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1944-1945

(Seventh Issue)

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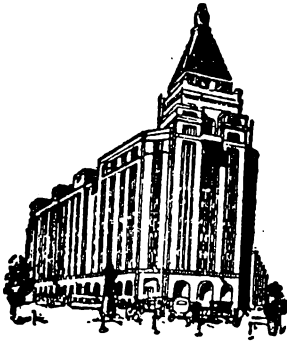
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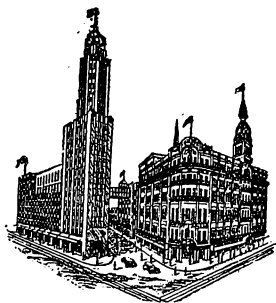
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Prepared from Official and Other Public Sources by

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中國年鑑

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P R E F A C E

As its title-page indicates, the present work covers a period of two years, namely, from the beginning of 1944 to the end of 1945. A year-book, to be true to its name, should be published annually; a word of explanation for the combined issue in its present form is therefore not inappropriate.

After the publication of the Sixth Issue of the Chinese Year-Book in 1943, plans were laid down and steps taken for the compilation of the Seventh Issue which was to be published in the following year or in the early part of 1945. But owing to shortage of paper and overtime work on the part of the publishers, the original plan did not materialize.

When, in June 1945, we first undertook the compilation of the present work, we found well-nigh insurmountable difficulties in obtaining the necessary statistical data. Even when they were available, they usually proved to be wanting in actuality. The conflicting reports and shifting situations in time of war also make the authenticity of such materials doubtful. When the attention and energy of the whole nation were centered on the "Final Offensive," it was hardly possible to enlist the service of the competent authorities for the Year Book. Fortunately, all these obstacles have been overcome, and at long last we present the Seventh Issue to the public.

In preparing the manuscript of the present volume the editor has taken care to preserve the distinguishing features of the preceding issues. He has been guided throughout by the principle that the editor's duty is to present and interpret facts regarding China and her people during the period under review rather than to palm off personal views and opinions which may lead to controversy.

While the work was well underway, there came the thrilling news of Japan's unconditional surrender. It is proper, therefore, that special emphasis should be, as far as possible, laid on the prospect of post-war rehabilitation and reconstruction. Peace has its tasks no less than war.

In commemoration of our heroic struggle during the final phase of the world war, and for the convenience of our readers, a chronological chart of major events from January 1, 1944 to the end of 1945 has been carefully prepared and inserted in this Book.

The editor and his associates acknowledge gratefully the generous and kind assistance which they have received from authors and government officials for the material and information supplied and articles specially written for the present volume. The encouragement and advice given by Dr. Ho Feng-shan, Director of the Information Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, has been ever an invaluable help to the editor and his associates, and a shaping influence in the compilation of the work.

Shanghai, January, 1946.

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PART I
GENERAL INFORMATION

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

BY KUO-CHANG HWANG (黃國璋)*

TING-ZU CHOW (周廷儒)**

China is located in the eastern part of Asia extending from 18° 15' N., well within the Tropic of Cancer in the south, to 53° 54' N. far into the high middle latitude in the north, from 73 50' E. longitude across the well known Pamir Plateau in the west to the Pacific coastal land in the east. It has an area of 11,608,860 square kilometers, approximately 1/12 of the land surface of the earth. Within its boundaries it has nearly every known type of topography, climate, soil and natural vegetation. In a country so vast in area and so divergent in natural conditions, the activities of the people must necessarily be very much diversified. China may be called a land of geographical contrasts. For the convenience of presentation, it is divided into twelve geographical provinces and each of them is briefly dealt with in the following pages.

I. THE TIBETAN PLATEAU

Lying between the Kunlun and the Himalayan axes is the plateau of Sikang and Tibet, a series of parallel mountain ranges with an east-and-west trend. With the exception of Kokonor (青海) and

Tsaidam (柴達木) depressions, the topography is generally above 4,000 m. North of the Karakuenlun (喀喇崑崙) lies the Jongtang (羌塘) Plateau where the climate is dry and severe. Its soil being poor, it is only inhabited by a few nomadic Kirghiz (吉爾吉斯). South of the Karakuenlun and north of the Trans-Himalaya stands the famous inland lake region of Tibet. The Trans-Himalaya, whose altitude varies between 6,000 and 7,000 m. without any abrupt change, acts as the divide between the inland drainages and those on the Indian Ocean slope and is a worse barrier to communication than the Himalaya which stretches from West to East, forming an arc with its convex side towards the plain of Hindustan (印度平原). Antecedent rivers like the Ganges the Indus and the Brahmaputra, which cut transversely through Himalaya and link the region with the outside world are mainly responsible for bringing in some oceanic influences. The mountains in the eastern part are more dissected than those in the western part and cliff-like peaks and

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deep-cut canyons form their general topographic features of a mature stage. The Everest, capped with everlasting snow, is the highest peak (8,840 m.) of the magnificent mountain range.

The population of Tibet concentrate in the fertile longitudinal valleys of the south. Abounding in poplar and willow, the scattered villages in the fields constitute a picturesque scenery. Pine and oak grow on the slopes of eastern Tibet, but in higher places there is only scanty vegetation. Of animals there are antelopes, wild horses and yaks. For food the Tibetans use milk and meat. To keep warm they wear furs.

The high lands are thinly populated. The people are generally nomadic and live in tents. Sedentary life of the valley probably had its origin in the eastern and southern parts. The houses of the sedentary Tibetans are commonly stone buildings with flat tops. Cereals, tobacco, millet and vegetables are cultivated. Swine and cattle are raised. Markets concentrate near the lamaseries which generally assume the form of fortresses. Political power is in the hands of the lamas. The Dalai Lama of Lhasa is the political as well as the spiritual ruler. Communication between Tibet and the interior provinces is difficult and slow. Only a few caravan roads exist and yaks, the most commonly used pack-animals, serve as the only vehicles, thus resulting in high transportation costs.

II. THE SINKIANG BASINS

Between the Altyn Tagh (阿爾金太) and the Altai mountains lies the Tianshan range, thus

dividing Sinkiang into two basins. The southern basin is known as the Tarim Basin and has an area of 470,000 square km. With the exception of the eastern part it is surrounded on all sides by mountains of over 5,000 m. in height. Its bottom varies between 500 and 800 m. above the sea level. In its micale part lies the vast Takla Maken Desert whose desolateness is only occasionally broken by patches of green forests along the banks of big rivers. Waters from the surrounding high lands form the Tarim River and flow into the Lop Nor (羅布泊). The climate is extremely dry and the range of temperature is great. Near the foot of the mountains there are fans rich in trees and cultivated lands, which are irrigated by melting snow water and form the fertile oasis of the desert. The people belong to the Uigur tribe (維吾爾族). They are farmers, with animal husbandry as a secondary occupation. Of agricultural products there are rice, wheat, vegetables, fruits and melons. Kucha (庫車), Aqsu (阿克蘇), Kashgar (疏勒), Yarkand (葉爾羌), Khotan (塔爾汗) and Cahrklik (和闐) are the principal cities of the oasis where commerce, and textile, silk and carpet industries are developed.

The northern basin is known as the Zongor Basin (準格爾盆地) and has an area of 321,750 square km. Topographically, it is a rather low steep land, with a type of well developed nomadism. Since times immemorial it has been the battle ground for nomadic tribes. It is linked with the U.S.S.R. in the western part by several routes, the Zonger Gate being one of the best known. Productive

lands are situated on the north side of Tienshan. Farming is developed only in recent days so that it seems to be more primitive than in the southern basin. The population is small, and the method of cultivation is extensive. Nevertheless, the yield of the newly reclaimed land is, however, large and the maintenance of more people here in the future is quite possible. Urumtsi (迪化), the capital, is the greatest city on the north side of the Tienshan.

The Tienshan enters Sinkiang from the U.S.S.R. and extends eastward for 3,000 km. It is a massive uplifted block, with an altitude of 7,000 m. The mountain areas are the grass lands where the Hasak and Kirghiz tribes raise their cattle and sheep. Because the prevailing western and north-western winds are associated with abundant rain, the western part of Tienshan, especially its northern slopes are rich in forests and pastures. Going eastward the amount of precipitation gradually decreases and desert landscape often appears at the lower part of the mountains. Low intermontane basins are occasionally cultivated, and one of them is the famous Turfan (吐鲁番) in its eastern part. It is situated in the Luktsin (洛克沁) Depression which is 150 m. below the sea level. All the oases are situated on the mountain slopes where the farmers can use underground water for irrigation. Wherever the lands can be irrigated, the density of population is high. In the western part of the Tienshan fertile oases are along the Ili (伊犁) valley where irrigation is available and form the most famous farming and pastoral regions of Sinkiang. Numerous tribes are

found here. Coal and oil are known to occur in the younger formations of both north and south of the Tienshan. Rich metallic deposits are also of wide occurrence. The mining industry is pregnant with future possibilities.

III. THE MONGOLIAN PLATEAU

The Mongolian Plateau has an area of about 700,000 square km. and is composed of the following four sub-regions:

A.—*The Northwestern Mountain Region*: This region is mainly of block mountains formed during the Tertiary period. The Altai old massive stands between western Mongolia and the Zonger basin, with an average height of about 3,000 m. and Quidin (奎屯峰) as the chief peak. The mountain region is humid and produces abundant pastures. It is the home of the Hasak tribe and is at present famous for its gold production. The Tannu Ola Mountain (唐努烏山拉) rises in the north and trends east and west thus dividing the drainages into two systems. On its northern side is the Tannu Ola Basin where agriculture is well developed and on its south side is the Kobdo (科布多) Basin where nomadic life is more prevalent. The people are mainly Mongolians. The Sayan (薩彥) mountain is the northernmost of all and constitutes the natural boundary between China and the U.S.S.R. On its western and northwestern slopes forests are common and wild animals with good furs are numerous.

B.—*The Gobi Basin*: The Gobi Basin or Hanhai (瀚海) lies in the central part of the Mongolian Plateau and is an immense desert

with a number of depressions which the Mongolians call Talas. Among them the best known are the Edsin Gol (鄂濟納果勒) of Gashan Nor (居延海) in the west, the Ilan (伊蘭) in the center and the Holinbel (呼倫貝爾) in the east. With the exception of a few small areas which are watered and grow grass, Hanhai is mainly desolate and entirely valueless, even for stock-raising.

C.—*The Southern Steppe*: Situated between the Hanhai Basin and the Great Wall is the southern steppe. It has an annual rainfall less than 400 mm. Being near the ocean its eastern slope is much denudated and dissected. The neighborhood of the Great Wall is covered with loess and has a number of small structural basins. Here the Chinese farmers cultivate cereals, potatoes and fruits. Wherever water is lacking for irrigation famine often occurs. For this reason the region may also be called the belt of marginal agriculture. Near the Khingan (興安嶺) range summer rain and dew are abundant and the region forms the richest part of the steppe. Animal husbandry is well developed and wild donkeys and wild horses are common. Kalgan (張家口), the gate between Peking and Mongolia in the east and Paotao in the west are the two chief collecting and distributing centers of animal products of China.

D.—*The Northern Steppe*: The northern steppe, lying between the Hanhai and Siberia, is limited on the west by the Khangai Mountain (杭愛山) and on the east by the Khingan Range. The Selenga River (色楞塔河) which meanders on the steppe north of the Khangai, is bordered on both

banks by poplar and willow in gallery formation. Grass grows wonderfully in the neighborhood and cattle and horses are raised in great numbers. Some of the nomadic tribes gather themselves together and begin to adopt a sedentary life. Owing to the severe climate agricultural production is, however, unreliable. Urga (庫倫) is the administrative and commercial center with live stock salt and industrial products as the main commodities for trade.

IV. THE NORTHEASTERN PROVINCES

The Northeastern Provinces constitute a region of both mountains and plains. For administrative purposes they are divided into nine provinces. They are richly endowed with resources and are famous for such products as wheat, soya bean, cattle, timber, coal, iron and gold. For agriculture and industry they hold great potentialities in the future and this is the reason why the Japanese so covered them. Geographically, they can be divided as follows:

A.—*The Khingan Mountain District*: The great Khingan range, composed of a long and narrow mountain belt of granite and gneiss, forms the uplifted margin of the Mongolian Plateau. On the north is the Il-Khuri (伊里呼里) Mountain which is chiefly composed of igneous extrusives. On the east and south is the Little Khingan whose rocks are very ancient. After long continued erosion all the mountains show a smooth and round profile and are famous for gold production. Forests are rich and wild animals are numerous. The people are engaged

in hunting for animals, in lumbering and in gold mining. Uncivilized fishing and hunting tribes are not unknown.

B.—The Eastern Mountain Region: Trending Northeast and southwest are the parallel block mountains like Wanda (完達山) Shopei (小白山) and Chang Kwan Tsai Ling (張廣才嶺) with an average height of 900 m. Ninguta (寧古塔) is situated in the rift valley of the Mutankiang (牡丹江). Chientao (閭島) near Korea is a large depression covered by sediments. Products of this region are the same as those in the plain of the Sungari and Liao Rivers. Tobacco is grown in the flat areas of the rift valleys or on the foothills. Kirin is the center of the tobacco trade. Stretching on the border of Korea is the basaltic Changpeishan (長白山) which shows traces of old volcanic activities and is one of the important forest-areas in the Northeast. On the south is the Liaotung block, a peneplain area of 200-300 m. in height. It has little rain and is suitable for the development of the salt industry on the coast. The raising of wild silkworms is also common in this region. The northern part being dissected by rivers, layers of coal are exposed. Fuishun (撫順), Pichehu (木溪湖) and Niushintai (牛心台) are the centers of coal mining. Along the structural lines igneous rocks occur and the sources of metallic minerals. Further south is the Chien Shan (千山) which presents rolling topographic features with monadnocks here and there. On the sea coast the rivers are short and swift. The southern part is the sinking coast and as a result

produces such good harbors as Dairen and Port Arthur.

C.—The Plain of the Sungari and Liao Rivers: Situated within the drainage areas of the Sungari and Liao Rivers is a big alluvial plain. Arid landscape with scattered salt lakes exists in the western part but in others the chernusem and podsol soils are prevalent. The climate being dry and cold in the winter but wet and warm in the summer, is well suited for the growth of temperate crops such as soya beans, wheat, millet, kaoliang and kidney beans. Progress is made in the raising of cattle and horses. The Sungari and Liao Rivers are navigable for steamers in summer while in winter they are frozen for five or six months and become the highway for busy sledge transportation. Railway communication is convenient and air lines are also established. Harbin in the north and Mukden in the south are two railway centers and also the richest cities in the whole plain. Kirin, Changchung, Antung, Nuishintao and Tsitsihar and cities of secondary importance. Flour mills, oil presses, steel mills, textile and other manufactures are well developed.

