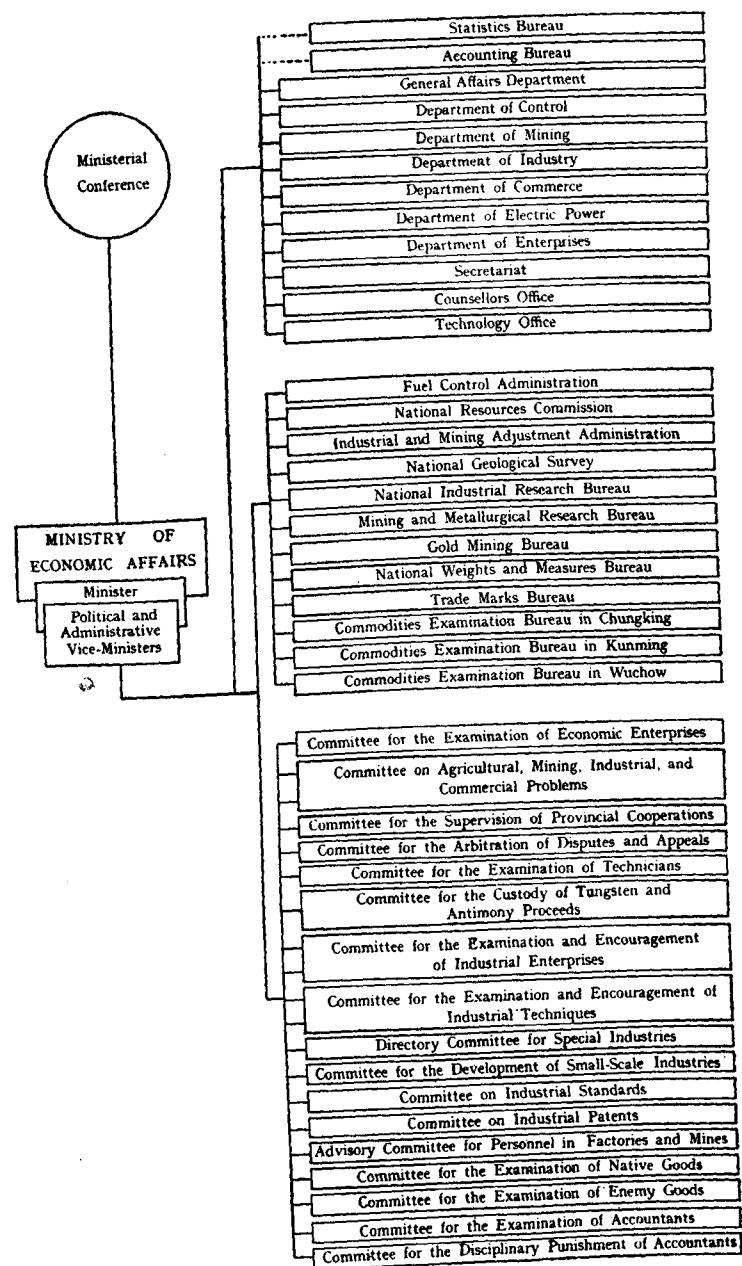
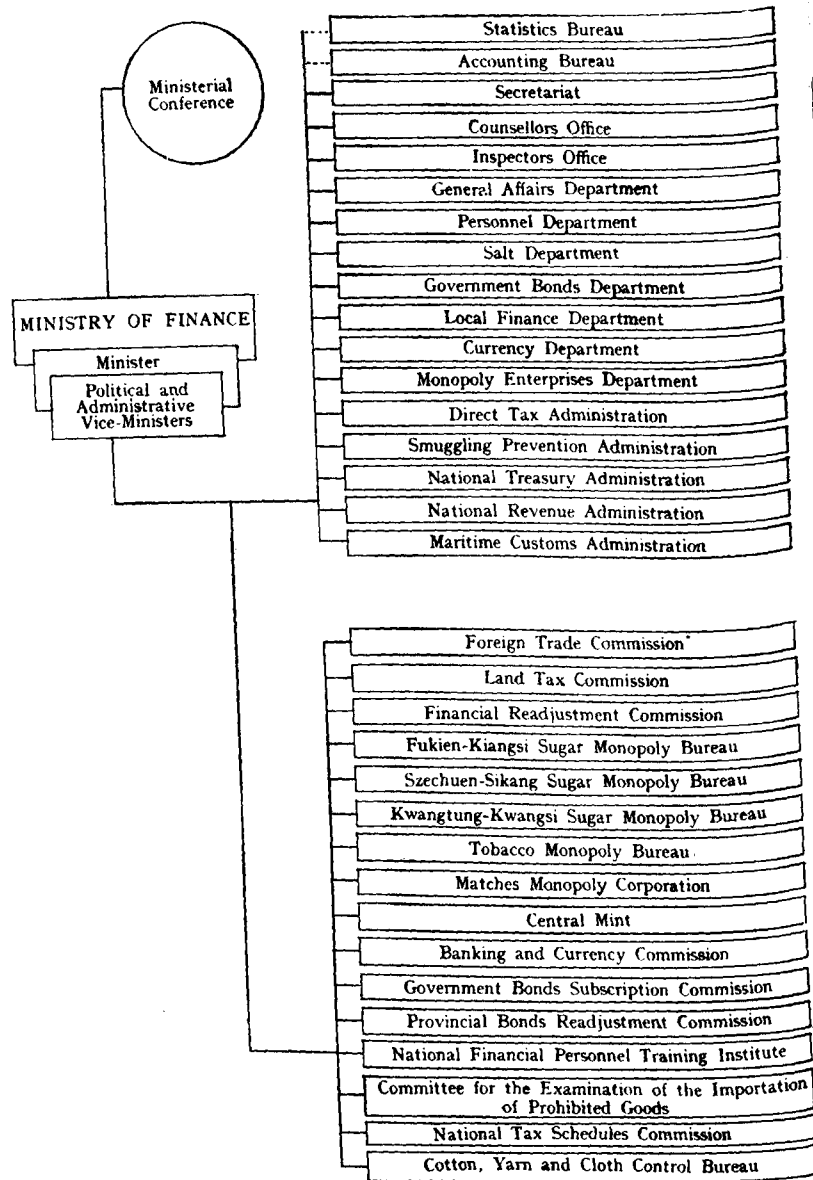
CHARTS OF NATIONAL AND LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEMS

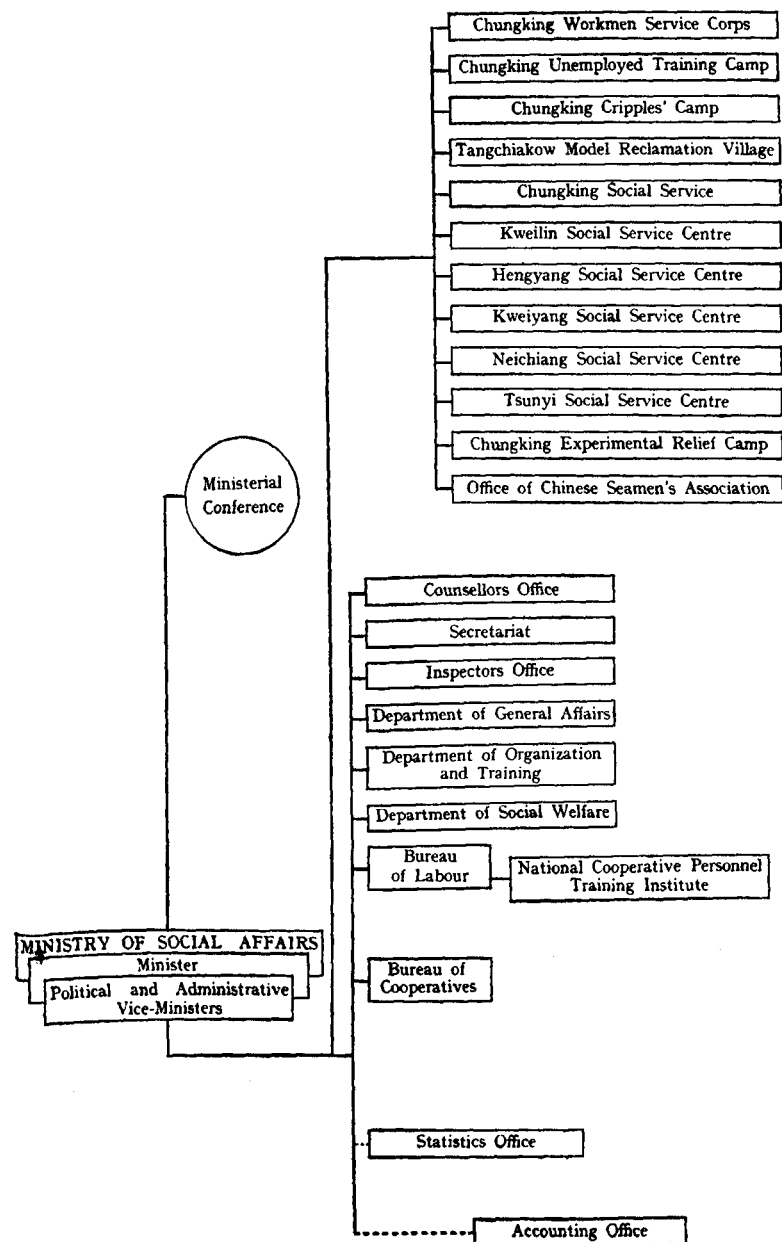
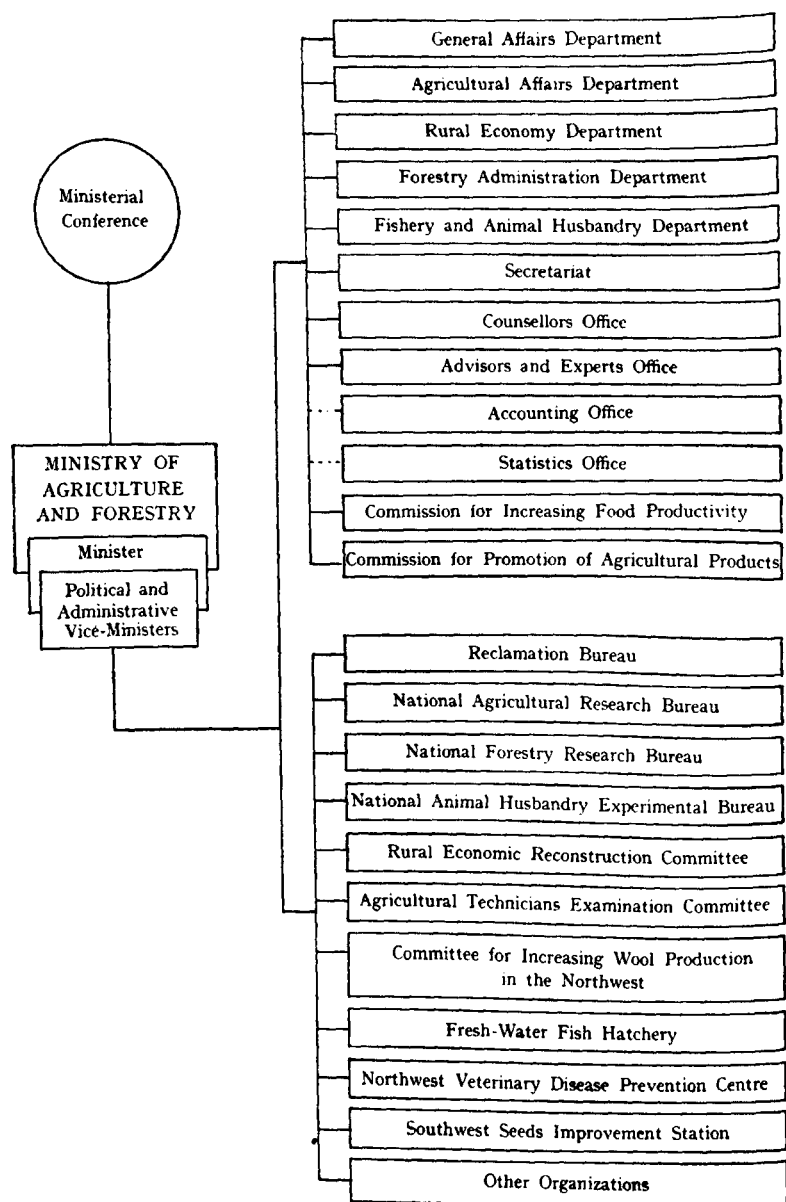


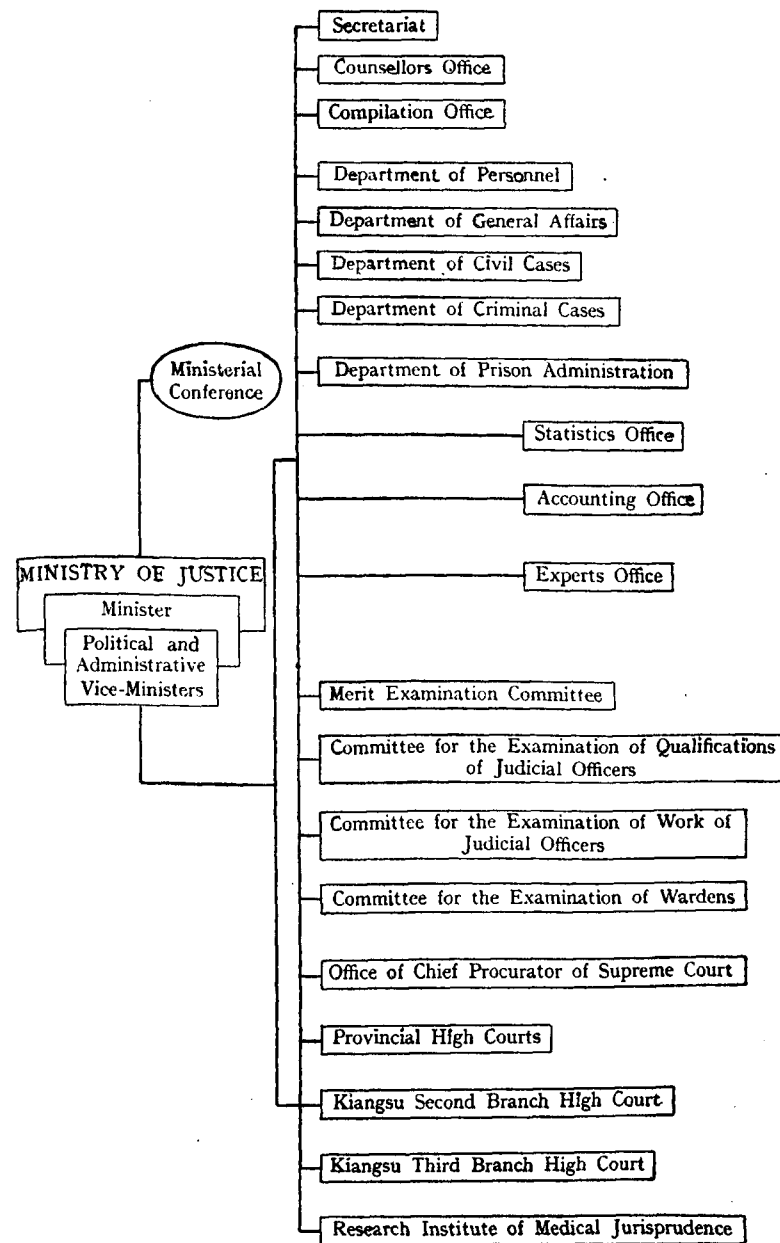
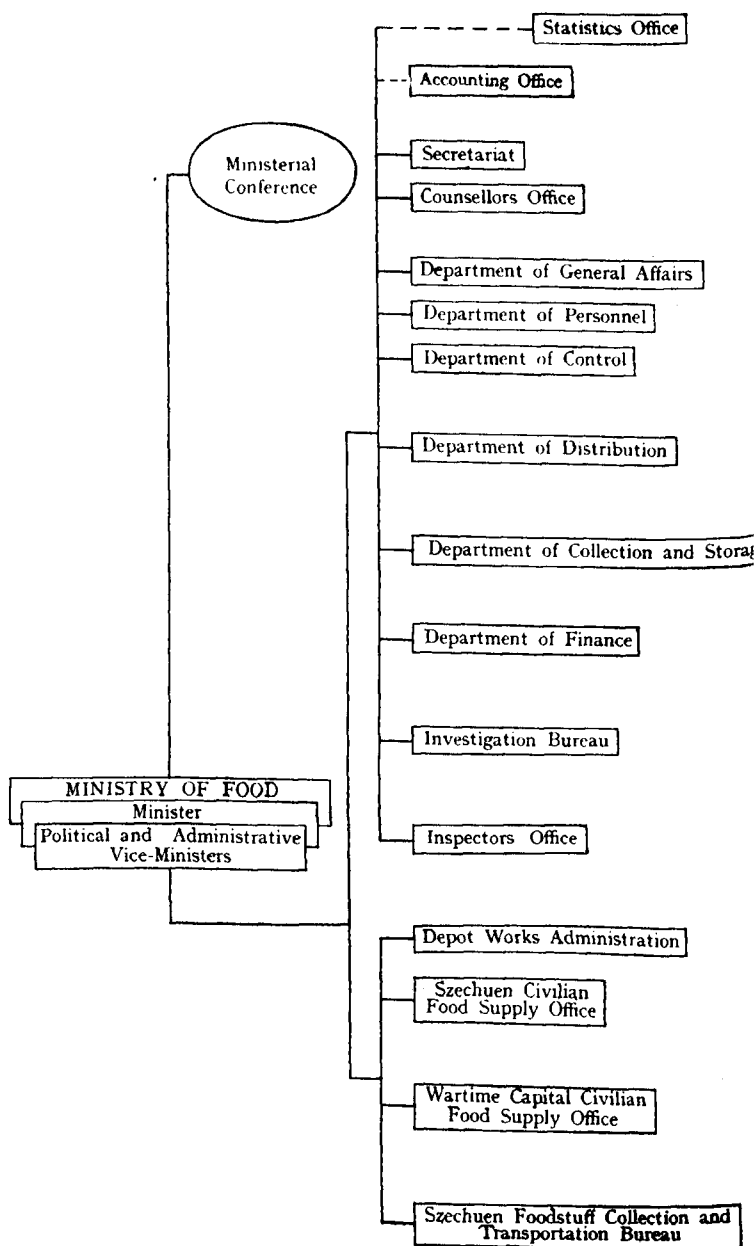


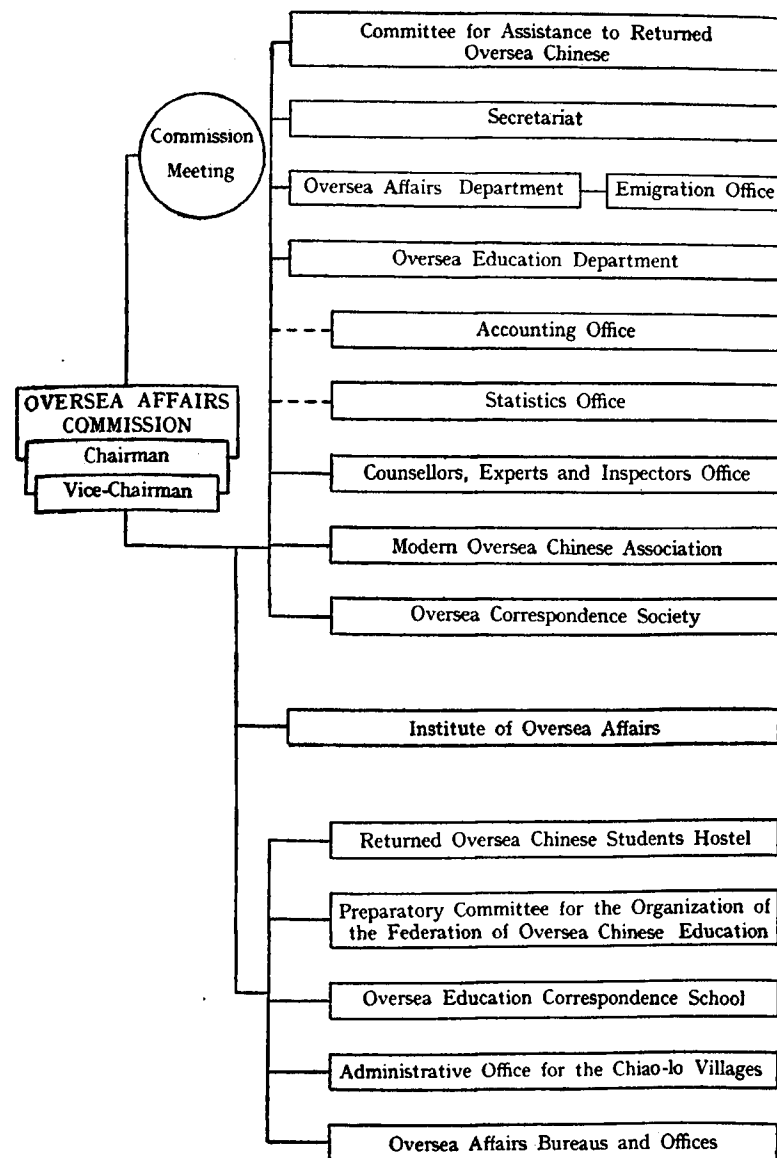
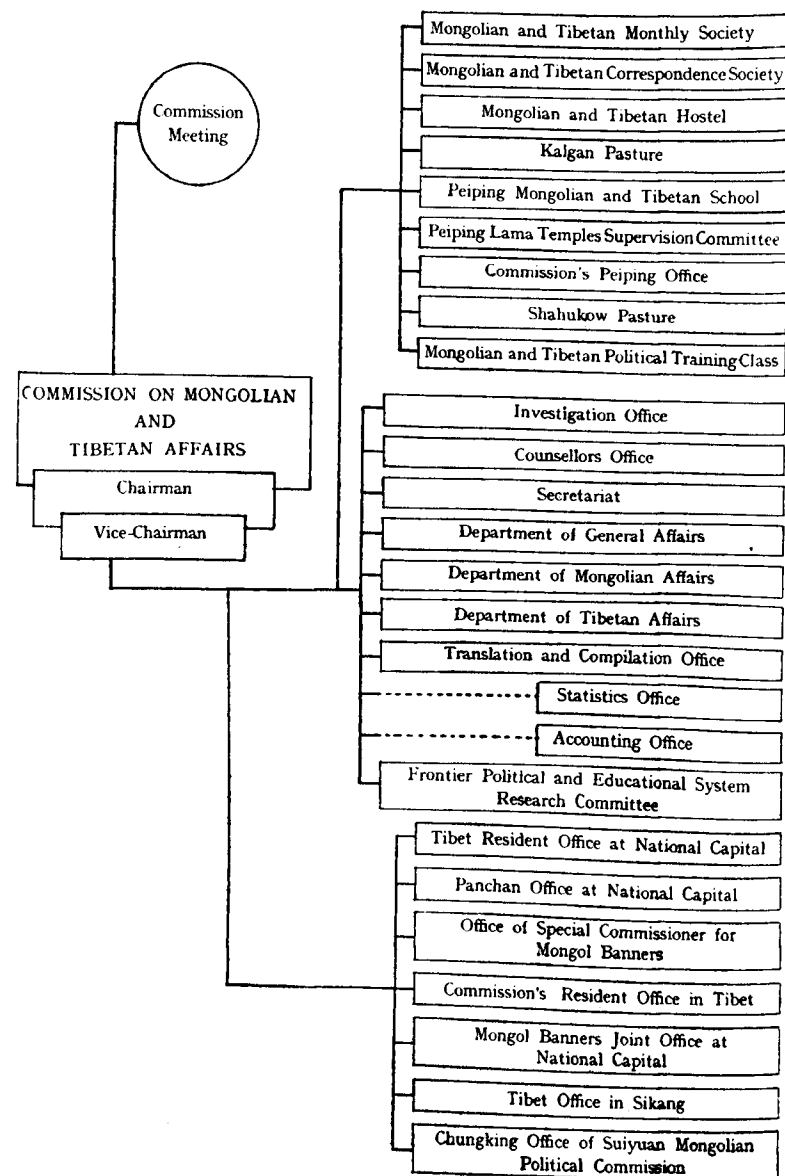


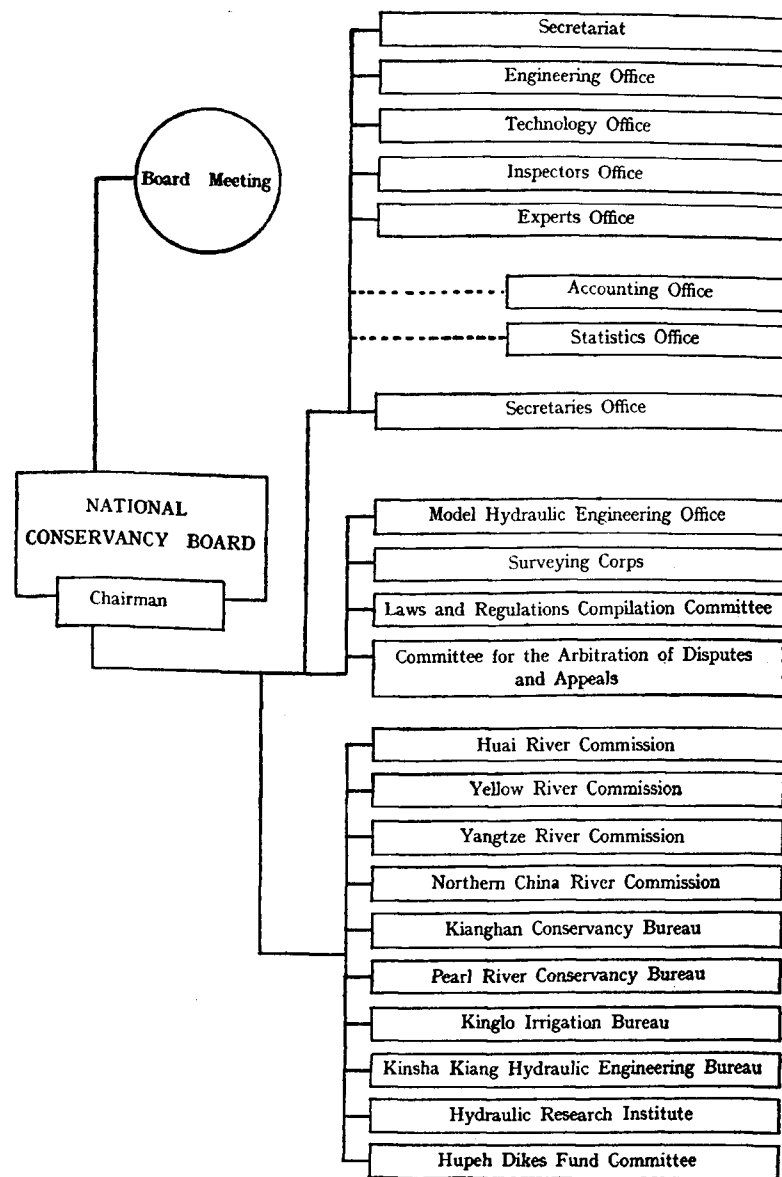
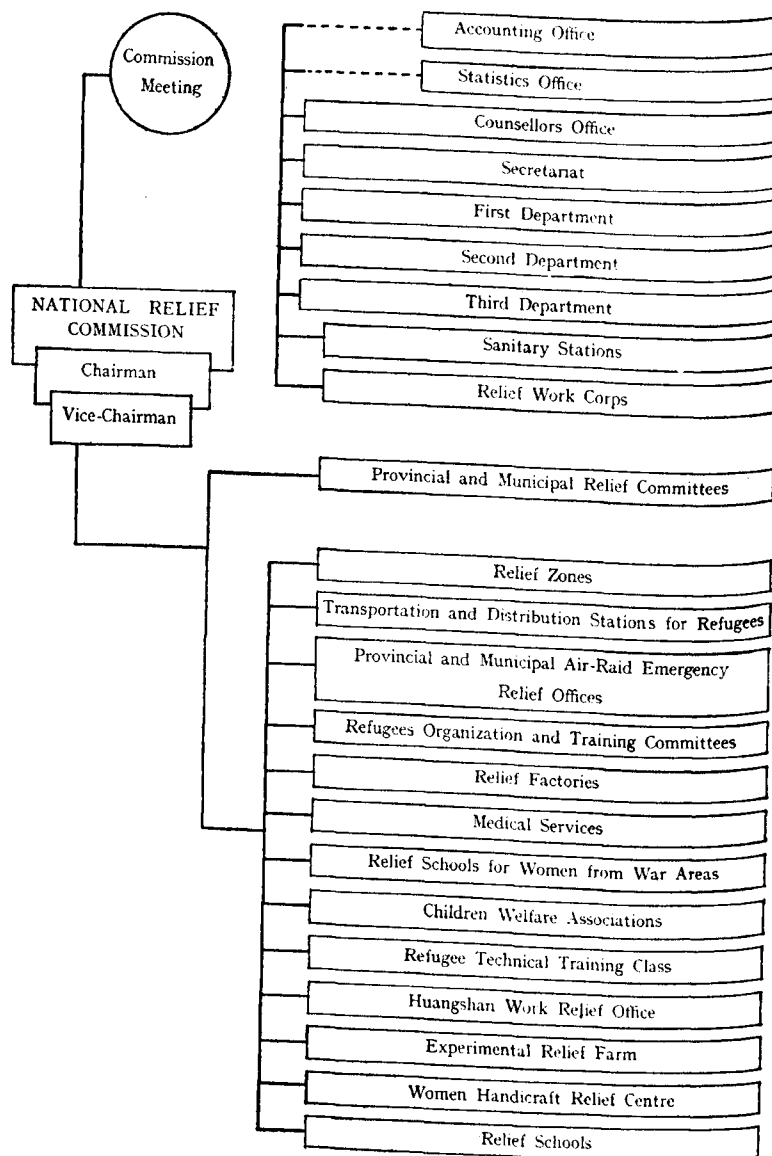


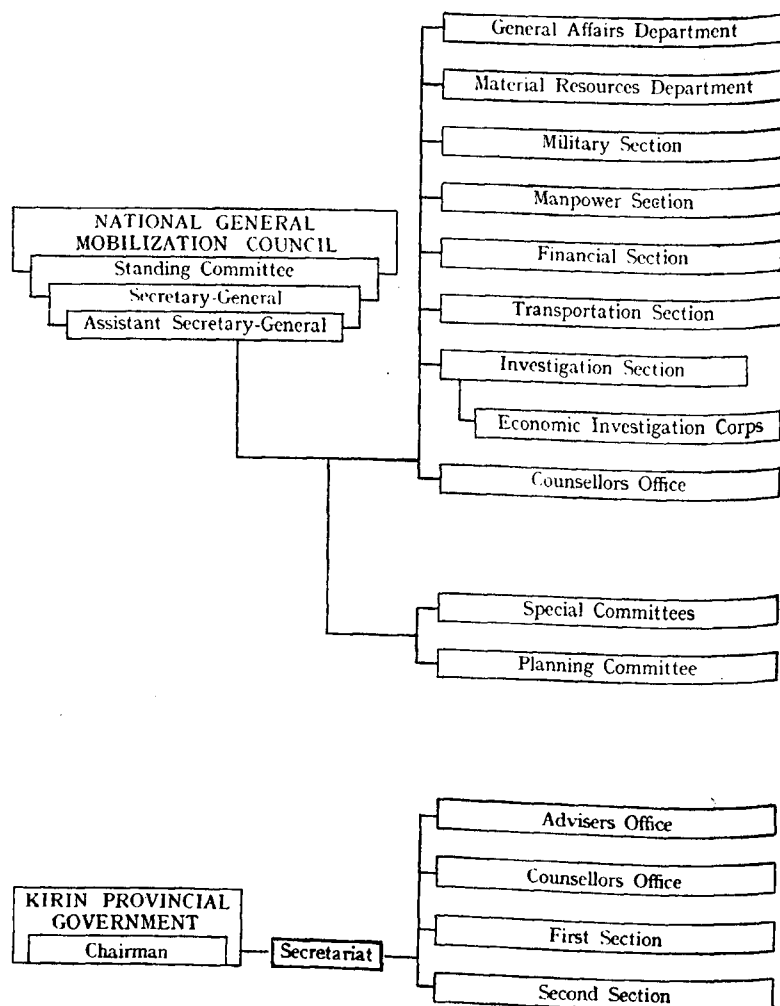




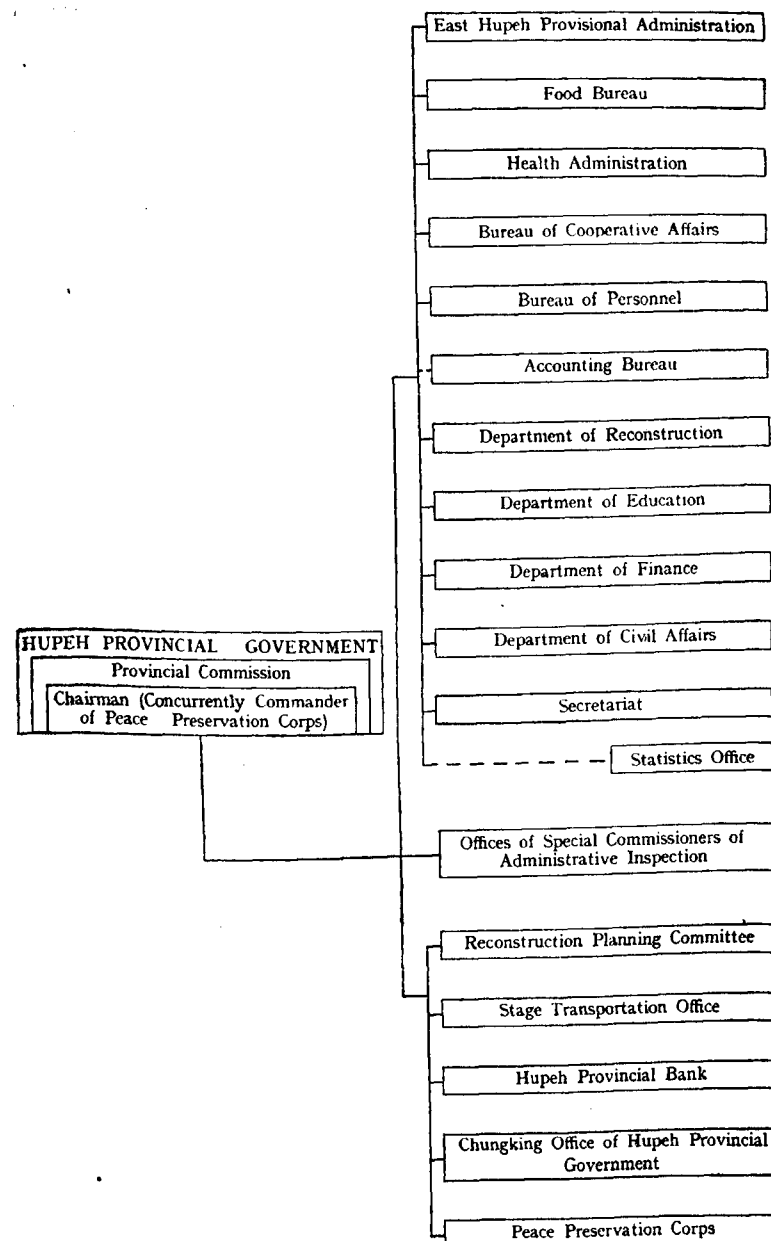


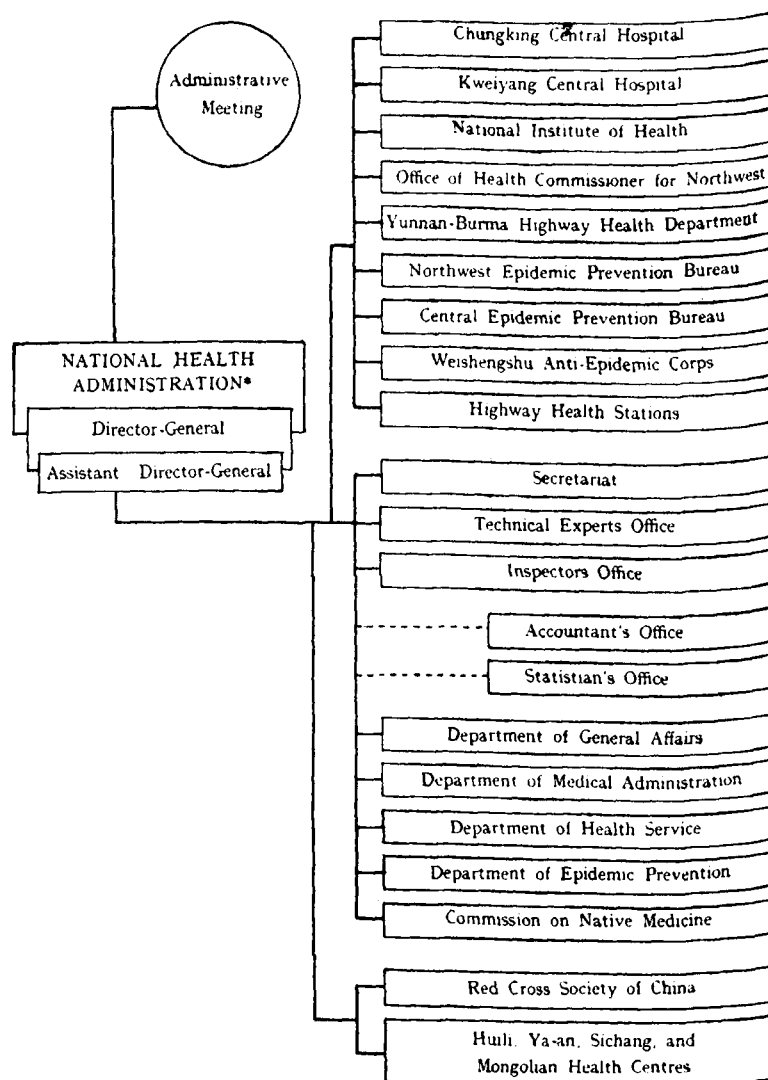




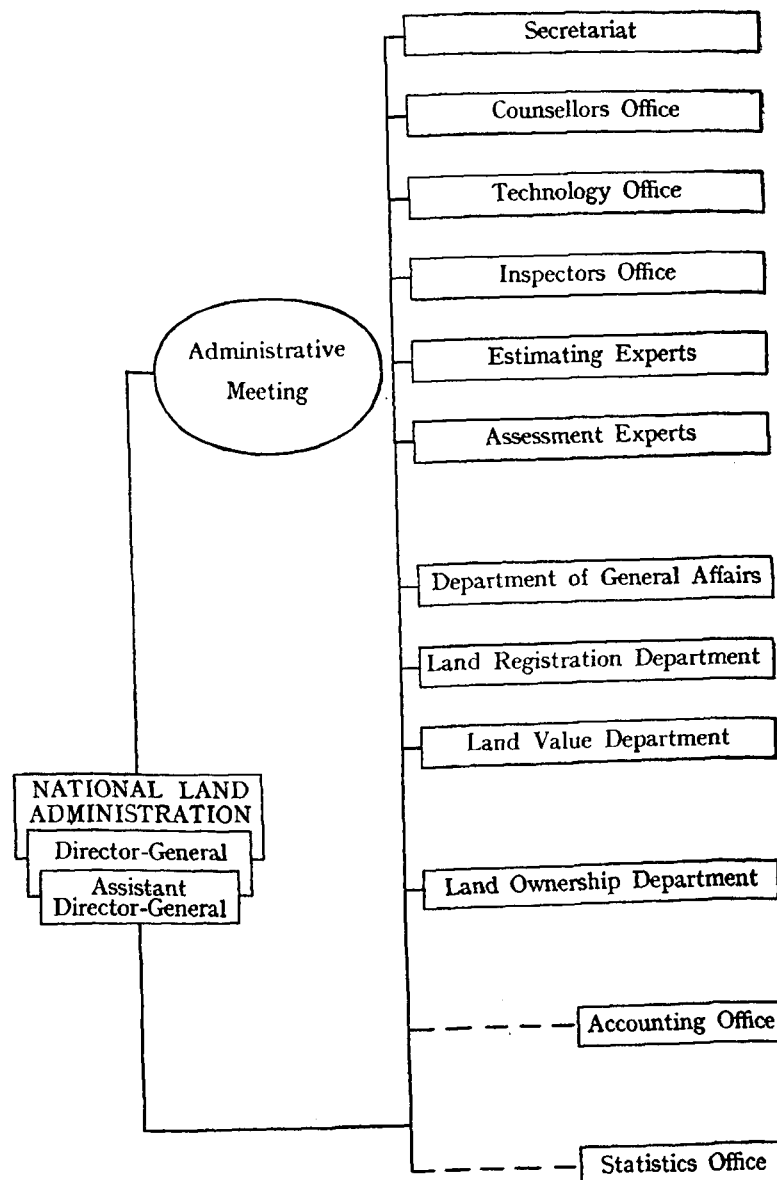


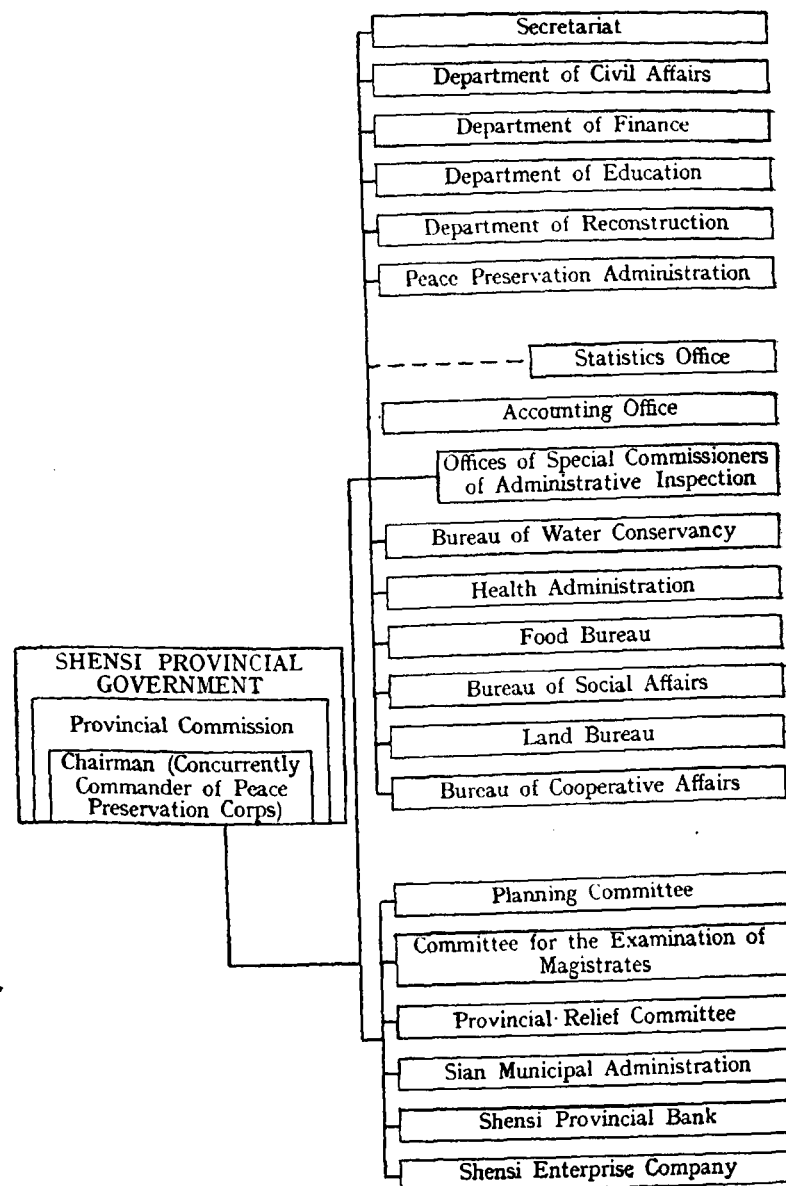
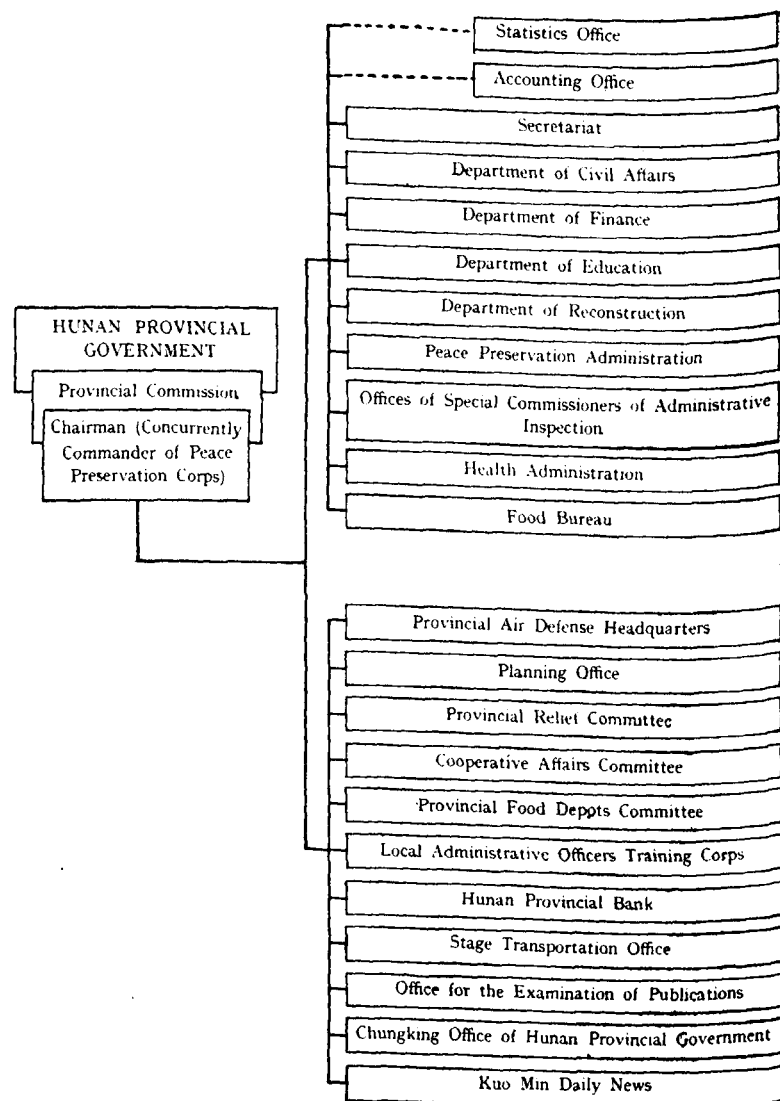
The provincial government organization of Jehol, Liaoning or Heilungkiang is similar to that of Kirin province.

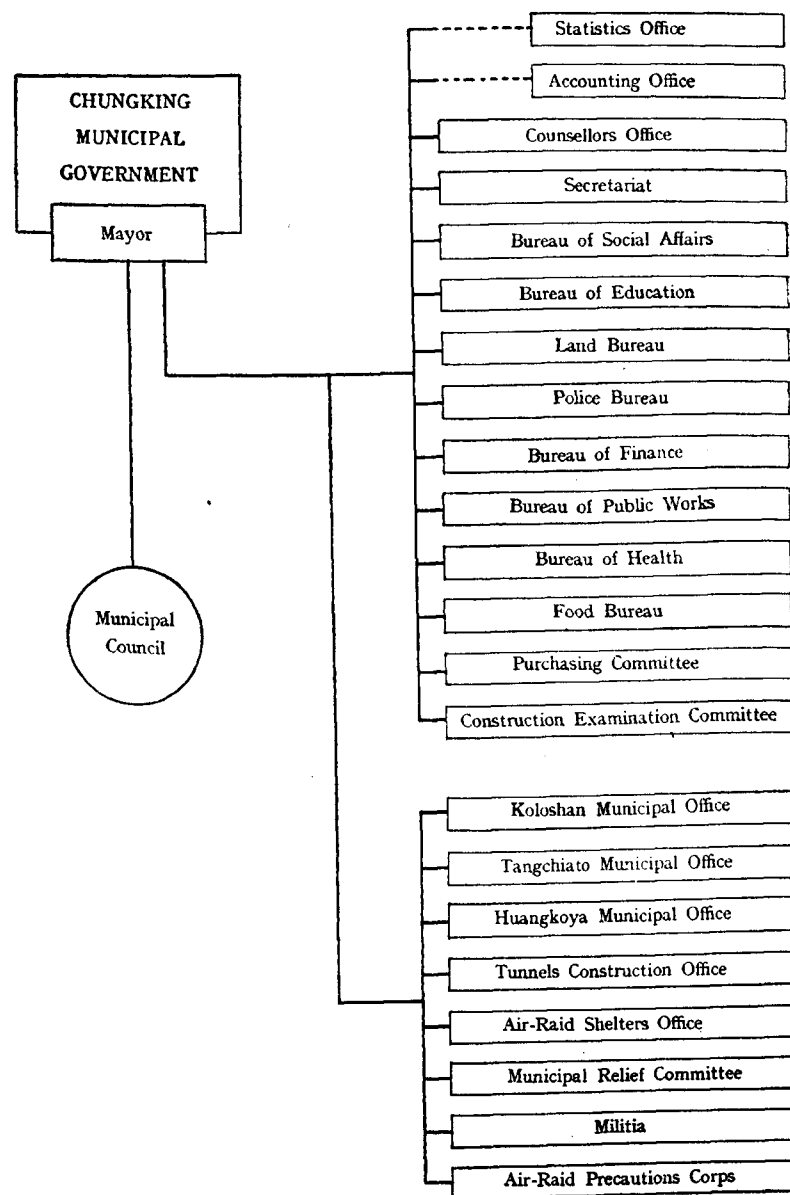
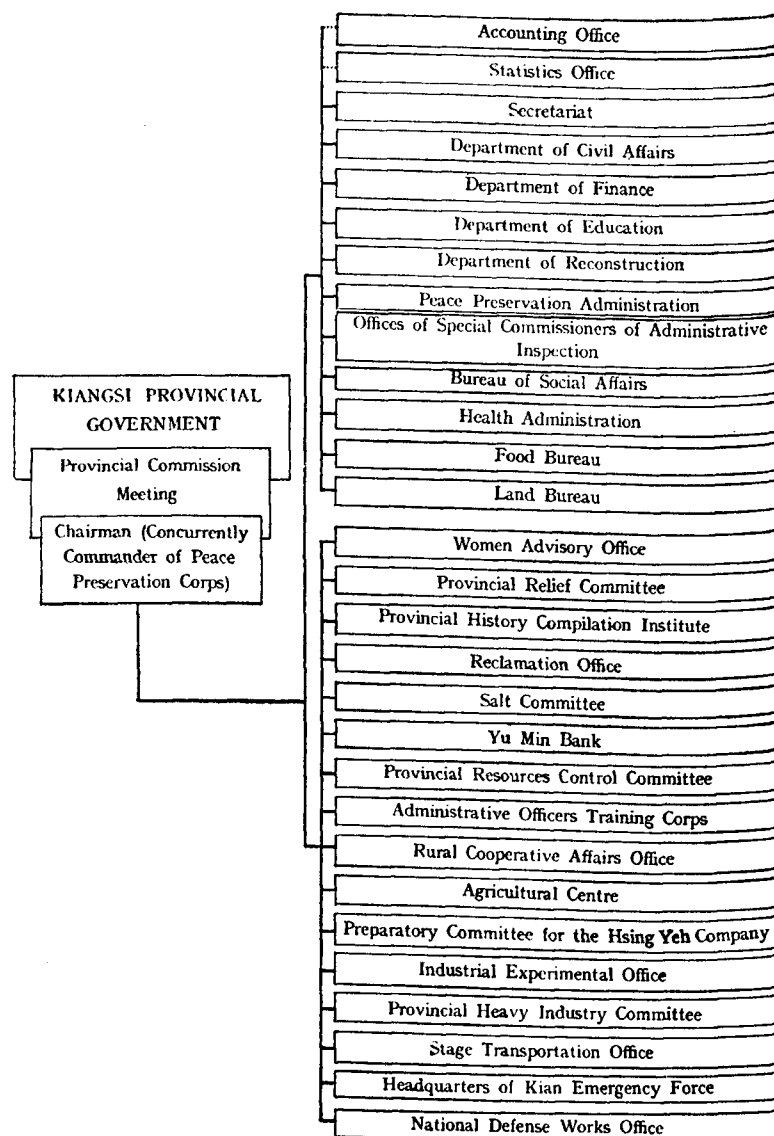


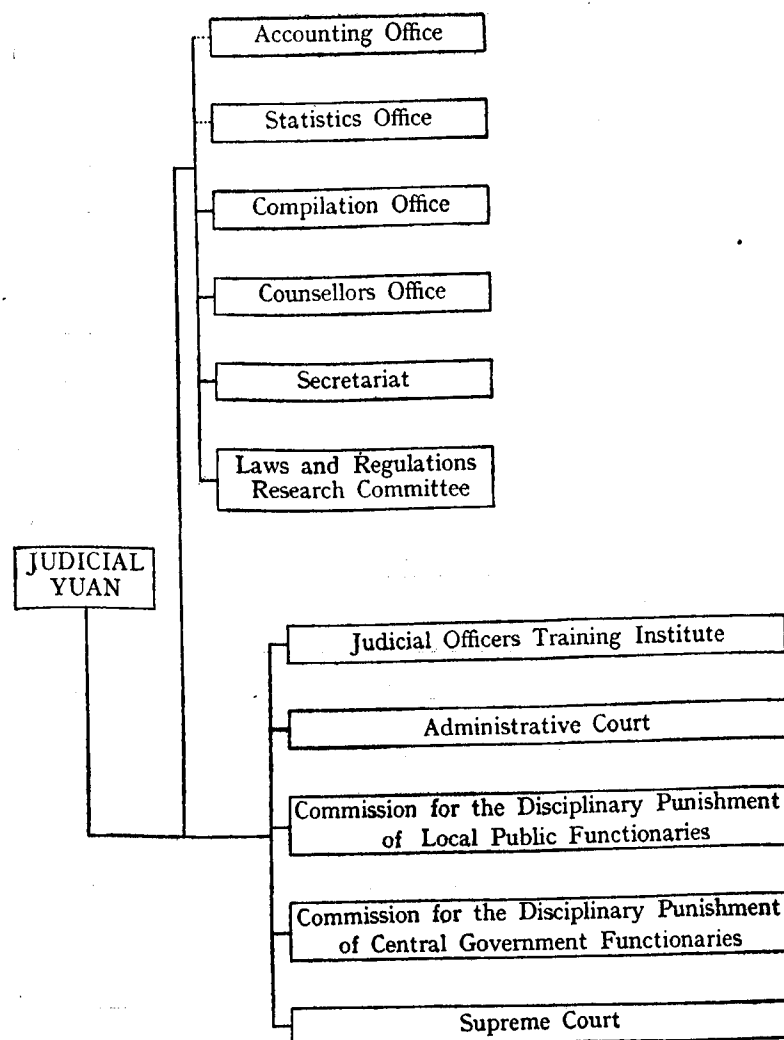
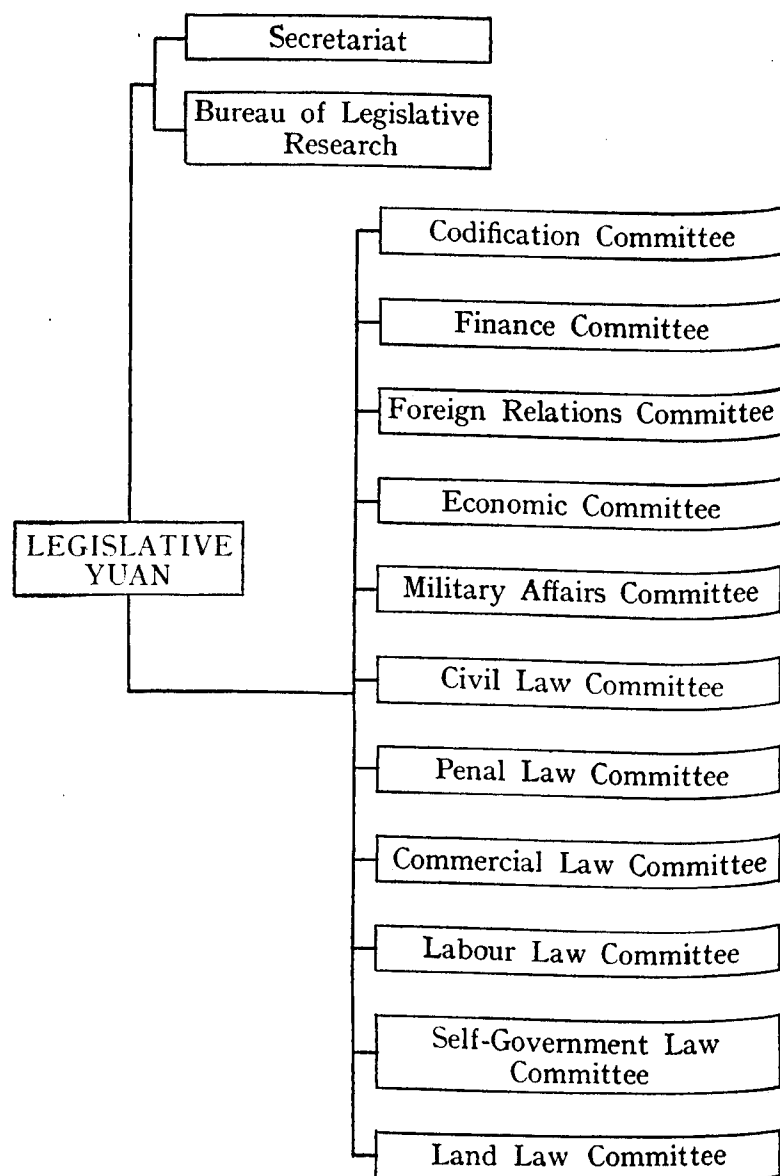


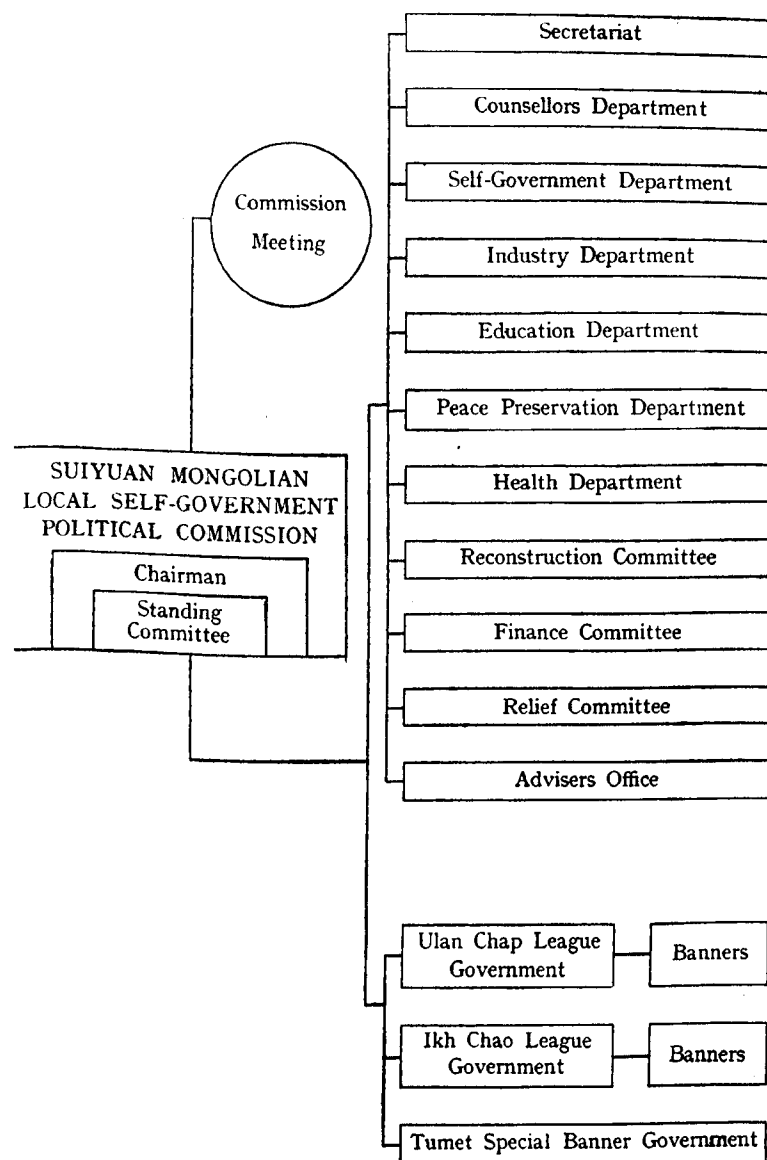
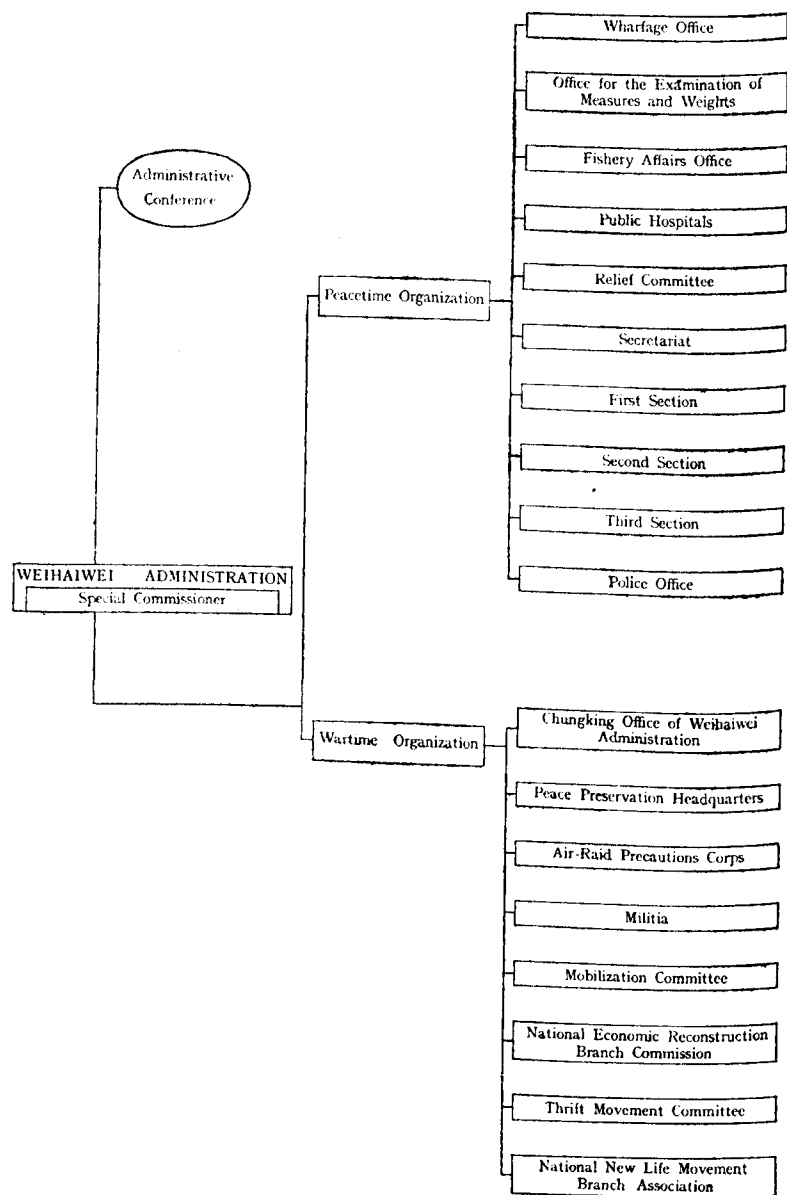
* For details see Charts in Chapter on Public Health.

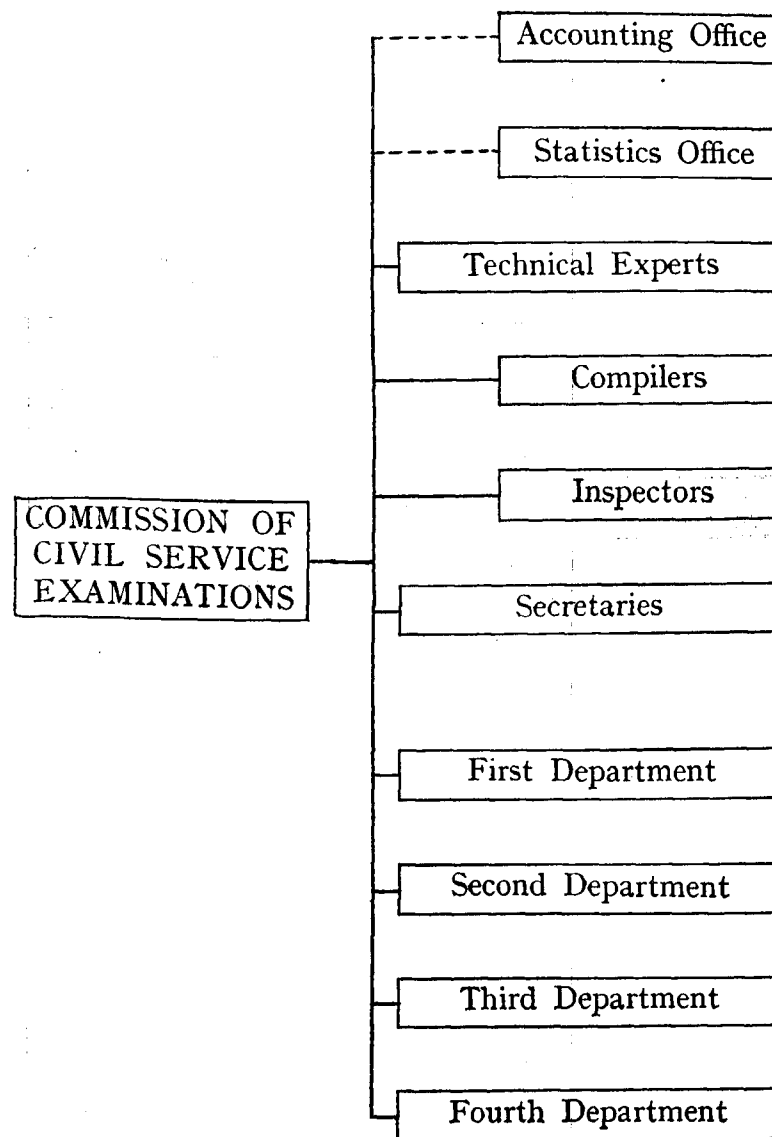
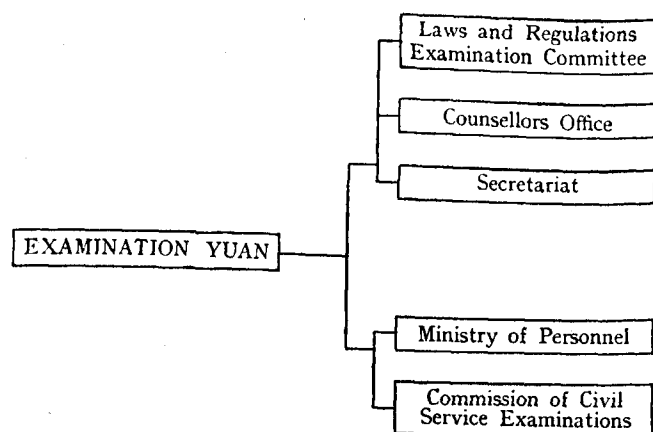
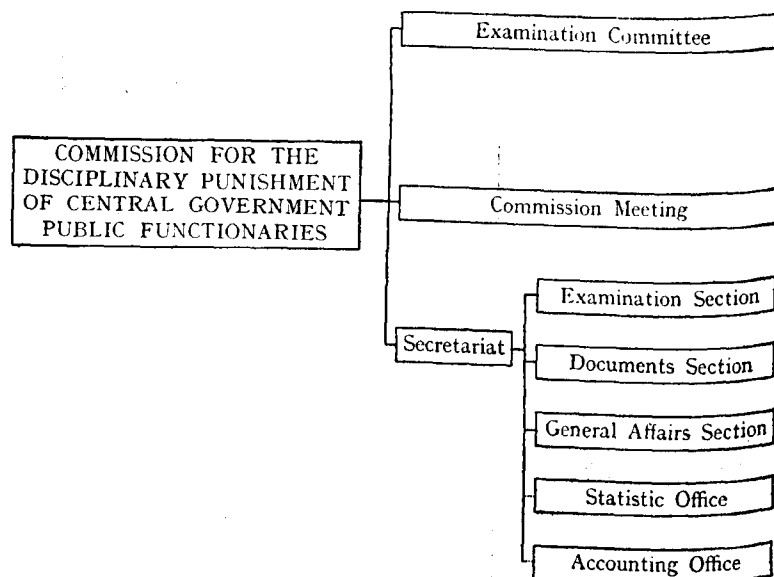


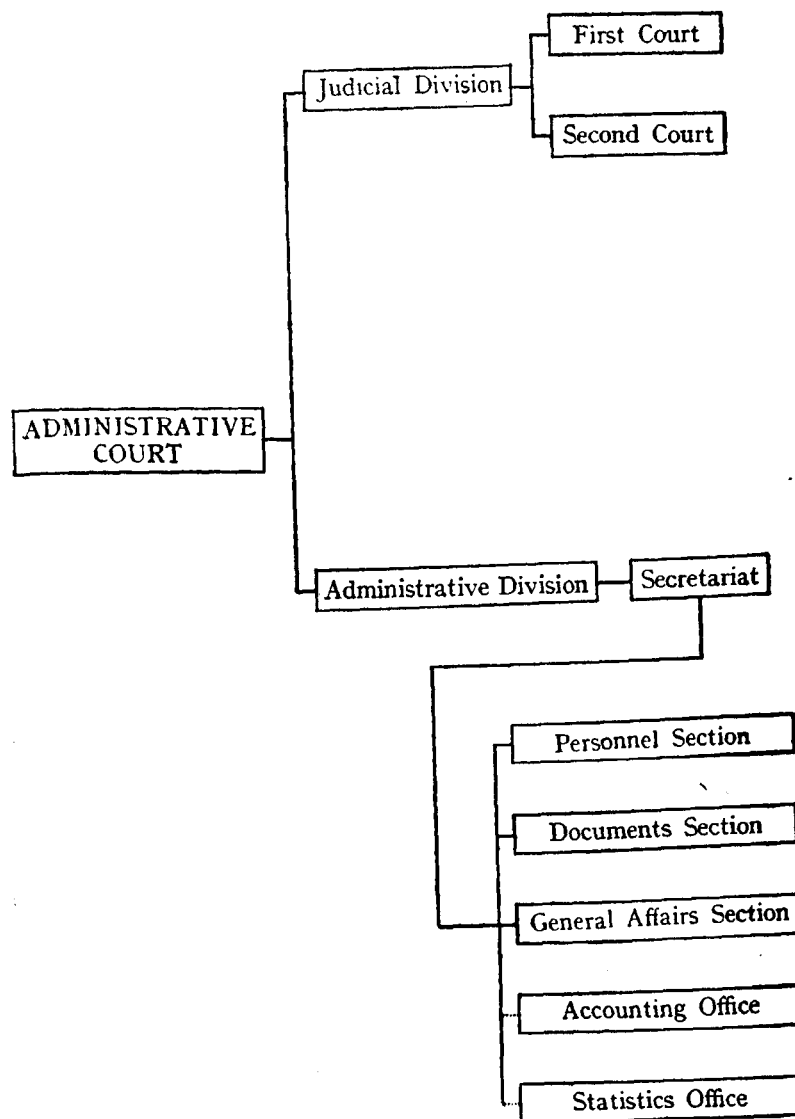
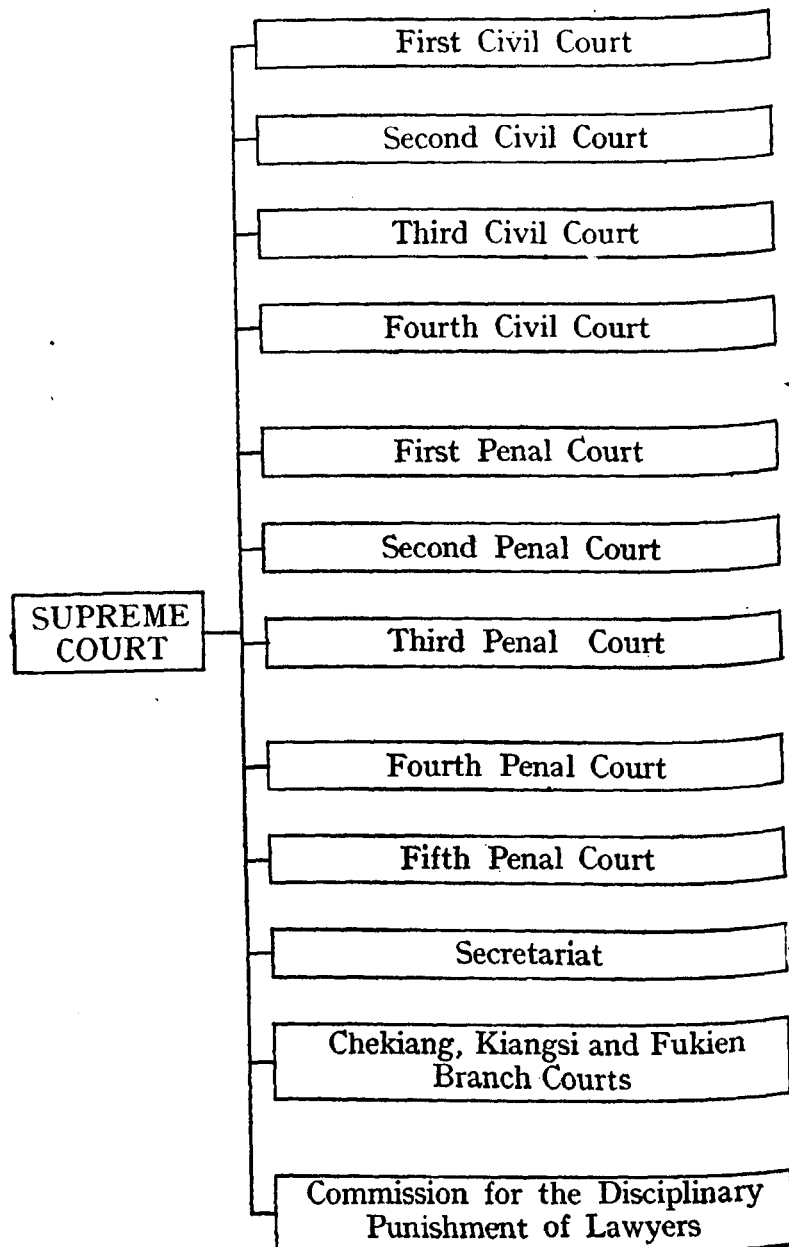