V. THE SHANTUNG MOUNTAIN REGION

Rising just east of the North China plain and consisting of rugged and often faulted blocks and peaks is the old land mass of the Shantung Mountain Region. An old structural line usually called the Kiao Ho Depression (膠河谷地) extends from the Kiao-chow Bay to the Liaochow Bay, separating the Kiaotung from the Shantung massive. The former is an uplifted peneplain of the horst

type. Its eastern coast in the coast of submergence, thus forming the excellent harbor of the Kiaochow Bay with Tsing'ao as the exporting and importing entreport of this region. From Tsingtao following the Kiao Ho Depression a railway line runs to the interior. Taishan, predominantly of gneiss forms the highest peak of the Shantung Block. But near the fringe of the mountain block carboniferous strata with coal seams are exposed. Poshan, Tsechuan and Fantze are some of the well known mining centers. Tsinan standing on the northern border of the mountain block and linked up by railroads with Tientsin and Peiping in the north and Nanking and Shanghai in the south, is the political as well as the commercial center of the Shantung Province. Goods from all directions of the North China Plain are collected and distributed from there. Population is concentrated in the Kiao Ho Depression and near the coast. Agricultural products consist of wheat, millet, peanut and fruits. Raising of domestic animals and wild silkworms is also well common in this region.

VI. THE LOESS PLATEAU

The Loess Plateau stands between 600 and 900 m. in elevation and is separated from the North China Plain on the east by the Taihangshan (太行山). On the west it is bordered by the Shansi highland, which rises more than 1,000 m. in height. Structurally it is a synclinal basin with gentle folds in between. Carboniferous rocks with rich seams of coal lie almost horizontally and on top of them lies a thick layer of loess. River Valleys, cut deeply into the older formations often form steep

canyons. Flowing southwestward into the Yellow River is the Fenho (汾河) whose valley is a typical graben. The old massive of Wutaishan in the north towers over everything in the area and reaches a height of more than 3,000 m. The region from Wutaishan and Hengshan eastward to Peiping represents a step fault. West of Wutai and in between mountains lies the Tatung and Yangchu structural basins. Further west is the highland of Shensi and Kansu, mostly covered by loess with the exception of the high peaks which stand out and occasionally are covered by heaving growth of vegetation. North Shensi is about 1,000 m. and Kansu about 1,500 m. in height. The highland is well dissected and shows an intricate pattern of valleys. On the slopes are numerous terraced fields. Rainfall decreasing in amount as one goes westward together with its great variability, often causes big famines. Soil erosion is active during downpours. The question of soil and water conservation is something that demands serious and immediate attention. In the large valleys, of which the Fen (汾), the Chin (沁) and the Wei (渭) are the richest, population is dense. By irrigation cotton and wheat are grown. Sian, (西安), once the capital of several dynasties and now connected with both Lanchow (蘭州) and Peiping by easy lines of communication, is the largest city in this region.

VII. THE NORTH CHINA PLAIN

The North China Plain, being an extensive alluvial plain is the gift of the Yellow River, the Hai River (海河) and other streams which flow out from the Loess

Plateau. It is bordered on the north by Yenshan (燕山), on the west by Taihangshan, on the south by Tsingling (秦嶺) and on the east by the Gulf of Chili and the Yellow Sea. The plain is traversed by numerous rivers near which are deposited sand and gravel rendering the lands desolate. Further away from the river banks the land becomes, however, the richest in this region. Farms are scattered in wheat, bean and corn fields and usually surrounded by luxurious growth of fruit and other trees. Near the sea coast the country is swampy and, therefore, comparatively barren. Rainfall is subject to wide fluctuations, in both amount and time. When rain is abundant flood results and embankments have to be built in order to prevent river flooding. When the embankments are broken, the consequential damage done to property and life is usually very serious. This is why the Yellow River is known as "China's Sorrow". When rain is lacking famine follows and many people die of hunger. Important cities, of which Peiping and Tientsin are the largest, are located near the northern border lines.

VIII. THE CENTRAL MOUNTAIN BELT

The Central Mountain Belt begins from the Tibetan Plateau and extends eastward to the west borderline of the Kiangsu Province along the coast. Tsinling in the west is a mighty mountain mass which not only forms a transition zone between the north and the south in contrasting geographical conditions, such as topography, climate, soil, vegeta-

tion and every mode of human life and is also a natural barrier for military purposes and communication. It has been famous for its old Board-Paths (棧道). Its central part borders on the north the Wei Ho Plain in Shensi Province by a great fault with stupendous precipices. Population there is very sparse, while the Hanchung basin (漢中盆地) between Tsingling and Tapashan, which lays an important role as a midway station in traversing this mighty mountainous area is rich and thickly populated. Eastward the mountain gradually becomes lower and assumes a different structure. The Siungerh (巖耳), Funiu (伏牛) and Hwaiyang (淮陽) mountains fall far behind Tsingling in elevation, ruggedness and massiveness. The east terminus of the mountain is gradually submerged into the fertile North Kiangsu coastal plain which is formed jointly by the Hueiho, (淮河) the Yellow River and the Yangtze Alluvium. The low hills and broad valleys in this part maintain a much larger population of farmers than in the west. Going northward from here the geographic conditions of the South gradually disappear and since long periods of time it has been unable to check at this place the advance of the people from the North.

IX. THE YANGTZE VALLEY

The Yangtze River has its source in the Tibetan Plateau and is more than 6,000 km. in length. As the river advances eastward the precipitation increases and the work of sculpture becomes more extensive. Its transverse deeply-cut valley across the parallel narrow ridges in the Sikang-

Szechuen borderland seems to be the resultant features of river capture. Eastward it flows along the southern edge of the Szechuen Basin and cuts through Wushan (巫山) in the east forming the well-known Yangtze Gorges. Thereon it meanders in its beds and joins the Tungting and Poyang Lakes in the northern part of Hunan and Kiangsi provinces respectively. Below Wuhu it flows through its delta area and enters the sea by an estuary with the large island of Chungming (崇明島) standing therein. Hydrographically the Yangtze River belongs to the sub-tropical regime with its water level high in the summer and low in the winter. At Hankow there are three flood periods: the spring red flood due to the melting of snow in the upper mountain region, the summer yellow flood due to the heavy summer rain and the blue flood due to the rising of the Tungting Lake. If any two of these floods happen to occur at the same time great damage is the result. In spite of the fact that the Yangtze is famous for its gorges, small steamers can ply up the river as far as Pinshan (屏山) in Szechwan through out the whole year, and steamers of 15,000 tons can reach Hankow during the summer. This River and its tributaries with a total distance of over 7,000 km. navigable for water crafts forms an important artery of China's communication and its drainage basin of nearly two million square kilometers in area is the region where the population is the densest.

A.—*The Szechuen Basin:* The Szechuen Basin having a great thickness of tertiary red beds in

its central part is also known as the Red or Purple Basin. It is surrounded on all sides by high mountains. After long periods of denudation and erosion the inter-bedded sandstone and shale show a hogback or mesa topography. Hard sandstone forms cliffs on which only trees grow. Soft shales make flat areas which are cultivated into terraced fields. Paddy fields generally occupy valleys and the alluvial plains. The summer is hot and the winter mild, thus prolonging the growing season. The purple soil is fertile and covers wide areas. Agriculture is intensively developed and temperate products as well as the products of the sub-tropics such as rice, wheat, barley, rape, tobacco, kaoliang, corn, sugar cane and vegetable all grow very well. In the lower valleys tropical fruits, like oranges, grape-fruits, olives and longan are also produced though not in very large quantities. Along the fringe of the basin and in the folded mountain regions of eastern Szechuen deposits of iron and coal are known. Salt and natural gas are also of wide occurrence. At present they are practically all mined by old native methods. The Chengtu Plain (成都平原), formed the Min River (岷江) is the largest alluvial plain in this region. Being well irrigated it never suffers from famine and has the densest population of the country. All important cities in the Red Basin such as Chungking, Suifu, (敘府) Luhsien, (瀘縣) Kiating (嘉定) and Hochuan (合川) are situated at the confluences of the Rivers. Blocked by natural barriers, the economic relation of the region with the outside world

used to be very much limited before the War. For the same reason only a small portion of its agricultural products was exported. Both economically and socially it was an isolated basin and had very little contacts with the outside world. Fortunately, the Yangtze River cuts through the mountains in the eastern part of the region and thus offers a valuable gate for the movement of commodities as well as the people during these years of the War.

B.—The Central Yangtze Basins: Linked together by the Yangtze these basins are formed by the activities of the Tungting (洞庭湖) and Poyang Lakes (鄱陽湖). Topographically, it is low and has numerous lakes and ponds, indicating submergence in recent times. A number of rivers flow into the lakes and deposit enormous amount of sediments in the lake beds. Bordering the lakes are extensive and rich agricultural fields. With the exception of a few hills all lands are fully utilized. The soil in the plains is often renewed and owing to the wide application of fertilizer its production is unusually high. Rain is plenty in the summer but still not enough for the paddy fields. Crops have to be irrigated. This region is the main rice-producing area of the country. Cotton and tea are also produced in great quantities. For mineral products the kaolin east of the Poyang Lake, the gypsum and salt of Yincheng (應城) in Hupeh and the iron ores along the Yangtze Hills are well known. As the region is traversed by rivers and canals, communication by boats is convenient. Hankow situated at the

confluence of the Yangtze and the Han Rivers is the main port of the Yangtze basin and one of the four big cities of China.

C.—The Yangtze Delta: The Yangtze Delta is an alluvial plain formed by the combined activity of the Yangtze, the Hwai and the (Tsientang) Chientang (錢塘江) rivers. Most of the hills in the area are partly buried by sediments. The delta is traversed by numerous rivers and canals. Irrigation and communication are convenient. The annual rainfall exceeds 1,000 mm. and most of it falls in the summer. The regions along the coast south of the Yangtze are low and often suffer from violent tidal waves. To prevent inundation long embankments are built. Two crops are grown; rice in the summer and wheat and beans in the winter. The soil on both sides of the Yangtze is suitable for the growth of cotton. The low regions around the Tai Lake (太湖) are famous for their silk industries. Shanghai, a city on the Whangpoo River, is China's main sea port and the key to navigation on the Yangtze. It has a population of over 4,000,000 and is the economic center of the country.

X. THE SOUTHEASTERN COAST

The Southeastern Coast includes eastern Chekiang, the whole Fukien and the northeastern part of K'wangtung. It is bordered on the east by the sea and on the west by the Tienmu (天目山) and Wuyi (武夷山) mountains and the Hills South of Yangtze. The sea coast is in character and has many harbors and islands. Inland behind are mountains generally trending northeast and southwest and

consisting of granite and porphyry with small areas of soft and younger rocks occurring in protected depressions. Longitudinal tributaries are often wider than the main transversal valleys, but all form the cultural centers. Tropical products like rice and sugar cane are well grown and much produced in the small plain areas. Fruits such as longan, olives, pine-apples, are well grown in the southern part of this region. The main harbours are Ningpo, Wenchow, Foochow, Amoy and Swatow, Foochow is the largest of all and is the center for the tea and lacquer trade. Tea is extensively grown on hills. Due to abundant rain trees are luxurious and forests of fir and camphor are common. Ship-building industry is well developed. The people along the coast are mostly engaged in fishing, and in sea trade and transportation.

XI. THE HILLS SOUTH OF YANGTZE

The Hills South of Yangtze are limited on the east by the Wuyi Mountain on the borderland of Kiangsi and Fukien, on the south by Indo-China and South China Sea and on the west by the Yunnan-Kweichow Plateau. Among the comparatively low hills some of the highlands such as Nanling on the boundary lines of Kiangsi, Hunan, Kwangsi and Kwangtung provinces, stand out more than 1,000 m. in elevation. Further south are Yaoshan of Kweiping in Kwangsi and Yunkaitaishan (雲開大山) on Kwangtung and Kwangsi border which reach also to the height of about 1,000 m. All hills are well dissected and show a topography

of maturity. In the flat valleys the population is rather dense. The climate being subtropical, plants are luxurious and tropical orchards extensively cultivated. Of agricultural products there are rice, wheat, sweet potato, tea, mulberry trees and wood oil. The soil being much leached is reddish and noncalcareous in character and needs heavy fertilization. In the southern part within the Kwangtung Province there are two crops of rice but owing to overpopulation food is insufficient. Mineral resources such as antimony, manganese and tungsten, are rich. Inland communication which formerly depended on old imperial roads such as the famous Embassador Road is now rendered convenient by the Canton-Hankow Railway. Changsha and Siangtan in the interior have a population of over 500,000 while Canton on the delta of Chukiang (or Pearl River) near the coast has more than 860,000 residents.

XII. THE YUNNAN AND KWEI-CHOW PLATEAU

The Yunnan and Kweichow Plateau includes Yunnan, Kweichow and the northwestern part of Kwangsi, with the part adjacent to the Sikang and Tibet Plateau being the highest. It inclines to the southwest and northeast. Yunnan has numerous flat areas. Its rocks being mainly calcareous in character, its drainages are either underground or flow through deep valleys. The parallel mountain ranges in the western part are covered with dense forests and have canyon-like valleys. They receive the benefit of rain from the Bay of Bengal and in going eastward erosion

becomes more marked and the topography assumes a form of ruggedness. In the southern part of the plateau though transversed by the Tropic of Cancer, the climate of the higher places is very much modified by their elevation with the belt between 1,000-2,000 m. and is emperate in character suitable for Chinese habitation thus leaving the high and cold mountains for the Lolo (傈僳) and Lisu (黎蘇) and wet and hot valleys for the Payi (擺夷). In the summer rice is commonly grown in the intermontane basins and broad valleys while corn, millet, kaoliang are the chief agricultural products of the higher slope lands. In the

winter wheat and rape are planted. Tea, of which the Poer brand is especially famous is produced in great quantities in the southern part of the Yunnan Province. Of mineral products there are tin, coal, iron and manganese. In the mountain-and-valley region along the west borderland communication is extremely difficult, in fact more difficult than in many other parts of the country. The Yunnan-Indo-China Railway is the only railroad which forms an outlet from Yunnan to the South China Sea. Owing to the Sino-Japanese war new motor roads have been opened in recent years making the future development of this region easy.

TABLE 1. THE TOPOGRAPHICAL AREA OF CHINA

<i>Topographical Units</i>	<i>Area Extent (in sq. km.)</i>	<i>Percentage to total area</i>	<i>Mean Altitude (in meters)</i>
Total	11,412,190	100.000	
Plateau	3,370,500	29.535	
Tibet	850,500	7.453	4,000-6,000
Mongolia	1,719,000	15.063	400-2,000
Loess Plateau	324,000	2.839	1,000-2,000
Yunnan-Kweichow Plateau	477,000	4.180	400-3,000
Mountains	2,715,750	23.798	
Tianshan	207,000	1.814	2,000-4,000
Altai	105,750	0.927	2,000-3,000
Tannu Ola	105,750	0.927	2,000-3,000
North Mongolia	418,500	3.667	1,000-2,000
Changposhan	225,000	1.972	400-1,000
Kuenlun	488,250	4.278	4,000-6,000
Altyn Tagh & Nan Shan ..	146,250	1.281	3,000-5,000
Lupanshan-Yin Shan	81,000	0.710	2,000-3,000
Mts. of Shansi & W. Hopei	173,250	1.518	400-2,000
Chingling	198,000	1.735	1,000-5,000
Tapashan	83,250	0.730	1,000-2,000
Hwai-yang	58,500	0.513	400-1,000
Tangla & Kailas	198,000	1.735	5,000-6,000
Himalaya	227,250	1.991	5,000-6,000
Hilly Lands	1,223,190	10.718	
Khingian Hills	405,000	3.549	400-2,000
Southeastern Hills	725,940	6.361	400-1,000
Shantung Blocks	92,250	0.808	200-1,000
Gorges	823,500	7.216	
Southwestern Gorges N. Sec.	544,500	4.771	2,000-5,000
Southwestern Gorges S. Sec.	171,000	1.498	1,000-2,000
Heilungkiang Gorges	33,750	0.296	0- 400

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Indus Bramaputra Gorges ..	74,250	0.691	1,000-5,000
Basins	1,985,500	17.397	
Kobdo	23,750	2.031	1,000-2,000
Zongor	321,750	2.819	200-2,000
Turfan	148,500	1.301	285-2,000
Tarim	653,500	5.726	400-3,000
Tsaidam	171,000	1.498	2,000-3,000
Koko Nor	33,750	0.296	3,000-5,000
Lanchow	83,250	0.730	1,000-3,000
Wei Ho & Fan Ho	51,750	0.453	200-1,000
Pei Shui	29,250	0.256	0- 400
Han Shui	9,000	0.079	200-1,000
Szechuen	229,500	2.011	200-1,000
Ili	22,500	0.197	400-1,000
Plains	1,293,750	11.336	
Sungari-Liao Ho	517,500	4.535	0- 400
North China	409,500	3.588	0- 200
Great Lake	234,750	2.057	0-1,000
Lower Yangtze	78,000	0.683	0- 200
Lower Si Kiang	54,000	0.473	0- 200

TABLE 2. HEIGHTS IN METERS OF IMPORTANT MOUNTAIN PEAKS IN CHINA

<i>Name of Mountains</i>	<i>Locality</i>	<i>Peak Height (m)</i>
Himalaya	On the border of S. Tibet	8,840 (Everest)
Kuenlun	Between Sinkiang & Tibet	7,724
Tien Shan	Central range of Sinkiang	7,200 (Tengri)
Kailas	Southern Tibet	7,073
Minya Gongkar	In Sikang Province	7,500
Nan Shan	Between Kansu & Chinghai	5,928
Chinling	In Southern Shensi	4,000
Omei	West Szechuan	3,200
Tannu Ola	North-western Mongolia	3,046
Wutai	Northern Shansi	3,040
Tapa	Between Shensi & Szechuen	3,000
Changposhan	East Liaoning	2,741
Huang Shan	Southern part of Anhwei	1,910
Tai Shan	In Shantung	1,545
Tienmu Shan	In Chikiang	1,520
Lu Shan	In Kiangsi	1,480
Heng Shan	Central Hunan	1,340

TABLE 3. TOTAL LENGTH AND NAVIGABLE CONDITIONS OF IMPORTANT CHINESE RIVERS

<i>Name of Rivers</i>	<i>Drainage Area in km.</i>	<i>Total Length in km.</i>	<i>Navigable Conditions</i>
Heilung Kiang ..	90,300	4,700	A part for steamers and almost the whole length for junks.
Sungari		1,728	Navigable below Kihin.
Ussuri		1,375	For crafts only.
Yalu		3,984	

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Liao Ho		2,490	For crafts.
Huang Ho (Yellow R.)	726,384	4,350	In Kansu & Suiyuan 1,250 km. for crafts & from Tung Kwan to Loyang for boats.
Wei Ho	121,632	864	240 km.
Fen Ho	38,560	690	55 km.
Grand Canal	15,940	2,074	Navigable from Tunghsien to Tientsin 245 km., from Ling Chin to Yangchow 616 km. & from Chinkiang to Hangchow 574 km.
Huai Ho	34,000	—	760 km.
Yangtze	1,959,333	5,500	For steamers 2,600 km. from Woosung to Pinshan.
Ming Kiang (Szechuen)		670	
Tatu Ho		1,200	
Yalung		1,324	
Kialing		1,250	1,000 km.
Yuan		864	696 km.
Tze		750	547 km.
Hsiang		584	Almost the whole length navigable.
Han		1,340	1,250 km.
Kan		850	438 km.
Tsientang	11,175	380	For steamers 60 km. from Hangchow to Tuntu & almost the whole length for boats.
Min River (Fukien) ..	7,304	576	465 km.
Si Kiang	43,160	518	500 km.
Red River	33,536	1,300	800 km.
Lantsang		2,000	Unnavigable.
Upper Salween	8,630	2,000	"
Irawaddy	2,490	288	"
Ili	7,636	524	—
Tarim	39,840	2,000	—

TABLE 4. 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
Hai Lu (Great L.)	S. Kiangsu	3,600	400
Hungtseh	N. Kiangsu	—	400
Tien chih	E. Yunnan	—	1,910
Erh Hai	W. Yunnan	—	1,970
Koko Nor	Chinghai	4,220	3,180
Lop Nor	E. Sinkiang	Swamp	3,205
Tangla	Tibet	2,460	5,000
Tangle	"	1,400	4,000
Chiring	"	1,860	3,000
Tsairing	Chinghai	570	4,000
Oring	"	650	4,000

TAIWAN

LEE SHU-TAN (李旭丹)*

I. GENERAL FEATURES

Taiwan is better known as Formosa. The name Formosa is said to have originated from *Ihla Formosa* (Beautiful Island) given to the island by the first Portuguese sailors to sight it in 1590. But this name is seldom used by either the Chinese or Japanese. It has been referred to as Taiwan (Terraced Bay) since the early 17th century.

The island is only 100 to 120 miles east from the coast of the province of Fukien. Two hundred and fifty miles to the south, separated by the Bashi Strait, lies Luzon, northernmost of the major Philippine islands, and less than 150 miles to the north lies the Riu-Kiu Archipelago. Being so strategically situated, the island has long been the focussing point of three great powers, China, the United States and Japan. The island was highly valued by the Japanese as a frontier base of their Empire and as a stepping stone to the rich South Sea islands.

Taiwan has an area of 35,760 square kilometers or one third of the area of Fukien. It is larger than either Belgium (30,507 square kilometers) or Holland (34,184 square kilometers). The island is densely inhabited, having a population of 6,248,000, which may be compared with the total population of the whole Australian

continent. Chinese comprise more than 90 percent of the total population.

The shape of the island resembles a bird of prey, stretching towards the Pacific and resting on the Tropic of Cancer, for the line of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ north latitude traverses the middle of the island.

Being in the subtropical zone, Taiwan has a climate well suited to extensive cultivation of rice and cane sugar and other subtropical products and fruits. Only in the mountainous interior, there remains the undeveloped virgin forests among which 150,000 native tribes of separated units live on hunting and rudimentary farming. The natives, called by the Chinese *fan* (番), are of Malayan or Polynesian origin related to the primitive tribes of Mindarao and Borneo. The question, "who was the first settler of Taiwan, the Chinese or the Malaya?" is still open to argument. According to legends of Chinese literature, Chinese settlers from Fukien province arrived in Taiwan as early as the 13th century, when the Mongols conquered China, thus driving a number of the southerners across the Strait. The Chinese Government of the early Ming dynasty, however, ordered the withdrawal of all Chinese inhabitants in Taiwan to Fukien in 1388.

In 1602, the Dutch occupied Pescadores Island and, after rag-

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ing a battle with the Ming army, took possession of the southern part of the island of Taiwan and established Taiwan City. Meanwhile, in 1626, the Spaniards landed in Kielung and captured the northern island, but were expelled by the Dutch in 1641.

During the late Ming dynasty, thousands of Chinese refugees, led by the famous general Cheng Ch'eng-kung, (鄭成功) fled to Taiwan to defy the rule of the Manchurians. They defeated the Dutch and made it again a Chinese territory. However, the descendants of Cheng Ch'eng-kung surrendered to the army of the Manchu dynasty in 1683 and Taiwan remained a province of the Ching Empire until 1895. At the conclusion of the first Sino-Japanese war of 1894-95 the island was ceded to Japan. Since then Taiwan was under Japanese control for a period of fifty years. After the surrender of Japan in 1945, China, in conformity with the agreement of the Cairo Conference, recovered Taiwan and other lost territories. The present administrative governor of Taiwan is General Chen I (陳儀).

Taiwan is at present divided into nine administrative cities and eight districts as follows:—

<i>Administrative districts</i>	<i>Administrative cities</i>
Taihoku (台北)	Taihoku (台北)
Tainan (台南)	Shinhiku (新竹)
Keelung (台中)	Taichun (台中)
Taichun (基隆)	Tainan (台南)
Takao (高雄)	Takao (高雄)
Shinchiku (新竹)	Karenko (港花蓮)
Kagy (嘉義)	Taito (台東)
Shoka (彰化)	Boko (Pesca dores)
Heito (屏東)	

II. MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS

Taiwan is, geographically speaking, a continental island on the eastern margin of the Asiatic continental shelf. The strait which separated the island from the Fukien coast is very shallow with a depth of not more than 80 meters, while in the east, the coast of Taiwan has a sudden drop of more than 2,000 meters to the Pacific bed. The total length of coastline amounts to 1,140 kilometers, the major part being sandy and monotonous, with the exception of the northeastern corner, where deep water and rocky coast form a natural seat for the modern port of Keelung.

Topographically, the island may be divided into two parts: an eastern mountainous region and a western plain. By elevation the whole area may be divided as follows:

<i>Elevation (in meters)</i>	<i>Area of the island (in sq. km.)</i>	<i>Percentage of total</i>
Below 100	13,300	36.6
100- 500	7,500	21.0
500-1,000	7,650	21.4
1,000-1,500	4,000	11.6
1,500-2,000	1,700	4.7
2,000-2,500	950	2.7
2,500-3,000	400	1.3
Over 3,000	260	0.7
Total	35,760	100.0

(The area below 100 meters amounts to 13,300 square kilometers, i.e., 36.6 percent of the total. Thus 57.6 percent of the total area of the island is low-land, below 500 meters; 21.4 percent is hilly, 500-1,000 meters; and 21 percent is mountainous, above 1,000 meters.)

Geologically speaking, the island is a part of the achelon arcs along the western Pacific shore set up during the time of the Himalaya (Alpine) Mountain movement. The parallel mountain ranges along the eastern side of the island are strongly folded and faulted. The fault line to the east of the ranges forms the Taito graben, while that to the west forms an escarpment which demarcates the western plain from the eastern plateaux. The east coast is walled with magnificent perpendicular cliffs.

Traversing the country from north to south are four parallel mountain ranges: the Central Range, the Nuaka Range, the Eastern Coastal Ranges and the Western Border Range.

(1.) The Central Range runs from the south of Suo (蘇澳) to the Garanhi Cape at the southernmost end of the island. At the Tertiary time the range was folded up with crystalline rock, gneiss and hard sandstones, and now it forms the waterway dividing the western and eastern Taiwan. The range has an average height of 3,000 meters with the following peaks of greater height: Mt. Nankotai (南湖大山) 3,797 meters, Mt. Chuosen (中央尖山) 3,640 meters and Mt. Noko (能高山) 3,252 meters in the north, and Mt. Shukoran (秀姑巒山) 3,833 meters, Mt. Seki (關山) 3,667 meters, Mt. Pinon (卑南山) 3,305 meters, and Mt. Daibu (大山武) 3,642 meters in the south. Three low passes at the south of Mt. Nankotai, between Mt. Shukoran and Mt. Nuaka, and north of Mt. Noko at the respective height of 1,879 meters, 2,481 meters and 3,142 meters, serve as gateways between the east and the west.

(2) The Nuaka Range (新高山脈) stretches from Sanshokaku (三貂角) southwestward to meet the Central Range near Mt. Nuaka or Mt. Morrison (3,950 meters), the highest peak of the island. The second highest peak is Mt. Tsugitaka or Mt. Sylvia, with a height of 3,931 meters. Other high peaks of this range are Mt. Taihosen (大霸尖山) 3,573 meters, Mt. Tozan (桃山) 3,610 meters, Mt. Daisassan (大雪山) 3,600 meters, etc.

(3) The Western Border Range (蕃界嶺) is comparatively lower, having an average height of 1,000 to 2,000 meters. It is among these younger rocks that most of the coal and oil resources are found. The range, being densely forested, forms the real ethnographical boundary of the Chinese settlers on the western plain and the native inhabitants in the mountains. The highest peak in this range is Mt. Hassen (八仙山) 3,600 meters. West of the range is a piedmont tableland with a height of 300 to 600 meters. The piedmont region is covered with alluvial deposits on the base rock of conglomerate. It is dissected from north to south by traversing basins of eroding rivers flowing from east to west.

(4) The Eastern Coastal Range (台東山脈) or the Taito mountains stretching from Karenko to Taito, is separated from the Central Range by the Taito graben. The average height of the range is 1,000 meters. Being geologically unstable, it is subject to frequent earthquakes, and is now composed mostly of andersite rocks. On the northern end of the island, west of Keelung, lies another block of volcanic mountains of the same structure.

Apart from the above-mentioned mountain ranges, Taiwan is made up of alluvial plains and deltas which can be divided into the following:—

(1) The North Taiwan Basin: drained exclusively by the River Tamsui (淡水河) which has a total length of 130 kilometers. The river is navigable 50 miles inland from its mouth, with Tamsui as its port. Situated in this basin are the port of Keelung and the city of Tuyen (桃園).

(2) The Western Plain: composed of confluent deltas of the Taian (大安溪), Taiko (大甲溪) Taito (大肚溪) and the Dakusui rivers (濁水溪). These torrential rivers, flowing from the eastern mountains westward, deposit their debris and silt to form composite alluvial plains and deltas. Dakusui, the longest river of the island, is 165 kilometers in length, and has its sources in the northern slopes of Mt. Kuaka and Nako. Its valley occupies a strip of fertile agricultural lowland extending from Taichu in the north to Kagi (嘉義) in the south. Lake Candidius, or Jitzugetzutun, (明潭), located 722 meters above sea level, forms a natural reservoir of the valley, where the most powerful water plant of the island is located. It is also a scenic spot.

(3) The Southern Plain: located south of the Tropic of Cancer. It is drained chiefly by the great river Shimotamsui (下淡水溪), 156 kilometers long, the second longest in the island, and a number of independent streams flowing westward from the Border Range. It has a broad mouth, and situated in the center of her

delta is the port of Heito (屏東).

(4) The Taito Graben: a longitudinal valley drained by two rivers, the Harenko (花蓮溪), flowing northward to Karenko, and the Pinan, running southward to Taito. Along the valley, especially on the west bank, are alluvial terraces well suited for cultivation and settlement.