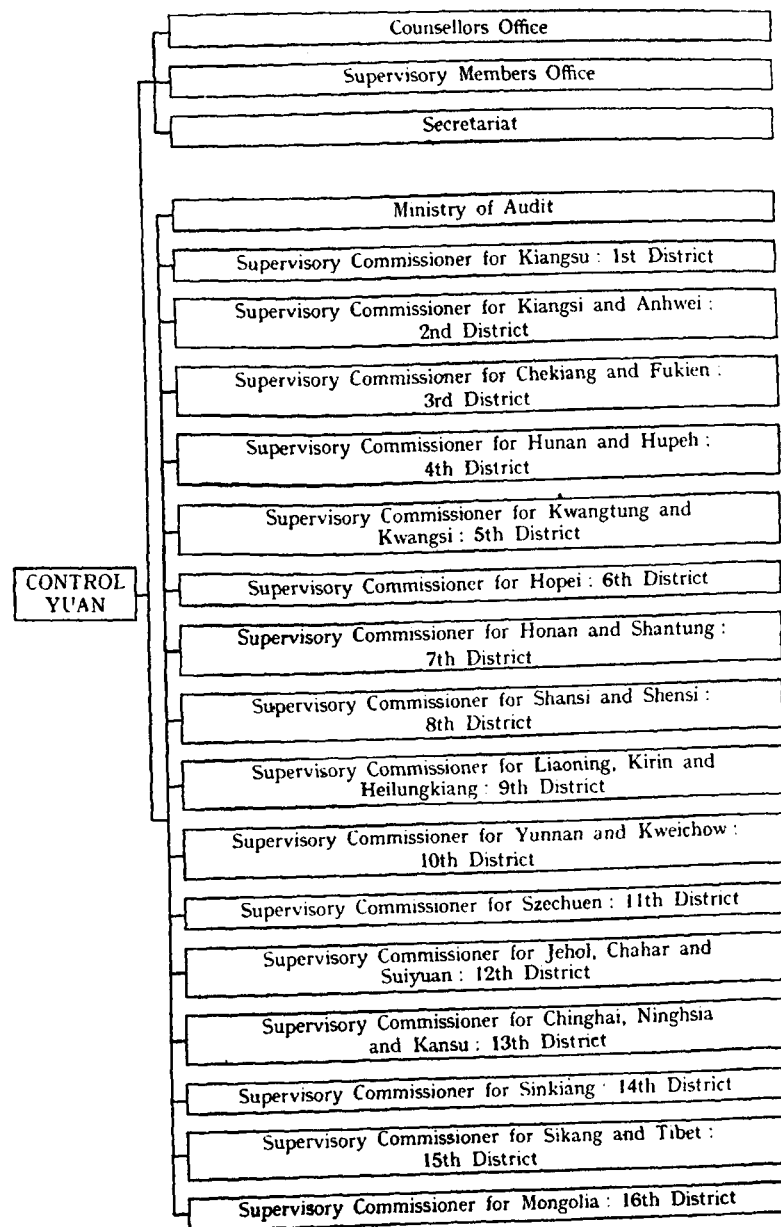
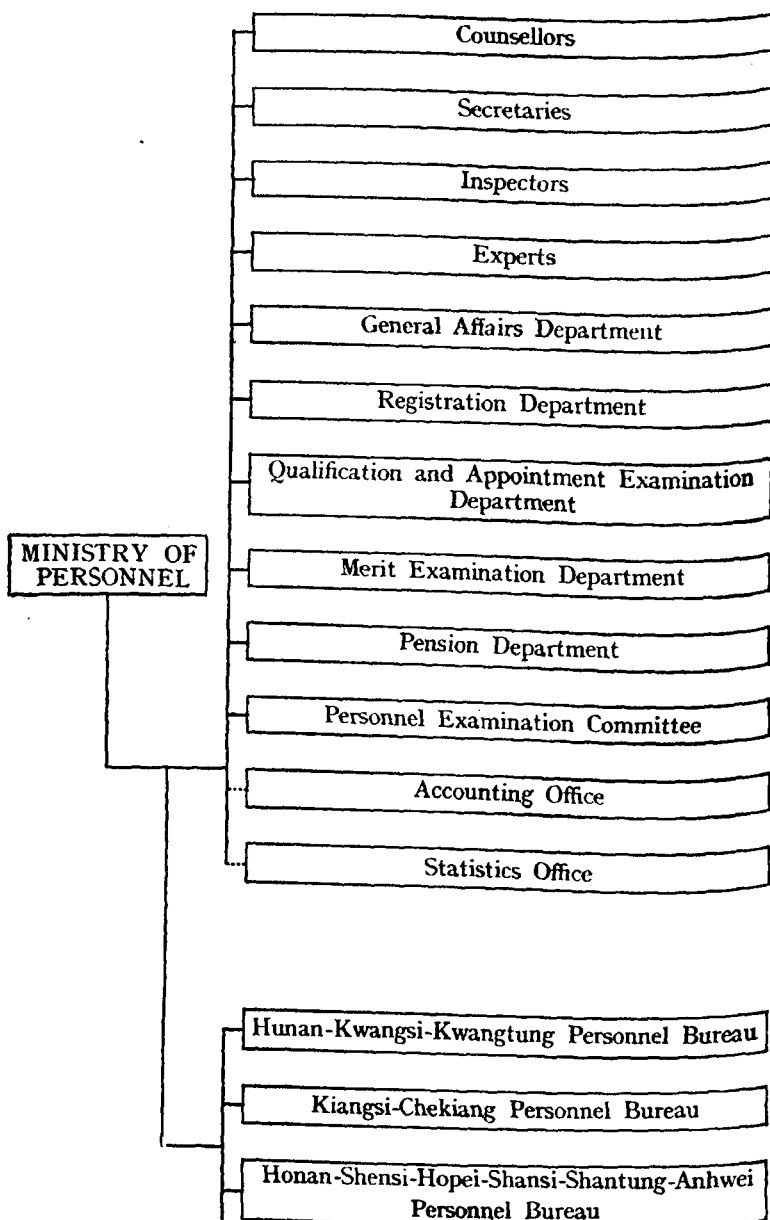


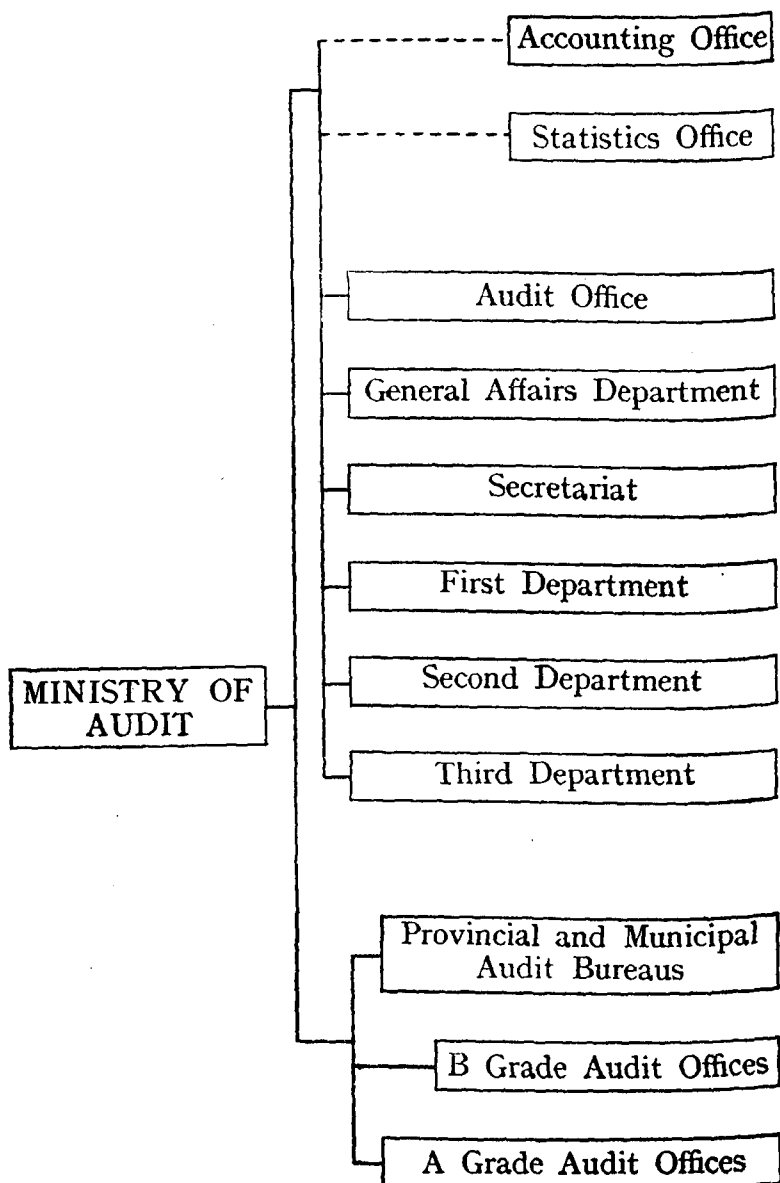












DIRECTORY OF HIGH-RANKING OFFICIALS OF CENTRAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

(May, 1943)

A. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

National Government State Council

(Kuo Min Chen Fu Wei Yuan Hui)

Acting Chairman : Chiang Kai-shek

State Councillors :

Chang Jen-chieh	Liu Chieh	Lo Ching-iao
Hu I-sheng	Hsu Chung-chih	Li Lieh-chun
Hsu Chung-hao	Tsou Lou	Chang Chi
Yeh Chu-tsang	T. V. Soong	Wang Po-chun
Hsiung Ke-wu	Feng Yu-hsiang	Yen Hsi-shan
Chao Tai-wen	Wang Shu-han	Nu Yung-chien
Po Wen-wei	Mai-szu-wu-teh	Chiao I-tang
Chiao I-sheng	Chou Chen-lin	Li Wen-fan
Teng Chia-yen	Ma Chao-chun	Ma Lin
Chen Chi-tang	Huang Fu-sheng	Soong Ching-ling
Chang-chia Hutukhtu	Sha-ke-tu-er-cha-pu	

National Government Headquarters

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL AFFAIRS (Wen Kuan Chu)

Director : Wei Hui

Chief of Bureau of Documents : Hsu Chin-chih

Chief of Bureau of Printing and Engravings : Chou Chung-liang

DEPARTMENT OF MILITARY AFFAIRS (Tsan Chun Chu)

Director : Lü Chao

Chief of Bureau of Ceremonies : Tien Shih-chieh

Chief of Bureau of General Affairs : Li I-tzu

COMPTROLLER-GENERAL'S OFFICE (Chu Chi Chu)

Comptroller-General : Chen Chi-tsai

Chief of Bureau of Budget : Yang Ju-mei

Chief of Bureau of Accounting : Wen Yi-yu

Chief of Bureau of Statistics : Wu Ta-chun

Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Political Officials*(Chen Wu Kuan Cheng Chieh Wei Yuan Hui)*

Chang Jen-chieh	Chen Li-fu	Chang Chi
Li Wen-fan	Yeh Chu-tsang	Teng Chia-yen
Huang Fu-sheng	Ma Chao-chun	

National Military Council*(Chun Shih Wei Yuan Hui)**Chairman : Chiang Kai-shek**Councillors :*

Chen Shao-kuan	Yen Hsi-shan	Li Chi-shen
Feng Yu-hsiang	Tang Sheng-chih	Li Tsung-jen
Hsiung Shih-hui	Cheng Chien	Wei-Li-huang
Wan Fu-lin		

*Director, Main Office : Shang Chen**Chief, General Staff : Ho Ying-chin**Deputy Chiefs : Pai Chung-hsi Cheng Chien**Chief, Board of Military Operations : Hsu Yung-chang**Deputy Chiefs : Lin Wei Liu Fei**Chief, Board of Military Training : Pai Chung-hsi**Deputy Chiefs : Wang Chun Liu Shih-yi**Chief, Board of Political Training : Chang Chih-chung**Deputy Chiefs : Wang Tung-yuan Liang Han-tsao**Minister of Military Affairs : Ho Ying-chin**Chief, Military Advisory Council : Chen Tiao-yuan**Deputy Chiefs : Chang Fang Wang Shu-chang***Academia Sinica***(Chung Yang Yen Chiu Yuan)**Acting President : Chu Chia-hua**Secretary-General : Yeh Chi-sun**Director, Department of General Affairs : Wang Chin-li**Director, Department of Correspondence : Liu Tzu-hsiao**Chief Accountant : Kuo Ching-lin**Secretaries : Su Fu-ying Chen Teng-kao**Director, Institute of Physics : Ting Hsieh-lin**Director, Institute of Chemistry : Wu Hsueh-chou**Director, Institute of Engineering : Chou Jen**Director, Institute of Geology : Li Szu-kuang**Director, Institute of Astronomy : Chang Yu-cheh*

Director, Institute of Meteorology : Co-ching Chu
Director, Institute of History and Philology : Fu Szu-nien
Director, Institute of Psychology : Wang Chin-hsi
Director, Institute of Social Sciences : L. K. Tao
Director, Institute of Zoology and Botany : Wang Chia-chi
Director, Institute of Mathematics : Chiang Li-fu*

* To be Established.

Executive Yuan*(Hsing Chen Yuan)**President : Chiang Kai-shek**Vice-President : H. H. Kung**Secretary-General : Chang Li-sheng**Director of Political Affairs Bureau : Tsiang Ting-fu***Ministry of Interior***(Nei Chen Pu)**Minister : Chou Chung-yu**Political Vice-Minister : Chang Wei-han**Administrative Vice-Minister : Wang Te-pu**Counsellors :**Pao Hui-seng**Wang Yi-lin**Shih Lien-fang**Teng Hung-fan**Chen Tun**Liu Sui-chang**Senior Secretaries : Ho Ping-chih Hsu Ning-sheng**Director, General Affairs Department : Chou Yu-hsuan**Director, Civil Affairs Department : Yang Chun-mai**Director Census Administration Department : Huang Yuan-tuan**Director, Police Administration Department : Feng Yu-kun**Director, Customs and Ceremonies Department : Wen Chun-tien**Director, Construction Department : Harris Hsiung-wen Ha**Chief Statistician : Huang Yuan-tuan**Senior Technical Experts : Fu Chueh-chin Yan Yuan**Senior Inspector : Hsiao Wen-cheh***Ministry of Foreign Affairs***(Waichiaopu)**Minister : T. V. Soong**Political Vice-Minister : K. C. Wu**Administrative Vice-Minister : Victor C. Hoo**Counsellors : Feng Fei Chu Kung-yang*

Counsellors : Chang Chung-fu* Hsu Nien-tseng*

Senior Secretaries :

Cheng Chen-yu

Chang-Tao hsin

Ling Chi-han

Director, General Affairs Department : Li Wei-kuo

Director, Eastern Asiatic Department : Yang Yun-chu

Director, Western Asiatic Department : Shuhsi Hsu

Director, European Department : Lone Liang

Director, American Department : Chang Chung-fu

Director, Treaty Department : Wang Hua-cheng

Director, Information Department : Ho Feng-shan

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Kwangtung and Kwangsi :

Kuo Te-hua

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Yunnan and Kweichow (Kunming) :

Wang Chan-chi

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Kansu (Lanchow) : Hsia Wei-sung

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Szechuen and Sihang (Chengtu) :

Wu Ai-chen

* Recently appointed to other post.

Ministry of Military Affairs

(Chun Chen Pu)

Minister : Ho Ying-chin

Political Vice-Minister : Chien Ta-chun

Administrative Vice-Minister : Chang Ting-pan

Counsellors :

Li Ying-hua

Chen Yin-chi

Yen Kuang

Chin Kuei-pi

Chen Chu-hsiung

Hsia Sheng

Director, General Affairs Department : Hsiang Hsiung-hsiao

Director, Military Affairs Department : Wang Wen-hsuan

Director, Mechanical Units Department :

Director, Horses Administration Department : Tseng Kuang-lin

Director, Communications Department : Wang Ching-lu

Director, Military Law Department : Wang Chen-nan

Director-General, Military Service Administration :

Director-General, Arsenal Administration : Yu Ta-wei

Director-General, Military Supplies Administration : Chen Liang

Director-General, Army Medical Administration : Hu Lan-sheng

Chief Accountant : Min Hsiang-fan

Ministry of Finance

(Tsai Chen Pu)

Minister : H. H. Kung

Political Vice-Minister : Yu Hung-chun

Administrative Vice-Minister : Kuo Ping-wen

Acting Administrative Vice-Minister : Ku I-chun

Councillors :

Li Yu-wan

Tien Yu-shih

Sung Yuan

Chen Tuan

Wang Shih-ying

Liang Chin-chun

Sun Ching-kung

Ku Tsung-ying

Senior Secretaries :

Lu Pei-chang

Li Jui

Fang Tung

Chiang Shu-kuo

Director-General, Customs Administration : Loy Chang

Director-General, National Revenue Administration : Chang Ching-yu

Director-General, National Treasury Administration : Li Tang

Director-General, Smuggling Prevention Administration : Tai Li

Director, General Affairs Department : Pien Ting-yuan

Director, Personal Department : Kao Hsiang-kao

Director, Salt Department : Ma Tai-chun

Director, Local Finance Department : Yang Mien-chung

Director, Currency Department : Tai Ming-li

Director, Government Bonds Department : Yin Jen-hsien

Director, Monopoly Enterprises Department : Chu Chi

Director, Direct Tax Administration : Kao Ping-fang

Chairman, Foreign Trade Commission : Tsou Lin

Chairman, Land Tax Commission : Kuan Chi-yu

Chief Accountant : Chang Kuo-cheng

Chief Statistician : Yang Shou-piao

Chief Inspector : Chang Tzu-chi

Senior Technical Expert : Kuo Tzu-chun

Ministry of Economic Affairs

(Ching Chi Pu)

Minister : Wong Wen-hao

Political Vice-Minister : Chin Feng

Administrative Vice-Minister : Tan Po-yu

Counsellors :

Chen Fei-shih

Chen Yu

Chang I-hui

Chao Kuan

Chang Wei-tzu

Li Te-yin

Senior Technical Experts : Tan Hung-hsi

Hu Po-yuan

Senior Secretaries :

Chen Ting-hsi

Wu Ching-chao

Wu Wen-tien

Director, Department of General Affairs : Wu Pei-chun

Director, Department of Control : Li Ching-lu
 Director, Department of Mining : Li Ming-ho
 Director, Department of Industry : Ou-Yang Lun
 Director, Department of Electrical Power : Chang Chia-chih
 Director, Department of Commerce : Ma Ke-chiang
 Director, Department of Enterprises : Chuang Chih-huan
 Chief Accountant : Wang Wei
 Chief Statistician : Wu Pan-nung

Ministry of Education

(Chiao Yu Pu)

Minister : Chen Li-fu
 Political Vice-Minister : Ku Yu-hsiu
 Administrative Vice-Minister : Yu Ching-tang
 Senior Secretaries : Peng Pai-chuan Tai Ying-kuan
 Counsellors :
 Chen Shih-chen Chen Pan-tsao Meng Shou-chun
 Yang Chao-lung Hsiang Chu-tan
 Director, Department of General Affairs : Chiang Chih-cheng
 Director, Department of Higher Education : Wu Chun-sheng
 Director, Department of Secondary Education : Chang Tao-chih
 Director, Department of Primary Education : Ku Shu-sen
 Director, Department of Social Education : Liu Chi-hung
 Director, Department of Mongolian and Tibetan Education : Lo Mei-huan
 Chief Accountant : Wu Shih-jui
 Senior Inspectors :
 Chung Tao-tsan Chen Tung-yuan Ku Chao-lin
 Tang Hsi-fen

Ministry of Communications

(Chiao Tung Pu)

Minister : Tseng Yang-fu
 Political Vice-Minister : Hsu En-tseng
 Administrative Vice-Minister : Pan I-chih
 Senior Secretaries :
 Chang Tzu-li Hsu Yang-chiu Li I-chung
 Lin Hsiang-tzu
 Counsellors :
 Wang Fu-yi Francis K. Pan Wang Kuo-hua
 Kuo Hsin-sung Chin Shih-hsuan Lo Hsia-tien

ior Technical Experts :
 Vei I-fu Sa Fu-chun Li Fa-tuan
 Jing Hung-hsun Wu Ching-ching Wang Hsi-cheng
 Zheng Fang-heng Shu Chen-tung Chien Chi-shen
 Yuan Meng-hung Yang Yi Chen Li-yu
 Director, Department of General Affairs : Chen Kuo-chun
 Director, Department of Personnel : Wang Wen-shan
 Director, Department of Finance : Hsu Cheng-ao
 Director, Department of Supplies : Shen Hsi-jui
 Director, Department of Railways : Yang Cheng-hsun
 Director, Department of Posts and Electrical Communications : Chao Tseng-yu
 Director, Department of Navigation : Ho Mo-lin
 Chief Accountant : Lu Yung-kuang
 Chief Statistician : Wang Chung-wu

Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

(Nung Lin Pu)

Minister : Shen Hung-lieh
 Political Vice-Minister : Lei Fa-chang
 Administrative Vice-Minister : Chien Tien-ho
 Counsellors :
 Tang Chi-yu Ma Tsch Mao Yung
 Chou Ya-ching
 Senior Secretaries : Chu Chen Lu Cheng-chang
 Senior Technical Expert : Pi Tao-chun
 Director, General Affairs Department : Hsing Chi-hsin
 Director, Agricultural Affairs Department : Chang Yuan-feng
 Director, Rural Economy Department : Chao Pao-chuan
 Director, Forestry Administration Department : Li Shun-ching
 Director, Fishery and Animal Husbandry Department : Cheng Shao-chun
 Advisers :
 Lin I-chung Wang Ying-yu Yao Tao-hung
 Technical Experts :
 Lin Hu-kuang Li Hsiang-yuan Pan Chien-liang
 Ma Tsan-yung Chiao Yung-sheng Kuo Tien-pu
 Chen Ti-lu Teng Chi-yu Tseng Kuang-chin
 Mou Hsi-yu Hsueh Pei-kuang Ku Chien-chi
 Jen Cheng-tung Tung Mu-tseng Liu Ching-chai
 Li Chi-hsin Chao Lien-fang Chang Chuan-tsung
 Li Hsien-wen Yeh Chien-chi Chang Tien-yi
 Liao An-pang Wang Yang-tseng Teng Chen-ying
 Chao Hung-chi Sung Ching-yu Chia Cheng-chang
 Ni Wei-ching

Ministry of Social Affairs

(She Hui Pu)

Minister : Ku Cheng-kang*Political Vice-Minister* : Hung Lan-yu*Administrative Vice-Minister* : Huang Po-tu*Senior Secretaries* : Huang Meng-fei Yang Fang*Counsellors* :

Huang Yu-cheng

Chu Ching-hsuan

Li Chun-lung

Senior Inspectors :

Nu Chang-yao

Pien Chung-meng

Cheng Jo-ku

Director, General Affairs Department : Chen Yen*Director, Organization and Training Department* : Hsieh Cheng-fu*Director, Social Welfare Department* : Lu Ching-shih*Chief Statistician* : Wang Lung*Director, Labour Bureau* : Ho Chung-han*Assistant Director* : Shih Wei-huan*Secretary* : Tsao Chung-lin*Inspectors* :

Ting Wen-an

Tsei Chi-sheng

Huang Mou-jen

Chiefs of Divisions :

Li Chien-hua

Sun Po-chien

Liu Chiang

Director, Cooperatives Administration : Shou Mien-oheng**Ministry of Food**

(Liang Shih Pu)

Minister : Hsu Kan*Political Vice-Minister* : Liu Hang-shen*Administrative Vice-Minister* : Pang Sung-chou*Senior Secretaries* :

Liu Yung-kai

Wang Yuan

Chang Ching-yuan

Tan Wei

Counsellors :

Hsueh Chung-tai

Liu Yung-heng

Shao Peng-heng

Chen Pai-ching

Cheng Yen-cho

Chung Pu-sheng

Director, General Affairs Department : Yang Hsi-chih*Director, Personnel Department* : Chen Hsi-hsiang*Director, Control Department* : Yin Ching-fu*Director, Collection and Storage Department* : Yang Tao-yueh*Director, Distribution Department* : Cheng Mou-hsing*Director, Finance Department* : Li Chia-lung*Chief, Investigation Bureau* : Pu Meng-chiu*Chief Accountant* : Wang Yao*Senior Technical Experts* : Shen Kuo-chin Hsin Chieh-lu*Chief, Inspectors Office* : Li Yung-mou*Assistant Chief* : Chen Kai-kuo*Senior Inspectors* :

Fang Chao-chen

Lü Tsung-yu

Wan Pang

Sun Chung-yo

Ministry of Justice

(Ssu Fa Hsing Chen Pu)

Minister : Hsieh Kuan-sheng*Political Vice-Minister* : Hung Lu-tung*Administrative Vice-Minister* : Hsia Chin*Senior Secretaries* : Li Sheng-ming Chou Huan*Counsellors* :

Chen Ko-min

Liu Chen-chung

Ho Chung-shan

Cha Liang-chien

Director, General Affairs Department : Chu Wei-min*Director, Personnel Department* : Wang Chi-pao*Director, Civil Cases Department* : Yu Chueh*Director, Criminal Cases Department* : Li Tai-san*Director, Prison Administration Department* : Wang Yuan-tseng**Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs**

(Meng Tsang Wei Yuan Hui)

Chairman : Wu Chung-hsin*Vice-Chairman* : Chao Pei-lien*Commission Members* :

Li Pei-tien

Ke Hsing-e

Pai Yun-ti

Leng Yung

Chu Fu-nan

Chang Chia

Ke-sang-tseh-jen

Tang Ko-san

Cheng Yun

Sun Shun-wu

Ma Ho-tien

Chiu Chia

Min-chu-tseh-wang-to-chi

Ta-li-cha-ya

Lo-sang-chien-tsan

Wu Shu-jen

Tseng Shao-lu

Li Huan

Kang Chi-min

Wang Ying-yu

Chou Kun-tien

Chao Shou-yu

Tu-tan-tsan-lieh

Chu Shou-kuang

Senior Secretaries : Chang Kuo-shu Ni Shih-hsiung*Counsellors* :

Chao Chen

Wu Ho-hsien

Chao Hsi-chang

Li Wei

National Land Administration

(Ti Chen Shu)

Director-General : Cheng Chen-yu*Assistant Director-General* : Chu Ping*Counsellors* : Ho Chung-chieh Chen Cheng-mo*Senior Secretary* : Cheng Tzu-min*Director, General Affairs Department* : Fan Tseh-shan*Director, Land Registration Department* : Wang Nan-yuan*Director, Land Value Department* : Liu Hsiu-ching*Director, Land Ownership Department* : Cheng Tzu-min*Chief, Technology Office* : Wang Nan-yuan*Senior Technical Expert* : Tseng Kuang-liang**National General Mobilization Council**

(Kuo Chia Tsung Tung Yuan Hui I)

Chairman : Chiang Kai-shek*Secretary-General* : Shen Hung-lich*Assistant Secretaries-General* : Tuan-Mu Kai Ho Hao-jo*Counsellors* :

Hsu Pai-yuan

Chang Kuo-wei

Tan Heng-ehin

Tsou Ming-chu

Hu Yu

Chen Han-ping

Peng Erh-kang

Secretaries :

Teng Chi-yu

Chang Pai-chuan

Chang Hsieh-cheng

Lung Ta-chun

Sun Cho-min

Director, General Affairs Department : Yao Tao-hung*Assistant Director, General Affairs Department* : Tung Shu-tseng*Director, Material Resources Department* : Pi Tso-chiung*Assistant Director, Material Resources Department* : Chang Yen-cheh*Chief, Military Section* : Wang Wen-hsuan*Assistant Chief, Military Section* : Kung Chi-chih*Chief, Manpower Section* : Shih Wei-huan*Assistant Chief, Manpower Section* : Chou Hsien-lung*Chief, Financial Section* : Liu Kung-yun*Assistant Chief, Financial Section* : Fang Tung*Chief, Transportation Section* : Kung Hsueh-sui*Assistant Chief, Transportation Section* : Liu Chuan-shu*Chief, Investigation Section* : Yen Ling-feng*Assistant Chiefs, Investigation Section* :

Wang Fu-chou

Hsiung Tung-kao

Tu Kung-sui

Planning Committee :

Yang Chung-ming

Chien I-shih

Chang Kuo-tao

Tsou Ping-wen

Chang Chung-li

Wang Hsiao-lai

Chang Ku

Chu Hui-ching

Wang Lieh

Liu Hsu-chu

Pi Hsiu-shao

National Commission on Aeronautical Affairs

(Hang Kung Wei Yuan Hui)

President : Chiang Kai-shek*Secretary-General* : Chou Chih-jou**Board of Trustees for the Administration of the British Share of the 1901 Indemnity**

(Kuan Li Chung Ying Keng Kuan Tung Shih Hui)

Chairman : Chu Chia-hua*Vice-Chairman* : R. Calder-Marshall*Board-Secretary* : Yen Te-ching*Board-Treasurer* : Tseng Yung-pu*Trustees* :

J. B. Tayler

Tseng Yang-fu

Li Szu-kuang

Li Shu-hua

Yeh Kung-cho

Soong Tzu-liang

W. S. King

Chen Chi-tsai

Lin Jui-heng

Julian Bell

W. H. Lock

Secretary-General : Hang Li-wu*Secretaries* :

Hsu Ke-piao

Sha Meng-hai

Hsu Shang

Chen Ting-ping

Chu Chi-jen

Education Secretary : Hu Ping-cheng*Finance Secretary* : Huang Tsung-lun*Accountants* :

Li Yu-chieh

Chang Kuo-hua

Shen Heng-shu

Legislative Yuan

(Li Fa Yuan)

President : Sun Fo*Vice-President* : Yeh Chu-tsang*Secretary-General* : Wu Shang-ying*Director, Bureau of Legislative Research* : Hsieh Pao-chiao

GENERAL APPENDIX

Director, General Affairs Department : Tseng Shao-lu
Director, Mongolian Affairs Department : Chu Ming-shan
Director, Tibetan Affairs Department : Kung Ching-tsung

Oversea Affairs Commission

(Chiao Wu Wei Yuan Hui)

Chairman : Chen Shu-jen
Vice-Chairman : Chou Chi-kang
Chief Secretary : Kuo Wei-pai
Director, Oversea Affairs Department : Chou Yen-ming
Director, Oversea Education Department : Yu Chun-hsien

National Relief Commission

(Chen Chi Wei Yuan Hui)

Chairman : H. H. Kung
Acting Chairman : Hsu Shih-ying
Vice-Chairman : Chu Ying-kuang
Standing Committee :
 Tu Yung Chen Fang-hsien Yu Ching-hsin
 Chao Chih-yu Chen Wei
Commission Members :
 Chou I-kuei Nan Ying-keng Chao Shou-yu
 Ma Yu-cheng Ma Wen-ehch Wu Han-san
Counsellors : Hu Mai Wang Li-cheng
Senior Secretaries : Yao Kuang-yin Sung Cheh-fu
Director, First Department : Wang Tien-chih
Director, Second Department : Wang Fang
Director, Third Department : Pan Lien-ju
Chief Accountant : Fu Kuang-pei

National Conservancy Board

(Shui Li Wei Yuan Hui)

Chairman : Hsueh Tu-pi
Standing Committee :
 Chen Kuo-fu Foo Ju-lin Chin Fen
 Mao I-sheng
Ex-officio Members :
 Chou Chung-yu H. H. Kung Wong Wen-hao
 Tseng Yang-fu Shen Hung-lich Hsu Kan
 Hsu Shih-ying

GENERAL APPENDIX

Members of Board :

Chang Chun	Lung Yun	Wu Ting-chang
Huang Hsu-eh	Li Pei-chi	Pang Ping-hsun
Mou Chung-heng	Ku Cheng-lun	Wang Cheng-ting
Tsend Yung-pu	Chien Chang-chao	Hsiung Pin
Peng Chi-chun	Shen Pai-hsien	Cheng Chao-ching
Yang Hua-jih	Chang Han-ying	Shen Yi
Chen Pan-ling	Yang Chih-chun	

Chief Secretary : Ma Chao-hsiang
Senior Technical Expert : Hsu Kai
Chief, Secretariat : Han Shou-chin
Chief, Engineering Office : Sung Tung
Secretary : Chou Yang-wen

Technical Experts :

Wu Yu-hsin	Tsai Pang-lin	Wu Nan-kai
Tsao Jui-chih	Yang Nai-chun	Peng Tu-sheng
Tsui Tsung-pei	Tsai Chen	Lu Ke-ming
Teng Hsiang-yun	Shih Chiu-heng	Tai Chi

Chairman, Huai River Commission : Chiang Kai-shek
Vice-Chairman, Huai River Commission : Chen Kuo-fu
Acting Vice-Chairman, Huai River Commission : Shen Pai-hsien
Chairman, Yellow River Commission : Chang Han-ying
Chairman, Yangtze River Commission : Foo Ju-lin
Chairman, North China River Commission : Peng Chi-chun
Chief, Pearl River Conservancy Bureau : Yang Hua-jih
Chief, Kiangnan Conservancy Bureau : Chen Chan-en
Chief, Kinglo Irrigation Bureau : Lu Shih-chi
Chief, Kinsha Kiang Hydraulic Engineering Bureau : Chou Cheng-lien
Chief, National Hydraulic Research Institute : Cheng Chao-ching
Chief, Model Hydraulic Engineering Office : Chiang Hung
Chairman, Hupeh Dikes Fund Committee : Chao Chih-yao

National Health Administration

(Wei Sheng Shu)

Director-General : P. Z. King
Assistant Director-General : Shen Ke-fei
Senior Secretary : Hsu Shih-hsuan
Acting Director, General Affairs Department : Hsu Shih-hsuan
Director, Medical Administration Department : Yu Sung-chun
Director, Health Service Department : Hsu Shih-chin
Director, Epidemic Prevention Department : Yung Chi-yung
Senior Technical Experts :
 Pang Ching-chou Kuo Tsu-yuan Yen Ching-ching
Senior Inspector : Chen Wan-li

Chairman, Law Codification Committee : Lin Pin
 Chairman, Foreign Relations Committee : John C. H. Wu
 Chairman, Finance Committee : Wei Ting-sheng
 Chairman, Economic Committee : Lou Tung-sun
 Chairman, Military Affairs Committee : Ho Sui
 Chairman, Civil Law Committee : John C. H. Wu
 Chairman, Penal Law Committee : Liu Ke-chun
 Chairman, Commercial Law Committee : Tai Hsiu-chun
 Chairman, Labour Law Committee : Wang Kun-lun
 Chairman, Self-Government Law Committee : Huang Yu-chang
 Chairman, Land Law Committee : Yao Chuan-fa