(5) The Giran Plain: situated on the northeast of the island. The plain is drained by the Giran river, 65 kilometers in length, and occupies an area of about 300 square kilometers of rich agricultural land.

(6) The Pescadores Islands (Boko): a group of about 60 islands of low basalt tablelands, not more than 50 meters above sea level.

All these plains are good agricultural lands and densely populated. But they are not infrequently subject to the calamity of floods from the short swift rivers, especially during the typhoon season. The coasts of the plains are mostly sandy and flat and are barred from easy access to the sea by shallow waters, shoals, offshore bars and lagoons.

III. CLIMATE

Located somewhere between 22° N. and 25° N., Taiwan has a tropical climate of eminent monsoon character. The summer monsoon blowing from the southwest begins in April and is in full swing in June, while from September to November, the northeast winter monsoon prevails. Both monsoons bring rainfall to the island. In the intervals between the two monsoons, there is little rainfall. With the exception of Pescadores

Island which, being situated in the rain shadow, has an annual rainfall of less than 1,000 mm, the whole island receives more than 1,500 mm of rainfall a year. The annual amount of rainfall in northern Taiwan is still greater

being more than 2,000 mm. The highest record, at Keelung, is 3,312.7 mm, a yearly average from 1905 to 1915. The seasonal distribution of rainfall is largely conditioned by the prevailing monsoons.

	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>	<i>Summer</i>	<i>Autumn</i>	<i>year (in mm.)</i>
Keelung	1033.9	856.4	543.0	882.0	3312.7
Koshun (恆春)	68.8	263.0	1350.0	475.5	2157.9

There are, as shown by the foregoing table, two types of rainfall: the northeastern type, represented by Keelung, and the southwestern type, represented by Koshun. The characteristics of the northeastern type are a higher annual amount of rainfall and winter dampness. Although the winter receives more than 30 per cent of the total amount, there is no particular concentration, which means that there is no distinct dry season. The summer rainfall amounts, however, to only half of the winter rainfall.

The southwestern type, on the other hand, is characterized by definite summer concentration. Two-thirds of the annual rainfall occurs in summer as a result of the summer monsoon and typhoon. The winter, receiving less than 5 per cent of the total rainfall, is especially dry. The autumn has moderate rainfall in both the north and south, while in the spring the north is wetter than the south.

Besides the monsoon rainfall, Taiwan also receives the extratropical cyclonic and typhoon rainfall. The extratropical cyclonic rainfall occurs in the early

summer, when incessant feeble rain falls over all parts of the island, causing very cloudy and gloomy weather. This is the so-called "plum rain." Though physiologically unhealthy, the plum rain is very helpful to the planting of rice. Weak cyclones and late plum rains would result in a drought. These conditions resemble those in the Yangtze valley.

The typhoon is a tropical cyclone, coming from the sea east of the Philippines in a north-westerly direction. When it passes the Tropic of Cancer it turns northeast. Taiwan, being located at the turning point of the track, is frequently under attack. In a period of 26 years, from 1893 to 1918, the island has had 59 typhoon storms. With its gales and torrential rains, the typhoon is most destructive; it causes flood, blows away buildings, destroys boats and seriously damages crops.

Owing to the irregularity of the extratropical cyclones and typhoons, precipitation in Taiwan varies greatly every year. The variability increases from north to south.

Situated as it is in the tropics, Taiwan has high temperatures, with low annual variations and relatively small monthly fluctuations. The annual mean temperature is about 20° Centigrade, being 24° C. in the south and 21° C. in the north. The temperature increases one degree C. as one goes one latitude degree southward. In winter the north-west, influenced by the cool wind monsoon, has a comparatively low temperature. The mean January temperature in the northeast is 15° C. and in the southwest, which, being calm and clear, is 20° C. The winter isotherm, having a steep gradient, runs, however, from northeast to southwest. That means the eastern coast, though affected by the cool winter monsoon, is still warmer than the

western coast on the same latitude. This is because the east coast is washed by the Kuro Sivo warm current, while the west coast is influenced by the cold current from the Gulf of Peichili.

In summer the temperature in most places rises to above 27° C. The July isotherm runs more or less from north to south with an extremely gentle gradient. The temperature of some localities in the northeast, due to the clear and comparatively dry weather, is even higher than that of the southwest. The summer heat is generally released in the south by the influence of the extratropical cyclonic rain in June and by typhoon rain in August. July is the hottest month, and February, the coldest.

	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Mean</i>
Taikoku	14.7 C.	28.1 C.	21.6 C.
Kohsun	20.3 C.	27.5 C.	24.3 C.

The annual range of temperature for most places of the island is 6° to 10° C. The greatest yearly range, at Tainan, is 9.4° C. and the smallest, at Koshun, is 6.3° C. The daily range, greater in winter than in summer, is likewise greater in the north than in the south. The mean annual daily range of Taikoku is 1.4° C., and it decreases to 0.9° C. at Kushun in the south.

The highest record of temperature on the island is 39.3° C., which prevailed in Tainan on August 17, 1937. The lowest temperatures observed are 0.2° C. at Taikoku and 0.1° C. at Taichu.

Frost is, therefore, very rare in Taiwan while snow is unknown, even on the high mountains.

IV.—AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY

Taiwan is an agricultural country and the majority of its population engages in farming. Approximately one-fourth of the total area of the island is cultivated. The total cultivated area was 883,300 ko in 1937 and 884,400 ko in 1938. The following table shows the rapid increase in the cultivated area since the end of the last century.

CULTIVATED AREA OF TAIWAN
(1,000 ko.)

	<i>Paddy fields</i>	<i>Dry fields</i>	<i>Total</i>
1889	211	151	363
1907	328	345	674
1912	346	364	711
1922	376	397	773
1929	406	423	830
1933	450	395	845
1937	544	339	883
1938	543	341	884

To meet the demands of the increased population, the cultivated area of Taiwan, as shown above, increased two and a half times in a period of less than fifty years. One must note the difference between cultivated area and crop area. In Taiwan, as in other

southern regions, in many cases two or even three crops can be raised in a year from the same field. If each field produces two crops a year, then the total crop area would be double that of the cultivated area. A double crop is usually produced in irrigated fields. However, even dry fields can yield two crops a year if the monthly rainfall is evenly distributed. Irrigated or paddy fields are mostly concentrated in the middle and the south of the western plain, while dry fields are situated in the north and east and in the mountains.

In the order of importance, the chief agricultural products of Taiwan are rice, sugar cane, sweet potatoes, bananas, tea, pineapples, groundnuts, tobacco and jute etc.

AGRICULTURE IN TAIWAN, 1938*

	<i>Gross value of production (million yen)</i>	<i>% of total</i>	<i>(Crop area) (1,000 ko)</i>	<i>% of the total</i>
Rice	237.9	51.7	644.8	5.30
Sugar cane	78.2	17.0	134.2	11.0
Sweet potatoes	29.5	6.4	138.7	11.4
Bananas	10.0	2.2	23.9	2.0
Tea	9.2	2.0	43.4	3.6
Pineapples	4.0	0.9	8.9	0.7
Groundnuts	3.9	0.8	32.1	2.7
Tobacco	2.6	0.6	1.7	0.1
Jute	2.5	0.5	8.6	0.7
Others	82.4	17.9	179.7	14.8

Rice is the most important product of Taiwan. In 1937 the total annual production was 9,234,000 *koku* (one *koku* is equivalent to 2.7 piculs or 1.8 Chinese piculs), almost half of it being exported exclusively to Japan. The total export of rice was 4,842,000 *koku* in 1937, 4,878,000 *koku* in 1938 and 4,106,000 *koku* in 1939.

Sugar cane is also an important cash crop, cultivated extensively on the southern plain. The total production was 15,101 million *kin* in 1938 and 19,602 million *kin* in 1939 (one million *kin* is equivalent to 600 metric tons). Taiwan is one of the five leading sugar cane producing countries in the world, being surpassed in yield only by

*Source: Formosa Today, 1942, p.49- 50.

Cuba, India, the United States and Java.

Tea is an old Taiwan crop introduced by the Chinese emigrants from Fukien. It is largely a plantation crop cultivated on hill slopes in Taihoku and Sinchiku regions, and generally does not compete with other agricultural plants for area. Taiwan tea is of three sorts: black tea, *oolong* tea and *pouchong* tea, mostly exported to the United States and Dutch East Indies. The total area under cultivation in 1938 was 45,000 ko to 46,000 ko, and the total production was 20,285,000 *kin*, of which 19,057,000 *kin* were exported for a sum of 12,742,000 yen.

Banana is another important crop, chiefly planted in Taichu, Tainan and Takao. In Taichu this fruit is produced all the year round but in Takao it ripens only from April to July. In 1938, the total banana producing area was 21,500 ko, and the total production amounted to 336.8 million *kin*, of which 222.5 million *kin* were exported for 7,600,000 yen.

The pineapple industry prospered in Taiwan after the introduction of canning. The fruit is raised on the hill slopes and thus does not compete with cereals or sugar cane for land. It is estimated that a total area of 20,000 ko is available for its plantation, but the area under cultivation is now only 10,000 ko. In 1938, the value of exports of canned pineapples amounted to 10,620,000 yen.

Sweet potatoes are produced everywhere in the country. Besides being one of the staple foods of the islanders, they are used for producing alcohol. Groundnuts are grown in Tschu and Tainan for extracting oil. Jute and tobacco, though considered as impor-

tant crops, are not exported to any great extent.

Cotton is a new crop in Taiwan. Its cultivation was encouraged by the Japanese imperial policy, especially during the war, when imports from the United States and India were cut off. The drier south is best suited for cotton cultivation.

Domestic animals, such as water buffaloes, yellow cows, pigs and poultry are raised in large numbers in Taiwan. Buffaloes and cows are employed as draft animals, while pigs and poultry are the source of marketable meat. The total number of buffaloes, cows, pigs and poultry in 1938 was 259,700, 65,400, 1,827,000 and 7,947,000 respectively. Conditions in Taiwan are also favorable for breeding sericulture as mulberry trees can grow on most of the hill slopes and yield leaves the year round. But the value of the raw silk produced is not high.

Taiwan is also rich in forest products. About two-thirds of the island is forested, the total area amounting to 1,944,123,000 ko, most of which is in the possession of the aborigines. In 1937, a total of 126,000 cu.m. of wood was exploited. The timber products are obtained chiefly from the Western Border Range. Taiwan leads the world in the production of camphor, furnishing 70 percent of the total world production. Camphor trees are grown on the mountain slopes. The total value of camphor production was 8,000,000 yen in 1936.

Fishing constitutes another important auxiliary occupation for coastal Chinese farmers. The seas around Taiwan, especially along the northeastern coast,

swarm with fish. Suo, Keelung and Takao are important fishing centers. The total value of fishing products in 1938 amounted to 23,555,000 yen.

Among the mineral products, coal, petroleum and gold are the most important. Coal mines in the Keelung and Taihoku districts yielded an annual output of 1,744,000 tons in 1937. The coal

reserve in Taiwan is estimated to amount to 400 million tons. Petroleum and natural gas are most abundant in Kinsui in the Shin-chiku district. In 1936, the amount of oil produced was 6,000 tons and that of gasoline, 2,000 tons. Placer gold is mined in the Taihoku and Karenko districts among the andersite rocks. An amount of 3,500 kilograms was produced in 1937.

MINING PRODUCTS IN TAIWAN, 1936*

<i>Minerals</i>	<i>Value of output (1,000 yen)</i>	<i>% of total</i>
Gold	4,224	14.7
Gold-silver copper ores	5,881	20.5
Placer gold	2,078	72.
Total gold and gold ores	12,343	43.0
Silver	17	0.1
Copper	470	1.6
Coal	11,865	39.6
Sulphur	87	0.3
Phosphorites	1	—
Petroleum	312	1.1
Natural gasoline	456	1.6
Carbon black	292	1.0
Others	3,384	11.7

The industry of Taiwan is closely connected with its agriculture and is largely the transformation of agricultural products into forms suitable for consumption or for ex-

port. The food industry, such as the manufacture of sugar from sugar cane and the canning of pine-apples, constitutes 71 to 74 percent of the total industrial output.

TAIWAN'S INDUSTRY BY BRANCHES, 1937.

	<i>Value of Production (million yen)</i>	<i>% of the total</i>	<i>Capital invested (million yen)</i>
Textile	5.00	1.4	2.9
Metals	12.0	3.3	
Machinery	8.0	2.2	4.9
Ceramics	8.8	2.5	3.6
Chemical	33.7	9.4	10.1
Lumber	5.5	1.5	2.7
Printing, binding	5.0	1.4	0.6
Foodstuffs	261.3	72.5	118.1
Others	20.8	5.8	48.6*
Total	360.1	100.00	191.5

Including gas
and electricity.

*Source: Formosa Today, p.107.

The food industry, as shown above, occupies a dominant position. The chief items of this industry are sugar, tea, canned pineapples, molasses, flour and candy. The sugar industry, including molasses (raw material for manufacturing alcohol and paper) and candy making, are evaluated as more than four-fifths of the total food industry.

In addition, electrical and chemical industries are operated on a large scale. Cheap water power is an important asset to Taiwan in all plans for its industrial development. As much as two million kilowatts, it is estimated, can be produced from the 23 major streams. Of this about 230,000 to 240,000 kw. was utilized in 1939. The largest plant is located at Lake Candidius, or Jitzugetzutan.

Chemical products include fertilizers, alcohol, vegetable and mineral oils, paper, charcoal, refined camphor and soap. The total value of chemical products in 1937 was 33,652,000 yen, of which 25 percent was fertilizer and more than 16 percent was alcohol.

Taiwan is well known for its textile industry in hemp and jute products, which was valued at 2,497,000 yen in 1937. Silk and cotton piece goods produced are comparatively unimportant. This island also has metal and machine works, ceramics (mostly cement and bricks), lumber, printing, salt and miscellaneous products made of bamboo straw and leather.

V.—COMMUNICATIONS AND TRADE

Communications in Taiwan can be treated separately under four headings:

A. Railway: The first railway line was constructed in 1888 by a Chinese governor named Liu Ming-chan (劉銘傳) to connect Keelung with Shinchiku. The total length of government-owned railway lines in 1942 was 1,795 kilometers, and that of railways owned by factories and light railways for "push-cars" was 1,878 km.

The chief railway lines are.

1.—Keelung-Taihoku-Shinchiku-Taichu-Kagi-Tainan-Takao line, 406 km. long.

2.—Takao-Heito - Choshu - Boryu (枋寮) line, 46 km. long.

3.—Keelung-Giran-Suo line, 99 km. long.

4.—Karenko-Taito line, 173 km. long.

In 1937, the total number of rail passengers was thirty million, and the amount of freight transported was half a million tons.

B. Highways: The total length of highways in Taiwan is 17,000 km., of which only 3,375 km. consist of improved roads. Highways occupy an important place in inland communications because railroads do not yet link up the whole island in a complete network.

Chief highway routes are as follows:

1.—Keelung-Heito route of 462 km.

2.—Suo-Karenko route of 124 km.

3.—Choshu-Taito route, built in 1938.

4.—Hori (浦里)-Karenko route via Mt. Noko pass.

5.—Kagi-Yuri (五里) route via Mt. Nutaka pass.

6.—Boryu-Taiho (大武) route.

C. Shipping Lines: Taiwan does its exporting and importing

by sea only. Thus shipping lines play an important part in Taiwan's trade. Important shipping lines operating before the war include the Keelung-Karenko, Keelung-Kobe, Keelung-Hongkong, Keelung-Amoy, Takao-Tokyo, Takao-Dairen, Takao-Shanghai, Takao-Canton, Takao-Bako (馬公), Takao-Aparri and Shinko (新港) Koto (東港). The chief shipping ports of Taiwan are Keelung, Takao, Karenko, Bako, Suo, Shinko and Anpin (安平).

D. Airlines: Before the war Taiwan was connected by a regular airline with Japan and there was one airline which encircled the island. The first line connected Fukuoka (福岡) with Taihoku (1,610

km.) The length of the island airline in 1938 was about 600 km. Flights were made daily, with stops at all important cities on the island. The number of passengers for 1937 was 6,450. In 1938, 8,706 passengers were carried and 144,005 tons of freight and mail were flown.

Before the war, Taiwan was engaged in trade mainly with Japan. Both exports to and imports from Japan amounted to 90 percent of the trade carried on. Exports in 1939 were valued at 593 million yen and imports, at 409 million yen. Taiwan's foreign trade was distributed among the following countries:

FOREIGN TRADE BY COUNTRIES IN 1939
(1,000 yen)

<i>Countries</i>	<i>Exports</i>	<i>% of total</i>	<i>Imports</i>	<i>% of total</i>
Great Britain	817	0.2	146	—
France	194	—	—	—
Germany	329	0.1	1,585	0.4
Italy	279	—	18	—
U.S.A.	9,365	1.6	1,750	0.4
British India	29	—	3,852	1.0
Australia	220	—	57	—
Canada	114	—	155	—
Dutch East Indies	259	0.1	4,529	1.1
China Proper	33,840	5.7	4,253	1.0
Hongkong	142	—	7	—
Manchuria	36,120	6.1	42,381	7.9
Japan	509,745	86.0	357,608	87.6
Others	1,216	0.2	2,308	0.6
Total	592,669	100.0	408,650	100.0

The table above shows how Japan had monopolized the trade of Tai-

wan. The chief items of export and import in 1939 are as follows:

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EXPORTS BY COMMODITIES IN 1939 (1,000 yen)

	Value of Exports	% of total
Rice	128,502	21.7
Sugar	259,827	43.8
Bananas	17,006	2.9
Tea	22,424	2.1
Canned Pineapples	13,342	2.3
Crude camphor	6,010	1.0
Camphor oil	4,030	0.7
Alcohols	16,528	2.8
Fresh fish	3,719	0.6
Salt	1,252	0.2
Hats, caps	4,829	0.8
Coal	9,167	1.6
Ores	No record	—
Timber	5,106	0.8
Others	102,197	17.2
Total	592,939	98.5

IMPORT BY COMMODITIES IN 1939 (1,000 yen)

	Value of Exports	% of total
Cereals, starch	21,239	5.2
Seeds	21,231	5.2
Food, beverages, tobacco	66,679	11.1
Oil and fats	20,593	5.1
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	28,096	6.9
Threads, cords	5,214	1.2
Tissues, clothing and other textiles	48,566	12.0
Pulp, paper, books	11,860	2.9
Minerals, cement, tiles, etc.	10,723	2.6
Ceramics	5,074	1.2
Ores, Metals	45,909	11.1
Vehicles, machinery, arms, scientific instruments	40,478	9.9
All others	104,227	25.5
Total	530,089	100.0

VI. POPULATION AND CITIES

Taiwan has a population of approximately six million, more than 96 percent of which consists of Chinese settlers. The island is

very densely populated, having a density of 175 persons per square kilometer, which is almost equal to that of Japan Proper.

TAIWAN

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION OF TAIWAN

	1938	% of Total	1941	% of Total
Chinese	5,252,800	91.45	5,673,000	90.8
Japanese	308,800	5.37	368,000	5.9
Aborigines	140,000	2.43	159,000	2.5
Others	43,400	0.75	48,000	0.8
Total	5,745,000	100.00	6,248,000	100.0

The table above shows that Taiwan is essentially a Chinese settlement. The Chinese settlers are

mostly from the following districts of the provinces of Kwangtung and Fukien:—

IMMIGRATION FROM CHINA, 1930

Immigrants from Fukien Province:				Number
from Changchow	(漳州)	2,219,500
from Nanan	(南安)	686,700
Wei-an	(惠安)	
Tsingkiang	(晉江)	
from Tung-an	(同安)	553,100
from Anchi	(安溪)	441,600
Immigrants from Kwantung Province:				
from Chiayin	(嘉義)	296,900
from Weichow	(惠州)	154,600
from Chochow	(潮州)	134,800

Japanese constitute only about 5 percent of the total population. Most of them are government officials, traders and persons engaged

in industry and mining. Not every Japanese in Taiwan possesses land.

The occupational statistics for Taiwan in 1930 are as follows:

OCCUPATIONAL STATISTICS FOR TAIWAN, 1930
(in thousands)

	Japanese	Chinese aborigines	Total
Agriculture and forestry	4.4	1,191.7	1,196.1
Fishing	1.6	26.8	28.4
Industry and Mining	15.2	144.2	159.4
Trade	18.1	151.0	169.1
Communications	9.1	49.8	58.9
Public service & professions ..	37.6	37.4	75.0
Others	4.5	67.6	72.1
No Occupation	137.7	2,645.1	2,782.8
Total	228.2	4,313.6	4,341.8

Among the total inhabitants, about four-fifths of the Chinese and aborigines were engaged in agriculture, and 40 percent of the Japanese in public service and other professions. Approximately 17 percent of the Japanese worked in industries and they held all the key positions. This shows the colonial character of occupational distribution under the Japanese rule.

At the end of 1941, the total number of aborigines in Taiwan was 159,000, of which about 60,000 had been "civilized." Their outlook, customs, and occupations do not differ very much from those of the Chinese. The aborigines are divided into several tribes, the most important being as follows:

<i>Tribe</i>	<i>Population in 1938 (in thousands)</i>
Taiyal (大野兒族)	37.1
Saisset (晒隨之番)	11.6
Bunun (保隆族)	17.6
Tsuwo (曹米族)	2.3
Ami (阿米族)	50.9
Yami (亞米族)	1.8
Paiwan (培旺族)	44.5
Others	0.1
Total	155.9

The aborigines formerly occupied the whole island, but in the course of three hundred years of war, they were driven from the best land into the mountainous areas. The Japanese, during their occupation of the island, introduced to Taiwan the Chinese "reservation" system for the aborigines, and the territory, inhabited by "uncivilized" tribes, was barred off by military outposts and barbed wires for hundreds of miles. Constant wars were fought in the mountains when the Japanese attempted to exploit land belonging to the aborigines for timber, minerals and agricultural resources. To make peace with and to "civilize" the aborigines will be a great task for the new Chinese authorities in the future.

The population of Taiwan is very unevenly distributed. The concentration is on the western plain and the eastern mountainous territory is comparatively thinly populated, as illustrated by the following figures:

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>Area (sq. km)</i>	<i>Population (in thousands)</i>	<i>Density (per sq. km.)</i>
Taihoku (N)	4,594	1,101	240
Sinchiku (NW)	4,570	766	167
Taichu (W. center)	7,382	1,251	170
Tainan (W)	5,421	1,422	262
Takao (SW)	5,721	705	139
Taito (SE)	3,515	77	22
Karenko (E)	4,628	124	27
Boto (Pescadores)	126	68	539

Ten cities have an urban population of more than 50,000 each. They are as follows:

Taihoku	367,000	Taichu	97,000
Keelung	106,000	Tainan	152,000
Sinchiku	90,000	Takao	183,000
		Kagi	98,000
		Heito	60,000
		Shoka (彰化)	61,000
		Rokuko (鹿港)	56,000

1. Taihoku: Situated on the river Tamsui. Taihoku is the capital of Taiwan. It is also a commercial city and the export center of camphor.

2. Keelung: Keelung is the chief port of Taiwan, capable of receiving ships of 10,000 tons. Seventy percent of the passengers and 40 percent of the freight pass through this port. Among the goods exported are crude sugar, bananas, tea and camphor. A strong fortress has also been constructed at Keelung.

3. Sinchiku: Sinchiku is an agricultural center surrounded by bamboo groves. It is famous for the production of oranges and the making of paper.

4. Taichu: Taichu, an export center of sugar and oranges, is also an agricultural city.

5. Tainan: Being the oldest city in Taiwan. Tainan possesses certain relics of a Dutch city and the memorial temple of General Cheng Ch'eng-kung, the Chinese leader during the late Ming dynasty.

6. Takao: Takao is the most important industrial city of Taiwan and has a modern port second only to Keelung.

7. Kagi: Second to Takao, Kagi is important for industry and commerce.

8. Heito: Heito is a city of refineries and one of the important air bases.

9. Shoka: Shoka is a center of rice and sugar refining and other agricultural industries.

10. Rokuko: Rokuko is now the center of fishing and the salt industry and a port for Chinese junks.

Other important cities are Karenko (fishing port and fortress), Taito (an eastern port and center of trade with aborigines), Koshun (southernmost city, center of tropical products), Giram (the largest city along the east coast, export center of timber), Suo (a good natural harbor for fishing and a naval base) and Ma'ko (chief city of Pescadores Island, a good natural harbor and a naval base).

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THE NINE NORTHEASTERN PROVINCES

CHIANG YU-TSAI (蔣幼齋)*

I. INTRODUCTION

Manchuria is a land with an old civilization, dating back to more than a thousand years. But until recently, the greater part of this country has been sparsely populated. Only toward the end of the last century (1880) did settlement of the unoccupied portion begin in any marked degree. Since the overthrow of the Manchu Dynasty in 1911, the somewhat tenuous administrative ties which bound the "Three Eastern Provinces" constituting Manchuria (Liaoning - called Fengtien before 1928, Kirin and Heilungkiang) to the national capital have often been strained, abnormal and chaotic. In January, 1926, the Manchurian local regime went so far as to demand complete independence from the Peking Government. However, as a result of the successful conclusion of the northern expedition against the warlords led by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, Manchuria, which was then under the military rule of the "Young Marshal," Chang Hsueh-liang, came into the orbit of the National Government in 1929, thus bringing the nation into a political unity.

Soon after the Mukden Incident on September 18, 1931, the Japanese aggressors renamed the "Three Northeastern Provinces," together with Jehol, "Manchukuo,"

which was afterwards divided into 19 districts.

II. DIVISIONS AND POPULATION

For the purposes of reconstructing the three Northeastern Provinces and strengthening their ties with the National Government, the Supreme National Defense Council, after the unconditional surrender of Japan, decided to divide them into nine new provinces. After suffering for a period of 14 years' relentless pressure and control by Japan, it was hoped that these provinces will again prosper and flourish under the administration of the National Government. Of the nine new provinces, Liaoning, Kirin and Heilungkiang are located in the center in northeast China; Liaopeh, Nunkiang and Hsingan, in the northwest; Sungkiang, and Hokiang in the northeast; and Antung, in the southeast. In addition to the nine provinces there are two special municipalities, Dairen (大連) and Harbin (哈爾濱) which are under the direct control of the Executive Yuan. The total population of the two municipalities is approximately 3,000,000.

In regard to the area of the nine provinces, Hsingan ranks first, Heilungkiang second, Hokiang and Kirin third, Sungkiang and Liaopeh fourth, Nunkiang and Liaoning, fifth, and Antung, last.

The population in the North-east is unevenly distributed, the greatest concentration being in Liaoning. Smaller populations are found in Liaopeh, Sungkiang, Hokiang, Nunkiang, Heilunkiang, Hsingan, Kirin and Antung, in the order given. The most densely populated area in Liaoning has a density of 117 inhabitants per square mile. The population of Heilungkiang appears to have doubled in a period of ten years, from 1919 to 1928, and at present has a density of about 13 persons

per square mile, or less than one-fourth the density of Kirin and about one-seventh that of Liaoning. The average density of population of the whole North-eastern Provinces is about 75 persons per square mile, which is approximately three times that of Heilungkiang and about the same as that of the Anta district in the northern part of this region. This density is only one-seventh of that of Shantung, native Province of numerous migrants to the northeast.

TABLE 1. THE NINE PROVINCES*

Provinces	Districts	Total area in square meters	Population
Liaoning (遼寧) comprising 25 hsien. Capital: Shenyang Mukden)	Shenyang (瀋陽)	75,628	12,460,486
	Liaoyang (遼陽)		
	Liaochung (遼中)		
	Ponki (本溪)		
	Fushun (撫順)		
	Tiehling (鉄峯)		
	Sinming (新民)		
	Faku (法庫)		
	Kangping (康平)		
	Haicheng (海城)		
	Kaiping (蓋平)		
	Fuhsien (復縣)		
	Singpin (新賓)		
	Tsingyuan (清源)		
	Kinhhsien (金縣)		
	Chinhhsien (錦縣)		
	Chinhsi (錦西)		
	Shengcheng (興城)		
	Suichung (綏中)		
Antung (安東) comprising 15 hsien. Capital: Antung.	Inhsien (義縣)		
	Pehchen (北鎮)		
	Panshen (盤山)		
	Taian (台安)		
	Heishan (里山)		
	Chiangwu (彰武)		
	Antung (安東)		
	Tunghwa (通化)		
	Changpai (長白)		
	Fusung (撫松)		
	Huinan (輝南)		

*The figures given in this table are merely estimates.