Legislative Members :

Kuan Su- jen	Liu Kuan-hsun	Lu Chung-lin
Ling Yueh	Chen Chang-heng	Tai Hsiu-chun
Tsai Hsuan	Chao Shen	Chao Wen-ping
Kung-chueh-chung-ni	Chang Chao-yuan	Ai Sha
Chang Hsi-man	Hou Ke-chin	Tseng Yen
Hsu Pao-chu	Yang Yu-chun	Teng Kung-hsuan
Ho Sui	Yao Chuan-fa	Liu Tung
Liu Chih-ping	Chi Chih-hou	Ling Chang
Li Chin-fang	Chen Hai-cheng	Wen Hsiung-fei
Li Ching-lin	John C. H. Wu	Chien Kuan-san
Sun Chiu-lu	Chu Hsueh-fan	Liang Han-tsao
Peng Yang-kuang	Lu Fu	Chang Feng-chiu
Huang I-ou	Wei Ting-sheng	Lou Tung-sun
Lin Ping	Feng Chao-i	Wu Yun-peng
Feng Tzu-yu	Ma Hsiao-chun	Wen Yuan-ning
Chao Pei	Yuan Shih-pin	Chu Wu
Chen Ku-yuan	Mei Shu-tseng	Chung Tien-hsin
Hu Hsuan-ming	Shih Wei-huan	Ti Ying
Peng Chun-shih	Wang Tseng-shan	Wang Pei- jen
Wang I-han	Tso Kung	Chien Yu-wen
Yeh Chin-yuan	Yen Kuo-fu	Tsao Ching-yuan
Cheng Po-chuang	Lu Ya-fu	Lo Yu- jen
Wang Ping-chien	Huang Yun-su	Ma Yin-chu
Huang Yu-chang	Lo Ting	Liu Ke-chun
Chao Nai-chuan	Huang Chin-tao	Yeh Hsia-sheng
Wang Yu-hsiang	Tai Hsia	Hung Jui-chao
Chao Chu-hsu	Chen Tzu-feng	Yung Kung-ta
Mei Ju-ao	Wang Kun-lun	Chou I-chih
Chao Mou-hua	Tung Chi-cheng	Teng Hung-yeh
Wu Huan-chang	Wang Wen-shan	Shen Yung
Tsou Shan-chun	Lo Yun-yen	Chuan Tseng-ku
Chen Hsun-yu	Liu Pu-tung	Sheng Hsiao-tsen
Liu Chen-tung	Hsia Chin-lin	

Judicial Yuan

(Ssu Fa Yuan)

President : Chu Cheng
 Vice-President : Chin Chen
 Secretary-General : Mao Tsu-chuan
 President, Supreme Court : Li Fa
 Chief Procurator, Supreme Court : Cheng Lieh
 President, Administrative Court : Chang Chih-pen
 Chairman, Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries :
 Wang Yung-pin

Examination Yuan

(Kao Shih Yuan)

President : Tai Chuan-hsien
 Vice-President : Chu Chia-hua
 Secretary-General : Shih Shang-kuan

Ministry of Personnel

(Chuan Hsu Pu)

Minister : Chia Ching-te
 Political Vice-Minister : Wang Tzu-chuang
 Administrative Vice-Minister : Ma Hung-huan
 Counsellors : Li Fei-peng Liu Ching-chang
 Senior Secretaries : Sun Huan-chai Fu Wen-chi
 Director, General Affairs Department : Pu Shao-kan
 Director, Registration Department : Chu Han-sheng
 Director, Qualification and Appointment Examination Department : Hsu Tao-lin
 Director, Merit Examination Department : Chen Man-jo
 Director, Pension Department : Tan I-kuei

Commission of Civil Service Examinations

(Kao Hsuan Wei Yuan Hui)

Chairman : Chen Ta-chi
 Vice-Chairman : Shen Shih-yuan

Control Yuan

(Chien Cha Yuan)

President : Yu Yu- jen
 Vice-President : Liu Shang-ching
 Secretary-General : Cheng Chung-hsing

Supervisory Commissioner for Kiangsu : Wu Shao-shu
Supervisory Commissioner for Kiangsi and Anhwei : Yang Liang-kung
Supervisory Commissioner for Chekiang and Fukien : Kao Lu
Supervisory Commissioner for Hunan and Hupeh : Miao Pei-cheng
Supervisory Commissioner for Kwangtung and Kwangsi : Liu Hou-wu
Supervisory Commissioner for Hopei : Chou Li-sheng
Supervisory Commissioner for Honan and Shantung : Li Sze-tsung
Supervisory Commissioner for Shansi and Shensi : Wang Lu-i
Supervisory Commissioner for Liaoning, Kirin and Heilungkiang :
Supervisory Commissioner for Yunnan and Kweichow : Li Ken-yuan
Supervisory Commissioner for Szechuen :
Supervisory Commissioner for Jehol, Chahar and Suiyuan :
Supervisory Commissioner for Chinghai, Ninghsia and Kansu : Kao I-han
Supervisory Commissioner for Sinkiang : Lo Chia-lun
Supervisory Commissioner for Sikang and Tibet :
Supervisory Commissioner for Mongolia :

Supervisory Members :

Liu Hou-wu	Lin I-chung	Chou Li-sheng
Liu Cheng-yu	Chien Chih-hsiu	Teng Chun-kao
Li Meng-keng	Yao Yu-ping	Wang Ping-cheng
Chin Shou-kun	Han Chun-chieh	Hsieh Wu-liang
Wu Chien-chang	Yen Chuang	Kao Lu
Tu Kuang-yun	Yeh Yuan-lung	Li Hsiao-ting
Hu Po-yueh	Pai Peng-fei	Pai Jui
Pa Wen-chun	Tseng Tao	Tse-chueh-lin Hutukhtu
Huang Tsan	Fan Tseng-po	Ho Han-wen
Ho Chao-tsung	Wu Han-tao	Chien Cheng-yueh
Mei Kung-jen	Wang Hsien-chang	Chang Hua-lan
Tuan Hung-kang	Chu Tsung-liang	Tu Chen
Wu Hui-liang	Yu Fen	Ma Yao-nan
Ho Ke-fu	Wang Hsin-ling	Tsai Tzu-sheng
Wang Shu-tseng	Ho Chi-hung	Tai Kuei-sheng
Lin Ching	Shen Yin-mo	Wang Tung
Lin Ho-cheng	Tien Chiung-chin	Ku Feng-hsiang
Li Cheng-yueh	Wu Nan-hsuan	Yang Pu-sheng
Liu Shih-chuan	Hsiao Hsuan	Chu Lei-chang

Ministry of Audit

(Shen Chi Pu)

Minister : Lin Yun-kai*Political Vice-Minister* : Liu Chi-wen*Administrative Vice-Minister* : Li Chung-shih*Senior Secretaries* : Yang Wei-yeh Chou Wen-kuang**Auditors :**

Hu Chi-hsien	Li Yueh-yi	Shih Tsan-ming
Chen Yuan-ying	An Wei-tai	Yang Hsiang-yin
Hu Hsi-yen	Wang Kang-peí	Liu Mou-chu
Hsi Chang-chi		

Chief, Kiangsu Bureau of Audit : Li Wen-po
Chief, Chekiang Bureau of Audit : Chang Cheng-chieh
Chief, Hupeh Bureau of Audit : Lu Tai
Chief, Shensi Bureau of Audit : Tsai Ping-fan
Chief, Kwangtung Bureau of Audit : Hsieh Ying-chou
Chief, Honan Bureau of Audit : Chen Pai-sen
Chief, Hunan Bureau of Audit : Yung Chia-yuan
Chief, Kweichow Bureau of Audit : Wang Shih-to
Chief, Szechuen Bureau of Audit : Yang Tsung-chiung
Chief, Fukien Bureau of Audit : Liu Wen-hai
Chief, Kwangsi Bureau of Audit : Ho Chi-li
Chief, Kiangsi Bureau of Audit : Yang Chih-hsien
Chief, Anhwei Bureau of Audit : Wang Pei-yuan
Chief, Kansu Bureau of Audit : Ho Li-heng
Chief Auditor, Salt Administration : Yu Ching-huan
Chief Auditor, National Treasury : Li Chung-chen

B. PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS**KIANGSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**

Chairman : Han Te-chin
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Wang Kung-yu
Commissioner of Finance : Chia Shih-i
Commissioner of Education : Chin Tsung-hua
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Cheng Ching-sheng
Secretary-General : Ma Chen-pang
Chief Justice, High Court : Chu Shu-sheng

CHEKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Huang Shao-hsiung
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Juan I-cheng
Commissioner of Finance : Huang Tsu-peí
Commissioner of Education : Hsu Shao-ti
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Wu Ting-yang
Secretary-General : Chien Li-min
Chief Justice, High Court : Cheng Wen-li

GENERAL APPENDIX

KIANGSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Tsao Hao-sen
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Wang Tzu-fu
Commissioner of Finance : Wen Chun
Commissioner of Education : Cheng Shih-kwei
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Yang Cho-an
Secretary-General : Hu Chia-feng
Chief Justice, High Court : Liang Jen-chieh

ANHWEI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Li Pin-hsien
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Wei Yung-cheng
Commissioner of Finance : Kwei Ching-chiu
Commissioner of Education : Wan Chang-yen
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chu Ying-shih
Secretary-General : Chu Fu-ting
Chief Justice, High Court : Liao Chiang-nan

HUPEH PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Chen Cheng
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chu Huai-ping
Commissioner of Finance : Chao Chih-yao
Commissioner of Education : Chang Po-chin
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chu I-cheng
Secretary-General : Huang Chung-hsun
Chief Justice, High Court : Hsi Chao-chun

HUNAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Hsueh Yueh
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Li Yang-chin
Commissioner of Finance : Hu Mai
Commissioner of Education : Wang Feng-chieh
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Yi Chi-chuan
Secretary-General : Wang Kuang-hai
Chief Justice, High Court : Chen Chang-tsu

SZECHUEN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Chang Chun
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Hu Tzu-wei
Commissioner of Finance : Shih Ti-yuan
Commissioner of Education : Kuo Yu-shou

GENERAL APPENDIX

Commissioner of Reconstruction : Hu Tzu-ang
Secretary-General : Li Chao-fu
Chief Justice, High Court : Su Chao-hsiang

FUKIEN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Liu Chien-hsu
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Kao Teng-ting
Commissioner of Finance : Yen Chia-kan
Commissioner of Education : Cheng Chen-wen
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chen Ti-yung
Secretary-General : Chang Kai-lien
Chief Justice, High Court : Sung Meng-nien

KWANGTUNG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Li Han-huen
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Ho Tung
Commissioner of Finance : Chang Tao-min
Commissioner of Education : Huang Lin-shu
Commissioner of Reconstruction :
Secretary-General : Cheng Yen-fen
Chief Justice, High Court : Shih Yen-cheng

KWANGSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Huang Hsu-chu
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chu Chao-sen
Commissioner of Finance : Wang Hsun-chih
Commissioner of Education : Su Hsi-hsun
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Kan Tsung-hua
Secretary-General : Chu Chao-sen
Chief Justice, High Court : Lin Chao-nan

KWEICHOW PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Wu Ting-chang
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Tan Ke-min
Commissioner of Finance : Chou I-chun
Commissioner of Education : Ou Yuan-huai
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Yeh Chi-yuan
Secretary-General : Yen Chang-wu
Chief Justice, High Court : Liu Han-chang

Supervisory Commissioner for Kiangsu : Wu Shao-shu
Supervisory Commissioner for Kiangsi and Anhwei : Yang Liang-kung
Supervisory Commissioner for Chekiang and Fukien : Kao Lu
Supervisory Commissioner for Hunan and Hupeh : Miao Pei-cheng
Supervisory Commissioner for Kwangtung and Kwangsi : Liu Hou-wu
Supervisory Commissioner for Hopei : Chou Li-sheng
Supervisory Commissioner for Honan and Shantung : Li Sze-tung
Supervisory Commissioner for Shansi and Shensi : Wang Lu-i
Supervisory Commissioner for Liaoning, Kirin and Heilongkiang :
Supervisory Commissioner for Yunnan and Kweichow : Li Ken-yuan
Supervisory Commissioner for Szechuen :
Supervisory Commissioner for Jehol, Chakar and Suiyuan :
Supervisory Commissioner for Chinghai, Ninghsia and Kansu : Kao I-han
Supervisory Commissioner for Sinkiang : Lo Chin-ann
Supervisory Commissioner for Sikang and Tibet :
Supervisory Commissioner for Mongolia :

Supervisory Members :

Liu Hou-wu	Lin I-chung	Chou Li-sheng
Liu Cheng-yu	Chien Chih-hsiu	Teng Chun-kao
Li Meng-keng	Yao Yu-ping	Wang Ping-cheng
Chin Shou-kun	Han Chun-chieh	Hsieh Wu-liang
Wu Chien-chang	Yen Chuang	Kao Lu
Tu Kuang-yun	Yeh Yuan-lung	Li Hsiao-ting
Hu Po-yueh	Pai Peng-fei	Pai Jui
Pa Wen-chun	Tseng Tao	Tse-chueh-lin Hutuk
Huang Tsau	Fan Tseng-po	Ho Han-wen
Ho Chao-tsung	Wu Han-tao	Chien Cheng-yueh
Mei Kung-jen	Wang Hsien-chang	Chang Hua-lan
Tuan Hung-kang	Chu Tsung-liang	Tu Chen
Wu Hui-liang	Yu Fen	Ma Yao-nan
Ho Ke-fu	Wang Hsin-ling	Tsai Tzu-sheng
Wang Shu-tseng	Ho Chi-hung	Tai Kuei-sheng
Lin Ching	Shen Yin-mo	Wang Tung
Lin Ho-cheng	Tien Chiung-chin	Ku Feng-hsiang
Li Cheng-yueh	Wu Nan-hsuan	Yang Pu-sheng
Liu Shih-chuan	Hsiao Hsuan	Chu Lei-chang

Ministry of Audit

(Shen Chi Pu)

Minister : Lin Yun-kai
Political Vice-Minister : Liu Chi-wen
Administrative Vice-Minister : Li Chung-shih
Senior Secretaries : Yang Wei-yeh Chou Wen-kuang

Auditors :

Hu Chi-hsien	Li Yueh-yi	Shih Tsan-ming
Chen Yuan-ying	An Wei-tai	Yang Hsiang-yin
Hu Hsi-yen	Wang Kang-pei	Liu Mou-chu
Hsi Chang-chi		

Chief, Kiangsu Bureau of Audit : Li Wen-po
Chief, Chekiang Bureau of Audit : Chang Cheng-chieh
Chief, Hupeh Bureau of Audit : Lu Tai
Chief, Shensi Bureau of Audit : Tsai Ping-fan
Chief, Kwangtung Bureau of Audit : Hsieh Ying-ehou
Chief, Honan Bureau of Audit : Chen Pai-sen
Chief, Hunan Bureau of Audit : Yung Chia-yuan
Chief, Kweichow Bureau of Audit : Wang Shih-to
Chief, Szechuen Bureau of Audit : Yang Tsung-chiung
Chief, Fukien Bureau of Audit : Liu Wen-hai
Chief, Kwangsi Bureau of Audit : Ho Chi-li
Chief, Kiangsi Bureau of Audit : Yang Chih-hsien
Chief, Anhwei Bureau of Audit : Wang Pei-yuan
Chief, Kansu Bureau of Audit : Ho Li-heng
Chief Auditor, Salt Administration : Yu Ching-huan
Chief Auditor, National Treasury : Li Chung-chen

B. PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

KIANGSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Han Te-chin
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Wang Kung-yu
Commissioner of Finance : Chia Shih-i
Commissioner of Education : Chin Tsung-hua
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Cheng Ching-sheng
Secretary-General : Ma Chen-pang
Chief Justice, High Court : Chu Shu-sheng

CHEKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Huang Shao-hsiung
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Juan I-cheng
Commissioner of Finance : Huang Tsu-pei
Commissioner of Education : Hsu Shao-ti
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Wu Ting-yang
Secretary-General : Chien Li-min
Chief Justice, High Court : Cheng Wen-li

YUNNAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Lung Yun
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Li Pei-tien
 Commissioner of Finance : Lu Chung-jen
 Commissioner of Education : Kung Tzu-chih
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chang Pang-han
 Chairman, Economic Council : Miao Chia-ming
 Secretary-General : Yuan Pei-yu
 Director, Bureau of Audit : Hua Hsiu-sheng
 Chief Justice, High Court : Hu Chueh

HOPEI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Pang Ping-hsun*
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chan Chao-yang
 Commissioner of Finance : Wang Te-chien
 Commissioner of Education : Ho I-hsin
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Wang Te-chien
 Secretary-General : Hu Meng-hua
 Chief Justice, High Court : Teng Che-hsi

* To be replaced.

SHANTUNG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Mou Chung-heng
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Ho Szu-yuan
 Commissioner of Finance : Chen Ping-yen
 Commissioner of Education : Liu Tao-yuan
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chin Chi-yung
 Secretary-General : Lei Fa-chang

HONAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Li Pei-chi
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Fang Che
 Commissioner of Finance : Peng Jo-kang
 Commissioner of Education : Lu Tang-ping
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chang Kuang-yu
 Secretary-General : Ma Kuo-lin
 Chief Justice, High Court : Hu Chi

SHANSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Chao Tai-wen
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chiu Yang-chun
 Commissioner of Finance : Wang Ping
 Commissioner of Education : Po Yu-hsiang
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Kuan Min-chuan
 Secretary-General : Ning Chao-wu
 Chief Justice, High Court : Shao Hsiu-wen

SHENSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Hsiung Ping
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Pen Chao-hsien
 Commissioner of Finance : Chou Chieh-chun
 Commissioner of Education : Wang Chieh-san
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chen Ching-yu
 Secretary-General : Ku Jen-fa
 Chief Justice, High Court : Wei Ta-tung

KANSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Ku Cheng-lun
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Wang Sou-fang*
 Commissioner of Finance : Chen Kuo-liang
 Commissioner of Education : Cheng Tung-ho
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chang Hsin-i
 Secretary-General : Wang Sou-fang*
 Chief Justice, High Court : Meng Chao-tung

* Deceased.

CHAHAR PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Feng Chin-chai
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Pai Pao-chin
 Commissioner of Finance : Yao Ta-hai
 Commissioner of Education : Hu Tzu-heng
 Commissioner of Reconstruction : Chang Li-sheng
 Secretary-General : Sung Hsiu-feng
 Chief Justice, High Court : Wang Huai-shen

SUIYUAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Fu Tso-i
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chen Ping-chien
 Commissioner of Finance : Li Chu-i

Commissioner of Education : Pan Hsiu-jen
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Tseng Hou-tsai
Secretary-General : Yen Wei
Chief Justice, High Court : Yu Chun

NINGSIA PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Ma Hung-kuei
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Hai Tao
Commissioner of Finance : Chao Wen-fu
Commissioner of Education : Wang Chin-chou
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Li Han-yuan
Secretary-General : Feng Yen-chu
Chief Justice, High Court : Su Lien-yuan

SINKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Sheng Shih-tsai
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Li Pu-lin
Commissioner of Finance : Peng Chi-yuan
Commissioner of Education : Cheng Tung-pai
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Lin Chi-yung
Secretary-General : Liu Hsiao-li

CHINGHAI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Ma Pu-fang
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Kuo Hsueh-li
Commissioner of Finance : Ma Lu
Commissioner of Education : Ma Shao-wu
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Ma Chi
Secretary-General : Chen Hsien-yung
Chief Justice, High Court : Ma Shih-yung

SIKANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Liu Wen-hui
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Leng Yung
Commissioner of Finance : Chien Wan-hua
Commissioner of Education : Cheng Chi-pao
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Liu I-yen
Secretary-General : Chang Wei-chun
Chief Justice, High Court : Fei Yu-fu

JEHOL PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Liu To-chuan
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chang Ping-i
Commissioner of Finance : Tang Tso-fu
Commissioner of Education : Chang I-ting
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Li Shu-chun
Secretary-General : Hung Sheng
Chief Justice, High Court : Chang Yang-te

LIAONING PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Wan Fu-lin
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Han Li-ju
Commissioner of Finance : Lang Kuan-pu
Commissioner of Education : Tsou Pang-chieh
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Hsu Kuang-yao
Secretary-General : Hung Fang
Chief Justice, High Court : Chen Ke-cheng

KIRIN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Tsou Tso-hua
Commissioner of Civil Affairs : Chang Chi-huai
Commissioner of Finance : Yung Hou
Commissioner of Education : Wang Shih-hsuan
Commissioner of Reconstruction : Sun Chi-chang
Secretary-General : Chen Lieh
Chief Justice, High Court : Chen Ke-cheng

HEILUNGKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman : Ma Chan-shan
Commissioner of Civil Affairs :
Commissioner of Finance :
Commissioner of Education :
Commissioner of Reconstruction :
Secretary-General : Yung Li
Chief Justice, High Court : Chen Ke-cheng

Kung-chueh-chung-ni
Yeh Hsiu-feng
Chen Tiao-yuan
Wu I-feng
Lin Tieh
Chen Ching-yun
Foo Ju-lin

Reserve Members :

Chang Chiang
Tang Sheng-chih
Li Jen-jen
Wu Pao-feng
Li Chin-chai
Hsieh Tso-min
Wang Mou-kung
Li Sze-tsung
Cheng I-tung
Chen Yao-yuan
Chao Yun-i
Chan Chu-szu

Wu Kai-hsien
Lai Lien
Yu Fei-peng
Chen Shu-jen
Chu Chi-ching
Wang Yung-pin

Wang Cheng-ting
Huang Shih
Soong Ching-ling
Lo Chia-lun
Lo I-chun
Tuan Hsi-peng
Yang Ai-yuan
Cheng Chien
Chang Chen
Chao Pei-lien
Ou Fang-pu
Shih Chin-ting

Hsueh Tu-pi
Ku Cheng-ting
Hsiao Cheng
Li Pin-hsien
Shih Tzu-chou
Liu Chien-hsu

Huang Chi-lu
Yu Chun-hsien
Chang Ting-pan
Chao Ti-hua
Ma Hung-kuei
Chen Pan-ling
Chen Fang-hsien
Chang Fang
Chang Chih-pen
Wang Kun-lun
Cheng Tien-ku
Wu Ching-hsiung

Central Supervisory Committee :*Standing Committee :*

Wu Chin-heng

Chang Chi

Wang Chung-hui

Members :

Chang Jen-chieh
Li Tsung-jen
Chang Fa-kuei
Hsiang Han-ping
Shao Hua
Sun Lien-chung
Lung Yun
Lin Yun-kai
Chin Chen
Hsiung Ke-wu
Sheng Shih-tsai
Wang Shu-han
Lu Tang-ping
Liu Wen-tao
Tan Tao-yuan
Teng Ching-yang

Yang Hu
Yang Hu-cheng
Cheng Tien-fang
Huang Shao-hsiung
Li Yu-ying
Hsueh Yueh
Li Fu-lin
Ho Yao-tsu
Yao Ta-hai
An Chin
Wang Ping-chun
Hsu Yung-chang
Lei Chen
Li Tzu-wen
Peng Kuo-chun

Shao Li-tzu
Hsu Chung-chih
Hu Tsung-nan
Shang Chen
Li Lieh-chun
Liu Chen-hua
Pang Ping-hsun
Wang Tzu-chuang
Chang Chia
Chin Te-chun
Ssu Lun
Chang Jen-min
Wang Shih-chieh
Ho Szu-yuan
Wen I-yu

Reserve Members :

Chang Mo-chun
Kuo Tai-chi
Li Chi-an
Lu Yu-kang

Ti Ying
Tsui Kuang-hsiu
Sun Ching-ya
Yang Hsi-chi

Ma lin
Hu Wen-tsan
Huang Lin-shu

Organs under the Central Executive Committee :*Secretariat :*

Secretary-General : Wu Tieh-cheng
Assistant Secretary-General : Ti Ying

Organization Department :

Chairman : Chu Chia-hua
Vice-Chairmen : Ma Chao-chun Chang Chiang

Ministry of Information :

Minister : Chang Tao-fan
Vice-Ministers : Hollington K. Tong Cheng Chung-hsing

Overseas Department :

Chairman : Liu Wei-chih
Vice-Chairmen : Tai Kuei-sheng Chen Ching-yun

Commission on Party Affairs :

Chairman : Wu Tieh-cheng

Commission on Training :

Director-General : Chiang Kai-shek
Chairman : Chen Cheng
Vice-Chairmen : Tuan Hsi-peng Chou Ya-wei

Commission on Finance :

Chairman : H. H. Kung

Commission on Compassionate Grants :

Chairman : Ting Wei-fen
Vice-Chairmen : Li Wen-fan Hung Lu-tung

Commission for the Compilation of Party History :

Chairman : Chang Chi
Vice-Chairmen : Lo Chia-lun Hsu Jen-ju

Commission for the Investigation of Revolutionary Debts :

Chairmen : Sun Fo

Commission for the Examination of Revolutionary Merits :

Chairman :

Commission for the Custody of Overseas Contributions :

Chairman : Chiang Kai-shek

Commission for the Examination of Qualifications of Party Workers for Government Service :

Chairman : Wu Tieh-cheng
Vice-Chairman : Ti Ying

Commission for the Compilation of San Min Chi I Series :

Chairman : Tai Chuan-hsien

Commission on the Examination of Publications :

Chairman : Yeh Chu-tsang
Vice-Chairmen : Kan Nai-kuang Fang Chih

GENERAL APPENDIX

C. MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Chungking Municipal Government*(Chungking Shih Chen Fu)**Mayor : Ho Yao-tsu**Chief Secretary : C. S. Chen**Director, Social Affairs Bureau : Pao Hua-kuo**Director, Education Bureau : Lei Hsiao-chen**Director, Land Bureau :**Director, Police Bureau : Tang I**Director, Finance Bureau : Tiao Pei-jan**Director, Public Works Bureau : William Hua-fu Woo**Director, Health Bureau : Wang Tsu-hsiang**Director, Food Bureau : Wang Shih-hsi***HIGHER OFFICIALS OF KUOMINTANG CENTRAL HEADQUARTERS***(May, 1943)***Tsung Tsai** (*Director-General*) : Chiang Kai-shek**Central Executive Committee :***Standing Committee :*

Chiang Kai-shek	Tai Chuan-hsien	Chu Cheng
Yu Yu-jen	Sun Fo	
Feng Yu-hsiang	Yeh Chu-tsang	Ho Ying-chin
Tsou Lu	Chen Kuo-fu	H. H. Kung
Ting Wei-fen	T. V. Soong	Pai Chung-hsi
Chen Chi-tang	Pan Kung-chan	Li Wen-fan
Chang Li-sheng	Wu Chung-hsin	Teng Chia-yen

Members :

Yen Hsi-shan	Wu Tieh-cheng	Ho Cheng-chun
Chen Li-fu	Shih Ying	Chang Hsueh-liang
Liu Chih	Ku Chu-tung	Chu Chia-hua
Yang Chieh	Ma Chao-chun	Chang Chih-chung
Tseng Kuo-ching	Ho Chung-han	Chiang Ting-wen
Fang Chueh-hui	Chien Ta-chun	Ho Chien
Tseng Yang-fu	Liu Lu-yin	Chen Cheng
Hsu En-tseng	Hung Lan-yu	Yu Ching-tang
Chang Tao-fan	Chen Tseh	Chen Pu-lei
Fang Chih	Liang Han-tsao	Li Tsung-huang
Liu Chi-wen	Hsu Yuan-chuan	Pai Wen-wei
Wang Lu-i	Chang Chun	Liu Wei-chih
Ting Chao-wu	Chao Tai-wen	Chiang Po-cheng
Ku Meng-yu	Kan Nai-kuang	Chen Chi-cheng
Hsiao Chi-shan	Chou Po-min	Miao Pei-cheng
Liu Chien-chun	Ku Cheng-kang	Mei Kung-jen
Yu Han-mou	Wang Sou-fang	Chu Shao-liang
Lin I-chung	Ku Cheng-lun	Fu Tso-i
Huang Hsu-chu	Tai Kuei-sheng	Yu Hsueh-chung
Chen Chao-ying	Hsiao Tung-tzu	Chou Chi-kang
Mai-szu-wu-te	Wei Li-huang	Hung Lu-tung
Chiao I-tang	Tien Kun-shan	Chen Shao-kuang
Chen I	Peng Hsueh-pei	Mao Tsu-chuan
Shen Hung-lieh	Hsiung Shih-hui	Hsia Tou-yin
Lu Chung-lin	Wang Po-chun	Hsu Kan
Fu Ping-chang	Lo Ching-tao	Li Yang-chin
Wang Chuan-sheng	Miao Pei-nan	Lo-sang-chien-tsan

Organ under the Central Supervisory Committee :*Secretariat :**Secretary-General : Wang Tzu-chuang***Supreme National Defense Council****Central Planning Board***Commission on Control of Party and Government Work**

* See chapter on Party and Politics, p. 162.

PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL*(Third Council)***Presidium :**Chiang Kai-shek
Wu I-fangChang Po-ling
Li Huang

Mo Te-hui

Members :*Group A (Elected by Provincial and Special Municipalities) :**Szechuen :*Huan Su-fang
Li Cho-jen
Liu Ming-yangTsao Shu-shih
Chen Chih-hsueh
Chu Chih-hungTan Mou-hsin
Peng Ke-chen*Hunan :*Chang Chiung
Wang Feng-chieh
Teng Fei-huangHsin Shu-chih
Tso Shun-sheng
Li Yu-yaoHu Shu-hua
Chao Chun-mai*Chekiang :*Chu Fu-cheng
Liu Pai-min
Yeh Su-chungChen Chi-yeh
Chiang I-ping
Chen Hsi-haoHu Chien-chung
Ho Lien-kuei*Kiangsu :*Chang I-lin
Chen Yuan
Chang Wei-chenLeng Yu
Hsueh Ming-chien
Hsiao I-shanChiang Heng-yuan
Ku Chieh-kang*Kwangtung :*Lu Tsung-chi
Han Han-fan
Kao Ting-tzuChin Tseng-cheng
Chen Shao-hsien
Hu Mu-lanHuang Fan-i
Yang Tzu-i*Anhui :*Ma Ching-chang
Wu Tsang-chou
Wang Li-mingChen Tieh
Kuang Sheng
Hsi LunMei Kuang-ti
Hang Li-wu*Hopei :*Keng I
Chang Ai-sung
Liang Shih-chiuWang Chi-chiang
Chang Chih-chiang
Ma Hsi-fanLiu Yao-chang
Wei Yuan-kuang*Shantung :*Fu Szu-nien
Kung Ling-tsan
Chin He-shengFan Yu-sui
Li Han-ming
Chao Tai-mouLiu Tzu-hsiao
Ting Chi-shih

Honan :

Li Han-chen
Chang Chih-chen
Liu Ching-chen

Kuo Chung-kuai
Li Ming-chang
Lo Meng-tsch

Wang Kung-tu
Wang Yin-san

Hupeh :

Kung Keng
Chu Mai-chin
Li Lien-fang

Li Chien-ting
Yen Li-san
Huang Chien-chung

Yu Yu-chih
Chang Nan-hsien

Kiangsi :

Chang Kuo-tao
Ho Jen-hao
Wang Yu-yung

Wang Kuan-ying
Kan Chia-hsing
Wu Yu-jui

Li Chung-hsiang
Yin Chin-jang

Shensi :

Chang Feng-kuai
Wang Pu-han

Li Chih-ting
Chao Ho-ting

Chang Shou-yo
Chang Tan-ping

Fukien :

Chiang Yung
Shih Lei

Kang Shao-chou
Hu Chao-hsiang

Wang Shih-ying
Chen Po-sheng

Kwangsi :

Yang Shu-pao
Huang Chung-yo

Huang Tung-chou
Chiang Chi-i

Lei Pei-hung
Lin Hu

Yunnan :

Li Pei-yen
Wang Chi-pu

Chao Shu
Yang Yin-nan

Chang Pang-chen
Lung Ti-yao

Kweichow :

Wang Yu-ming
Chang Ting-hua

Ma Tsung-yung

Huang Yu-jen

Shansi :

Liang Shang-tung
Chang Nai-te

Li Hung-wen

Ma Chun

Kansu :

Lo Lin-tsao
Wang Wei-yung

Chu Kuan-sheng

Chang Tso-mou

Liaoning :

Chang Chen-lu
Chien Kung-lai

Kao Hsi-ping

Chi Shih-ying

Kirin :

Mo Te-hui
Liu Feng-chu

Wang Han-sheng

Li Hsi-en

Chahar :

Chang Chih-kuang

Hsi Chen-to

Tung Kuan-hsien

Suiyuan :

Chang Chin

Yung Chao

Chao Li-shih

Sinkiang :

Chang Yuan-fu

Kuo Jen-sheng

Sheng Shih-chi

Shanghai Municipality :

Tao Pai-chuan

Hsi Yu-shu

Chen Ting-jui

Chungking Municipality :

Lung Wen-chih

Hu Chung-shih

Pan Chang-yu

Chinghai : Li Hsia

Chang Chang-yung

Sikang : Huang Ju-chien

Chang Chi

Ninghsia : Chou Shih-kuan

Yu Kuang-ho

Heilungkiang : Ma I

Wang Yu-chang

Jehol : Tan Wen-pin

Mao Shao-ching

Nanking Municipality : Chen Yu-kuang

Lu Chien

Peiping Municipality : Tao Meng-ho

Chen Shih-chuan

*Tientsin Municipality : Chang Po-ling**Tsingtao Municipality : Yang Chen-sheng**Hsiking Municipality : Han Chao-ao**Group B (Selected from among Mongolian and Tibetan Leaders) :**Mongolia :*

Li Yung-hsin

Chin Chih-chao

Ah Fu-shou

Su Lu-tai

Ti Lu-wa

Tibet :

Lo-sang-cha-hsi

Ting Chieh

Hsi-jao-chia-tso

Group C (Selected from among Overseas Chinese Leaders) :

Tan Tsan

Kuang Ping-shun

Ho Pao-jen

Lien Ying-chou

Ssu-tu Mei-tang

Hsu Sheng-li

Lin Ching-nien

Li Wen-chen

Group D (Selected from among Leaders of Cultural and Economic Organizations) :

Shao Tsung-en

Yu Pin

Wang Yun-wu

Chang Lan

Huang Yen-pei

Wang Hsiao-lai

Chang Shih-chao

Li Huang

Chen Pao-yin

Chang Tung

Tseng Chi

Chou Tao-kang

Yen Yang-chu

Chou Ao

Pi Tsung-shih

Fan Jui

Hsu Hsiao-yen

Mao Tseh-tung

Lin Tsu-han

Chou Lang

Peng Yun-i

Yang Tuan-lu

Cheng She-e

Chang I-shu

Chin Pang-hsien

Chang Chun-mai

Chien Tuan-sheng

GENERAL APPENDIX

Wu I-fang
Chou Ping-lin
Teng Chao-yin
Tan Ping-shan
Teng Ying-chao
Tung Pi-wu
Chen Chi-tien
Cheng Hsi-meng
Hsieh Ping-hsin
Ta Pu-sheng
Ha Ti-erh

Chien Yung-ming
Chang Chi-yun
Liu Heng-ching
Chen Shao-yu
Ma Cheng-feng
Yu Chia-chu
Hu Chiu-yuan
Chang Hsi-jo
Lo Heng
Hu Lin
Hsu Wen-ting

Tao Hsuan
Wu Chih-mei
Chen I-yun
Lu Yun-chang
Hsu Ping-chan
Chen Shih
Hsu Te-heng
Sa Meng-wu
Li Li-chou
Tang Kuo-chen
Ah-wang-chien-tsan

Resident Members :

Kung Keng
Wang Yun-wu
Hsu Hsiao-yen
Chiang I-ping
Wang Chi-chiang
Leng Yu
Lo Heng
Chen Chi-tien
Ah-wang-chien-tsan

Chu Fu-cheng
Teng Fei-huang
Hang Li-wu
Tan Mou-hsin
Kuo Chung-kuei
Huang Yen-pei
Ho Pao-jen
Hsu Te-heng

Li Chung-hsiang
Chen Po-sheng
Tao Po-chuan
Chiang Yung
Lin Hu
Yu Pin
Tung Pi-wu
Wang Pu-han