THE NINE NORTHEASTERN PROVINCES

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	Kinshan (金山)		
	Liuho (柳河)		
	Mengkiang (濛江)		
	Tsian (輯安)		
	Lingan (臨安)		
	Fungcheng (鳳城)		
	Suiyen (岫岩)		
	Chuangho (莊河)		
	Kwantien (寬甸)		
	Kwanjen (桓仁)	58,193	3,213,894
<i>Liaopch</i> (遼北)	Szeping (四平)		
comprising 10 hsien.	Liaoyuan (遼源)		
Capital: Szeping.	Lishu (梨樹)		
	Chengtu (昌圖)		
	Kaiyuan (開源)		
	Hsifeng (西豐)		
	Hsian (西安)		
	Tungfeng (東豐)		
	Hailung (海龍)		
	Chengling (長岑)		
	Tungliao (通遼)	104,888	4,029,705
<i>Kirin</i> (吉林)	Changchun (長春)		
comprising 20 hsien.	Yenki (延吉)		
Capital: Changchun	Wangching (汪清)		
	Helung (和龍)		
	Hunchun (琿春)		
	Antu (安圖)		
	Tehhui (德惠)		
	Kiutai (九台)		
	Nungan (農安)		
	Chienan (乾安)		
	Fuyu (扶餘)		
	Yungki (永吉)		
	Shulan (舒蘭)		
	Chiaomu (蛟河)		
	Sunhwa (孫化)		
	Hwatien (桦甸)		
	Panshih (磐石)		
	Yushu (榆樹)		
	Hwaitch (懷德)		
	Fentung (份通)	89,656	5,121,521
<i>Sunkiang</i> (松江)	Suiyang (綏陽)		
comprising 21 hsien.	Tungning (東寧)		
Capital: Harbin.	Mulin (穆稜)		
	Ningan (寧安)		
	Acheng (阿城)		
	Pinhsien (賓縣)		
	Shwangchen (雙城)		
	Wuchang (五常)		
	Chuhoh (珠河)		
	Weiho (葦河)		
	Yenshou (延壽)		
	Holan (蘭河)		

	Payen (巴彥)		
	Mulan (木蘭)		
	Chaotung (肇東)		
	Chaochow (肇州)		
	Lanhsi (蘭西)		
	Tunghsing (東興)		
	Anta (安達)		
	Tsingkang (青岡)		
	Chaoyuan (肇源)	79,520	4,922,630
<i>Hokiang (合江)</i> comprising 18 hsien. Capital: Kiamusas.	Kuan (吉安)		
	Hulin (虎林)		
	Jaoho (饒河)		
	Paotsing (寶清)		
	Linkiang (林江)		
	Poli (勃利)		
	Mishan (密山)		
	Huachuan (樺川)		
	Holi (鶴立)		
	Tangyuan (湯原)		
	Tunggho (通河)		
	Fangcheng (方正)		
	Ilan (依蘭)		
	Fuchin (富錦)		
	Tungkiang (同江)		
	Fuyuan (撫遠)		
	Suiping (綏濱)		
	Loupei (蘿北)	131,613	1,297,873
<i>Heilungkiang (黑龍江)</i> comprising 23 hsien. Capital: Pehan.	Pehan (北安)		
	Aihun (愛輝)		
	Moho (漠河)		
	Owpu (歐浦)		
	Huma (呼瑪)		
	Chike (奇克)		
	Sunho (遜河)		
	Wuyun (烏雲)		
	Fushan (佛山)		
	Sunwu (孫吳)		
	Suillin (綏稷)		
	Tiehli (鐵驪)		
	Chingcheng (庆城)		
	Suihwa (綏化)		
	Hailun (海倫)		
	Wangkwei (望奎)		
	Lan (依安)		
	Tetu (德都)		
	Keshan (克山)		
	Ketung (克東)		
	Paichuan (拜泉)		
	Mingshui (明水)		
	Nunkiang (嫩江)	183,806	2,468,844
<i>Nunkiang (嫩江)</i> comprising 16 hsien. Capital: Lungkiang.	Lungkiang (龍江)		
	Tailai (泰來)		
	Taikang (泰康)		

	Kannan	(日南)		
	Fuyu	(富裕)		
	Lintien	(林甸)		
	Neho	(納河)		
	Talai	(大齊)		
	Tuchuan	(突泉)		
	Ankuang	(安廣)		
	Chentung	(鎮東)		
	Kaitung	(開通)		
	Chanyu	(瞻榆)		
	Taonan	(洮南)		
	Taoan	(洮安)		
	Chingsien	(景星)	61,957	2,093,500
<i>Hsingan</i> (興安) comprising 7 hsien. Capital: Hulun	Hulun	(呼倫)		
	Yalu	(雅魯)		
	Chichian	(奇乾)		
	Shihwei	(室韋)		
	Lupin	(瀘濱)		
	Bushih	(布西)		
	Sollun	(索倫)	269,147	1,292,535

The nine Northeastern Provinces are situated to the east of Mongolia; on the north they extend to the Heilungkiang (also known as Amur River) and, on the south to Korea. The western range, a prolongation of the Hsingan Mountains, forms the western boundary. In the north, the boundary runs along the long winding stream of the Heilungkiang on the western slope of the Hsingan Mountains. In the east, the provinces are walled in by the range of Changpai Shan—the White Mountains—which stretch in a northeasterly direction from the south of the Liaotung Peninsula to the point where the Ussuri and Amur rivers meet, the former river forming the eastern boundary.

Liaoning Province occupies the

major part of the former Liaoning Province bordering on Antung on the east, Liaopeh on the north and Jehol on the west.

Antung Province borders on Liaoning and Liaopeh on the west, Kirin on the north and Korea on the east.

Liaopeh Province is bounded by Liaoning on the south, Antung and Kirin Provinces in the northeast, Jehol, Chahar, Nunkiang and Hsingan in the northwest.

Kirin Province is bounded by Liaopeh on the south, Tungkiang on the north, Nunkiang on the west and Korea and the Soviet Union on the east.

Sungkiang Province borders on Kirin in the south, Hokiang and Heilungkiang in the north, Nunkiang in the west and the U.S.S.R. in the east.

Hokiang Province is walled in on the northeast by the Ussuri River and Heilungkiang. The name of this province means "the meeting of three rivers," namely, the Sungari, Ussuri and Heilungkiang.

Heilungkiang Province, situated in the northernmost part of China and adjoining Russian territory, stretches southward to Hsingan, Nunkiang, Sungkiang and Hokiang.

Hsingan Province is bounded on the west by the U.S.S.R. and Outer Mongolia, and on the east by Heilungkiang, Nunkiang and Liaopeh.

Nunkiang Province, extending across the greater part of the Nunkiang plain, is a long narrow strip of land stretching from north to south, touching Hsingan and Liaopeh in the west and Kirin, Sungkiang and Heilungkiang in the east.

III. NATURAL CONDITIONS

A. Topography.—Topographically, the Northeastern Provinces may be divided into northern and southern parts. The northern half slopes toward the north and forms part of the basin of the Heilungkiang, while the southern half slopes to the gulf of Pe Chihli. The mountainous regions also fall naturally into two halves. The Changpeishan system on the northeast includes the Changpeishan (長白山); the Wanta-shan (完達山); the Changkuang-tsailing (張廣才峯); the Taheishan (大黑山); the Mulengwochiling (穆稜窩集峯); the Laoyehling (老爺峯) and the Tsienshan (千山). These mountains rise to a considerable height, the loftiest peak being Peishan, with an elevation of

2,700 meters above sea level. A total of 140,000 square meters in this mountain system is forested. On the northeast the range is called the Lesser Hsinganling (小興安峯), including the Chikuo-shan (七國山) and the Yenshan (燕山).

On the west, the Hsingan Mountain range starts in the south in the Yinsan mountains, fringing the province of Jehol, and runs generally in a northeasterly direction through Inner Mongolia, between the Jehol and Chahar Provinces, and reaches a point almost within sight of the Amur in the north. The entire length of the range is 650 kilometers and its average height is from 1,000 to 1,500 meters. The Hsingan Mountains, marked with sharp and sometimes even precipitous features on the eastern side, slope down on the western side at gentle angles and trail off into the plains of Inner Mongolia. This range forms the eastern boundary of the Northeastern Provinces.

The rivers in the northern part of the Northeastern Provinces belong to the Heilungkiang system, which runs through the northeastern part of Asia and drains approximately 1,960,000 square kilometers. The southern part of the provinces is drained by a number of river systems of secondary importance as far as navigation is concerned, the longest being the Liachou. These rivers empty into the gulfs of the Yellow Sea. The Heilungkiang, with its tributaries, forms a network of transportation lines of more than 15,000 kilometers long, of which about 10,000 kilometers are navigable for steamboats. The other rivers, even the Liaoho, are of use as waterways only in

their lower courses. The Heilungkiang and the Ussuri meet at the northern end of Changpeishan. The Sungliao plain is drained by the Sungari and its tributary, the Nunkiang. The Sungari owes its name "Milky River" to the color of the waters originating at Kirin, which flow all the year round at high water, while the Nunkiang has its source even farther away, in Tsitsihar. The southern plain is located in the Valley of the Liaoho and the Yaluhkiang.

B Climate.—Forming a part of the Asiatic mainland but not including the southwestern corner, which comes directly under the influence of sea currents, the Northeastern Provinces have a climate which is continental. In winter the prevailing climatic conditions are more markedly continental. But during the summer months, as a result of the summer monsoon, the climate shows an oceanic influence, with humidity and fewer abrupt changes. Cold northwest winds are generally dominant in the winter months, whereas the warm southeast winds of summer usually make themselves less felt. June, July and August are the hottest months and November, December, January, February and March are the coldest. The contrast is less marked on the Heilungkiang lowland than on the high plateaus on the west and east of the country, where no nearby mountains can deflect the direction of the air currents. Under the influence of these air currents the winters are very cold and dry and free from snow, the summers are hot and rainy and the spring and autumn are cold and deficient in rainfall. The amount of rainfall

during the growing season is about four to five times as much as during the rest of the year. In regard to temperature, however, the country cannot be considered as a unit because temperatures vary greatly with the differences in latitude and the country extends from north to south over a wide area.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

As a consequence of the differences in fertility of soil and climatic conditions in the various parts of the country, there is a number of factors governing the agricultural practices and possibilities in this area. Among the crops produced, a certain native millet, *kaoliang*, is grown in regions south of latitude 48° N. Of the many species of beans produced, soya bean, the most important cash crop and the largest export item, occupies 25 per cent of the total cultivated land. Soya bean is primarily used, as food for animal and human consumption and oil and fertilizer in the form of bean cakes. Wheat, occupying 11 per cent of the cultivated area, is chiefly produced in the north. Italian millet, occupying 16 per cent of the cultivated area, ranks third among the crops in the Northeastern Provinces. Being deep-rooted and tolerant of drought conditions, Italian millet is mostly planted in the semi-arid western region. Eighty per cent of the crop is sown in the spring.

Economic conditions of the nine provinces are described as follows:

LIAONING: Liaoning, being free from the undesirability of extreme heat or cold because of its abundant rainfall, southward-inclined low topography, and level plain

which extends to the sea, possesses the finest climate among the nine provinces. Well developed in agriculture, the long cultivated plain is noted for the production of wheat, sorghum, soya beans and millet, the surplus of which being exported.

Coal mines, iron and steel factories as well as mechanical and oil-extracting industries, formerly under the control and management of the South Manchurian Corporation, have made this province famous. The quantity of coal produced in Fushun, Fenki and Liaoyang ranks first in the Northeast. The iron reserves in the Anshan range are the richest in China. Besides, the mineral areas, being close together, are convenient for exploitation. These factors explain Liaoning's importance as a base for the development of China's key industries.

Railways that radiate from the center of Shenyang have facilitated communications in this province. Large districts such as Yinkow, Fushun-Tienling, Haiping and Chihnsien are prosperous industrially and commercially.

ANTUNG: Quite the reverse of Liaoning Province, Antung is a long, narrow strip of land stretching from north to south, abounding with mountains. Lying between Yalukiang and Liaoho, it includes the southern part of Changpaishan. Crops raised in the valley along the rivers enable the inhabitants to be self-supporting. A shortage of coal and iron rather darkens the future development of heavy industry in this province. Despite the Antung-Shenyang Railway, the province still suffers from a lack of communication facilities, especially in

the southern and northern parts, where there are no railroads.

This province, however, possesses three advantages. First, the water power of the rivers in this province is sufficiently to generate electric power for its industrialization. Secondly, the province is densely forested. In Changpaishan are situated China's most important lumbering centers for sawing, paper-making and wood pulp-making which, if well developed, may convert Antung into a very prosperous region. The region between Antung and south of Talungkow, possessing a fine climate in the highlands near the Korean peninsula, is well suited to industry, commerce and foreign trade.

LIAOPEH: Extending like a belt from northwest to southeast, Liaopeh has a fertile plain in the southeast. Rainfall on the plain is sufficient to promote the development of mechanical agriculture. The main products in this region are wheat, soya beans and millet. Rainfall in the northwest, however, being scanty, can only water the pastureland which is a haven for pastoral nomads. Szepingkai and Liaoyuan are the two railway centers in the southeast.

KIRIN: The province of Kirin possesses four characteristics:

1. Topographically, the eastern part of the province is mountainous and densely forested while the western part consists of plains and low hills. Here agriculture is highly developed. The province is also well suited for grazing and forestry.

2. The rich mineral resources, including coal and iron, plus abundant water power, make possible the future development of industry in this province.

3. The province is well knitted together by railroads, with stations at Changchun, Kirin and Dafa in the west and Chaoyang, Yamen and Wangching in the east. In the easternmost part the railroad links with the two northern Korean ports of Kashin and Seikin. Changchun is an important city in the west, while Hunchun, Yenki, Tumen and Wangching are eastern cities of industrial importance.

4. The eastern part of the province, bordering on the territory of the U.S.S.R., formerly named Chientao by the Japanese, has been inhabited by Koreans and Japanese in addition to a small number of Chinese. The mixed association of the different nationals at times has led to international friction. Viewed from a different angle, however, the eastern part, owing to its propinquity to Vladivostok and Kashin, occupies a favorable position for foreign trade. Besides, the importance of this province is further increased by the strategic position of Changchun as the nucleus of the nine provinces.

SUNGKIANG: Being long and narrow in the west as well as in the east, Sungkiang is parallel and similar to Kirin Province in many respects. It possesses productive plains for agriculture in the west and hilly regions in the east for forestry. In the west, Harbin is the center of railways, industries and commerce, while in the east, Mutankiang, Hsiachentze and Hohsi are the major railway junctions of the province.

The railway running from Sui-fenho to Harbin is important as an international communication line. There is a possibility that the province will profit most in the trade between the Soviet Union

and the Chinese Republic. The major part of the province is capable of attracting a great number of immigrants from the interior provinces.

HOKIANG: Contrary to the characteristics of the other provinces, the province of Hokiang occupies a wet low plain. Although at present it is thinly populated, improvement of the drainage system and the consequent reduction of the area occupied by marshlands will transform this territory into a center of migration.

On this wide plain the winter is extremely cold. A long period of heavy frost hinders the development of agriculture. But on the extensive pastures may serve to raise cattle which produce enough meat and milk for the inhabitants of the province.

HEILUNGKIANG: Unlike Hokiang Province, the province of Heilungkiang is an elevation of forests, embracing the whole of Lesser Hsinganling, with the Heilungkiang Valley to the north and Nunkiang to the south. The majority of the inhabitants live in the valleys rather than in the hilly regions. The winters are extremely cold, with a temperature as low as 40°C. below zero. Warm days are so short that plants can hardly grow. However, the forests in the province provide raw materials for paper and wood pulp-making. Among the old cliffs on Lesser Hsinganling, gold is produced. The Moho-Tsitsihar Railway passing through Nunkiang, the Heiho-Harbin Railway traversing Sunho, Pehan and Suihwa, and the other two lines, running from Nunkiang to Kigun and from Ninghien to Kigan, greatly facilitate China's trade with Soviet Russia.