Secretariat :

Secretary-General : Wang Shih-chieh
Assistant Secretary-General : Chou Ping-lin

Secretaries :

Lei Chen
Meng Kuang-hou
Kung Kuang-lang
Ku Hsi-wu
Wang Te-fang
Huang Chi-hsien

Hsiung Kuo-tsao
Chao Tzu-mou

INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(May, 1943)

National Universities

Name	Location	President	Remarks
National Central University	Shapingpa, Chungking	Chiang Kai-shek ...	Formerly in Nanking
National Southwest Associated University	Kunming ...	Chiang Meng-lin Mei Yi-chi Chang Po-lin (Members of Executive Committee)	This university is a combination of three universities, namely, National Peking University, National Tsinghua University and Nankai University
National Southeast Associated University	Kienyang, Fukien ...	Ho Ping-sung ...	Established in 1942
National Northwestern University	Chengku, Shensi ...	Lai Lien ...	—
National Sun Yat-sen University	Pingshek, Kwangtung	Chin Tseng-cheng (Acting)	Formerly in Canton
National University of Communications	Chungking ...	Wu Pao-feng (Acting)	Branch school in Ping-yueh, Kweichow
National Tung-Chi University	Nanchi, Szechuen ...	Ting Wen-yuan (Acting)	Formerly in Shanghai
National Chunan University	Kienyang, Fukien ...	Ho Ping-sung ...	Formerly in Chenju, near Shanghai
National Wuhan University	Loshan, Szechuen ...	Wang Hsing-kung	Formerly in Wuchang
National Chekiang University	Tsunyi, Kweichow ...	Chu Ko-cheng ...	Branch school at Lungchuan, Chekiang. Formerly in Hangchow
National Szechuen University	Omei, Szechuen ...	Huang Chi-lu ...	Formerly in Chengtu
National Northeastern University	Santai, Szechuen ...	Chang Chi-fang ...	Formerly in Shenyang, Liaoning
National Hunan University	Shenchl, Hunan ...	Hu Shu-hua ...	Formerly in Changsha
National Amoy University	Changting, Fukien ...	Sha Pen-tung ...	Formerly in Amoy, Fukien
National Yunnan University	Kunming ...	Hsiung Ching-lai	—
National Chung-Cheng University	Taiho, Kiangsi ...	Hu Hsien-su ...	Established in 1940
National Kwangsi University	Kweilin ...	Kao Yang ...	Formerly the Provincial University of Kwangsi
National Fudan University	Peipel, Szechuen ...	Wu Nan-hsuan ...	Formerly private in Shanghai

National Honan University	Sungshien, Honan	Wang Kuang-ching	Formerly provincial at Kaifeng, Honan Established in 1942
National Kweichow University	Kweiyang	Chang Ting-hsiu	
National Chungking University	Chungking	Chang Hung-yuan	This and the following two universities formerly all provincial; changed into national at the end of 1942
National Shansi University	—	Hsu Shih-hui (Acting)	
National Ying Shih University	Chinglung, Chekiang	Hsu Hsiao-ti	—

Private Universities

Name	Location	President	Remarks
University of Nanking	Chengtu	Chen Yu-kuang	Formerly in Nanking
Tatung University	—	Hu Tun-fu (Acting)	—
Kuomin University of Kwangtung	Kaiping, Kwangtung	Wu Ting-hsin	Formerly in Canton
University of Shanghai	—	Fan Cheng-kang	—
Kuanghua University	—	Chang Shou-yung	Branch school in Chengtu
Great China University	Kweiyang	Wang Po-chun	Branch school in Shanghai. Formerly in Shanghai
Yenching University	Chengtu	Stewart Leighton	Formerly in Peiping
Foo-Jen (Catholic) University	—	Chen Yuan	—
Soochow University	Chukiang, Kwangtung	Shen Ti-lan (Acting)	Formerly in Soochow
Chung-Hua University of Wuchang	Chungking	Chen Shih	Formerly in Wuchang
Lingnan University	Chukiang, Kwangtung	Lee Ying-lin	Formerly in Canton
Franco-China University	Kunming	Lee Lin-yu	Formerly in Peiping. Research Department for Pharmacy in Shanghai
Fukien Union University	Shaowu, Fukien	Lin Ching-jen	Formerly Fukien Union College at Foochow
Cheeloo University	Chengtu	Liu Shih-chuan	Formerly in Tainan
University of Canton	Chukiang, Kwangtung	Chen Ping-chuan	Formerly in Canton
Cheng-Tan (Aurora) University	—	Hu Wen-yao	Maintained by Catholic Mission
West China Union University	Chengtu	Chang Ling-kao	—
Central China University	Tai, Yunnan	Wei Cho-min	Formerly in Wuchang

National Independent Colleges

Name	Location	President	Remarks
National Shanghai College of Commerce	—	Pei Fu-heng	Affiliated with National Southeast Associated University
National Shanghai Medical College	Koloshan, Chungking	Chu Heng-pi	Formerly in Shanghai
National Chung-Cheng College of Medicine	Yungshien, Kiangsi	Wang Tsu-kan	Formerly in Nanchang
National Kweiyang Medical College	Kweiyang	Li Taung-en	—
National Kiangsu Medical College	Peipel, Szechuen	Hu Ting-an	Formerly in Chinkiang, Kiangsu
National Northwestern College of Medicine	Nancheng, Shensi	Hsu Tso-hsia	Formerly College of Medicine of National University of Peiping
National Hsiang Ya College of Medicine	Kweiyang	Chang Hsiao-chien	Formerly private in Changsha
National Teacher's College	Anhua, Hunan	Liao Shih-cheng	Branch school in Chengku, Shensi
National Northwestern Teacher's College	Lanchow	Lee Cheng	Formerly College of Engineering of National University of Peiping
National Northwestern College of Engineering	Chengku, Shensi	Lai Lien	—
National Northwestern College of Agriculture	Wukung, Shensi	Chow Po-ming	Formerly College of Agriculture of National University of Peiping
National Teacher's College for Women	Peisha, Kiangching, Szechuen	Hsieh Hsun-chu	Established in 1940
National College of Music	Chungking	Chen Li-fu	Established in 1940
National College of Social Education	Pishan, Szechuen	Chen Li-chiang	Established in 1941
National Kweiyang Teacher's College	Kweiyang	Wang Keh-jen	Established in 1941
National College of Commerce	Chienchen, Hunan	Chen Jui-lin	Formerly National School of Commerce in Hunan

Provincial Independent Colleges

Name	Location	President	Remarks
Kansu Provincial College	Lanchow	Sung Chio	—
Sinkiang Provincial College	Tihua, Sinkiang	Wang Shou-cheng	—

Kwangtung Provincial Hsiangchen College of Commerce	Chukiang, Kwangtung	Lu Sze-tseng	—
Kwangtung Provincial College	Chukiang, Kwangtung	Huang Hsi-sheng	Formerly Provincial College of Education in Canton
Szechuen Provincial College of Education	Chungking	Yen Hsin	—
Fukien Provincial College of Medicine	Shahsien, Fukien	Hou Tsung-lien	Formerly Provincial School of Medicine of Fukien
Kwangsi Provincial College of Medicine	Kweilin	Li Tsu-wel	Established in 1941
Fukien Provincial College of Agriculture	Yungan, Fukien	Yen Chia-hsien	Established in 1940
Hupei Provincial College of Agriculture	Enshih, Hupei	Kuan Cheh-liang	Formerly Provincial School of Agriculture of Hupei
Hupei Provincial College of Education	Enshih, Hupei	Chen Yu-sung	Established in 1941

Private Independent Colleges

Name	Location	President	Remarks
Peiping (Peking) Union Medical College	—	Hu Heng-teh (Acting)	—
Shanghai College of Law and Political Science	—	Wang Chung-hui	—
Nantung College	—	Cheng Yu (Acting)	Formerly in Nantung, Kiangsu
Chung-Kuo College	—	Wang Cheng-ting	—
Shanghai College of Law	Lanchi, Chekiang	Chu Feng-i (Acting)	Formerly in Shanghai
Chaoyang College	Pahsien, Szechuen	Sun Hsiao-lou	Formerly in Peiping
Ginling College for Women	Chengt'u	Wu I-fang	Formerly in Nanking
Hangchow College	Shaowu, Fukien	Li Pei-en	Formerly in Hangchow
Fukien College	Pucheng, Fukien	Lin Chung-i	Formerly in Mintsing, Fukien
Chen-Ming College of Arts	—	Chiang Wei-chiao	Formerly Cheng-Feng College in Shanghai
Min-Kuo College of Peiping	Ninghsiang, Hunan	Lu Tang-ping	Formerly in Peiping
Hua-Nan College for Women	Nanping, Fukien	Wang Shih-ching	Formerly in Foochow
Tientsin College of Engineering and Commerce	—	Liu Pin (Acting)	—
Women's Medical College of Shanghai	—	Lao Ho-li (Acting)	—
Tung-Teh College of Medicine	—	Ku Yu-chi	—
Southeastern College of Medicine	—	Kuo Chi-yuan	—

Kuang-Hua College of Medicine	Macao	Chen Yen-fen	Formerly in Canton
South China College	Melhsien, Kwangtung	Chung Lu-chai	Established in 1940
College of Rural Reconstruction of China	Pahsien, Szechuen	Yen Yang-chu (James Y. C. Yen)	Established in 1940
Szechuen-Sikang College of Agriculture and Engineering	Chengt'u	Wei Sze-luan	Established in 1941

National Technical Schools

Name	Location	President	Remarks
National School of Music	—	Li Wei-ning (Acting)	Amalgamated with National Fukien School of Music
National School of Fine Arts	Pishan, Szechuen	Chen Chih-fu	—
National Central Technical and Vocational School of Industries	Chungking	Wei Yuan-kuang	Formerly in Nanking
National School of Pharmacy	Chungking	Chen Szu-i	Formerly in Nanking
National School of Dentistry	Chengt'u	—	A school of National Central University. Formerly in Nanking
National Teacher's School of Physical Exercise	Peipel, Pahsien, Szechuen	Chang Chih-kiang	Formerly in Nanking
National Central School of Technology	Loshan, Szechuen	Chou Hou-shu	—
National Northwestern School of Technology	Lanchow	Tseng Chi-kuan	—
National Chungking School of Commercial Navigation	Chungking	Sung-Chien-hsun	Formerly Woosung School of Commercial Navigation, in Shanghai
National School of Technology of Sikang	Sichang, Sikang	Chou Chung-lien	—
National School of Drama	Kiangnan, Szechuen	Yu Shang-yuan	Formerly in Nanking
National Teacher's School of Physical Education	Kiangching, Szechuen	Fang Wan-pang	Established in 1941
National Frontier School	Chungking	Wang Yen-kang	—
National School of Oriental Languages	Chengkung, Yunnan	Wang Wen-hsuan	—
National Fukien School of Music	Yungan, Fukien	Lu Chien	Formerly Provincial School of Music of Fukien
National Northwestern School of Medicine	Lanchow	Chi Ching-hsin	Established in 1942
National School of Hydraulic Engineering	Chengping, Honan	Liu Te-jen	Formerly Provincial School of Hydraulic Engineering of Honan

**EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS REGISTERED
WITH THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION**

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Address</i>
Sun Yat-sen Institute	3 Chang Chia Garden, Chungking.
Northeastern Youth Society	B 10 Li Tze Pa, Chungking.
Diplomatic Problem Research Society	C/o Mr. Chang Tao-hsin, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking
Chinese Labour Problem Society	164 Chung Cheng Road, Chungking.
Chinese Frontier Research Society	Box 255, Chungking.
Chinese Ethnological Society	C/o Mr. Hsu Yi-tang, Univer- sity of Nanking, Chengtu.
Chinese Frontier Problem Research Society	C/o Ministry of Education.
Chinese Science Institute	—
Chinese Geological Society	Peipei, Paksien, Szechuen.
Chinese Meteorological Society	Box 220, Peipei, Paksien, Szechuen.
Chinese Chemical Society	C/o Mr. Yuan Han-ching, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chinese Geographical Society	C/o Geography Department, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chung Hwa Mathematics Research Society	C/o Ginling Girls' College, Chengtu.
Chinese Weights and Measures Society	Peipei, Paksien, Szechuen.
Chung Hwa Natural Science Institute	National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chinese Astronomical Society	20 Hsiao Tung Cheng Chiao, Kunming.
Chinese Physics Society	Physics Department, National Southwest Associated Uni- versity, Kunming.
New China Mathematics Society	Box 96, Kunming.

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Address</i>
Chung Hwa Agricultural Society	Agriculture Department, National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chung Hwa Forestry Society	C/o Mr. Yao Chuan-fa, Legis- lative Yuan, Peipei, Paksien, Szechuen.
Chinese Institute of Engineers	D 194 Shang Nan Chu Road, Chungking.
Chinese Hydraulic Engineering Society	I Lu, Fang Nu Ping, Ching Hsui Ki, South Bank, Chungking.
Chinese Mechanical Engineering Society	71 North Gate Street, Kunming.
Chinese Chemical Engineering Society	Science Department, National Szechuen University, Omei, Szechuen.
Chinese Institute of Civil Engineers	National College of Agriculture and Engineering of Kwei- chow.
Yellow Sea Research Institute of Chemical Engineering	Wu Tung Chiao, Szechuen.
Chinese Architectural Society	Kunming.
Chinese Institute of Electrical Engineers	C/o Dr. Ku Yu-hsiu, Ministry of Education.
Society of Chinese Architects	—
Chinese Medical Association	National Health Administra- tion, Hsin Chiao, Chungking.
Chinese Medical Education Society	Chinese Medicine Hospital, Fu Tse Chih, Chungking.
Chinese and Foreign Medical Research Institute	—
Chinese Medicine Self-supporting Research Society	Ta Yang Kung Chiao, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chinese Society of Pharmacy	Hsin Chiao, Chungking.
Chinese Society of Philosophy	National Southwest Associated University, Kunming.
Chinese Classics Institute	National Fudan University, Peipei, Paksien, Szechuen.
Chinese Society of English	Chengtu.
Chinese Society of Land Administration	Hung Lu, Chungking.
Chinese Auditing Society	Bureau of Budget, Comp- troller-General's Office, National Government.

Provincial Technical Schools

Name	Location	President	Remarks
Chekiang Provincial School of Medicine and Pharmacy	Chekiang	Wang Chi	—
Kiangsi Provincial School of Industries	Kiangsi	Li Yu-hsiang	Formerly in Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial School of Veterinary Science	Taiho, Kiangsi	Shiao Shun-chin	Formerly in Klan, Kiangsi
Kiangsi Provincial School of Medicine	Kanchow, Kiangsi	Hsiung Chuan	Formerly in Nanchang
Shantung Provincial School of Medicine	Wanhsien, Szechuen	Yin Hsin-nung	Formerly in Tsinan
Shensi Provincial School of Medicine	Sian	Li Fu-ching	Formerly in Nancheng, Shensi
Kiangsu Provincial School of Sericulture	Chiating, Szechuen	Cheng Pi-kiang	Formerly in Shanghai
Fukien Provincial Normal School	Yungan, Fukien	Tang Shou-chien	Established in 1941
Hunan Provincial School of Agriculture	Nanyao, Hunan	Yang Pang-chieh	Established in 1941
Hunan Provincial School of Industries	Nanyao, Hunan	Chung Po-chien	Established in 1941
Hunan Provincial School of Commerce	Nanyao, Hunan	Yu Nan-chiu	Established in 1941
Szechuen Provincial School of Fine Arts	Chengt'u	Li Yu-hsin (Acting)	Established in 1941
Kiangsu and Anhwei Joint School of Technology	Sanyuan, Fukien	Hung Fan-wu	Established in 1941
Shensi Provincial School of Commerce	Sian	Lü Hsiang-chen	Established in 1941
Anhwei Provincial Normal School	Lihuang, Anhwei	Liu Nai-chin	Established in 1941

Private Technical Schools

Name	Location	President	Remarks
Wusih School of Chinese Classics	Kweilin	Feng Cheng (Acting)	Formerly in Wusih, Kiangsu
Wen-Hwa (Bonne) Library School	Chungking	Shen Chih-yung	Formerly in Wuchang
Wuchang School of Fine Arts	Kiangching, Szechuen	Tang I-ching	Formerly in Wuchang
Far East School of Physical Education	—	Chen Meng-yu	—

Shanghai School of Fine Arts	—	Hsieh Hai-yen (Acting)	—
Tsin Hwa School of Fine Arts	—	Hsu Lang-hsi	—
Tsin Hsin School of Accounting	Peipei, Pahsien	Pan Hsu-lun	Formerly in Shanghai
Soochow School of Fine Arts	—	Yen Wen-liang	Formerly in Soochow
Tsin-Hsien School of Agriculture and Industries	Kintang, Szechuen	Chia Lin-ping	Established in 1941
Northwestern School of Pharmacy	Sian	Hsueh Tao-wu	Established in 1941
Shanghai English School	—	Chin Wei-cheng	—
West China School of Commerce and Industries	Chungking	Hu Chung-shih	Established in 1941
Chiu Ching School of Commerce	Chungking	Yang Chung-hsi	Established in 1940

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Address</i>
Chinese Statistics Society	Bureau of Statistics, Comptroller-General's Office, National Government.
Chung Hwa Political Economics Society	Chung I Road, Chungking.
Chinese Political Science Society	Liang Lu Kou, Chungking.
Chinese Economics Society	—
Chinese Society of Law	—
Examination Administration Society of China	C/o Mr. Huang Wen-chi, Ministry of Education.
Administrative Problem Research Institute of China	30 Shih Nieh Street, Chengtu.
Chinese Cooperative Society	South Spring, Chungking.
Chinese Political Reconstruction Society	12 Szu Te Li, Chung I Road, Chungking.
Chinese Society of Sociology	Great China Univ., Kweiyang.
Chung Hwa Auditing Society	83 Liang Fu Chih Road, Chungking.
Chinese Rural Economics Research Institute	6 Lo Chia Wan, Chungking.
Chinese Social Education Society	Textile Experimental Centre, Szechuen.
Chung Hwa Vocational Education Society	56 Chang Chia Garden, Chungking.
Chung Hwa Child Education Society	Chungking Normal School, Peipei, Pahsien, Szechuen.
Chinese Society of Education for People's Livelihood	70 Chang Chia Garden, Chungking.
Chinese Research Society of Geographical Education	National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chinese Society of Tests and Measurements	National Central University, Shapingpa, Chungking.
Chinese Society of Health Education	Chien Kuo Book Stores, Peipei, Pahsien, Szechuen.
Society of Education for Life	Box 146, Kweilin.
Chinese Society of Mental Hygiene	National Futan University, Peipei, Pahsien, Szechuen.
Contemporary Education Research Society	Ministry of Education.
Chinese Physical Exercise Research Society	National Teacher's School of Physical Exercise, Peipei, Pahsien, Szechuen.
Chinese Deaf and Blind Society	—
Chinese Physical Education Society	Ministry of Education.

CHINESE DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE ABROAD

(May, 1943)

Arabia

	<i>Consulate</i>	
Jidda	Vice-Consul in charge ...	Wang Shih-ming

Australia

	<i>Legation</i>	
Canberra	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Hsu Mo
	<i>Consulate-General</i>	
Sydney	Concurrently Consul-General ...	Mao-lan Tuan
	<i>Offices</i>	
Melbourne	Vice-Consul	L. M. Wang
Perth	Vice-Consul	T'sao Wen-yen

Belgium

	<i>Embassy</i>	
London	Ambassador Plenipotentiary ...	Tsien Tai

Brazil

	<i>Legation</i>	
Rio de Janeiro	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Tan Shao-hua

British Empire

	<i>Embassy</i>	
London	Ambassador Plenipotentiary ...	V.K. Wellington Koo

New Delhi, India	...	<i>Special Commissioner's Office</i> Special Commissioner	...	Shen Shih-hua
<i>Consulates-General</i>				
London	...	Consul-General	...	Tan Pao-shen
Johannesburg, S. Africa	...	Consul-General	...	Chao-ying Shih
Caleutta, India	...	Consul-General	...	Chun-Jien Pao
Wellington, New Zealand	...	Consul-General	...	Wang Feng
<i>Consulates</i>				
Liverpool, England	...	Consul	...	D. Y. Dao
Bombay, India	...	Consul	...	Tsiang Chia-tung
Kingston, Jamaica	...	Consul	...	Huang Tse-kuang
Port of Spain, Trinidad	...	Consul	...	Chou Ting-chuan
<i>Vice-Consulates</i>				
Manchester, England	...	Vice-Consul	...	Yang Mien-huang
Suva, Fiji Island	...	Vice-Consul	...	Yo-shih Chen
Apia, Samoan Island	...	Student Consul in charge	...	Lam Chak-kwan
Canada				
Ottawa	...	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	...	Liu Shih-shun
Vancouver	...	<i>Consulate-General</i> Consul-General	...	Li Chao
Toronto	...	<i>Consulate</i> Consul	...	Kat-shau Fung
Chile				
Santiago	...	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	...	Chang Peng-ch'un
Colombia				
Bogota	...	<i>Legation</i> Minister to Cuba in charge	...	Li Ti-chun

Costa Rica

San Jose	...	<i>Legation</i> Concurrently Minister to Panama	...	Yuen-tan Tu
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Cuba

Havana	...	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	...	Li Ti-chun
Havana	...	<i>Consulate-General</i> Consul-General	...	Peiwei S. S. Lui

Czechoslovakia

London	...	<i>Legation</i> Ambassador to Holland in charge	...	Wunsz King
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Egypt

Cairo	...	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	...	Hsu Nien-tseng
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France

Hanoi, Indo-China	...	<i>Consulate</i> Vice-Consul in charge	...	William E. Chu
Tahiti, Society Islands	...	<i>Office</i> Commissioner	...	Yao Ting-cheng

GENERAL APPENDIX

Guatemala

Guatemala City ...	Consulate-General Consul-General ...	Tchou Che-tsien
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Holy See

Vatican ...	Legation Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Chéou-kang Sié
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Honduras

Tegucigalpa ...	Legation Concurrently Minister to Panama	Yuen-tan Tu
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Iran

Teheren ...	Legation Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Li Tieh-tseng
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Mexico

Mexico City ...	Legation Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Ching Tien-ku
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Tampico ...	Consulate Consul ...	Jonyor Liao Sung- yang
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Vice-Consulates

Mexicali ...	Vice-Consul ...	D. C. Waun
Mazatlan ...	Vice-Consul ...	L. M. Shen Ming
Tapachula ...	Vice-Consul ...	—

GENERAL APPENDIX

Netherlands

London ...	Embassy Ambassador ...	Wunsz King
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Willemstad, Cauraco ...	Consulate Consul ...	Shih Chao-pai
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Nicaragua

Managua ...	Consulate-General Consul-General ...	Z. T. Ing
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Panama

Panama City ...	Legation Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Yuen-tan Tu
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Peru

Lima ...	Legation Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Li Tehuin
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Poland

London ...	Embassy Ambassador to Netherlands in charge	Wunsz King
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Portugal

Lisbon ...	Legation Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Henry K. Chang
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Lisbon ...	Consulate-General Concurrently Consul-General...	Yang Hsien-tseng
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GENERAL APPENDIX

Sweden

<i>Legation</i>		
Stockholm	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Hsieh Wei-jin

Switzerland

<i>Legation</i>		
Berne	First Secretary in charge	Jen Chi-hsin

Turkey

<i>Legation</i>		
Ankara	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Tsou Shang-yu

Venezuela

<i>Legation</i>		
Caracas	Minister to Cuba in charge	Li Ti-chun

U.S.S.R.

<i>Embassy</i>		
Moscow	Ambassador Plenipotentiary...	P. S. Foo
<i>Consulates-General</i>		
Vladivostok	Consul-General	Chang Ta-tien
Blagovestchensk	Vice-Consul in charge	Li Shih-kuei
Khabarovsk	Consul-General	Han Yung-chen
Tashkent	Consul-General	Feng Tsu-wen
Novo-Sibirsk	Consul in charge	Hsu Teh-kwang
<i>Consulates</i>		
Chita	Consul	Chang Shen
Alamatu	Vice-Consul in charge	Chao Teng-ch'eng
Andijan	Student-Consul in charge	Chang Chia-hsiu
Zaizan	Student-Consul in charge	Li Fen-ch'un
Semipalatinsk	Vice-Consul in charge	Li Han-fen

GENERAL APPENDIX

United States of America

<i>Embassy</i>		
Washington, D. C.	Ambassador Plenipotentiary...	Wei Tao-ming
<i>Consulates-General</i>		
San Francisco	Consul-General	Feng Chih-cheng
New York	Consul-General	Yu Tsun-chi
Chicago	Consul-General	Chen Chang-lok
Honolulu	Consul-General	Mui King-chou
<i>Consulates</i>		
Seattle	Consul	Yi-seng Kiang
Portland	Consul	Silwing P. C. Au
Los Angeles	Consul	Tse-chang K. Chang
<i>Vice-Consulates</i>		
New Orleans	Vice-Consul	Wang Gung-hsing
Houston	Vice-Consul	Ouang Tsin-lan

FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE IN CHINA

(May, 1943)

A. FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

AMBASSADORS

Country	Name	Date of Assumption of Office
Belgium ...	H.E. Baron Jules Guillaume ...	Sept. 6, 1937
France ...	H.E. Mr. Henry Cosme ...	Mar. 10, 1939
U.S.S.R. ...	H.E. Mr. A. S. Paniushkin ...	Sept. 4, 1939
U.S.A. ...	H.E. Mr. Clarence E. Gauss ...	May 22, 1941
Great Britain ...	H.E. Sir Horace James Seymour ...	Mar. 7, 1942
Poland ...	H.E. Count Alfred Poninski ...	Mar. 5, 1943
Netherlands ...	H.E. Mr. A. H. J. Lovink ...	April 23, 1943

ENVOYS EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTERS Plenipotentiary

Country	Name	Date of Assumption of Office
Brazil ...	H.E. Mr. Renato de Lacerda Lago (Absent) ...	Feb. 21, 1936
Portugal ...	H.E. Dr. Joao Maria da Silva de Lebre e Lima (Absent) ...	Oct. 14, 1937
Australia ...	H.E. Sir Frederic William Eggleston ...	Oct. 28, 1941
Czechoslovakia ...	H.E. Mr. Stanislav Minovsky ...	April 15, 1942
Norway ...	H.E. Mr. Alf Hassel ...	Dec. 23, 1942
Canada ...	H.E. Major-General Victor Odium ...	May 1943

AGENT-GENERAL

Country	Name	Date of Assumption of Office
India ...	Mr. Kumar Padma Sivesankara Menon ...	Nommé

CHARGES D'AFFAIRES

Country	Name	Date of Assumption of Office
Switzerland ...	Mr. Emile Fontanel (Absent) ...	May 16, 1938
Chile ...	Dr. Juan Marin (Absent) ...	Sept. 27, 1939
Turkey ...	Mr. A. Mennan Tebelen ...	Mar. 19, 1942
Mexico ...	Mr. Alfonso Castro Valle ...	Mar. 31, 1943

CHARGES D'AFFAIRES AD INTERIM

Country	Name
Sweden ...	Mr. Malte Pripp (Absent)
India ...	Mr. H. E. Richardson, I.C.S. First Secretary, and Charge d'Affaires of the Office of the Agent-General for India
U.S.A. ...	Mr. J. C. Vincent

Australia

Names	Ranks	Dames
H.E. Sir Frederic William Eggleston	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	—
Mr. Keith Waller ...	Second Secretary ...	Mrs. Waller
Mr. Charles Lee ...	Third Secretary ...	—

Belgium

H.E. Baron Jules Guillaume ...	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Baroness Guillaume (Absent)
Mr. Jacques Smets ...	Second Secretary ...	—
Mr. Joseph Pieters ...	Secretary ...	Mrs. Pieters (Absent)

Brazil

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
H.E. Mr. Renato de Lacerda Lago (Absent)	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Mrs. Lago (Absent)
Mr. Manuel Bento Casado ... (Absent)	Second Secretary	—

Canada

H.E. Maj.-Gen. Victor Odlum...	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	—
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Chile

Dr. Juan Marin	Charge d'Affaires (Absent)	Mrs. Marin (Absent)
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Czechoslovakia

H.E. Mr. Stanislav Minovsky	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	—
Mr. Emanuel Mazac	Secretary	—

France

H.E. Henry Cosme (Absent)	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mrs. Cosme (Absent)
Mr. Jean Paul-Boncour ...	First Counsellor	—
Mr. A. Beaulieux	Consul and Secretary for Chinese Affairs	Mrs. Beaulieux
Mr. Armand Gandon	Commercial Attaché ...	—
Capt. J. Guillerma	Assistant Military Attaché	Mrs. Guillerma

Great Britain

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
H.E. Sir Horace James Seymour K.C.M.G., C.V.O.	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Lady Seymour
Sir Eric Teichman, K.C.M.G., C.I.E.	Counsellor	Lady Teichman (Absent)
Maj.-Gen. Gordon E. Grimsdale	Military Attaché	Mrs. Grimsdale (Absent)
Air Commodore J. Warburton	Air Attache, R.A.F. ...	—
Mr. E. L. Hall Patch, C.M.G. (Absent)	Financial Commissioner	—
Mr. W. C. Cassels, M.C. ...	Financial Commissioner, A.I.	Mrs. Cassels (Absent)
Mr. B. E. F. Gage	First Secretary	Mrs. Gage (Absent)
Mr. G. V. Kitson	Chinese Secretary	Mrs. Kitson (Absent)
Mr. G. Findlay Andrew, O.B.E.	First Secretary	Mrs. Andrew (Absent)
Mr. W. G. Harmon	First Secretary	—
Mr. W. V. Blewett	First Secretary (Economic Affairs)	—
Mr. H. E. Watterson	Expert of Telecommunications	—
Mr. Stanley Smith	Representative of the Ministry of Information, Britain	—
Mr. Enoch Williams	Consul (Accountant) ...	Mrs. Williams (Absent)
Mr. Erik Watts	Press Attaché	—
Mr. Basil Boothby	Second Secretary	—
Major E. J. Cowell	Asst. Military Attaché	Mrs. Cowell (Absent)
Wing Com. Max Oxford	Asst. Air Attaché	—
Mr. J. F. Ford	Asst. Chinese Secretary	Mrs. Ford (Absent)
Mr. L. C. Smith	Asst. Press Attaché	—
Mr. Alfred Earl Read	Asst. Press Attaché	—
Mr. John Blofeld	Attaché (Cultural Affairs)	—
Mr. P. C. M. Sedgwick	Attaché (Relief Affairs) ...	—
Major J. H. Monro, M.C. ...	Attaché	—
Major A. M. V. St. Giles	Attaché	—

GENERAL APPENDIX

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
Mr. A. Veitch	Archivist	Mrs. Veitch (Absent)
Mr. N. G. Standen	Attaché	—
Capt. G. R. Dew	Attaché	Mrs. Dew (Absent)
Captain C. R. G. Hardinge	Attaché	Mrs. Hardinge (Absent)
Capt. Alan A. Grant	Attaché	—
Capt. Ian M. Lightbody	Attaché	—
Capt. H. R. Finlow	Attaché	—

India

Mr. Kumar Padma Sivesankara Menon	Agent-General for India (Nomme)	—
Mr. H. E. Richardson, I.C.S.	First Secretary and Chargé d'Affaires of the Office of the Agent-General for India	—

Mexico

Mr. Alfonso Castro Valle	Charge d'Affaires (Nomme)	—
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Netherlands

H.E. Mr. A. H. J. Lovink	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	—
Count F. R. W. H. M. J. de Marchant et d'Ansembourg	Counsellor...	Countess F. de Marchant et d'Ansembourg (Absent)
Mr. Jan van den Berg	Counsellor...	Mrs. van den Berg (Absent)
Mr. R. H. van Gulic	Secretary ...	—
Capt. P. F. J. Everard	Asst. Military Attaché ...	Mrs. Everard (Absent)

GENERAL APPENDIX

Norway

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
H.E. Alf Hassel...	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Mrs. Hassel
Mr. T. A. Rustad	Commercial Secretary	—

Poland

H.E. Count Alfred Poninski	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Countess Poninski
Mr. Antoni Hubert Kokezynski	Attaché	—
Mr. Mieczyslaw Habicht	Attaché	—

Portugal

H.E. Dr. Joao Maria da Silva de Lebre e Lima (Absent)	Envoy Extraordinary and Ministry Plenipotentiary	Mrs. de Lebre e Lima (Absent)
Dr. C. de Liz Braneuinho (Absent)	Secretary	Mrs. de Liz Braneuinho (Absent)
Mr. Jose A. Ribeiro de Melo	Commercial Counsellor	—
Dr. Jose Francisco Teixeira	Commercial Attaché	—
Mr. J. Fausto das Chagas (Absent)	Secretary-Interpreter	Mrs. J. F. das Chagas (Absent)
Mr. Mario R. das Chagas (Absent)	Vice-Consul and Attaché	Mrs. M. R. das Chagas (Absent)

Sweden

Mr. Malte Pripp (Absent)	Secretary and Charge d'Affaires A.I.	—
Mr. Gustaf Lundh (Absent)	Chancellor and Vice-Consul	Mrs. Lundh (Absent)

Switzerland

Mr. Emile Fontanel (Absent)	Chargé d'Affaires...	—
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Turkey

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
Mr. A. Mennan Tobelen ...	Chargé d'Affaires...	—
Mr. Osman Derinsu ...	Secretary ...	—

U.S.S.R.

H.E. Mr. A. S. Paniushkin ...	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mrs. Paniushkin
Mr. G. F. Rezanov ...	First Counsellor ...	Mrs. Rezanov
Mr. T. F. Skvortsoff ...	Counsellor...	Mrs. Skvortsoff
Mr. I. V. Bakulin ...	Commercial Representative	Mrs. Bakulin
Mr. N. S. Ananiev ...	First Secretary ...	Mrs. Ananiev
Mr. A. A. Petrov ...	First Secretary ...	Mrs. Petrov
Colonel N. V. Roschin ...	Asst. Military Attaché ...	Mrs. Roschin (Absent)
Colonel A. F. Bedniakov ...	Asst. Military Attaché ...	Mrs. Bedniakov (Absent)
Mr. L. M. Miklashevsky ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Miklashevsky
Mr. E. F. Kovaleff ...	Second Secretary...	—
Mr. N. T. Fedorenko ...	Third Secretary ...	—
Mr. E. I. Shalunov ...	Chinese Secretary ...	—
Mr. A. M. Dorofeev ...	Attaché ...	Mrs. Dorofeev
Mr. N. I. Ugolkoff ...	Attaché ...	Mrs. Ugolkoff
Mr. A. M. Ledovsky ...	Attaché ...	Mrs. Ledovsky

United States of America

H.E. Mr. Clarence E. Gauss ...	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mrs. Gauss (Absent)
Mr. John Carter Vincent ...	Counsellor...	Mrs. Vincent (Absent)
Mr. George Atcheson, Jr. ...	Counsellor (Nomme) ...	Mrs. Atcheson (Absent)
Col. Morris B. de Pass, Jr. ...	Military Attaché and Attaché of the Army Air Force	Mrs. De Pass (Absent)

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
Lt.-Col. Charles C. Brown, U.S. M.C.	Naval Attaché and Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mrs. Brown (Absent)
Mr. J. Bartlett Richards ...	Commercial Attaché ...	Mrs. Richards (Absent)
Mr. Robert B. Streeper ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Streeper (Absent)
Mr. O. Edmund Clubb ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Clubb (Absent)
Mr. Robert S. Ward ...	Second Secretary... (Nommé)	—
Mr. Horace H. Smith ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Smith (Absent)
Mr. Everett F. Drumright ...	Second Secretary...	—
Mr. James K. Penfield ...	Second Secretary... (Nommé)	—
Mr. John Davies, Jr. ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Davies (Absent)
Mr. Raymond P. Ludden ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Ludden (Absent)
Mr. Carl H. Boehringer ...	Asst. Commercial Attaché	Mrs. Boehringer (Absent)
Lt.-Com. Frank H. Herington .	Asst. Naval Attaché ...	Mrs. Herington (Absent)
Lieut. Henry B. Walker ...	Asst. Military Attaché ...	—
Lieut. Lincoln C. Brownell ...	Asst. Military Attaché of the Army Air Force	Mrs. Brownell (Absent)
Lieut. Roy P. McNair, Jr. ...	Asst. Military Attaché ...	Mrs. McNair (Absent)
Lieut. Simon H. Hitch...	Asst. Naval Attaché, and Asst. Attaché of the Naval Air Force	—
Lieut. Franklin R. Fette ...	Asst. Naval Attaché, and Asst. Attaché of the Naval Air Force	—
Mr. John S. Service ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Service (Absent)
Mr. Edward R. Rice ...	Second Secretary...	Mrs. Rice (Absent)

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
Mr. Philip D. Sprouse ...	Third Secretary ...	—
Mr. Richard H. Davis ...	Third Secretary ...	—
Mr. Fulton Freeman ...	Third Secretary ...	—
Mr. Hungerford B. Howard ...	Third Secretary ...	—
Mr. M. Roberth Rutherford ...	Third Secretary ...	—

B. FOREIGN CONSULAR SERVICE IN CHINA

France

Chungking ...	Consulate ...	Consul R. Tulasne
Kunming ...	Consulate ...	Consul J. Royere
Lunghow ...	Consulate ...	Consul Jean Kraemer

Great Britain

Chungking ...	Consulate-General ...	Consul-General R. A. Hall
Kweilin ...	Consulate-General ...	Consul-General G. E. Stockley
Yungan, Fukien ...	Consulate ...	Consul Tribe
Chengtu ...	Office ...	Consul G. R. Turrel
Kunming ...	Consulate-General ...	Consul-General A. G. N. Ogden
Suleh, Sinkiang ...	Consulate-General ...	Consul-General M. C. Gillett

Netherlands

Kunming ...	Consulate ...	Consul J. J. Wierink
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United States

Kunming ...	Consulate-General ...	Consul-General R. P. Ludden
Lanchow ...	Office ...	Secretary O. E. Clubb
Chengtu ...	Office ...	Secretary E. F. Drumright
Tihua ...	Provisional Consulate ...	Secretary O. E. Clubb

FOREIGN NATIONAL HOLIDAYS

AUSTRALIA	
National Holiday ...	26th January
POLAND	
Promulgation of Constitution ...	3rd May
NORWAY	
Promulgation of Constitution ...	17th May
CUBA	
Anniversary of Independence ...	20th May
GREAT BRITAIN	
Birthday of His Majesty the King George VI ...	9th June
SWEDEN	
Birthday of His Majesty the King Gustave V ...	16th June
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA ...	
Declaration of Independence ...	4th July
FRANCE	
Anniversary of the Capture of Bastille Prison ...	14th July
PERU	
Declaration of Independence ...	28th July
SWITZERLAND	
Founding of the Confederation ...	1st August
NETHERLANDS	
Birthday of Her Majesty the Queen Wilhelmine ...	31st August
BRAZIL	
Anniversary of Independence ...	7th September
MEXICO	
Declaration of Independence ...	16th September
CHILE	
Declaration of Independence ...	18th September
PORTUGAL	
Proclamation of the Republic ...	5th October
CZECHOSLOVAKIA	
Declaration of Independence ...	28th October
TURKEY	
Proclamation of the Republic ...	29th October
U. S. S. R.	
Anniversary of Revolution ...	7th November
BELGIUM	
Patronal Festival of His Majesty the King Leopold III ...	15th November

DIRECTIONS REGARDING APPLICATION FOR PASSPORTS

(Revised in December 1942)

1. In applying for passport, the applicant should obtain from the Passport Section of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs an application form and fill out all its blanks. The certificate form appended thereto should be filled out by a guarantee, preferably the manager of a firm or a shopkeeper at Chungking. Three photos, with the applicant's signatures on, should be attached to the form, which will be submitted to the Minister of Foreign Affairs for approval prior to the issue of passport.

2. Certificates should be obtained from the Ministry of Education, in the case of students applying for going abroad to study, before taking up the procedure as mentioned in item 1.

3. In the case of government officials and their families, official documents from the organizations concerned giving particulars of their ranks, reasons for going abroad, etc. should be appended to the application forms.

4. Students or faculty members of schools or colleges should obtain from their principals or presidents certificates to be attached to the application forms.

5. Medical doctors, pharmacists or nurses should obtain from the National Health Administration certificates to be attached to the application forms.

6. Merchants going abroad to pur-

chase commodities should note the following:

(a) Certificates or supporting documents should be obtained from government offices concerned, such as the Ministry of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, National Health Administration, etc., depending on the nature of commodities to be purchased. In the said certificates or supporting documents the following particulars should be included:

- (1) Name and address of the purchaser.
- (2) Name of the applicant for passport.
- (3) Kind, amount and use of the commodities.

(b) Laws, rules and regulations of the countries concerned should be observed by the overseas Chinese merchants, and export licenses should be obtained therefrom for the exportation of commodities. The Chinese consulates will not be responsible for any smuggled goods confiscated by foreign customs authorities.

(c) The applicants should have reliable addresses in the countries which they intend to go.

(d) As the export of many kinds of commodities is not allowed by many countries during wartime,

merchants are advised not to violate any laws or rules of the countries where they intend to make their purchases.

7. After the issue of passports by this Ministry, the bearers should secure their visés from the consulates or embassies of the countries they intend to enter, the location of the consulates and embassies of some principal countries at Chungking being as follows:

Great Britain: British Consulate-General, Chungking.

U.S.A.: No American consulate at Chungking; visés to be secured from American Consulate-General, Kunming.

France: French Consulate, Chungking.

Soviet Russia: Russian Embassy, Chungking.

8. Destinations not stated in old passports which are still valid may be filled in and approved by this Ministry and viséd by the respective consulates upon request. In the case of government officials and their families, students, pharmacists or merchants applying for the renewal of their passports, items 3, 4, 5 and 6 shall be observed.

9. With regard to the renewing of old passports, application forms and supporting documents are required of the applicants, unless the said passports were previously issued by this Section.

10. Bearers of passports should sign their names on them prior to securing visés from foreign consulates.

11. Beginning from January 1, 1943, applicants for passports should present their "citizen's identification" or other supporting documents for examination.

12. Passports for India are issued by this Ministry, the passport office at Kunming being ordered to stop issuing same for the present.

13. Returned overseas Chinese intending to proceed to India on business or in transit should first obtain certificates from the Kuomintang Overseas Department or from the Overseas Affairs Commission.

14. Government officials applying for official passports should present their certificates of graduation from the Central Training Headquarters.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE STANDARD AND THE MARKET SYSTEMS

Classification	Names in Standard System Rendered into English	Original Names in French	Equivalents in Market System
Length	kung lee kung fen kung tsun kung chih kung chang kung yin kung li	millimeter centimeter decimeter meter decameter hectometer kilometer	3 shih lee 3 shih fen 3 shih tsun 3 shih chih 3 shih chang 3 shih yin 2 shih li
Area	kung lee kung mow kung ching	centiare are hectare	0.15 shih lee 0.15 shih mow 0.15 shih ching
Capacity	kung tao kung cho kung ho kung sheng kung tou kung tan kung ping	milliliter centiliter deciliter liter decaliter hectoliter kiloliter	1 shih tao 1 shih cho 1 shih ho 1 shih sheng 1 shih tou 1 shih tan
Mass or Weights	kung sze kung hao kung lee kung fen kung chien kung liang kung ching kung heng kung tan kung ton	milligram centigram decigram gram decigram hectogram kilogram myriagram quintal tonneau	3.2 shih sze 3.2 shih hao 3.2 shih lee 3.2 shih fen 3.2 shih chien 3.2 shih liang 2 shih ching 2 shih tan

CONVERSION BETWEEN THE MARKET AND THE FOOT-POUND SYSTEMS

Classification	Names in Market System Rendered into English	Relative Value	Conversion into Foot-Pound System
Length	shih hao shih lee shih fen shih tsun shih chih shih chang shih yin shih li	10 hao 10 lee 10 fen 10 tsun 10 chih 10 chang 10 yin or 1,500 chih	0.0013 inch 0.0131 " 0.1312 " 1.3123 " 1.0936 feet 10.9361 " 109.3614 " 0.3107 mile

Area	shih hao shih lee shih fen shih mow shih ching	10 hao 10 lee 10 fen 100 mow	7.1759 sq. ft. 71.7591 " 0.0165 acre 0.1647 " 16.4736 acres
Capacity	shih tao shih cho shih ho shih sheng shih tou shih tan	10 tao 10 cho 10 ho 10 sheng 10 tou	16.232 minims 0.02113 pint 0.2113 " 0.2642 gallon 2.6418 gallons 26.4178 "
Mass or Weights	shih sze shih hao shih lee shih fen shih chien shih liang shih ching shih tan	10 sze 10 hao 10 lee 10 fen 10 chien 16 liang 100 ching	0.0048 grain 0.0482 " 0.4823 " 4.8226 grains 0.1102 ounce 1.1023 ounces

MARKET SYSTEM TO OLD, STANDARD AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS

Classification	Market System	Standard System	Old System	English System
Length	1 shih chih	$\frac{1}{3}$ meter	1.0417 builder's chih or 0.9375 tailor's chih	1.0936 feet or 0.3645 yard
	1 shih li (1,500 shih chih)	kilometer	0.8681 old li	0.3107 mile
Capacity	1 shih sheng	1 liter	0.9657 old sheng or 0.9302 sheng of Tsao-hu	0.22 gallon or 0.2642 (American gallon)
Weight	1 shih ching	$\frac{1}{3}$ kilogram	0.9472 Hui-kuan chen or 0.8525 Tsao-ping or 0.8119 Sze-ma chen of S'hai or 0.8378 Ku-ping or 0.8267 chen of Halkwan	1.1023 pound avoirdupois
	2,000 shih ching	1 tonne		0.9842 long ton or 1.1023 short tons
Area	1 shih mow (6,000 square shih chih)	6.6667 or 20/3 are	1.0851 old mow	0.1644 acre

INDEX

GENERAL APPENDIX

GENERAL APPENDIX

8

OLD SYSTEM TO NEW SYSTEM AND ENGLISH SYSTEM

Classification	Old System	Standard System	Market System	English System
Length	1 builder's chih	3.3200 m.	0.9600 shih chih	1.0400 feet
	1 S'hai tailor's chih	0.3556 "	1.0667 "	1.1665 "
	1 old li=1,800 builder's chih	0.5760 km.	1.1520 shih li	0.3570 mile
Capacity	1 old sheng	1.03551 liter	1.0455 shih sheng	0.2278 gallon
	1 sheng of Tsao-hu	1.07500 "	1.0750 shih sheng	0.2365 "
Weight	1 ching of Hui-kuan chen	0.5270 kg.	1.0557 shih ching	1.1037 pound
	1 ching of Tsao-ping	0.5865 "	1.1730 "	1.2030 "
	1 ching of Ku-ping	0.5968 "	1.1936 "	1.3158 "
	1 ching of Hui-kuan	0.6048 "	1.2096 "	1.3333 "
	1 ching of Sze-ma-chen of S'hai	0.6158 "	1.2317 "	1.3577 "
Area	1 old mow=6,000 sq. old chih	6.114 are	0.9216 shih mow	0.1518 acre

ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES TO CHINESE NEW SYSTEM

Classification	English System	Chinese New System	
		Standard (Meter)	Market
Linear Measure	Inch=12 lines	25.4 mm.	0.762 shih tau
	Foot=12 inches	0.3048 m.	0.9144 shih chih
	Yard=3 feet	0.9144 "	2.7432 "
	Fathom=2 yards	1.8288 "	5.4096 "
	Rod=5 1/2 yards	5.0292 "	15.0876 "
	Chain=4 rods or 22 yds.	20.1168 "	60.3509 "
	Furlong=40 rods or 220 yards	201.1678 "	609.5034 "
	Mile=8 furlongs	1.6093 km.	3.2187 shih li
Measure of Surface	Sq. inch	6.4516 sq. cm.	0.5806 sq. shih tau
	Sq. foot	0.0929 sq. m.	0.8361 sq. shih chih
	Sq. yard=9 sq. feet	0.8361 "	7.5251 "
	Sq. rod=30 1/2 sq. yds.	25.2930 "	227.6370 "

Measure of Surface	Rood=40 sq. rods Acre=4 roods Sq. mile=640 acres	10.117 are 0.4047 hectare 259.0000 "	1.5175 shih mow 6.0702 " 23.8500 shih ching
--------------------	--	--	---

Measure of Capacity—Dry and Fluid	Gill Pint=4 gills Quart=2 pints Gallon=4 quarts Peck=2 gallons Bushel=4 pecks Quarter=8 bushels Load=5 quarters	1.42081 deciliter 0.568245 liter 1.136500 " 4.546000 " 9.091900 " 3.6368 decaliter 2.900416 hectoliter 14.547080 "	1.4206 shih ho 0.5682 shih sheng 1.1365 " 4.5460 " 9.0919 " 3.6368 shih tou 2.9004 shih tan 14.5470 "
-----------------------------------	--	---	--

Measure of Weights	Avoirdupois	Grain Drachm Ounce=16 dr. or 437.5 grains Pound=16 oz. or 7,000 grains Stone=14 lbs. Quarter=28 lbs. Hundredweight=4 qr. or 112 lbs. (cwt.) Ton (long)	0.0648 g. 1.7718 " 28.3495 " 0.4536 kg. 0.3503 " 12.7006 " 50.8024 " 1.016 t.	0.2074 shih fen 5.8701 " 9.0718 " 0.9072 shih ching 12.7006 " 25.4012 " 101.6047 " 2,032.0941 "
	Troy	Grain Pennyweight=24 grains Ounce=24 pennyweights Pound=12 oz.	0.0648 g. 1.5552 " 31.1035 " 0.3732 kg.	0.2074 shih fen 4.9766 " 0.9953 shih liang 0.7485 "
	Apothecaries' Dry	Grain Scruple=20 grains Drachm=3 scruples Ounce=8 drachms Pound=12 oz.	0.0648 g. 1.2960 " 3.8879 " 31.1035 " 0.3732 kg.	0.2074 shih fen 4.1471 " 1.2441 shih chieh 0.9953 shih liang 0.7485 shih ching
	Apothecaries' Fluid	Minim Drachm=60 minims Ounce=8 drachms Pint=20 oz. Gallon=8 pints	0.0592 milliliter 3.5515 " 2.8412 centiliter 0.5682 liter 4.5460 "	0.0592 shih tao 3.5515 " 2.8412 shih cho 0.5682 shih sheng 4.5460 "



INDEX

- ACADEMIA SINICA**, 23, 656
 Astronomy, Institute of, 661
 Chemistry, Institute of, 662
 Engineering, Institute of, 662
 Frontier Regions Investigation Parties, 239
 Geology, Institute of, 659
 History and Philology, Institute of, 656
 Meteorology, Institute of, 658
 Physics, Institute of, 660
 Psychology, Institute of, 661
 Research Council, National, 663
 Social Sciences, Institutes of, 657
 Zoology and Botany, Institute of, 658
- ADMINISTRATIVE COURT**, 181, 787, 807
- AGRICULTURE**, 505-514
 Administrative Machinery, 505
 Agricultural Policy, 505
 Agricultural Research Bureau, National, 505
 Agricultural Unions, 610
 Cotton, 508
 Development Plan, 308
 Farm Irrigation Projects, 435
 Food Crops, Enlargement of Acreage for Production of, 512
 Food Increment, 554
 Food Production,
 —Extension of Acreage, 513
 —Increase of, 512, 553
 —Improved Methods, 514
 —Productivity Increase per Unit Area, 513
 Food Productivity, 554, 555
 Improvements, 509
 Instruments and Equipments, 508
 Land Law, 304
 Production, 547
 —Improvement in, 507
 Production and Marketing of Agricultural Exports, Promotion Commission for, 463
 Reclamation Organs, Achievements of, 511
 Reclamation work, 510
 Rice Crops, 508
 Rural Economy, 512
 Rural Finance, 426-438
 Silk Research Institute, 464
 Soil and Fertilizers, 508
 Tea Research Institute, 464
 Wool Production, 510
- AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY, Ministry of,**
 Organization, 506, 766, 799
 Subordinate Organs, 506, 766, 799
- AIR ACTIVITIES, Enemy,** 148
- AIR FORCE, Enemy,**
 Distribution of, 146, 154
 Planes Shot Down or Destroyed, 154
- AIR LINES**, 603, *see* Aviation
- AIR RAID, Enemy,**
 Casualties and Damages, 146-147, 153
 In Various Provinces, 152
 Newspaper, Bombing of, 665
- AIR RAID RELIEF**, 741, *see* Relief Work
 Chungking, 736
- AIR-RAID RELIEF SQUADS**, 741
- AIR RAID SERVICE CORPS**, Chungking, 610
- AIR STATIONS,**
 Burma, 602
 Dibrugarh, 602
 Myitkyina, 602
- AIR STRATEGY AND TACTICS, Enemy,** 145
 Camouflage Bombing, 145
 Destroying Communications, 145
 Exhaustion Bombing, 145

Gas Attack, 145
 Guerrilla Tactics, 145
 Machine-Gunning Airfields, 145
 Psychological Offensive, 145
 AIR TRANSPORTATION, *see* Aviation,
 Commercial
 AIR TRANSPORTATION, Enemy, 146
 AMOY,
 Population, 41
 Rainfall, 37
 Temperature, 33
 ANHWEI,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Farm Loans, 429
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 41
 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY, 509, 510
 Mongolia, 231
 Veterinary Disease Preventive Cen-
 tre, Northwest, 510
 Animal Husbandry Experimental
 Bureau, National, 510
 ASSOCIATIONS, 832-834, *see also* Cul-
 tural Associations and Educational
 Associations
 Buddhist Association, China, 62, 63
 Buddhist National Salvation Asso-
 ciation, 64
 Catholic Cultural Association,
 Chinese, 72
 Child Welfare Association, National,
 728
 Christian Council of Medical Mis-
 sions, 83
 Christian Council, National, 78, 79,
 80
 Christian Educational Association,
 China, 85
 Christian Literature Society, 86
 Confucian Association, National, 59
 Federal Council of Churches of Christ
 in America, 78
 Forestry Association, Chinese, 517
 Friends of the Wounded Society, 79
 Frontier Problems Research Institu-
 tion, 239

Frontier Study, Chinese Association
 of, 240
 Gliders' Association, 648
 Islamic Culture, Association for the
 Promotion of, 239
 Islamic Educational Association,
 Chinese, 68
 Islamic National Salvation Federa-
 tion, Chinese, 68
 Medical Association, Chinese, 705
 Muslim Mutual Progress Association,
 68
 National Student Relief Emergency
 Executive Committee, 81
 People's Foreign Relations Associa-
 tion of China, 608
 Press Association, National, 684
 Refuge Children, National Wartime
 Association for the Care and Edu-
 cation of, 728
 Refugee Children, National Wartime
 Association for the Relief of, 728
 Sino-American Cultural Association,
 608
 Sino-British Cultural Association,
 608
 Sino-Soviet Cultural Association,
 608, 751
 Troop Comforting Association, All-
 China, 611
 World Student Christian Association,
 81
 Y.M.C.A., 80, 90-93
 Y.W.C.A., 80, 94-97
 ASTRONOMY, 13
 Astronomical Phenomena for 1943,
 16
 Eclipse, Observations of, 13
 Eclipses for 1943, 15
 Institute of, 661
 Moon, Phases of, 15
 Solar Eclipse, 13
 Solar Terms, 14
 Sunrise and Sunset, Times of, 21
 ATLANTIC CHARTER, 265
 Eight-Point Program, 241
 AUSTRALIA, *see* Foreign Relations

AVIATION,
 Air Lines, 603
 Aviation, Commercial, 601
 Equipment, 603
 General Development, 601
 Personnel, Training of, 603
 VIATION CORPORATION, China
 National, 601
 Operations, 602
 VIATION CORPORATION, Eurasia, 601
 Operations, 602
 BANKING AND CURRENCY, 384
 Bank of China, Principal Business,
 422
 Bank of Communications, Principal
 Business, 423
 Banking Business, Control of, 421
 Banking Business, Specialization of,
 421
 Banking Institutions, Southwest and
 Northwest, 417
 Banking Units,
 —Mongolia, 231
 Banks, Distribution of, 416
 Banks, Regulations Governing War-
 time Control of, 457
 Central Reserve Bank, 385
 Central Trust of China, 407
 —Activities, 407
 —Deposits, 407
 —Insurance Business, 408
 —Insurance Business, Development
 of, 409
 —Insurance Business, Life, 409
 —Loan Operation, 407
 —Savings Bonds, Handling of, 408
 Central Bank of China, 421
 —Clearing Bank of Other Banks, 426
 —Clearing Operation, 424
 —Principal Business, 422
 Clearing Operation, 423
 —Banks Participating, 425
 Cooperative Banks, Establishment
 of, 437
 Domestic Remittances and Foreign

Exchange Operations, 394
 "Eight-Point Financial Program,"
 386
 Exchange Control Commission, 467
 Farm Loans, 426-438
 —Extension of, 395
 Farmers Bank of China,
 —Land Finance Department, 426,
 453
 —Principal Business, 423
 —Revised Laws of, 450
 Financial Network in Southwest and
 Northwest, 411
 —Two-Year Plan, 413
 Financial Stability, National, Regu-
 lations Governing, 444
 Foreign Banks in China, 302
 Foreign Exchange, Control of, 467
 Four Government Banks, 445
 —Branch Banks, 414
 —Division of Business, 422
 Gold and Silver, Collection and Ex-
 change of, 393
 Government Banks, National Trea-
 sury Activities, 332
 Hsien Bank Law, 454
 Hsien Banks, 400
 —Enumeration of, 402
 —Establishment of, 403
 Joint Administration Office of Four
 Government Banks, 386
 —Dilapidated Notes, Exchange of,
 400
 —Farm Loan Operations, 427
 —Functions, 386, 387
 —Loan Payment, Postponement of,
 392
 —Loans, Classifications of, 390
 —Loans, Extension of, 390
 —Loans, Redemption of, 392
 —Operations, 388
 —Organization, 386, 445
 —Revised Organic Law of, 447
 Loans and Discounts Operation, 388
 Managed Currency, 385
 Native Banks, 410
 —Registered, 412

Note Issue,
 —Centralization of, 422
 —Right of, 421
 Private Banks, 403
 Provincial Banks, 395, 396
 —Deposits, 398-399
 —Government Bank Notes Applied for Circulation, 397
 —Issue of Subsidiary Notes, 395
 —Loans, Extension by, 398-399
 —Negotiable Securities, Investments in, 400
 —Reserve Funds, Payment of, 401
 —Reserves, 397
 Postal Remittance, 597
 Postal Savings, 596
 Private Banks, Specialization of Business, 423
 Remittances from Overseas Chinese, 394
 Reform of 1935, 385
 Rural Banks, 437
 Rural Loans, 627
 Savings Deposits, Amount of, 439
 Savings Offices, Small-Amount, 443
 Savings, Promotion of, 438
 Silver, Nationalization of, 385
 Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Association, National, 440
 —Membership Campaign, 440
 Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Promotion Campaign, National, 438
 Trust Companies, 403
 BOXER INDEMNITY, *see* Finance, Public
 BUDDHISM,
 Activities, 62
 Buddhist Associations,
 —Forestry Work, 521
 Burmese and Indian Good-will Missions to China, 64
 China Buddhist Association, 62, 63
 Buddhist Monasteries,
 —Protection of, 235
 Buddhist Organizations, Chungking, 64
 Overseas Good-will Mission, 64

Prayers for Victory, 64
 Buddhist Priests,
 —Study in Tibet, 235
 Propaganda Work, 63
 Relief Work, 62
 Tibet, 233
 BURMA, *see* Foreign Relations
 Air Station, 602
 Barter Trade, 471
 Chinese Women Service for Soldiers, 752
 Highway Transportation, 583
 Military Campaign, 141
 Railway, 573
 Rice Supply, 552
 Silk Import, 472
 BURMA ROAD, *see* Foreign Relations,
 Communications and Transportation
 Machinery, Shipment of, 489
 Traffic, 584
 CAMPAIGNS, Public,
 Army Cultural Service Campaign, 611
 Dollar Airplane Campaign, 611
 National General Mobilization Campaign, 611
 New Life Movement, 611
 Thrift and Savings Campaign, 611
 Troop Comforting Campaign, 611
 CANADA, *see* Foreign Relations
 CANTON,
 Population, 41
 Rainfall, 37
 Temperature, 33
 CATHOLIC CHURCH,
 Catholic Mission and the War, 73
 Charitable Works, 73
 Chinese Bishops, 71
 Chinese Catholic Cultural Association, 72
 Educational Works, 72
 History, 70
 Missionary Property, 304
 Property Losses, 73-76

Publications, 72
 Recent Events, 71
 Refugee Relief Work, 76
 Statistics, 70
 CENSUS ADMINISTRATION, *see* Interior,
 Ministry of
 CENTRAL ARMY, 107
 CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA, *see* Banking
 and Currency
 CENTRAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, *see*
 Kuomintang
 Addressed by British Parliamentary
 Good-will Mission, 256
 National Solidarity, 225
 CENTRAL MILITARY ACADEMY, 322
 CENTRAL PLANNING BOARD, 159
 Personnel, 162
 CENTRAL POLITICAL INSTITUTE, 190
 Frontier Education, 646
 Journalistic Education, 689
 Training for Personnel Administrators, 189
 Visit of British Parliamentary Good-will Mission, 256
 Social Administrators, Training of, 635
 CENTRAL TRUST OF CHINA, *see* Banking
 and Currency
 CHAHAR,
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 43
 Provincial Status, 120
 CHANGSHA,
 Population, 42
 Rainfall, 38
 Temperature, 34
 Y.M.C.A., 91
 CHARITY ORGANIZATION, 614, *see* Social
 Relief
 CHEKIANG,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Farm Loans, 429
 Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
 Islam, 66
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67

Plague, 705
 Population, 41
 Topography, 6
 CHENGDU,
 Agricultural Equipment Production, 508
 Air Raid Relief Squads, 741
 British Publicity Organ, 679
 Child Welfare Associations, 740
 Food Price, 568, 570
 Food Supply, 563
 Home Economy Survey, 637
 Industrial Cooperatives, 499
 Labour Unions, 610
 News Agency, Central, 671
 Population, 42
 Rainfall, 38
 Reforestation, 516
 Relief Factory, 728
 Social Survey, 637
 Telephone, 589
 Temperature, 34
 Women War Contributions, 752
 Y.M.C.A., 90, 91
 CHIANG KAI-SHEK, Generalissimo,
 Abolition of Unequal Treaty, Statement on, 298
 Administrative Reorganization, 159
 Aim of War of Resistance, 316
 American \$500,000,000 Loan, Statement on, 262
 American-Japanese Negotiations,
 Statement on, 261
 Audience Given Mongolians, 229
 Banners Presented by Tibetans, 238
 British Parliamentary Good-will
 Mission, 255, 256
 Central Daily News, 673
 Ceremonies and Rites, 218
 China's Destiny, 298, 308
 Commander-in-Chief in the China
 Front, 261
 Commendation on Buddhist Relief
 Work, 63
 Contribution from Oversea Chinese, 317
 Customs Tax, 360

- Economic Reconstruction Plan, 308
 Enforcement of Self-Government, 211
 Exchange of Greetings with Prime Minister of Iran, 276
 Forestry, Promotion of, 515
 Frontier Peoples' Support of, 237
 Greetings from President Roosevelt, 256
 Joint Administration Office of Four Government Banks, 386
 Merit Examination of Officials, 195
 Mongolians Paying Respect to, 238
 National Progress Under, 107
 National Supreme Defence Council, 159
 National Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Campaign, 438
 National Revolution, 106
 New Fourth Army, 164
 Patronizing Buddhist Activities, 64
 People's Political Council, 166, 167
 Principles Taught to Frontier Peoples, 232
 Red Cross Society, National, 733
 San Min Chu I Youths Corps, 161
 Selection of District Magistrates, Order Concerning, 190
 Special Commissioner of Administrative Inspection, Appointment of, 212
 Tsung-Tsai, 162
 Urging Oversea Chinese to Fight the Pacific War, 316
 Visit to India, 239
 CHIANG KAI-SHEK, Madame,
 Communication with World Women Leaders, 751
 Flood Relief Contributions, 722
 Friends of the Wounded Society, Statement on, 745
 New Life Movement, 80
 Refugee Children Relief, 746
 War Orphans, Care of, 728, 748
 Winter Garments for Soldiers, 497
 Women's Part in the War, Statement on, 754
 CHINA NATIONAL TEA CORPORATION,
see Foreign Trade
 CHINA PROPER, Misnomer, 122
 CHILD WELFARE,
 Child Welfare Association, National, 728
 Child Welfare Associations, 740
 Refugee Children Relief Association, 746-749
 Women's Work, 753
 CHINESE ENTITY, 109-123
 Annam, 110
 China Proper, 111
 Chinese Expansion, 110
 First Seen by Occidentals, 111
 Han Dynasties, 109
 Korea, 110
 Korea and Chinese Expansion, 109
 Liuchiu, 110
 Ming Dynasty, 110
 Mongolia and Tibet at Present, 115
 Mongols, 110, 112
 Nine New Provinces, 118
 Oversea Chinese, 122-123
 Past Development, 109
 Sung Dynasty, 110
 Tang Dynasties, 110
 Tibetans, 111, 112
 Tsin Dynasty, 110
 CHINESE INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES,
see Industrial Cooperatives
 CHINESE OVERSEA, *see* Oversea Chinese
 CHINGHAI,
 Frontier Research Party, 236
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 42
 Provincial Status, 120
 Rainfall, 38
 Temperature, 34
 CHUNGKING,
 Agricultural Equipment, Production of, 508
 Air Lines, 602
 Air Raid Relief, 722, 736
 Air Raid Relief Squads, 741
 Air Raid Service Corps, 610

- Air Service to Calcutta, 250
 American Information Service, 679
 American Military Mission, 260
 Army Newspaper, 670
 Banks, 417
 British Press Attaché's Office, 679
 Buddhist Association, 64
 Buddhist Organizations, 64
 Catholic Property Losses, 74
 Central Hospital, 704
 Central Political Institute, 689
 China National Tea Corporation, 462
 Commodity Supply Stations, 494
 Cooperative Enterprises, 534
 Credit Loan Office, 731
 Electrical Company, 483
 Employment Advisory Bureau, 625
 Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
 Food Price, 570
 Food Supply, 561, 562
 Foreign Correspondents, 677
 Foreign Press, 677
 Foreign Publicity Organs, 679
 Forestry Association, Chinese, 518
 Fu Hua Trading Company, 462
 Health Bureau, 691, 695
 Health Work, Supervision of, 700
 Home Economy Survey, 637
 Institute of Popular Education,
 Employment Office, 625
 Islam National Salvation Federation, 68
 Labour Unions, 610
 Land Increment Tax, Collection of, 342
 Medical Aid Receiving Station, 718
 Medical Supplies Exhibition, 714
 Minsheng Industrial Company, 600
 Model Municipality, 211
 Model Poorhouse, 616
 Mongolian Comforting Missions, 237
 Mongolian Visitors, 229, 238
 Musical Education, 648
 News Agencies, 217
 News Agency, Central, 671
 Newspaperdom, 667
 Newspapers, 668
 Observatory, 659
 Opium Suppression, 222
 Police College, Central, 216
 Population, 42
 Press Association, National 684
 Price Indices, 490
 Rainfall, 38
 Red Cross Project, 736
 Red Cross Society, National, 733
 Red Swastika Society, World, 740
 —Relief Work, 741
 Refugee Children's Home, 748
 Relief Associations, 721
 Relief Factory, 728
 Relief Work, 741
 River Traffic, 540
 Self-Government, Enforcement of, 211
 Social Education College, 646
 Social Service Centre, 616
 Social Service Personnel Allocation Office, 625
 Stock Market, 312
 Student Advisory Office, 625
 Student Relief Work, 724
 Ta Kung Pao Premises, 674
 Telephone System, 588
 Temperature, 34
 Training Monks for Relief Work, 63
 Truck-Ambulance Convoys, 735
 Visit of British Parliamentary Goodwill Mission, 256
 Wages, Survey of, 637
 War Orphanage, 730
 Water-Works, 219
 Women Activities, 751
 Wood Oil Research Institute, 464
 Workers Service Corps, 610
 Workers Welfare Centres, 626
 Y.M.C.A., 90, 91
 CHURCHILL, Prime Minister Winston, 241
 CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS, 190-192,
see Examination Yuan
 CLIMATE, 23
 Atmospheric Pressure, 27
 Cloudiness, 29
 Cyclones, 24

- Middle Schools, National, 642
- Normal Schools, 643
- Vocational Education, 642
- Social Education, 644
- Cinematographical Education, 645
- College of Social Education, National, 646
- Comparative Statistics, 652
- Dramatic and Musical Education for Masses, 645
- Experimental Circuit Dramatic Corps, 645
- Experimental Circuit Singing Corps, 645
- Reading Material for the Masses, Preparation of, 645
- Social Educational Institutions, 645
- —Supplementary Education for Illiterates, 645
- EDUCATION AND CULTURE, Mongolia, 231
- Tibet, 235
- EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, 832-834, *see also* Associations
- EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, Higher, List of, 825-831
- EDUCATIONAL RELIEF, Statistics, 654
- Teachers and Students, Emergency Relief of, 324
- EMIGRATION, *see* Overseas Chinese
- EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, *see* Social Service
- EPIDEMIC PREVENTION AND CONTROL, 705
- Anti-epidemic Corps, Weishengshu, 708
- Activities of, 710
- Bathing, Delousing, and Anti-Scabies Stations, 711
- Cholera, 707
- Diphtheria, 708
- Dysentery, 708
- Malaria, 707
- Plague, 705
- Provincial Medical and Anti-Epidemic Units, 711
- Quarantine Services, 710
- Quarantine Stations, Activities of, 710
- Smallpox, 708
- Typhus Fever, 708
- Veneral Disease Treatment Stations, 710
- Yunnan Anti-Malaria Commission, 707
- EPIDEMIC PREVENTION BUREAU, National Central, 714
- EPIDEMIC PREVENTION BUREAU, National Northwest, 714
- EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INTELLIGENCE SERVICE, 708
- EPIDEMIOLOGY, 705
- EXAMINATION YUAN, 188-196, 788, 807
- Administrative Organization, Readjustment of, 189
- Appointments, Law of, 188
- Civil Service Examinations, 190-192
- Aldermanship and Representation of Villages and Towns, Examinations of Candidates for, 192
- Commission of, 188, 789, 807
- District Magistrates, Examinations for, 192
- Drafting of Laws and Regulations Governing, 190
- Examinations, Holding of, 191
- Higher Examinations, 191
- Ordinary Examinations, 191
- Special Examinations, 192
- Examination Law, 188
- General Affairs, 189
- Personnel Administration, 192-196
- Allocation of Successful Candidates of Public Examinations, 195
- Appointment of Public Officials, Supplementary Provisions for, 194
- Appointments, Modification of Laws and Regulations for, 193
- Appointments, Scrutiny of, 196
- Interchange of Central and Local

- Government Officials, Regulations for, 193
- Laws and Regulations for, 193
- Merits Examination, 195
- Merit Examination, Improvement of the System of, 193
- Pensions and Compensations, Amendment of the System of, 194
- Provincial Personnel Administration, Investigation of, 196
- Scholastic Records of College Students, Investigation of, 194
- Work of, 195
- Personnel Administration Conference, National, 190
- Personnel Administrative Organs, Establishment of, 192
- Personnel Administrators, Training for, 189
- Personnel, Ministry of, 188, 790, 807
- EXCHANGE CONTROL, *see* Foreign Trade, Banking and Currency
- EXECUTIVE YUAN, 171-172, 758, 795
- Bureau of Political Affairs, 172
- Organization, 171, 758, 795
- FINANCE, Local, *see* Local Finance
- FINANCE, Ministry of, 762, 796
- Accounting Bureau, 374
- Currency Department, 373
- Customs Administration, 370
- Direct Taxation Administration, 374
- General Affairs Department, 372
- Government Bonds Department, 373
- National Revenue Administration, 371
- National Treasury Administration, 371
- Personnel, 375, 796
- Reorganization, 330, 762
- Revised Organic Law, 370
- Salt Revenue Department, 372
- Taxation Department, 373
- FINANCE, Public, Boxer Indemnity, 368
- American Share, 368
- Belgian Share, 368
- British Share, 368
- Capital Redeemed, 369
- Dutch Share, 369
- French Share, 369
- Italian Share, 369
- Japanese Share, 369
- Portugal Claim, 369
- Russian Share, 368
- China's Financial Situation Reviewed, 329
- Customs Rates, 359
- Customs Revenue, 357
- Interport Tax, 360
- Japanese Detention of, 361
- Lost in Occupied Ports, 358
- Relation to Foreign Loans, 365
- "Eight-Point Financial Program," 386
- Hsien Autonomy Finance, 333
- Local Finance, 332
- Loans, Government, 360-369
- National and Local Finance, Demarcation of, 381
- National Income, 309
- National Monopoly, 342-357
- National Treasury, 330
- Government Treasury Law, 377
- National Treasury Activities, Government Banks Handling of, 332
- National Treasury System, Distribution of, 331
- Public Treasury System, 330
- Taxation, 334-342
- FINANCE, Rural, *see* Rural Finance
- FINANCIAL CONFERENCE, National, Second, 332
- Third, 330, 332, 335, 341, 402
- FINANCIAL STRUCTURE, Wartime National, Regulations Governing, 445
- FISHERIES, 509
- FLOOD PREVENTION, *see* Water Conservancy
- FLOOD RELIEF, 722, *see* Relief Work
- FLOOD RELIEF COMMISSION, North China, 723
- FOOD ADMINISTRATION, 547-571