HSINGAN: Hsingan is the largest of the nine provinces, but the most thinly populated. The eastern slope of the Great Hsinganling, receiving more rainfall than the western slope, is forested, while the little rainfall on the western slope serves only to moisten pastureland for grazing. Hsingan has a mixed population of Chinese, Mongolians and Solunese. The waste land, which remains to be

reclaimed and cultivated, offers a challenge to immigrants in search of opportunity.

NUNKIANG: The moderate rainfall on its plains makes Nunkiang ideal for farming with machinery. Its railway lines run in all directions, with three centers at Paichang in the south, Anganki in the central part and Fingnin in the north.

CHAPTER II

ASTRONOMY

YU CHING-SUNG (余青松)*

The war of resistance against Japan's aggression, so boldly launched by China in 1937 and eventually grown into World War II, has come to a victorious conclusion. For eight long years the whole country was struggling at the very brink of existence. Untold amount of courage, sacrifice and sufferings of her people have saved her and made her what she is today. This is Victory year. Every one rejoices. But with victory comes a multitude of problems, problems of rehabilitation and reconstruction. This is true in every walk of life, and in the field of astronomy there is no exception.

With the coming of peace we look forward to a new era of international co-operation in astronomical activities. A number of projects of special common interest have already existed before the war. They include, the world longitude campaign, the dispatch of eclipse expeditions, the observation of diurnal solar phenomena, and the study of short period variable stars. China has parti-

cipated in all these fields in the past and expects to continue her contribution in the future. To do so, however, her meager number of observatories, which have been ravaged by the war, needs to be reconstructed and re-equipped. This no doubt will take some time. But it is hoped that we may not fall behind in our efforts. There is one work which China can do immediately in co-operation with other nations, and that is to strive for the adoption of a new sensible calendar, the **WORLD CALENDAR**, in place of the existing time-worn Gregorian Calendar of many defects.

I. CALENDAR REFORM

The origin of all calendars is astronomical in character, because it involves the observation of celestial phenomena, like the motions of the sun, moon and stars, for determining the accurate length of the year and for establishing the stability of the seasons. This work, however, has long been accomplished by astronomers. The problem today is not to modify the

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celestial numerical figures which are immutable, but rather to improve the internal arrangement of the present calendar so as to keep up to date with the needs of a progressive and modern world.

That the Gregorian Calendar (in use since 1582 A.D.) contains many defects has long been recognised. Among the more serious ones are: (1) The months are unequal in length, e.g. some contains 31 days, some 30, while February has only 28 days. (2) Each month begins and ends on a different week day, (3) The quarters are not equal in interval, e.g. the first quarter consists of 90 days, whereas the others vary from 91 to 92 days. (4) Each quarter begins and ends on a different day of the week. (5) Each year begins on a different weekday. It is thus clear that the Gregorian Calendar is forever different from year to year. It is unbalance in structure, unstable in form and irregular in arrangement. These undesirable features affect seriously all phases of commercial, industrial, educational, religious and social life, which necessitate a regular and stable time table as a fundamental requirement for their efficient execution. Hence the cry for calendar reform has been heard from time to time.

Up to 1923, two concrete plans among a number of others submitted to the League of Nations for consideration, have been selected by the League for further study. One was the 13-month plan of 28 days and four weeks to every

month. This was finally discarded because the year would not be divisible by months into quarters and the familiar 12 months would have to be abandoned. In short the change would be too radical and impractical. The other proposal is the 12 months of four identical quarters, each quarter having three months of 31, 30, 30 days respectively, now known as the World Calendar.

II. THE WORLD CALENDAR

We now present the beneficial features of this new World Calendar. The Calendar evenly divides the 12 months into four equal quarters, corresponding to the four seasons. Each quarter-year consists of 91 days, 13 weeks or three months. The first month has 31 days, the other two 30 days each. Every month contains 26 weekdays plus Sundays. Therefore, as far as working days are concerned, every month of the year is exactly of the same length. Moreover each quarter begins on Sunday and ends on Saturday, which is another important stabilizing factor of this Calendar.

A special feature of this new time-plan is that to complete the year, which contains 365 days, another day, an extra Saturday, must be placed after Saturday, December 30. And during leap years, another extra Saturday must be added after Saturday, June 30. The former is called December W, to be a World Holiday, and the latter known as June W, becomes also another World Holiday.

First Quarter

90 days

92 days

91 days

92 days

PROPOSED WORLD CALENDAR

First Quarter								Third Quarter							
	S	M	T	W	T	F	S		S	M	T	W	T	F	S
JAN.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	JUL.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14		8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21		15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28		22	23	24	25	26	27	28
	29	30	31						29	30	31				
FEB.					1	2	3	AUG.					1	2	3
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	26	27	28	29	30				26	27	28	29	30		
MAR.						1	2	SEP.						1	2
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23		17	18	19	20	21	22	23
	24	25	26	27	28	29	30		24	25	26	27	28	29	30
91 days								91 days							
Second Quarter								Fourth Quarter							
	S	M	T	W	T	F	S		S	M	T	W	T	F	S
APR.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	OCT.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14		8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21		15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28		22	23	24	25	26	27	28
	29	30	31						29	30	31				
MAY					1	2	3	NOV.					1	2	3
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	26	27	28	29	30				26	27	28	29	30		
JUN.						1	2	DEC.						1	2
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23		17	18	19	20	21	22	23
	24	25	26	27	28	29	30		24	25	26	27	28	29	30
91 days								91 days							

**JUNE W, the Leap-Year Day

*DECEMBER W, the Year-End Day

The World Calendar now becomes stable and perpetual, for it is of the same pattern every year. The irregularities and inconsistencies of the existing one at once disappear. The benefits of this new calendar are thus evident.

As a means of cementing international relations and as an aid to a just and durable peace, this Calendar, with its harmony and balance structure, assumes a special significance. The World Calendar, already endorsed by 14 nations and many organizations of the world, is sponsored by the World Calendar Association of New York City. Miss Elisabeth Achelis, its president, has so aptly said that "when we said peace, I like to associate it with the Chinese word for peace. This is a composite word, *Ho* (和) *Ping*

(平), meaning harmony-equity. Certainly these qualities are inherent in The World Calendar which in plan is harmonious and in arrangement equitable."

The most favorable time for the adoption of the World Calendar is January 1, 1950, since on that day the date of the old calendar coincides with that of the new, and the change can therefore be made with no disturbance. Although 1950 is some years off, it is not too early now to start working for its adoption. Let us hope that when the time comes every nation will be ready for it.

As customary we append herewith four Tables of astronomical interest. They are: Solar Terms with Sunrise and Sunset, Phases of the Moon, Eclipses, and Astronomical Phenomena for 1945.

TABLE 1. SOLAR TERMS. WITH SUNRISE AND SUNSET FOR 1945
(Longitude 105° E., Latitude 30° N.)

<i>Solar Terms</i>	<i>Dates</i>			<i>Sunrise</i>		<i>Sunset</i>	
	<i>D</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>M</i>
Hsiao Han (小寒, Moderate Cold)	Jan	5	23	35	06 57	17 15	
Ta Han (大寒, Severe Cold)		20	16	54	06 56	17 27	
Li Chun (立春, Spring Commences) .	Feb.	4	11	20	06 48	17 40	
Yu Shui (雨水, Spring Showers)		19	07	15	06 37	17 52	
Ching Chiu (惊蛰, Insects Waken) .	Mar.	6	05	38	06 21	18 03	
Chun Fen (春分, Vernal Equinox)		21	06	38	06 03	18 12	
Ch'ing Ming (清明, Clear and Bright)	Apr.	5	10	52	05 44	18 21	
Ku Yu (谷雨, Corn Rain)		20	18	07	05 28	18 30	
Li Hsia (立夏, Summer Commences) ..	May	6	4	37	05 13	18 40	
Hsiao Man (小满, Corn Forms)		21	17	41	05 04	18 51	
Mang Chung (芒种, Corn in Ear) ...	June	6	09	06	04 58	18 58	
Hsia Chih (夏至, Summer Solstice) ..		22	01	52	04 59	19 04	
Hsiao Shu (小暑, Moderate Heat)	July	7	19	27	05 05	19 01	
Ta Shu (大暑, Great Heat)		23	12	46	05 13	18 59	
Li Ch'iu (立秋, Autumn Commences) .	Aug	8	05	06	05 23	18 47	
Ch'u Shu (处暑, Heat Breaks Up)		23	19	36	05 32	18 32	
Pai Lu (白露, White Dew)	Sep.	8	07	39	05 40	18 14	
Cn'iu Fen (秋分, Autumnal Equinox) .		23	16	50	05 48	17 55	
Han Lu (寒露, Cold Dew)	Oct.	8	22	50	05 58	17 39	
Shuang Chiang (霜降, Frost)		24	01	44	06 8	17 21	
Li Tung (立冬, Winter Commences) .	Nov.	8	01	35	06 19	17 08	
Hsiao Hsueh (小雪, Light Snow)		22	22	56	06 32	17 02	
Ta Hsueh (大雪, Heavy Snow)	Dec.	7	18	08	06 44	17 01	
Tung Chih (冬至, Winter Solstice) .		22	12	04	06 52	17 05	

TABLE 2. ECLIPSES FOR 1945

No.	Date	Eclipse	Sun or Moon	Visible or Invisible in China
1	Jan. 14	Annular	Sun	Invisible
2	June 25	Partial	Moon	Visible
3	July 9	Total	Sun	Invisible
4	Dec. 19	Total	Moon	Visible

Note: The total eclipse of Moon, Dec. 19, will be visible only as a little partial eclipse in the southwestern part of Tibet.

TABLE 3. PHASES OF THE MOON FOR 1945
(Longitude 105°E. Civil Time)

			D	H	M		D	H	M
Last Quarter	..	January	6	19	47	July	3	01	13
New Moon	..		14	12	06		9	20	35
First Quarter	..		21	06	48		17	14	01
Full Moon	..		28	13	41		25	09	25
Last Quarter	...	February	5	16	55	August	1	05	30
New Moon	..		13	00	33		8	07	32
First Quarter	..		19	15	38		16	07	26
Full Moon	..		27	07	07		23	19	03
							30	10	44
Last Quarter	...	March	7	11	30	September	6	20	43
New Moon	..		14	10	51		15	00	38
First Quarter	..		21	02	11		22	03	46
Full Moon	...		29	00	44		28	18	24
Last Quarter	...	April	6	02	18	October	6	12	22
New Moon	..		12	19	29		14	16	38
First Quarter	..		19	14	46		21	12	32
Full Moon	..		27	17	33		28	05	30
Last Quarter	...	May	5	13	02	November	5	06	11
New Moon	..		12	03	21		13	06	34
First Quarter	..		19	05	12		19	22	13
Full Moon	..		27	08	49		26	20	28
Last Quarter	...	June	3	20	15	December	5	01	06
New Moon	..		10	11	26		12	18	05
First Quarter	..		17	21	05		19	09	17
Full Moon	...		25	22	08		26	15	00
Last Quarter	...								

TABLE 4. ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA FOR 1945
UNIVERSAL TIME OR GREENWICH CIVIL TIME

Planetary Configurations						
	d	h	m			' °
Jan. ..	1	23	—	⊕	in Perihelion	
	2	14	—		Stationary in R. A.	
	4	20	21	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —3 55
	5	14	30	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —4 2
	8	10	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.	
	12	8	12	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —0 10
	12	20	—		Stationary in R. A.	
	12	21	2	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —1 51
	13	3	—		Greatest Elongation W.	23 40
	14	—	—	☉	Annular Eclipse.	
	17	14	2	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +3 50
	23	12	—		in ☿	
	23	18	8	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +3 22
	25	17	34	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +0 30
	25	23	—	♂	in ♃	
Feb. ..	26	15	—	♂ ♀ ♀ ☾	♂ +0 22
	1	3	29	♂ ♀ ♀ ☾	♂ —3 43
	1	22	13	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —3 57
	2	18	—	♂	in Aphelion.	
	2	22	—	♂	Greatest Elongation E.	46 52
	10	21	38	♂ ♀ ♀ ☾	♂ —0 5
	11	19	10	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +0 3
	15	20	7	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +8 1
	15	23	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	19	23	8	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +3 16
	21	21	3	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +0 35
	23	2	—	☐	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.	
	28	3	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —3 25
	28	5	43	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —3 25
	28	17	—	♂	in Perihelion.	
Mar. ..	28	21	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	Superior.	
	1	4	26	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ —3 48
	5	22	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	Stationary in R. A.	
	10	8	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	Greatest brilliancy.	
	11	21	3	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +1 43
	13	12	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	
	14	3	—	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	in ☿	
	14	21	56	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +5 33
	16	10	30	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +11 46
	18	18	—	♂	in Perihelion.	
	19	6	34	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +3 0
	20	23	38	♂ ☉	enters ♄, Equinox.	
	21	2	54	♂ ♀ ☾ ☾	♂ +0 26
	22	11	—		Greatest Hel. Lat. N.	
	24	14	—	♂	Stationary in R. A.	