- Fog, 29
- Frost, 29
- Humidity, 29
- Latitude, 23
- Meteorology, Institute of, 23, 658
- Rainfall, 30, 37
- Seasons, Distribution of, 27
- Snowfall, 32
- Temperature, 26, 33
- Topography, 24
- Weather Bureau, National, 23, 659
- Wind Directions, 28
- Wind Velocity, 28
- COMMERCE, *see* Foreign Trade
- COMMODITY ADMINISTRATION, 491
 - Function of, 492
 - Mechanism, 492
- COMMODITY CONTROL, 490-495
 - Control for Exports, 491
 - Cotton Cloth Prices, 492
 - Daily Necessities, 491
 - National Monopoly of, 342
 - Economic Distribution, 490
 - General Mobilization Law, 495
 - Hoarding and Profiteering on Daily Necessities, Emergency Law Against, 494
 - Inventory of Stock, 490
 - Match Monopoly, 343, 352
 - Price Control, 494
 - Price Indices, 490
 - Price Stabilization Bureau, 493
 - Salt Monopoly, 342, 344
 - Sugar Monopoly, 343, 349
 - Tobacco Monopoly, 344, 354
- COMMUNICATIONS, Ministry of, 765, 798
- COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORTATION, 572-604
 - Aviation, Commercial, 601-603
 - Burma Road, 572
 - Food Transportation, 564
 - Foreign Steamship Companies, 306
 - Highways, 579-585
 - International Routes, 572
 - Maritime Law, 306
 - Mongolia, 230
 - Postal Service, 591-598
 - Railways, 573-579
 - Railways and Highways, Cost for Construction of, 309
 - Shipping, 598-601
 - Stage Transport, 586-587
 - Telephone and Telegraph, 587-591
 - Tibet, 236
- COMMUNIST PARTY, Chinese,
 - New Fourth Army, 164
 - People's Political Council, 165, 166, 167
- CONFUCIANISM, 100, 101
 - Confucian Association, National, 59
- CONFUCIUS, 58, 60
- CONSULAR SERVICE ABROAD, Chinese, 835
- CONSULAR SERVICE in China, Foreign, 842
- CONSTITUTION, *see* National Constitution
- CONTROL YUAN, 196-198, 791, 807
 - Audit Law, 198
 - Audit, Ministry of, 198, 792, 808
 - Duties, 198
 - Pre-Auditing, 198
 - Post Auditing, 198
 - Censorial Power in Emergency Time, 197
 - Disciplinary Organs for Different Grades of Officials, 197
 - Impeachment, 196
 - Organization, 196, 791
 - Supervisory Districts, 196
 - Supervisory Members, 196, 808
- COOPERATIVE COMMODITIES Supply Agency, National, 627, 634
- Goods Purchased and Distributed, 634
- COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISES, 626
 - Border Provinces, 627
 - Development of, 627
- COOPERATIVE FINANCE, 635
- COOPERATIVE ORGANIZATION, Improvement of, 626
- COOPERATIVE LOANS, 636
- COOPERATIVE WORKERS, Training of, 637

- COOPERATIVES,
 - Classification of Business, 628
 - Mongolia, 231
 - Provinces and Municipalities, 630
- COURTS, 186, *see* Judicial Yuan
- CULTURAL ASSOCIATIONS, 832-834, *see* also Associations
- CULTURAL MOVEMENT, 106
- CURRENCY, *see* Banking and Currency
- CURRENCY, *see* Banking and Currency
- CUSTOMS REVENUE, *see* Finance, Public
- DALAI LAMA, 64, 65, 115, 118, 121, 233
 - Donations for Funeral of, 235
 - Enthronement of, 66, 118, 233, 234
 - Power of, 114
- DESERTS, 11
- DIPLOMATIC SERVICE Abroad, Chinese, 835
- DIPLOMATIC SERVICE in China, Foreign, 842
- DIRECTORY of Government Officials, 793
- ECONOMIC AFFAIRS, Ministry of, 763, 797
- ECONOMIC CONTROL,
 - Agriculture, Mines, Industry and Commerce, Emergency Law for the Control of, 494
 - Agencies, 493
- ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT, *see* Industry Before 1937, 480
- ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION, *see* Industry
- Capital Requirements, 308
- In Free China, 482
- Plan of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, 308
- EDUCATION, 639-655
 - Elementary Education, 644
 - Primary Schools, 644
 - Primary Schools Attendance, 644
 - Primary School Teachers, Improving the Quality of, 643
 - Statistics, 651
- Catholic Education, 72
- Compulsory Education, 644
- Forestry Education, 517, 519
- Frontier Education, 646
- Comparative Statistics, 653
- Expedition to the Border Districts, 646
- School of Frontier Education, 646
- Higher Education, 639
- Comparative Statistics, 649
- National Council of Higher Learning, 641
- Post-Graduate Study, Encouragement of, 641
- Raising of Standard, 640
- Reforms, 639
- Research Work, Encouragement of, 641
- Industrial Cooperatives, 499
- Intellectual Cooperation, International, 641
- International Series, Publication of, 642
- Islamic Education, 69
- Chinese Islamic Educational Association, 68
- Journalistic Education, 687
- Medical Education, 647
- Commission on Medical Education, 647
- Ministry of, 764, 798
- Missionary Education, 83
- Musical Education, 648
- Commission on Musical Education, 648
- Overseas Chinese Education, 646
- Promotion of, 322
- People's Education, 644
- Physical Education, 647
- Gliders' Association, 648
- National School of Physical Education, 647
- Police Education, 216
- Secondary Education, 642
- Comparative Statistics, 650
- Middle Schools, 642

- Medical Aid, 739
- New Delhi, Erection of Commissioner's Office at, 275
- Note from Dr. Tse Vung Soong to Mr. Hugh Edward Richardson, 294
- Note from Mr. Hugh Edward Richardson to Dr. Tse Vung Soong, 296
- Intellectual Cooperation, International, 641
- Iran,
 - Conclusion of Treaty of Amity, 276
 - Teheran, Establishment of Legation at, 274
- Joint Declaration by United Nations,
 - China and, 241
 - Waichiaopu Statement, 242
- Medical Aid, Foreign, 718
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 760, 795
- Missionary Property, 304
- National Holidays, Foreign, 851
- National Treatment, 312
- Netherlands,
 - Abolition of Unequal Treaties, 278
 - New Government, Recognition of, 276
- New Treaties, Conclusion of, 276, 277-297
- American State Department Announcement, 277
- British Foreign Office Announcement, 277
- New Zealand, Abolition of Unequal Treaties, 278
- Norway, Abolition of Unequal Treaties, 278
- Panama, Appointment of Minister to, 276
- Passport Regulations, 852
- Poland,
 - Chungking Branch of the Polish Telegraphic Agency, 679
 - Resumption of Diplomatic Relations, 275
- Recognition of New Governments, 273
- Rumania, Severance of Diplomatic Relations with, 271
- Soviet Union, 269
 - Anti-Communist Clause in Wang-Japan Treaty, 269
 - Barter Agreement, 361
 - Outer Mongolia, Agreement on, 116
 - Press Bureau of the Soviet Embassy, 679
 - Sino-Soviet Agreement of 1924, 116-117.
 - Sino-Soviet Cultural Association, 608, 751
 - Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact, 270
 - Assurances by the U.S.S.R., 270
 - Soviet-Mongolian Protocol, 117
 - Unequal Treaties, Abolition of, 277
 - United States, 256
 - Agreement on 500 Million Dollar Loan, 261, 263, 362
 - American Foreign Policy in the Far East, Exchange of Notes Regarding, 257
 - American Information Service, 672, 679
 - American-Japanese Negotiations and China, 260
 - Cash Loans, 361
 - China Defense Supplies Corporation, 260
 - China National Aviation Corporation, 307
 - Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, Aid to, 502
 - Chinese Military Mission to America, 261
 - Currency Stabilization Loan Agreement, 256
 - Intellectual Cooperation, 642
 - Lauchlin Currie's Mission, 256
 - Lend-Lease Agreement, 361
 - Lend-Lease Bill, Application to China, 257
 - Magruder Mission, 260
 - Medical Aid, 739

- Medical Aid to China, American Bureau, 718
- Missionary Property, 304
- Mutual Aid in Prosecution of War, Agreement on, 264
- New Sino-American Treaty, Texts of, 279
- "Open Door," 105
- Sino-American Cultural Association, 608
- Sino-American Economic Relations, Readjustment of, 298
- Stabilization Credit, 361
- Technical Cooperation, 267
- United China Relief, 502, 748
- Wendell Wilkie's Visit to China, 267
- Wood Oil Loan, 361
- Venezuela, Appointment of Concurrent Minister to, 276
- Washington Conference, 106
- FOREIGN TRADE, 307, 460-479
 - Administrative Organization, 461
 - Atlantic Charter Concerning, 307
 - Barter Agreements, 471
 - China National Tea Corporation, 462, 465
 - Exchange Control Commission, 467
 - Export Prohibition, 467
 - Export Trade, Control of, 464
 - Exports Exempted from Prohibition, Control of, 468
 - Exports, Government Monopoly of, 464
 - Exports of Principal Commodities, 472
 - Antimony, 473
 - Bristles, 466, 472
 - Coal, 472
 - Cotton, 473
 - Cotton Yarn, 472
 - Eggs and Egg Products, 473
 - Lace, Trimmings and Embroideries, 473
 - Mineral Products, 466, 473
 - Silk, 472
 - Tea, 465, 473
- Tin, 473
- Tungsten, 473
- Wood Oil, 465, 473, 529
- Exports to Foreign Countries, Gross, 478
- Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463, 465
- Foreign Exchange, Control of, 467
- Fu Hua Trading Company, 462
- General Conditions, 471
- Import and Export Trade by Countries, 476
- Importation of Emergency Relief Drugs and Medical Supplies, 713
- Imports and Exports, Value of, 479
- Imports Exempted from Prohibition, License Control of, 470
- Imports from Enemy Areas, Prohibition of, 469
- Imports from Foreign Countries, Gross, 479
- Imports of Principal Commodities, 474
 - Cotton, Cotton Piece Goods and Cotton Yarn, 474
 - Gasoline, Kerosene and Liquid Fuel, 475
 - Rice, 474
 - Wheat and Wheat Flour, 474
- Potential Market, China as, 310
- Production and Marketing of Agricultural Exports, Promotion Commission for, 463
- Purchase of Foreign Supplies, 471
- Restricted Imports, List of, 469
- Silk Research Institute, 464
- Sino-British Loan Agreement, 466
- Survey of Trade, 471
- Tea Research Institute, 464
- Trading Companies, 462
- Unnecessary Imports, Restriction of, 469
- War and Daily Necessities, Importation of, 470
- Wartime Trade Administration, 461
- Wartime Trade Policy, 461

Administrative Organizations, Local, 549
 Balancing Supply and Demand of People, 551
 Consumption Markets, 560
 Control System, 549
 Eliminating Waste and Economizing Consumption, 552
 Flour Supplies, 561
 Food Administration, National, 549
 Food Debentures, 550
 Food Merchants, Control of, 553
 Food Production, Increase of, 512
 Food Storage, 551
 Future Efforts, 553
 Granaries, 564
 —Storage Capacity, 566
 Land Tax in Kind, Collection of, 550, 554
 Production, Increase of, 553
 Purchasing at Fixed Prices, 556
 Rice Supplies, 561
 Statistics, 557
FOOD CONTROL,
 Enforcement of, 552
 Scope of, 549
FOOD, Ministry of, 549, 768, 800
FOOD PRICES,
 Control of, 553, 567
 Fixing of, 550
 Variation of, 568, 570
FOOD PRODUCTION, 554, 555, see Agriculture
FOOD SELF-SUFFICIENCY, 548
FOOD SUPPLY,
 Army, 551, 558
 Civilians, 560, 563
 Public Functionaries, 551, 560, 561, 562
FOOD TRANSPORTATION, 564
 In Various Provinces, 565
 Means of Transportation, 564, 566
FOREIGN CONSULAR SERVICE, 842
FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE, 842
FOREIGN EXCHANGE, see Banking and Currency, Foreign Trade

FOREIGN MISSIONS, see Catholic Church and Protestant Church
FOREIGN NATIONAL HOLIDAYS, 851
FOREIGN PRESS, see Press
FOREIGN RELATIONS, 241-297
 Atlantic Charter, China and, 241
 —Statement from Waichiaoapu, 241
 Australia, Exchange of Diplomatic Missions, 273
 Axis Countries, 271
 —Denmark, Severance of Diplomatic Relations with, 271
 —Enemy Nationals and Property, Disposition of, 273
 —Germany,
 —Declaration of War on, 272
 —Severance of Diplomatic Relations with, 271
 —Italy,
 —Declaration of War on, 272
 —Severance of Diplomatic Relations with, 271
 —Japan,
 —Declaration of War on, 272
 —Formosa, 105
 —Korea, 105
 —Obstruction to Chinese Unity, 106
 —Tangku Truce, 107
 Belgium,
 —Abolition of Unequal Treaties, 278
 —New Government, Recognition of, 276
 Boxer Indemnity, 368
 Brazil, Abolition of Unequal Treaties, 278
 Burma,
 —Burmese Good-will Mission to China, 64
 —Intellectual Cooperation, 642
 Canada,
 —Abolition of Unequal Treaties, 278
 —Exchange of Diplomatic Missions, 274
 Chinese Diplomatic and Consular Service Abroad, 835

Costa Rica, Appointment of Con-
 current Minister to, 276
 Cuba,
 —Conclusion of Treaty of Amity, 276
 —Exchange of Ratification with, 276
 Czechoslovakia, New Government,
 Recognition of, 276
 Diplomatic Representatives, Ex-
 change of, 273
 Dominican Republic, Exchange of
 Ratifications with, 276
 Egypt, Establishment of Legation at
 Cairo, 274
 Foreign Banks in China, 302
 Foreign Diplomatic and Consular
 Service in China, 842
 Foreign Factories, 298
 Foreign Investment, Field for, 308
 Foreign Lease of Land, 303
 Foreign Mining Rights, 305
 Foreign Patents, Registration of,
 301
 Foreign Steamship Companies, 306
 Foreign Trade, 307
 France, 268
 —Franco-Japanese Agreement at
 Hanoi, 268
 —China's Protest, 269
 —Hokow Bridge, Destruction of, 268
 —Indo-China-Japanese Alliance
 Pact, 269
 —Landing of Japanese Troops in
 Indo-China, Statement *re*, 268
 —Shanghai Second Special District
 Court, Seizure by Japan, 269
 Great Britain, 242
 —British Policy in the Far East, Ex-
 change of Notes, 243
 —British Press Attaché's Office, 672,
 679
 —Burma, Sino-British Treaty Re-
 lating to, 244
 —Burma Road, 580
 —Re-Opening of, 242
 —Cash Loans, 361
 —Chinese Industrial Cooperatives,
 Aid to, 502
 —Chinese Seamen, Agreement Re-
 garding, 254
 —Chungking-Calcutta Air Service,
 Exchange of Notes, 250
 —Currency Stabilization Credit, 361
 —Currency Stabilization Fund
 Agreement, 242
 —Currency Stabilization Fund
 Board, 242
 —Economic Mission, Anglo-Ameri-
 can, 250
 —Export Guarantee Credits, 361
 —Intellectual Cooperation, 642
 —Medical Aid, 739
 —New Sino-British Treaty,
 —Note from Dr. T. V. Soong to
 Sir H. J. Seymour, 291
 —Note from Sir Horace James
 Seymour to Dr. Tse Vung
 Sung, 293
 —Texts of, 286
 —Parliamentary Good-will Mission,
 255, 751
 —Joint Statement, 255
 —Sino-British Cultural Association,
 608
 —Sino-British Economic Relations,
 Readjustment of, 298
 —Sino-Burmese Frontier Delimitation,
 Exchange of Notes, 244
 —Tibet, Anglo-Chinese Convention
 of 1890 Concerning, 117
 —Tibet, Convention of 1906 Con-
 cerning, 117
 —Tibet, Status of, 117-118
 —Unequal Treaties, Exchange of
 Notes Concerning Revision of, 243
 Holy See,
 —Exchange of Diplomatic Missions,
 275
 —Papal Representative to China, 71
 India,
 —Indian Good-will Mission to China,
 64
 —Intellectual Cooperation, 642

Wood Oil Loan Agreements, 463, 465, 473
 Wood Oil Research Institute, 464
 FOREIGN TRADE COMMISSION, 461, 491
 Commendation on Women's Silk Industry, 752
 Functions, 461
 Mongolia Trade, 231
 FORESTRY, 515-529
 Agriculture and Forestry, Ministry of, 506
 Chinese Forestry Association, 517
 Development of, 510
 Education, 517, 519
 Foreign Adviser, Lowdermilk, Dr. Walter C., 516
 Forest Activities, 517
 Forest Area, 521
 Forest Area, Northeast China, 528
 Forest Products, Secondary, 525
 Forest Protection, 521
 Forest Publications, 520
 Forest Research, 520
 Forest Resources, 521
 Forestry and Soil Conservation Conference, First National, 516
 Forestry Development Plan, 309
 Forestry Research Bureau, National, 520
 Forestry Teaching of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, 517, 518
 Forestry Work, Land Suitable for, 526
 Forests, Extent of, 526
 Memorial Forest Week, 519
 National Forest Districts, Administration of, 511
 Policy and Administration, 515
 Provincial Work, 517, 518
 Soil, 516
 Timber Trees, Principal, 522
 Water Conservation, 516
 Wood Oil, 465
 Wood Oil Export, 529
 Wood Oil Research Institute, 464
 Wood Oil Tree, 525
 FRANCE, *see* Foreign Relations

FRIENDS OF THE WOUNDED SOCIETY 79, 742-746

Benefits Received From, 744
 Fourfold Program, 743
 Friends of the Wounded, 745
 Purpose, 745
 Service to Crippled Soldiers, 745
 Service Unit, 743
 Workers, 744

FRONTIER EDUCATION, Purpose, 646

FRONTIER PROBLEMS,

Periodicals and Bulletins, 239
 Research Institutions, 239

FRONTIERS REGIONS, *see* Mongolia and Tibet

Administrative Organs, 223
 Growing Interest in, 238
 —Expeditions to Border Districts, 646
 High Officials Visited, 238
 Investigation Parties, 239
 Political Training Corps, 232
 Relations with Central Government, 227

Social Education, 232

FUKIEN,

Catholic Church, 71
 Cholera, 707
 Farm Loans, 429
 Islam, 66
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 41
 Topography, 6

GENGHIS KHAN,

Direct Descendant of, 238
 Tomb of, 228
 Worship of, 229

GEOGRAPHY,

Area, 3
 Deserts and Steppes, 11-12
 Geological Structure, 3-5
 Lakes, 11
 Mountains, 8-9
 Rivers, 9-10

Topography, 5-7

GEOLOGY, Institute of, 659

GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS, Directory of, 793

GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION CHARTS, 203, 757-792

GREAT BRITAIN, *see* Foreign Relations

GREAT WALL, 112, 121

GUERRILLA WARFARE, *see* Military Campaigns

HANGCHOW,

Population, 41
 Rainfall, 38
 Temperature, 34

HANKOW,

Population, 42
 Rainfall, 38
 Temperature, 34

HEALTH ADMINISTRATION, National, 691, 774, 803

Organization Chart, 693, 774

HEALTH ORGANIZATION, System, 690, 774

Chart, 692, 774

HEALTH, Public, *see* also Medical Child Health, 626

Epidemic Prevention and Control, 705

Foreign Medical Aid, 718

Health Bureau, Chungking, 695

Health Work,

—Expansion of, 698

—Mongolia, 701

—Northwest, 701

Highway Health Service,

—Distribution, 702

—Nature and Functions, 701

Highway Health Stations,

—Activities, 703

—Budget, 703

—Composition, 703

—Distribution, 702

Hospitals, Central, 704

Hsien Health Centres, 696, 697

—Increase in Number, 699

Hsien Health System,

—Functions, 697

—Staff, 698

Hsien Health Work,

—Extent of, 700

International Relief Committee of China, 705

Local Health Budgets, Increase in, 701

Local Health Service, 705

Local Health Work,

—Aid to, 698

—Extent of, 698

Medical Association, Chinese, 705

Medical Care for Wounded Soldiers and Civilians, 704

Medical Education, 647

Medical Equipments Production, 713

Medical Personnel Control, 711

Medical Production, 713

Medical Relief, 703

Medical Supplies Control, 713

Mission Hospitals, 705

Municipal Health Bureaus, 691

Personnel Training, 716

—Haffkine Institute, Bombay, Plague Courses at, 717

—Indian Government Malaria Courses, 716

—Junior and Auxiliary Workers, 717

—Kweiyang Public Health Personnel Training Institute, 717

—National Institute of Health, Special Courses, 717

—Northwest Health Personnel Training Institute, 717

—Rockefeller Foundation, 716

—Staff Workers, 717

Provincial Health Administrations, 691

—Kiangsi 694

—Status, 699

Protestant Church Medical Service, 83

Red Cross Medical Relief Corps, National, 704

Red Cross Society, National, 733

- State Medicine, 690
 —Hsien Health System as Foundation, 697
 Veterinary Disease Preventive Centre, Northwest, 510
- HEILUNGKIANG,
 Population, 43
 Provincial Status, 119
- HENYANG,
 Food Price, 570
 Rainfall, 37
 Social Service Centre, 616
 Temperature, 33
 Truck-Ambulance Convoys, 735
 Venereal Disease Treatment Station, 710
 Y.M.C.A., 91
- HIGHWAY EXPERTS, Foreign, 580
- HIGHWAY TRANSPORT ADMINISTRATION, 580
 Distribution of, 581
 Northwest, 572
- HIGHWAY TRANSPORT BUREAU, Northwest, 583
- HIGHWAY TRANSPORTATION,
 Cars and Trucks, 581
 —Condition and Distribution, 582
 China Transport Corporation, 580, 583
 Fuel Supply, 584
 Land-Water Through Traffic, 599
 —Szechuen-Hunan Route, 599
 —Szechuen-Shensi Route, 599
 Warehouses and Storages, 583
- HIGHWAYS, 579
 Burma Road, 580, 584
 Construction, 584
 Distribution of, 581
 Health Service, 701
 Length of, 585
 Maintenance and Repairs, 583
 Mongolia, 230
 Traffic, 583
- HISTORY,
 Anglo-Chinese Conflict, 104
 China, 98-108
 Chun Chiu Age, 99
 Contending States, Age of, 100
 Cultural Movement,
 —Peking Dialect as National Tongue, 106
 Empire, 100
 Empire, Fall of, 101
 Feudal Age, 99
 Manchu Dynasty, 103
 Nationalist Revolution, 105
 Opium War, 104
 Sui and T'ang Dynasties, 102
 Sung Dynasty, 102
 Taipings, 104
 Yuan and Ming Dynasties, 103
- HOLY SEE, *see* Foreign Relations,
 Papal Representative to China, 71
- HOME AFFAIRS, 205-222, *see* Interior,
 Ministry of
- HOME AFFAIRS CONFERENCE, National,
 218
 Third, 213
- HONAN,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Farm Loans, 429
 Population, 42
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
- HONGKONG,
 Rainfall, 31, 37
 Relief Work, 725
 Temperature, 27, 33
 Transshipment Centre, 476
 Y.M.C.A., 91
- HOPEI,
 Catholic Church, 70
 Change of Provincial Name, 121
 Farm Loans, 429
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 42
- HSIEN GOVERNMENT, 201
 Hsien, Various Local Units of, 201, 207
 New Hsien and Bureau of Administration, 210
 New Hsien System, Enforcement of, 208, 210

- HUNAN,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Cement Factory, 486
 Farm Loans, 429
 Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Normal Schools, 643
 Plague, 706
 Population, 42
- HUPEH,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 42
- ICHANG,
 Rainfall, 38
 Temperature, 34
- IKH CHAO LEAGUE, 228, 230, 237
 Cooperative Enterprises, 627
 Education, 232
 Hospitals, 232
 Relief Work, 233
 Social Education Centre, 232
 Wool Production, 231
- INDUSTRIAL AID, Committee for, 488
- INDUSTRIAL AND MINING Adjustment
 Administration, 481, 489
- INDUSTRIAL CONTROL, 490
- INDUSTRIAL HANDICAPS, 489
- INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES, Chinese,
 496-504
 Big Offensive Stage, 498
 Capitalization, 502
 Consolidation, Policy of, 497
 Cooperative Enterprises, 626
 Crippled Soldiers, Service to, 745
 Development, 496
 Direction of, 498
 Education, 499
 Industry, Types of, 498
 International Interest, 502
 National Federation, 502
 Organization, 501
 Present Conditions, 497
- Profit, Division of, 502
 Progress, 498
 Prospects, 503
 Technical Improvement, 500
 Welfare, 499
- INDUSTRIAL POLICY, 487
- INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH BUREAU,
 National, 486
- INDUSTRY, 480-495
 Agricultural Credit Administration, 493
 Alcohol, 485
 Cement, 486
 Cement Mill, Szechuen, 486
 Chemical Industry, 485
 Chemical Institute, 662
 China National Tea Corporation, 725
 Coal Mines, 483
 Commodities Control, 490-495
 Cotton Mills, 486
 Cotton, Yarn and Cloth Control
 Bureau, 493
 Development Companies, 488
 Electrical Appliance, 485
 Electrical Appliances Works, Central, 485
 Electrical Company, Chungking, 483
 Electricity, 483
 —Central Electro-Technical Manufacturing Plant, 663
 Factories Moved in, Number of, 482
 Flour Mills, 486
 Foreign Factories, 298
 Foreign Investment, Field for, 308
 Foreign Investment, Synthetical
 Form of, 311
 Fuel Control Administration, 493
 Fuels, 483
 Gasoline Substitutes, 485
 Gold Mining Administration, 393
 Government Industries, 488
 Government's Active Part, 487
 Han-Yeh-Ping Iron and Steel Works, 481
 Heavy Industries, Progress Made, 487
 Iron and Steel, 484

- National Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Campaign, 438
 New Life Movement, 80
 Red Cross Society, National, 733
- KUNMING,**
 Air Lines, 602
 Air Raid Relief Squads, 741
 Astronomical Institute, 662
 British Publicity Organ, 679
 Engineering Institute, 662
 Epidemic Prevention Bureau, National Central, 714
 Food Price, 570
 Health Bureau, 691
 Highway Transportation, 583
 Labour Unions, 610
 Medical Aid Receiving Station, 718
 Musical Education, 648
 News Agency, Central, 671
 Population, 42
 Railways, 578
 Rainfall, 37
 Red Cross Society, National, 733
 Red Swastika Society Relief Work, 741
 Relief Factory, 723
 River Traffic, 540
 Temperature, 26, 33
 Transport Centre, 462
 Truck-Ambulance Convoys, 735
 Y.M.C.A., 90, 91
- KUOMINTANG,** 157-165
 Central Executive Committee, 157, 171
 —Members of, 162
 —National Congress, 169
 Central Party Headquarters, Personnel of, 162
 Eighth Plenary Session, 157
 —Manifesto, 158
 Emergency National Congress, 157
 Kuomintang Congress, Third National,
 —National Solidarity, 225
 Ninth Plenary Session, 158
 Officials, Directory of, 817
 Organization, 160
- Organization Chart, 163
 Party Newspapers, 668
 Principles, 160
 San Min Chu I, 159, 162, 164, 165, 225, 226, 517, 518, 607, 610, 638
 San Min Chu I Youth Corps, 161
 Seventh Plenary Session, 157
 Tenth Plenary Session, 158
 —Manifesto, 165
 Tsung-Tsai, 157, 159, 162
- KWANGSI,**
 Banks, 418
 Catholic Church, 71
 China National Tea Corporation, 462
 Credit Loan Office, 732
 Farm Loans, 429
 Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
 Malaria, 707
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Normal Schools, 643
 Population, 42
 Social Education, 645
 Topography, 7
 Water Conservancy
- KWANGTUNG,**
 Catholic Church, 71
 Cholera, 707
 Farm Loans, 429
 Islam, 66
 Machine Works, 485
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Plague, 705
 Population, 41
 Rainfall, 31
 Topography, 6, 7
 Water Conservancy, 538
- KWEICHOW,**
 Catholic Church, 71
 China National Tea Corporation, 462
 Credit Loan Office, 732
 Farm Loans, 429
 Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
 Health Workers Training Institute, 718
 History, 104, 110

- Malaria, 707
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Normal Schools, 643
 Population, 42
 Rainfall, 32
 Topography, 7
 Women War Contributions, 752
- KWEILIN,**
 Air Raid Relief Squads, 741
 British Publicity Organ, 679
 Child Welfare Associations, 740
 Food Price, 570
 Geological Institute, 659
 Health Bureau, 691
 Home Economy Survey, 637
 Physics Institute, 660
 Social Service Centre, 616
 Venereal Disease Treatment Station, 710
 War Orphanage, 730
 Y.M.C.A., 90, 91
- KWEIYANG,**
 Biological Products Laboratory, 715
 Central Hospital, 704
 Food Price, 570
 Health Bureau, 691
 Health Personnel Training Institute, 717
 Home Economy Survey, 637
 Medical Aid Receiving Station, 718
 Medical Relief Corps, 734
 News Agency, Central 671
 Population, 42
 Rainfall, 37
 Social Service Centre, 616
 Temperature, 33
 Truck-Ambulance Convoys, 735
 Y.M.C.A., 90, 91
- LABOUR UNIONS,** 609
- LABOUR WELFARE,** 625, *see* Social Administration
 Factory Inspection, 625
 Promotion of, 625
 Wages, Survey of, 637
- Workers Welfare Centres, Chungking, 626
- LAKES,** 11
- LAMAISM,** 112, *see* Religion
 Lamaist Church, 114
 Mongolia, 64
 Tibet, 64
- LANCHOW,**
 Epidemic Prevention Bureau, National Northwest, 714
 Population, 42
 Rainfall, 39
 Temperature, 35
- LAND ADMINISTRATION,** National, 775
- LANGUAGE,** 48-56
 Altai Family, 54
 Austro-Asiatic Family, 54
 Burmese, 53
 Cantonese, 50
 Chinese, 49
 Indo-Chinese Family, 48
 Kam-Tai, 51
 Miao-Yao, 52
 Mongolian, 55
 Peiping Dialect, 49
 Tibetan, 53
 Tungus, 56
 Turkish, 55
- LAOTSE,** 59, 60
- LASHIO,** Relief Committee, 726
- LEAGUE OF NATIONS,**
 Opium Advisory Council, 222
 Sino-Burmese Frontier Delimitation, 245
- LEGISLATIVE YUAN,** 172-181, 784, 805
 Bills Passed, 172
 Bureau of Legislative Research, 172
 Declaration of War, 179
 Economic Laws and Regulations, 180
 Financial Laws and Regulations, 180
 Functions, 172
 General Laws and Regulations, 180
 Laws and Regulations Being Drafted or Under Discussions, 179
 Local Self-Government, Laws and Regulations Governing, 180

Labour Unions, 609
 Machine Works, 484
 Machine Works, Central, 484
 Machinery Equipment, Inland Distribution of, 482
 Machinery Moved in, Number of, 482
 Machinery, Shipment of, 481
 Minerals, 466
 Mining Law, 305
 National Resources Commission, 467, 481, 484, 485, 488, 491, 663
 Oil Fields, 584
 —Kansu, 483
 Oil Production, 483
 Overseas Chinese Investment, 489
 Private Enterprises, Development of, 488
 Silk Research Institute, 464
 Tea Research Institute, 464
 Timber, 524
 Wartime Control, 490
 Weights and Measures, 854
 Wool Production, 510
 Yung-Li Ammonium-Sulphate Plant, 481
 INFORMATION, Ministry of, 668
 INTERIOR, Ministry of, 759, 795
 Census Administration, 212
 Census Administration Department, 205
 Census Officers, Training of, 213
 Ceremonies and Rites, Prescription of, 218
 Civil Affairs, 207
 —Administrative Areas, Readjustment of, 211
 —Local Self-Government, Enforcement of, 207
 Civil Affairs Department, 205
 Commendation and Pensions, 218
 Construction, Control of, 219
 Construction Department, 206
 Customs and Ceremonies Department, 206
 Dress, Standardization of, 218
 General Affairs Department, 205
 Monks Training Campaign, 63

Opium Suppression, 220-222
 Organization and Functions, 205, 759
 Patriots and Martyrs, Commemoration of, 218
 Police Administration, 213
 —News Papers and Periodicals, Registration of, 217
 —Number of Staff Members, 214
 —Publications Banned, 217
 —Publications Control, 216
 —Publications Registered, 217
 Police Administration Department, 206
 Police Bureaus, 215
 Police College, Central, 216
 —Number of Graduates, 216
 —Number of Trainees, 216
 Police Education, 216
 Police Forces, 215
 Police Organization, 213
 Police Training, Local, 216
 Police Training Institutes, Local, Numbers of, 216
 Staff, 206
 ISLAM,
 Advent into China, 66
 Chinese Islamic Educational Association, 68
 Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation, 68
 Chinese Muslim Mutual Progress Association, 68
 Early Intercourses, 67
 Education, 69
 Good-will Missions, 68
 Koran Translation, 69
 Mosques, 67
 Origin, 66
 Publications, 69
 Under the Manchu Rule, 67
 Under the Republic, 68

JAPANESE WAR, *see* Military Campaigns

JEHOL,
 Lama Temples, 66

Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 43
 Provincial Status, 120
 JOINT ADMINISTRATION OFFICE OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS, *see* Banking and Currency
 JOURNALISM, *see* Press
 JUDICIAL ADMINISTRATION,
 Cases, Settlement of, 185
 Efficiency, Promotion of, 183
 Expenditure, 182
 Experimental Courts, 183
 Judicial Officers Withdrawn from War Zones, Registration and Appointment of, 186
 Judicial Staff, 182
 Judicial Statistics, 185
 Judicial Supervision and Control, Intensification of, 182
 Judicial Work, 1941-1942, 182
 Permanent Judicial Institution, Setting up of, 183
 Prisons, 185
 Public Accounting System, Enforcement of, 183
 Wartime Arrangement, 181
 JUDICIAL YUAN, 181-188, 785, 807
 Administrative Court, 181, 787, 807
 Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries, 181
 Compilation and Publications, 186
 Courts, 181
 Judicial Personnel, 185
 Judicial Work, 182
 Laws, Enactment of, 185
 Organization, 181, 785
 Prisons, 181
 Supreme Court, 181, 786, 807
 JUSTICE, Ministry of, 181, 769, 801
 KAIFENG,
 Rainfall, 39
 Temperature, 35
 KANSU,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Farm Loans, 429
 Frontier Research Party, 236
 Machine Works, 485
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Oil Fields, 483
 Population, 42
 Topography, 6
 Water Conservancy, 532
 KIANGSI,
 Catholic Church, 71
 Farm Loans, 429
 Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
 Machine Works, 485
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Plague, 706
 Population, 41
 KIANGSU,
 Farm Loans, 429
 Mosques, 67
 Muslims, 67
 Population, 41
 KIRIN,
 Population, 43
 Provincial Status, 119
 KIU KIANG,
 Rainfall, 38
 Temperature, 34
 Koo, Dr. Willington, 254
 Women Work, Statement on 754
 KUBLAI KHAN, 25
 Protection of Lamaism, 66
 KUNG, Dr. H. H.,
 Central Bank of China, 384
 Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers, 79
 Confucian Association, National, 59
 "Eight-Point Financial Program," 386, 411
 External Loans, Statement on, 361
 Financial Situation, Review on, 329
 Internal Loan Situation, Statement on, 360
 Joint Administration Office of Four Government Banks, 386
 Loan Situation, Statement on, 361

- Military Laws and Regulations, 179
Treaties and Conventions Passed, 179
- LIHSA, 118, 121, 233
Imperial Commissioner, 114
Language, 53
Monasteries, 66
National Language School, 236
Public Library, 236
- LIAONING,
Change of Provincial Name, 119
Population, 43
- LIN SEN, President,
Audience Given Mongolians, 229
Patronizing Buddhist Activities, 64
- LOANS, GOVERNMENT,
Allied Victory Gold Loan, 362
Allied Victory Loan, 362
American and British Cash Loans, 361
American \$500,000,000 Loan, 362
American Lend-Lease Arrangements, 361
American Wood Oil Credit of U.S. \$25,000,000, 361, 463, 473
Barter Agreements with the Soviet Union, 361
British Exports Guarantee Credits, 361
British Stabilization Credits, 361
Customs Revenue, Relation to Foreign Loans, 365
Foreign Loans, 361
Gold Loan, 362
Internal Loan, Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid, 366, 367
Internal Loans Issued, 362, 363
Loans Secured by Customs Revenue, 364
Loan Situation, 361
National Defense Loan, 362
National Liberty Bonds, 362
Reconstruction Loan, 362
Relief Loan, 362
Sino-American-British Stabilization Credits, 361
War Supplies Loan, 362
- Wartime Government Bonds Promotion Commission, 362
- LOCAL FINANCE, 332
Demarcation of National and Local Finance, 381
Yunnan Finance,
—Research Study, 657
- LOCAL GOVERNMENT, 199-204
Administration Areas, Number of, 212
Hsien Government, 201-202
Municipal Government, 202, 204
Provincial Government, 199-200
Special Commissioner of Administrative Inspection, 200
- LOCAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEMS, Charts, 203, 776-781
- LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT,
Enforcement of, 207
Program of, 202
- LUKOUCHIAO INCIDENT, 108
- "**MANCHUKUO**," Puppet State of, 106
"MANCHURIA," 113, *see* Northeast China
Misnomer, 122
- MANPOWER, Mobilization of, 635
- MEASURES AND WEIGHTS, 854
- MEDICAL, *see* Health
- MEDICAL AID, Foreign
American Aid, 718
British Aid, 718
- MEDICAL EQUIPMENTS, Production of, 713, 714
- MEDICAL PERSONNEL, 711
Control of,
—Conscription of Doctors and Pharmacists, 712
Registered, 711
Right to Resign from Public Service, Restriction of, 712
Subsidies to, 712
- MEDICAL RELIEF,
Friends' Ambulance Unit, 718
- MEDICAL SUPPLIES,
Biological Products,
—Manufactured by National Central

- and Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, 715
—Production of, 714
- Civilian Use, 715
Control of, 711
Drugs, Production of, 714
Exhibit of Drugs and Medical Instruments, 714
Narcotic and Non-Narcotic Drugs
Produced, 714
Purchasing Committee, 715
- METEOROLOGY, *see* Climate
- MIGRATION, *see* Oversea Chinese
- MILITARY AFFAIRS, Ministry of, 671, 796
- MILITARY CAMPAIGNS, 127-144
Burma Campaign, 141
—Irrawaddy River Front, 142
—Rangoon-Toungoo Railway, 141
—Salween River Front, 143
—Toungoo-Mandalay Railway, 142
Central Hupeh, Fighting in, 133
Central War Area, 131
Changsha Battle, Second, 136
Changsha Battle, Third, 137
Chekiang-Kiangsi Fighting, 138
Chung'iao Mountains, Battle of, 129
Guerrillas, Mongolian, 230
Northern War Area, 128
Shangkao, Battle of, 134
Southern Honan, Battle of, 128
Southern War Area, 141
Southwestern Shantung Guerrilla Activities, 131
Tsaoyang and Ich'ang Engagements, 131
Tsingyun, Battle of, 141
Wuyuan, Offensive on, 128
- MILITARY FOOD,
Quantity Supplied, 559
Transportation of, 564
- MINERAL RESOURCES, *see* Industry
- MINING, *see* Industry
- MISSION HOSPITALS, 705, *see* Catholic Church and Protestant Church
- MISSIONARIES, *see* Catholic Church and Protestant Church
- MISSIONARY PROPERTY, 304
- MOHAMMEDANISM, *see* Islam
- MONGOLIA, 223
Animal Husbandry, 231,
Banking Units, 231
Banners, 114
Buddhism, 233
Catholic Church, 70
Chinese Entity, 112
Communications, 230
Cooperatives, 231
Deserts, 11
Economic Affairs, 231
Education, 646
Education and Cultural Activities, 231
Guerrillas, 230
Handicraft, 231
Health Work, 701
Highways, Construction of, 230
"Inner Mongolia," 113
Lamaism, 64, 66
Language, 55
Livelihood of the People, 226
Military Affairs,
—Equipments, Improvement of, 230
Mongol Empire, 103
National Solidarity, 224
Outer Mongolia, 113, 115
Peace Preservation Corps, 230
Political Administration, 228
—Administrative Machinery, Strengthening of, 229
—Li Fan Yuan, 113
—Political Work, 228
—Unity, Strengthening of, 228
Political Rights, 225
Political Status, 115-116
Population, 43
Post Offices, 231
Prince Teh, 228
Public Health, 232
Rainfall, 32
Reconstruction, Aims of, 224
Relief Work, 233
Soviet-Japanese Protocol, 116
Telegraph, 231

886

INDEX

- Temperature, 27
- Topography, 5
- Trade Control, 231
- Wireless, 231
- MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN AFFAIRS,
 - Commission on, 223-240, 770, 801
 - Administrative System, Adjustment of, 227
 - Before the War, 227
 - Frontier Conditions, Study of, 227
 - General Affairs Department, 224
 - Local Dispute, Settlement of, 227
 - Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Departments, 224
 - Organization, Adjustment of, 228, 770
 - Religious Affairs, Adjustment of, 227
 - Resident Office in Tibet, 234
 - Tibet, Political Administration, 233
 - Wartime Work, 228
- MONGOLIAN LEAGUES AND BANNERS,
 - Organization of, 229
- "MONGOLIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC," 116
- MONGOLIAN POLITICAL COMMISSION,
 - Shiyuan, 229, 237, 238, 783
- MONGOLIANS,
 - Comforting Missions to Chungking, 237
 - Important Government Officials, 230
 - Resistance Against Enemy, 237
 - War Effort, 237
- MONGOLS, 103, 110, 112, 114
 - Distribution of, 44, 46
 - Inner Mongols, 120
 - Outer Mongols, 121
- MONOPOLY, National,
 - Daily Necessities, 342
 - Match Corporation, Central, 343
 - Matches Monopoly, Regulations Governing, 343, 352
 - Salt Monopoly, Regulations Governing, 342, 344
 - Sugar Monopoly, Regulations Governing, 343, 349
 - Tobacco Monopoly, Regulations Governing, 344, 354
- MOUNTAINS, 8-9
- MUKDEN,
 - Rainfall, 40
 - Temperature, 36
- MUKDEN INCIDENT, 106
- MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT, 202
- MUSLIM EDUCATION,
 - Publications in Muslim Language, 232
- MUSLIMS,
 - Distribution in China, 66, 67
 - Prominent, 69
- NANKING,
 - Population, 43
 - Puppet Organization, 325
 - Rainfall, 32, 39
 - Temperature, 35
- NATIONAL CONSERVANCY BOARD, *see*
 - Water Conservancy
- NATIONAL CONSTITUTION, 169
- NATIONAL DEFENSE, *see* National Military Council and Supreme National Defense Council
- NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION CAMPAIGN, 611
- NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION COUNCIL, 493, 776, 807
- NATIONAL GOVERNMENT, 171-199
- NATIONAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS,
 - Directory of, 793
- NATIONAL GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS,
 - Academia Sinica, 641, 656
 - Control Yuan, 196-198, 791, 807
 - Examination Yuan, 188-196, 788, 807
 - Executive Yuan, 171-172, 758, 795
 - Judicial Yuan, 181-188, 785, 807
 - Legislative Yuan, 172-181, 784, 805
 - National Military Council, 171, 198-199
 - Supreme National Defense Council, 159, 162, 171
- NATIONAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEMS,
 - Charts, 757-792

- NATIONAL HOLIDAYS, Foreign, 851
- NATIONAL MILITARY COUNCIL, 171, 198-199, 794
 - Aeronautical Commission, National, 199
 - Courts Martial, Directorate-General of, 199
 - Industrial Control, 488
 - Military Advisory Council, 199
 - Military Affairs, Board of, 199
 - Military Operations, Board of, 199
 - Naval Board, 199
 - Organization and Functions, 198
 - Personnel Board, 199
 - Personnel Training, 189
 - Political Training, Board of, 199
 - Press Censorship, 680
 - Relief Grants, 723
 - Relief of Tibetans, 236
 - Service Board, 199
 - Trade Adjustment, 461
- NATIONAL PEOPLE'S CONGRESS, 171
 - Elections of, 169
 - Preparations for, 168
- NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMISSION, *see*
 - Industry
- NATIONAL SOCIALIST PARTY, Chinese,
 - People's Political Council, 165, 167
- NATIONAL TREASURY, *see* Finance,
 - Public
- NATIONALIST PARTY, *see* Kuomintang
- NATIONALIST REVOLUTION, 105, 106, 116
- NEW DELHI,
 - News Agency, Central, 671
- NEW LIFE MOVEMENT, 80, 83, 611
 - Friends of the Wounded Society, 742-746
 - Relief Work, 725
 - Service Centre,
 - Employment Department, 625
 - Women's Advisory Board, 751
- NEW TREATIES, Conclusion of, 276, 277-297
- NEWS AGENCIES, 666
 - American Information Service, 672, 679
 - British Press Attaché's Office, 672, 679
 - Central News Agency, 671, 672
 - Numbers of, 667
 - Polish Telegraphic Agency, 679
 - Representative Press Organs, 671
 - Soviet Embassy Press Bureau, 679
- NEWS EXCHANGE,
 - With Foreign News Agencies, 672
- NEWS GATHERING, Improved, 666
- NEWS TRANSMISSIONS, 683
 - International Radio Telegraphy, 683
- NEWSPAPERMEN,
 - Killed, 676
 - Patriotism of, 675
- NEWSPAPERS, 666
 - Army Papers, 670
 - Sao Tang Pao, 670
 - Bombing of, 665
 - Central Daily News, 672
 - Editorials, 666
 - Foreign Press, 677
 - Format, Wartime, 666
 - Numbers of, 667
 - Party Papers, 668
 - Under Control of Central Kuomintang, 668
 - Under Control of Municipal or Hsien Tangpu, 669
 - Under Control of Provincial or Special Municipal Tangpu, 669
 - Published in Chungking, 668
 - Ta Kung Pao, 673
 - Medal of Honour for Distinguished Service in Journalism, 674
 - Wall Sheets, 671
- NEWSPAPERS AND MARTYRS, 674
- NEWSPRINT, 665
- NINGHSIA,
 - Mosques, 67
 - Muslims, 67
 - Population, 42
 - Provincial Status, 120
- NORTH CHINA,
 - Rainfall, 32
 - Snowfall, 32
 - Topography, 6

- Statistics, 87
- Student Relief, 81
- United Christian Publishers, 86
- War Relief, 78
- European Refugees, 82
- World Christian Conference, 89
- World Student Christian Federation, 81
- Wounded Soldiers, Service to, 79
- Y.M.C.A., 80, 81, 83, 88, 90-93
- Y.W.C.A., 80, 81, 88, 94-97
- PROVINCES OF CHINA, 121
- PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT, 199-200
 - Organization, 199
 - Provincial Assembly, 200
 - Provisional Provincial Assemblies, 200
- PUBLIC DEBT, *see* Loans, Government
- PUBLIC FINANCE, *see* Finance
- PUBLIC HEALTH, 690-719, *see* Health
- PUPPET ORGANIZATIONS,
 - Deportation of Foreign Journalists, 675
 - "Federal Reserve Bank," 467
 - Nanking Bogus Organization, 325
 - "Oversea Affairs Commission," 325
- QUARANTINE SERVICE, *see* Epidemic Prevention and Control
- QUO TAI-CHI, Dr., 241, 243, 257, 261, 269, 271
- RADIO, *see* Wireless
- RAILWAYS, 573
 - Engineering, 578
 - Extensions, 573
 - Freight Services, 575-577
 - Kilometrage, 574
 - Materials and Stores, 574
 - New Constructions, 578
 - New Lines, 573
 - Passenger Services, 575-577
 - Rolling Stock, 574
 - Station Equipment, 579
 - Yunnan-Burma Railway, 578

- RANGOON,
 - Oil Refining Equipment Lost at, 483
- RECLAMATION WORK, *see* Agriculture
- RED CROSS COMMITTEE, International, 718
- RED CROSS SOCIETY, American,
 - Medical Aid, 718, 739
- RED CROSS SOCIETY, British,
 - Medical Aid, 718
- RED CROSS SOCIETIES, Foreign, 718
- RED CROSS SOCIETY, National, 733-739
 - Activities, 734
 - Contributions, 739
 - American Red Cross, 739
 - British Government, 739
 - Indian Government, 739
 - Oversea Chinese, 739
 - Crippled Soldiers, Service to, 745
 - History, 733
 - Local Chapters Activities, 739
 - Medical Relief Corps, 704, 734, 745
 - Medical Supplies,
 - Free Distribution of, 737
 - Issued by Central Depot, 738
 - Received by Central Depot, 738
 - Medical Units, 734
 - Organization, 733
 - Project for Chungking, 736
 - General Clinic, 736
 - General Hospital, 737
 - Isolation Hospital, 736
 - Relief Work, 80, 733
 - Supply Depots, 737
 - Truck-Ambulance Convoys, 735
- RED SWASTIKA SOCIETY, World, 723, 740-742
 - Activities, 740
 - Child Welfare Associations, 740
- RELIEF COMMISSION, National, 720, 772, 802
 - Organization, 720, 772
 - Productive Organizations, 728
 - Relief Factory, 728
- RELIEF WORK, *see* Social Relief
 - Air Raid Relief, 722
 - Air-Raid Victims, Assistance to, 741
 - Buddhist Activities, 62

- Catholic Work, 76
- Child Welfare, 626
- Chiang Kai-shek, Madame, 85
- Credit Loan Offices, 731
- Credit Loans, 729
- Educational Relief Work,
 - Statistics, 654
 - Student Relief, 81
 - Teachers and Students, Emergency Relief of, 324
- Emergency Relief, 722
- Flood Relief, 722, 724
- Friends of the Wounded Society, 79, 742-746
- Hongkong Fishermen's Association, 725
- International Red Cross, 83
- International Relief Committee, 83, 705
 - Grants, 84
- Medical Relief, 703
- Model Asylum, 727
- Mongolia, 233
- National Christian Council War Relief Committee, 79
- National Health Administration, 84, 703
- National Relief Commission, 720-732
- National Student Relief Committee, 81
- Occupational Relief, 727
- Overseas Chinese, 725
 - Emergency Relief, 323
 - Emergency Relief, Council for, 323
 - Unemployment Relief, 323
- Protestant Mission, 78
 - Service to the Wounded Soldiers, 79
- Red Cross Society, National, 80, 733-739
- Red Swastika Society, World, 723, 740-742
- Refugee Children, National Wartime Association for the Care and Education of, 728, 746
- Refugee Children, National Wartime Association for the Relief of, 728
- Refugee Children Relief Association, 746-749
 - Budget, 748
 - Policy, Revised, 747
- Refugee Relief Committee, Northwest, 726
- Relief Associations, 721
- Relief Districts, 721
- Social Relief, 611, 726
- Special Relief, 723
- Tibet, 236
- United Aid to China Fund, British, 85
- United China Relief, 502, 718, 748
- United China Relief Fund, American, 85
- War Orphans, 728
- War Orphanages, 730
- War Refugees, 720
 - Transport of, 721
- Y.M.C.A.,
 - Civilian Relief Work, 92
 - Emergency Service to Soldiers, 83, 92
 - Students Relief Work, 92
- Y.W.C.A., 95
- RELIGION, 57-97
 - Buddhism, 62-66
 - Catholicism, 70-77
 - Confucianism, 57-59, 100, 101
 - Islam, 66-69
 - Lamaism, 64-66, 114
 - Protestantism, 77-89
 - Taoism, 59-62, 101
 - Tibet, 233
- RESEARCH INSTITUTES,
 - Academia Sinica, 641, 656
 - Fan Memorial Research Institute, 641
 - National Research Council, 663
 - Research Institute of Peiping, National, 641
- RETING HUTUKHTU, 118, 233
 - Prayer for Victory, 238
- RIVERS, 9
 - Chi Kiang,
 - Regulation of, 541

NORTHEAST CHINA,

- Chinese Entity, 113
- Chinese Migration, 106, 119, 122
- Forest Area, 528
- History, 102
- Japan's Hold on, 106
- Language, 56
- Mosques, 67
- Muslims, 67
- Temperature, 26, 27
- Topography, 6

OPIUM SUPPRESSION,

- Collaboration in, 221
- League of Nations, 222

OPIUM SUPPRESSION COMMISSION,
National, 220

OPIUM SUPPRESSION ORGANS, 221

OVERSEA AFFAIRS COMMISSION, 314,
771, 802

- Administrative Activities, 315
- Enemy Goods, Distinction of, 319
- History, 314
- Investment in Productive Enterprises, Encouragement of, 318
- Organization, 314
- Oversea Chinese Capital, Directing the Influx of, 321
- Oversea Education, Promotion of, 322
- Oversea Remittances, Facilitating of, 320
- Principles, 315
- Technical Personnel to Work at Home, Encouragement of, 318
- Thrift and Savings Movement, Fostering of, 320
- War Situations, Conveying Abroad, 317

OVERSEA CHINESE, 122-123

- Assistance Committee, 315
- Cantonese, 103
- Chiao-Lo Villages, 323
- Contributions, Collection of, 317
- Contributions, Encouragement of, 316
- Distribution, 123

Education, 646

- Emergency Relief, 323
- Emigration, 103
- Industrial Investment, 489
- Medical Aid, 739
- Relief of, 725
- Remittances, 394, 597
- Unemployment Relief, 323
- OVERSEA CHINESE AFFAIRS, 314-314

PAI CHUNG-HSI, General,

- Islamic National Salvation Federation, 68

PANCHAN LAMA, 64, 115, 118

- Donations for Funeral of, 235
- Remains of, 234

PARTY AND GOVERNMENT WORK, Com-
mission on Control of, 159

Personnel, 162

PARTY AND POLITICS, 157-170

PASSPORT REGULATIONS, 852

PEIPING,

- Lama Temples, 66
- Population, 43
- Rainfall, 32, 39
- Temperature, 35
- Y.M.C.A., 91

PEOPLE'S ORGANIZATION, *see* Popular
Organization

PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL, 165-168

- Buddhist Members, 167
- Catholic Members, 167
- Communist Members, 164
- Communist Party, Chinese, 162, 164,
165, 166, 167
- Members, 821
- Muslim Member, 167
- National Socialist Party, 162, 165,
167
- Organization, 165
- Oversea Chinese, Interest in, 325
- Social Relief Resolution, 727
- Work of, 167
- Youth Party, 162, 165, 167

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION, *see*
Examination Yuan

ADMINISTRATION CON-

FERENCE, National, 189, 190

POLICE ADMINISTRATION, *see* Interior,
Ministry ofPOLITICAL AFFAIRS, *see* Party and
Politics

POPULAR ORGANIZATION,

- Activities of, 610
- Classification, 609
- Constitution and Readjustment, 608
- Number of, 609
- Supervision of, 609
- Training, 607

POPULATION, 41-47

POSTAL SERVICE, 591

- Air Transmission, 594
- Employees Appointed, Additional,
595
- Mail Lines, Total Length of, 593
- Mail Matter, Classification of, 593
- Parcels Posted, 594
- Post Offices, Distribution of, 592
- Postal Remittance, 597
- Postal Savings, 596
- Postal Statistics, 591
- Postal Transportation,
—Bicycles, 595
—Hand Carts, 595
—Steamers, 595
—Steel-Axled Four-Wheelers, 596
—Trucks, 591

PRESS, The, 665-689

- Foreign Press, 677
—American and British Journalists
in Shanghai, 675
—American Information Service, 672
679
—British Press Attaché's Office, 672,
679
—Foreign Correspondents in Chung-
king, 677
—Polish Telegraphic Agency, 679
—Soviet Embassy Press Bureau, 679
Japanese Terrorism Towards, 676
Journalistic Education, 687
—Central Political Institute, 689
—Fu Tan University, 688

—Numbers of Graduates, 689

—Yenching University, 688

- News Agencies, 666
- Newspapers, 666
- Newsprint, 665
- Press Association, National, 684
—Constitution, 685
- Press Censorship Bureau, Wartime,
680
- Press Censorship Regulations, 680
- Press Censorship, Wartime, 680
- Press Telegrams,
—Regulations Governing, 683
—Statistics, 684

PRICE CONTROL, *see* Commodity Con-
trolPRISONS, 187, *see* Judicial Yuan

PROTESTANT CHURCH, 77-89

- American Advisory Committee, 78
- Canadian Mission Press, 86
- Child Welfare Work, 80
- China Christian Educational Asso-
ciation, 85
- Christian Literature, 86
- Christian Literature Society, 86
- Christian Organizations, 87
- Church and Alumni Movement, 89
- Church Committee for China Relief,
78
- Civilian War Relief, 78
- Continental Missions, 82
- Council of Medical Missions, 83
- Educational Service, 83
- Federal Council of Churches of Christ
in America, 78
- Friends of the Wounded Society, 79
- International Missionary Council, 82,
89
- Medical Service, 83
- Missionary Property, 304
- National Christian Council, 78, 80,
82, 83, 85, 88
- War Relief Committee, 79
- National Intercollegiate Christian
Council, United States, 81
- National Service, 78
- Social Service, Commission, 89

- Grand Canal, 9
- Grand Canal, 9
- Huai Ho, 9
- Huang Ho, 6, 9, *see* Yellow River
- Kialing River,
 - Regulation of, 540
 - Shipping, 598
- Kinsha River,
 - Regulation of, 539
 - Shipping, 598
- Kuei Kiang, Regulation of, 543
- Min River, Regulation of, 540
- Pearl River, 7
 - Chinese History, 109
 - Flood Prevention, 546
 - Regulation of, 538
- Yangtze, 6, 9, 10
 - Chinese History, 109
 - Flood Prevention, 545
 - Regulation of, 539
- Yellow River, 6
 - Chinese History, 109
 - Flood Prevention, 543
 - Flood Relief, 722
- Yuan River,
 - Regulation of, 542
 - Shipping, 598
- ROOSEVELT, President Frankling D., 241
 - American \$500,000,000 Loan to China, 261, 262
 - Greetings to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, 256
 - Lend-Lease Bill, Execution of, 260
 - Military Mission to China, 260
- RURAL ECONOMY, 512
- RURAL FINANCE,
 - Agricultural Credit Administration, 426
 - Cooperative Banks, 437
 - Farm Irrigation Loans, 433, 434
 - Farm Irrigation Projects, 435
 - Farm Loans, 426-438
 - Amount, 431, 432
 - Classification, 428, 431, 432
 - Extension of, 426, 428, 429, 430, 431

- Operations, 427
- Regulations Governing Extension by Government Banks, 427
- Utilization of, 436
- Land Finance Development, 426
- Rural Banks, 437
- Rural Loans, 627

SALT ADMINISTRATION, *see* Monopoly, National

- San Min Chu I, 159, 162, 164, 165, 225, 226, 517, 518, 607, 610, 638

SAN MIN CHU I YOUTHS CORPS, *see* Kuomintang

SHANGHAI,

- Newspaper Martyrs, 674
- Population, 43
- Rainfall, 30, 38
- Temperature, 34
- Y.M.C.A., 91

SHANSI,

- Catholic Church, 70
- Mosques, 67
- Muslims, 67
- Population, 42
- Topography, 6

SHANTUNG,

- Catholic Church, 70
- Mosques, 67
- Muslims, 67
- Population, 42
- Topography, 6

SHENSI,

- Catholic Church, 71
- Farm Loans, 429
- Flour Mills, 486
- Mosques, 67
- Muslims, 67
- Population, 42
- Topography, 6
- Water Conservancy, 531

SHIPPING, 598

- China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, 601
- Foreign Steamship Companies, 306
- General Business, 599

- Inland Waterways, Kilometrage of, 600
- Kialing River Line, 598
- Kinsha River Line, 598
- Land-Water Through Traffic, 599
 - Szechuen-Hunan Route, 599
 - Szechuen-Shensi Route, 599
- Mechanical Heaving Equipment, 599
- Minsheng Industrial Company, 600
- New Lines, Development of, 598
- Organization, 598
- Wooden Vessels, 599
- Yuan River Line, 598

SIAM,

- Food Price, 570
- Health Bureau, 691
- Population, 43
- Rainfall, 39
- Temperature, 35
- Y.M.C.A., 90

SICHANG,

- Rainfall, 37
- Temperature, 33

SIKANG,

- Farm Loans, 429
- Frontier Research Party, 236
- Population, 42
- Provincial Status, 121
- Topography, 7

SINING,

- Rainfall, 39
- Temperature, 35

SINKIANG,

- Chinese Entity, 112, 113
- Deserts, 11
- Muslim Revolts, 118
- Mosques, 67
- Muslims, 67
- Population, 43
- Provincial Status, 118

SINO-JAPANESE WAR, *see* Military Campaigns

- SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION, 607-638
 - Administrative Organization, 607
 - Administrative Organs, Provincial
 - Administrative Work, 607
 - Administrators, Training of, 635

- Cooperative Commodities Supply Agency, National, 634
- Cooperative Enterprises, 626
- Home Economy Survey, 637
- Labour Welfare, 625
- Manpower, Mobilization of, 635
- Popular Organization, 607
- Popular Training, 609
- Public Campaigns, 611
- Responsible Personnel, Training of, 635
- Research and Planning, 637
- Social Education,
 - Frontier Regions, 232
 - Tibet, 235
- Social Insurance, 616
- Social Legislation, 638
- Social Relief, 611, 726, *see* Relief Work, 726
 - Charity Organization, Activities, 614
 - Loafers Training Institute, 616
 - Model Poorhouse, Chungking, 616
- Social Relief Organization, Work, 612
- Social Service, 616
 - Cultural Activities, 618
 - Economic Activities, 620
 - Employment Advisory Bureau, Chungking, 625
 - Employment Assistance, 616
 - Employment Department, New Life Movement Service Centre, 625
 - Employment Office, Chungking Institute of Popular Education, 625
 - Employment Office for Honour Soldiers, 625
 - Employment Offices, 625
 - Inquiry Service, 624
 - Life Guidance, 622
 - Public Welfare and Relief Activities, 621
 - Resistance and Reconstruction Activities, 624
 - Social Service Personnel Allocation Office, Chungking, 625

- Students' Advisory Office, Chungking, 625
- Social Service Centres,
 - Number of, 617
 - Statistics, 616
- Social Survey and Statistics, 637
- Social Welfare, 611
 - Child Health, 626
 - Child Welfare Work, 626
- Social Workers, Training of, 635
- SOCIAL AFFAIRS, Ministry of, 607, 767, 800
- SOONG, Dr. T. V.,
 - American \$500,000,000 Loan, Statement on, 263
 - Central Bank of China, 384
 - China Defense Supplies Corporation, 260
 - Currency Stabilization Loan Agreement, Statement on, 256
 - Joint Declaration of United Nations, Signing of, 241
 - New Treaty, Negotiations on, 279
 - Red Cross Society, National, 733
 - Sino-American Agreement on Mutual Aid in War, 264
 - Sino-British Currency Stabilization Fund Agreement, Signing of, 242
- SOVIET UNION, *see* Foreign Relations
- STAGE TRANSPORT, 586
 - Administration, 586
 - Equipment, 586
 - Truck and Branch Lines, 586
- STAGE TRANSPORT CONFERENCE, National, 586
- STEPPES, 11
- STUDENT MOVEMENT, 106
- SUIYUAN, *see* Mongolia
 - Mosques, 67
 - Muslims, 67
 - Population, 43
 - Provincial Status, 120
- SUN YAT-SEN, Dr.
 - Forestry Teaching, 517, 518
 - Industrial Plan, 310
 - Industrial Policy, 487
 - Land Policy, 304, 341
- National Solidarity, 224
- People's Livelihood, 496
- Political Rights, 225
- Principles Published in *Mongolian* and Tibetan Languages, 228
- Principles Taught to Frontier Peoples, 232
- Program of National Reconstruction, 168
- Revolution of 1911, 105
- Social Service, 616
- SUPREME COURT, *see* Judicial Yuan
- SUPREME NATIONAL DEFENSE COUNCIL,
 - 159, 171, 493
 - Personnel, 162
 - Personnel Control, Approval of, 189
- SWATOW,
 - Rainfall, 37
 - Population, 41
 - Temperature, 33
- SZECHUEN,
 - Air Raid Casualties, 147, 153
 - Catholic Church, 71
 - Cement Mill, 486
 - Farm Loans, 429
 - Flour Mills, 486
 - Forest Land, 521
 - Health Workers Training Institute, 717
 - Machine Works, 485
 - Mosques, 67
 - Muslims, 67
 - New Hsien System, Enforcement of, 208
 - Normal Schools, 643
 - Population, 42
 - Rainfall, 32
 - Topography, 7
 - Water Conservancy, 533
- TAOISM, 59-62, 101
- TAXATION, 334, *see* Finance
 - Business Tax, 335
 - Commodity Tax, 337
 - Consolidated Tax, 337
 - Consumption Tax, Wartime, 333

- Scheme and Tariff Rates, 840
- Direct Tax, 334
- Excess Profit Tax, 335
 - Rates, 336
- Income Tax, 334
 - Rates, 336
- Inheritance Tax, 335
 - Exemptions, 336
 - Rates, 336
- Land Increment Value Tax, 341
- Land Tax, 333
 - In Kind, 338, 550, 554
 - Reforms, 334
- Land Tax Commission, 341
- Mining Tax, 338
- Stamp Tax, 335
 - Exemptions, 337
 - Rates, 337
- Taxes Collected by National Revenue Administration, 339
- Wine-Tabacco Tax, 338
- TELEGRAPH, 587
 - Messages Transmitted, 591
 - Mongolia, 231
 - Telegraph Lines, 589
 - Telegraph Offices, Number of, 588
- TELEPHONE, 587
 - Chengtu, 589
 - Chungking Telephone System, 588
 - Telephone Calls, Number of, 591
 - Telephone Lines,
 - Length of, 590
 - Long-Distance, 589
 - Telephones, Wireless, 589
- THREE PEOPLE'S PRINCIPLES, *see* Sun Min Chu I
- TIBET, 223
 - Anglo-Chinese Convention, 117
 - Buddhism, 233
 - Chinese Entity, 114
 - Communications, Improvement of, 236
 - Deserts, 11
 - Education, 646
 - Education and Culture, 235
 - Lamaism, 64
 - Language Schools, 236
- Monasteries and Ecclesiastics, Protection of, 235
- National Dialect, Teaching of, 236
- National Solidarity, 224
- Political Administration, 233
 - Li Fan Yuan, 113
- Political Rights, 225
- Political Status, 117-118
- Politics, 233
- Population, 43
- Reconstruction, Aim of, 224
- Relief, 236
- Religion, 233
- Social Education, 235
- Students, 236
- Temperature, 27
- Topography, 5
- TIBETAN MARCHES, Chinese Entity, 113
- TIBETANS, 111, 112
 - Comforting Missions to Chungking, 238
 - Distribution of, 44, 46
 - Financial Contributions to Troops, 238
 - In Government Service, 234
 - Language, 53
 - Livelihood, 226
 - Memorial Services for Dead Soldiers, 238
 - Prayers for Victory, 238
 - War Effort, 237
 - Winter Clothes Campaign, 238
- TIENTSIN,
 - Population, 43
 - Y.M.C.A., 91
- TIHWA,
 - Rainfall, 39
 - Temperature, 35
- TOPOGRAPHY, 5
 - Topographical Units, 8
- TRADE UNIONS, 609
 - Workers' Service Corps, Chungking, 610
- TRAFFIC CONFERENCE, National Through, 586
- TRANSPORTATION, *see* Communications and Transportation

TSINAN,
Population, 42
Rainfall, 39
Temperature, 350

TSINGTAO,
Population, 43
Rainfall, 39
Temperature, 35

TSUNYI,
Social Service Centre, 616

ULAN CHAP LEAGUE, 120, 228, 237
Hospitals, 232
Population, 43

UNEQUAL TREATIES, Abolition of, 277

UNITED STATES, *see* Foreign Relations

VATICAN, *see* Holy See and Foreign Relations

WAICHIAOPU, *see* Foreign Affairs, Ministry of

WANG, Dr. Chengting T.,
Red Cross Society, National, 733

WANG CHING-WEI, 270
Blacklist, 674
Foreign Journalists, Deportation of, 675

WANG CHUNG-HUI, Dr.
Abolition of Unequal Treaties, Statement on, 278
Landing of Japanese Troops in Indo-China, Statement on, 268
Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact, Statement on, 270

WAR ORPHANS, *see* Relief Work

WAR REFUGEES, *see* Relief Work

WAR RELIEF, 720-749, *see* Relief Work

WATER CONSERVANCY, 531-546
Administration, Unification of, 530
Administrative Organization, 530
Area Irrigated, 536
Development, 530
Farm Irrigation Projects, 435
Flood Prevention, 543
—Dykes, Repair of, 545

—Han River, 545
—Military Dykes, 545
—Pearl River, 546
—Yangtze River, 545
—Yellow River, 543, 723
Hydraulic Engineering Works, Statistical Table, 536
Irrigation Canals, Development of, 531
Kansu, 532
Kwangsi, 535
Kwangtung, 538
Kweichow, 534
National Conservancy Board, 51
530, 773, 802
Rivers, Regulation of, 538
—Chi Kiang, 541
—Chihshui River, 541
—Chingshui River, 542
—Kialing River, 540
—Kinsha River, 539
—Kuei River, 543
—Mapien River, 540
—Min River, 540
—Wukiang, 542
—Yangtze River, 539
—Yu River, 542
—Yuan River, 542
Shensi, 531
Szechuen, 533
Yellow River Commission, 516
Yunnan, 534

WEATHER BUREAU, National, 23, 659

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, 854

WEIHAIWEI ADMINISTRATION, 782

WILKIE, Mr. W., 751

WIRELESS, 589
International Radio Telegraphy, 68
International Wireless Stations, 58
Mongolia, 231

WOMEN ACTIVITIES, 750-754
Child Education, 753
Contacts with Foreign Peoples, 751
Mobilization of Women, 750
Periodicals Published by Women Organizations, 752
Productive Work, 751

Publicity Work, 752
Refugee Relief, 753
Sanitary Workers in Burmese Campaign, 751
Services for Soldiers, 752
War Production Work, 753

WOMEN'S ADVISORY BOARD, New Life Movement, 751
Relief Work, 725

WONG WEN-HAO, Dr., 302
Estimates on Land Areas, 8
Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, 489
National Resources Commission, 489

YANGTZE RIVER COMMISSION, *see* Water Conservancy

YELLOW RIVER COMMISSION, *see* Water Conservancy

Y.M.C.A., 80, 88, 90
Association Press of China, 93
City Associations, 90
Civilian Relief, 92
Emergency Service to Soldiers, 83, 92
International Understanding and Good-will, Promotion of, 93
National Committee, 80, 81, 91
Student Associations, 91
Student Relief, 92
Wartime Services, 92
Youth and Religion Movement, 93

Y.W.C.A., 80, 88, 94
City Associations, 94
Livelihood Projects, 95
National Committee, 81

Rural Women, Work With, 96
Varied Activities, 96
War Relief, 95

YOUTH PARTY, Chinese, People's Political Council, 165, 167

YUNNAN,
Administrative Areas, 212
Air Raid Casualties, 147, 153
Banks, 418
Catholic Church, 71
China National Tea Corporation, 462
Cholera, 707
Credit Loan Office, 732
Farm Loans, 429
Financial Research, 657
Foo Shing Trading Corporation, 463
Forest Land, 522
Forestry Education, 519
Frontier Research Party, 236
Health Workers Training Institute, 718
History, 104, 110
Malaria Control, 707
—Anti-Malaria Commission, 707
Mosques, 67
Muslims, 67
Normal Schools, 643
Plague, 705
Population, 42
Quarantine Service, 710
Railways, 573
Salt Contents, 662
Topography, 7
Water Conservancy, 534
War Contributions, 752