	<i>d</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>m</i>						<i>o'</i>
	25	5	—	☐	☐	☐			
	26	2	—	☐	☐	☐			
	26	9	—						
	27	5	13	☐	☐	☐	Greatest Elongation E.		18 46
	28	9	21	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—3 16
									—3 43
Apr. ..	29	0	—				Greatest Hel. Lat. N.		
	3	11	—				Stationary in R. A.		
	9	19	7	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+3 14
	12	10	54	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+7 53
	12	12	58	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+12 58
	13	14	—	☐	☐	☐	Inferior.		
	14	12	—				Greatest Hel. Lat. S.		
	15	17	—	☐	☐	☐	Inferior.		
	15	17	16	☐	☐	☐	:: ::	☐	+2 42
	17	12	52	☐	☐	☐	:: ::	☐	+0 7
	21	11	—				in ☐		
	23	5	50	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—3 21
	24	13	53	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—3 48
	25	23	—				Stationary in R. A.		
	26	18	—	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—6 16
May ..	1	18	—				in Aphelion		
	4	12	—				Stationary in R. A.		
	8	16	0	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+4 7
	9	10	53	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+7 9
	9	17	—	☐	☐	☐	in Perihelion		
	9	23	2	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+2 0
	11	12	—				Greatest Elongation W.		26 13
	13	6	7	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+2 28
	15	2	31	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—0 15
	15	6	—	☐	☐	☐	Stationary in R. A.		
	17	13	—				in ☐		
	20	10	53	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—3 38
	21	15	—	☐	☐	☐	Greatest brilliancy.		
	21	19	12	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—3 58
	22	2	—				Greatest Hel. Lat. S.		
June ..	4	6	—	☐	☐	☐			
	6	11	51	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+4 9
	6	21	17	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+2 42
	9	13	55	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+2 29
	9	19	—	☐	☐	☐			
	9	19	4	☐	☐	☐	:: ::	☐	+2 19
	10	2	—				in ☐		
	11	1	—	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	+0 11
	11	18	2	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—0 34
	14	17	—				in Perihelion		
	15	10	—				Stationary in R. A.		
	16	0	—	☐	☐	☐	Superior		
	16	21	22	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—3 56
	18	2	9	☐	☐	☐	:: :: :: :: :: ::	☐	—4 7
	21	0	—	☐	☐	☐	in Aphelion		

ASTRONOMY

	<i>d</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>m</i>				<i>°</i>	<i>'</i>
	21	18	52		☉	enters ☉ Solstice		
	24	11	—	♂	☉	♂	+2 11
	24	19	—		☉	Greatest Elongation W.		45 46
	25	—	—		☉	Partial Eclipse		
	25	0	—		☉	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.		
July ..	25	16	—	☐	☉			
	5	6	26	♂	☉	♂	+3 24
	5	10	—		☉	in Aphelion		
	6	2	27	♂	☉	♀	+0 26
	6	21	—	♂	☉			
	7	6	23	♂	☉	♂	+2 11
	9	—	—		☉	Total Eclipse		
	9	9	29	♂	☉	♂	—0 51
	11	10	17	♂	☉	♂	—1 53
	13	9	—		☉	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.		
Aug. ..	14	12	12	♂	☉	♂	—4 8
	15	10	41	♂	☉	♂	—4 8
	18	10	—		☉	in ☉		
	20	17	—		☉	in ☉		
	22	10	—	♂	☉	♀	—2 36
	23	20	—		☉	Greatest Elongation E.		27 1
	28	17	—		☉	in Aphelion		
	2	23	7	♂	☉	♂	+2 12
	3	15	17	♂	☉	♂	+2 2
	4	15	46	♂	☉	♀	—1 10
	5	22	—		☉	Stationary in R. A.		
	5	23	22	♂	☉	♂	—1 8
	9	6	50	♂	☉	♂	—3 57
	11	5	38	♂	☉	♂	—4 14
	11	20	5	♂	☉	♂	—4 3
	17	15	—	♂	☉	♂	—0 24
	18	1	—		☉	Greatest Hel. Lat. S.		
	20	15	—	♂	☉	Inferior		
	22	4	—	♂	☉	♀	—0 41
	29	14	—		☉	Stationary in R. A.		
Sept. ..	30	22	11	♂	☉	♂	+1 47
	31	13	7	♂	☉	♂	+0 54
	2	10	57	♂	☉	♂	—1 29
	3	10	41	♂	☉	♂	—2 35
	4	21	49	♂	☉	♂	—4 9
	6	1	—		☉	in ☉		
	6	12	—		☉	Greatest along W.		18 1
	7	16	—		☉	in ☉		
	8	0	4	♂	☉	♂	—4 15
	8	5	22	♂	☉	♂	—3 56
	8	18	—		☉	in ☉		
	10	11	—	☐	☉	in Perihelion		
	10	16	—		☉		
	20	23	—		☉	Greatest Hel. Lat. N.		
	23	7	—	♂	☉	♂	—0 20

51

[illegible]

ASTRONOMY

<i>d h m</i>						<i>o'</i>
18 6 52	♂	♂	☾ ♂	+1 25
18 22 —		☾		in Aphelion		
19 — —		☾		Total Eclipse.		
20 21 17	♂	♂	☾ ♀	—2 13
21 12 5	♂	♂	☾ ♂	+0 44
22 5 4		☾		in		
26 13 24	♂	☾	☾	enters , Solstice		
26 15 —		☾		☾	—4 8
27 21 18	♂	☾	☾	Greatest Elongation W.		22 12
28 5 —		☾		☾	—3 54
30 15 —	☐	☾	☾			

Aries.
Cancer.

Libra.
Capricornus.

CHAPTER III

CLIMATE

CHU CO-CHING (竺可楨)* and JOHN LEE (呂炯)**

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 Tinghai, 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, a good deal of the observatory equipments and instruments were removed into the interior provinces such as Kansu, Chinghai, Sikang and Yunnan, where valuable work has been carried on in the face of considerable inconveniences and hardships.

In 1941 a new Central Meteorological Bureau was established at Sha Ping Pa, Chungking. 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 to research activities.

I. INTRODUCTION

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.

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The extent of the Chinese territory is widest and 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 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, brings about the unique wind system of Eastern Asia. In winter, due to extreme coolness and aridity of the interior of Asia, air 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 is now over the continent with its centre in North-west India, while the high-pressure system shifts to the mid-Pacific. Since wind always blow from the region of high 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 regimes 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 Me-

teorology, (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

<i>Period</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>Mar.</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>	<i>Total</i>
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

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 extra tropical 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 1921-1930

<i>Latitude</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>Mar.</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
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	28	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

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

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:

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF TYPHOONS DURING THE PERIOD 1904-1934

Location		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Landed N. of Wen-	chow	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	12	5	—	—	—	21
Landed S. of Wen-	Chow	—	—	—	—	—	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 sealevel temperatures; mean temperatures of places at high altitude have to be reduced to make them comparable. With the year taken as a whole, many 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 North-east 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 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.

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

<i>Regions</i>	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>	<i>Autumn</i>	<i>Summer</i>
South China	0.0	4.0- 7.0	(Spring & 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 Yantze 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 & 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 dif-

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

ference 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 depends much 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 China.

The lowest temperature ever recorded in China so far known is—50.1°C, recorded at Mankuusi 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 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 come rather suddenly and blows with much greater strength than the summer monsoon. The monsoonal winds are not so constant as one would imagine; when cyclones pass over Mongolia, 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 winds comes from the N. or E. 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 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 south-westerly.

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 Hong-kong, 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

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

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 favorable. 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 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 determine the monsoonal wind system of China, so does the wind system determine the Chinese rainfall regimes. Onshore winds, pregnant with moisture, bring the wet season; while offshore winds usher in the dry period. The main characteristic of rainfall regimes 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

<i>Place</i>	<i>N.</i>	<i>NE.</i>	<i>E.</i>	<i>SE.</i>	<i>S.</i>	<i>SW.</i>	<i>W.</i>	<i>NW.</i>	<i>Calm</i>	<i>Period</i>
Hongkong ..	44.7	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	1929-33
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 yu* 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

<i>Place</i>	<i>Season</i>	<i>Depressions</i>	<i>Typhoons</i>	<i>Thunderstorms</i>	<i>Period</i>
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
Tsingtao ..	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 cyclone

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 large part of the year and thunderstorms in the summer.

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 topograph. North of the Valley, precipitation decreases rapidly towards the north and northwest. 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	28.9	26.8	28.5	27.4	25.2	22.7	19.8	23.9	1924-1936
Kiungshan ..	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	23.0	1924-1936
Hongkong ..	15.4	15.1	17.3	21.3	25.0	27.3	27.8	27.6	27.0	24.6	20.9	17.2	22.2	1884-1940
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
Chilang 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
Samshui	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	28.2	27.6	23.8	20.0	16.1	22.0	1924-1936
Lamocks	13.3	12.5	14.5	18.7	23.4	25.7	26.6	25.9	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
Tsangwu	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	13.9	13.4	15.5	19.3	23.9	26.9	29.0	29.0	28.0	24.5	20.5	16.7	21.7	1917-1937
Tengchung	8.5	9.7	13.3	15.8	18.3	19.9	20.3	20.4	19.8	16.9	12.5	9.5	15.4	1916-1937
Ockseu	11.1	10.3	12.3	16.3	21.1	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	25.6	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
Hengyang	5.0	7.0	11.9	17.2	23.1	26.2	29.1	28.8	25.6	19.3	13.5	8.5	17.9	1933-1943
Kweiyang	4.5	6.5	11.7	16.3	20.5	22.4	24.6	24.0	20.7	15.9	11.4	7.5	15.5	1921-1943
Pichieh	4.0	4.8	9.6	13.3	17.9	19.8	21.9	21.3	18.3	14.8	9.8	6.2	13.5	1938-1943
Sichang	10.6	13.1	16.2	18.3	20.7	20.9	23.4	22.5	19.9	17.8	13.9	10.9	17.4	1939-1943

Yungkia	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
Tungtze	5.6	6.3	11.3	15.3	19.9	22.2	24.5	24.1	20.6	16.9	11.5	7.9	15.5	1938-1943
Changhsa	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
Peiyushan	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	8.2	9.1	13.2	17.3	22.1	24.6	26.8	26.4	22.2	18.8	13.3	9.8	17.7	1939-1943
Kangting	0.4	1.2	5.0	7.4	11.9	13.2	15.5	16.4	12.4	9.3	4.4	0.7	8.2	1939-1943
Chinghai	4.2	8.0	8.9	14.2	19.4	23.6	28.1	28.1	23.3	18.6	13.3	7.7	16.3	1924-1936
Steep Island	5.9	8.7	8.7	12.9	17.6	22.0	26.1	27.4	24.5	20.3	15.2	9.7	16.3	1924-1936
Hangchow	4.0	5.7	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
Hwaining	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
Chengtu	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
Ichang	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
Gutzlaff	4.4	6.4	7.8	12.4	17.2	21.6	25.8	27.0	23.8	19.4	14.0	8.1	15.5	1924-1936
North Saddle	5.4	4.3	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	27.7	23.4	18.0	12.4	7.1	15.7	1924-1936
Shawelshan	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
Wushih	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
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
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
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
Tungtai	1.0	2.3	6.9	12.9	18.8	22.7	27.3	27.0	22.1	16.1	9.8	4.1	14.2	1924-1943

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
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	- 0.6	2.7	9.1	14.8	20.9	26.0	27.7	26.1	20.2	14.6	7.1	1.6	14.1	1933-1943
Tienshui	- 2.3	1.3	6.7	13.0	17.9	21.3	23.5	21.9	16.7	12.6	5.4	- 0.1	11.5	1942-1943
Kaifeng	- 1.4	1.2	7.9	14.5	21.1	26.0	28.0	25.9	21.6	15.7	8.6	2.3	14.4	1932-1936
Lanchow	- 6.5	- 1.2	5.6	11.7	17.0	20.7	22.9	21.4	16.1	10.1	1.3	- 4.4	9.6	1933-1943
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
Sinin	- 6.7	- 2.8	2.8	7.4	13.1	15.4	18.2	18.0	12.6	8.0	0.5	- 5.3	6.8	1937-1943
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	14.5	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	10.5	1916-1936
Howki	- 2.4	- 1.8	2.2	8.6	14.7	19.3	22.7	23.8	21.3	15.4	7.9	0.8	10.0	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	12.0	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
Chiuchuan	- 9.4	- 3.9	2.1	9.6	15.5	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	32.0	23.9	22.2	17.1	9.0	0.4	- 8.3	8.8	1930-1931
Tihwa	-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
Dairen	- 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

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	8.0	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
Yenchi	-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
Taipinling	-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	19.1	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

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

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Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Lamko	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	1921-1936
Kiungshan	24.4	32.8	49.8	97.9	154.3	19.7	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	26.0	39.1	78.5	132.7	293.0	394.1	393.0	369.6	285.9	123.2	38.7	25.3	2200.1	1853-1940
Lungchow	20.3	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	78.8	34.5	29.7	1483.8	1892-1936
Samshui	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
Lamocks	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	205.4	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	90.0	39.1	29.7	27.9	1002.1	1880-1936
Amoy	34.9	70.1	94.1	129.0	272.5	173.8	126.7	165.4	109.8	37.2	31.7	34.0	1179.2	1886-1938
Tengchong	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	6.0	22.5	18.8	25.0	122.7	212.6	268.8	263.1	167.1	71.4	45.0	13.5	1336.5	1928-1943
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	1091.9	1885-1936
Middle Dog	42.6	91.1	128.0	135.4	145.2	182.6	120.7	109.3	131.9	45.2	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
Tungyung	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
Kweiyang	56.8	110.4	136.7	196.6	189.0	226.6	135.6	131.6	54.3	99.0	94.7	51.3	1482.3	1921-1943
Hengyang	19.1	28.0	35.5	85.6	190.5	214.4	190.3	133.5	122.5	109.3	49.6	26.0	1205.2	1938-1943
Pichieh	7.4	12.5	30.9	49.5	93.3	163.4	132.2	125.1	70.3	70.0	17.4	26.6	806.6	1933-1943
Sichang	0.2	6.6	19.5	26.1	64.7	217.2	164.8	177.1	126.7	52.5	12.5	6.4	784.3	1933-1943

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Yungkia	49.1	89.2	129.3	146.5	187.4	262.2	203.9	254.1	210.4	89.7	55.9	43.9	1721.6	1883-1936
Tungtze	7.8	12.0	32.7	69.2	118.8	170.1	164.9	182.0	90.6	73.0	44.5	20.8	986.4	1938-1943
Changsha	46.9	971.2	136.2	154.7	208.5	229.7	116.4	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	55.2	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	97.9	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	187.9	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	88.5	86.3	64.0	45.6	1398.8	1885-1936
Yachow	11.4	26.8	55.1	83.9	111.7	107.4	436.2	451.1	224.2	142.2	39.0	16.9	1705.9	1940-1943
Kangting	7.2	12.6	36.3	74.7	124.9	193.8	125.1	93.3	101.7	74.7	14.8	5.3	864.4	1940-1943
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	54.4	84.2	92.1	98.1	145.3	66.2	54.3	83.1	59.8	46.0	32.5	860.8	1886-1936
Hangchow	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	1934-1936
Chengtu	21.6	14.0	26.7	44.9	99.0	71.7	234.6	340.0	84.7	48.4	16.3	3.2	889.6	1938-1943
Ichang	6.1	30.5	52.0	101.2	125.6	157.0	224.4	179.4	104.0	73.7	34.5	17.4	1121.3	1882-1936
Gutzlaff	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	80.2	40.2	42.3	914.6	1921-1936
Wuhu	50.6	56.0	95.8	152.2	124.8	200.5	154.2	121.6	81.8	70.0	57.4	37.5	1175.4	1880-1936
Woosung	38.4	43.6	68.0	83.7	78.9	166.5	142.1	123.3	127.5	48.6	52.3	37.8	1015.7	1904-1936
Shaweishan	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
Wusih	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

TABLE 8. MEAN MONTHLY AND MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE IN CENTIGRADE.—(Contd.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year	Period
Changshu	35.4	52.2	45.0	94.5	84.9	145.7	165.9	110.1	120.2	43.3	49.7	46.6	993.5	1930-1936
Nantung	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	83.1	45.2	41.1	36.3	018.0	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	977.6	1886-1936
Tungtai	28.7	35.6	54.9	54.8	76.3	115.8	167.9	163.9	99.6	36.8	34.9	42.5	911.7	1904-1943
Tungshan	12.3	17.9	20.8	60.0	47.1	112.7	127.6	136.9	81.7	25.8	16.2	32.3	693.4	1929-1936
Sian	3.3	7.0	18.7	37.7	60.5	52.0	91.2	96.3	105.7	54.3	19.3	4.8	548.7	1923-1943
Tienshui	2.2	5.8	17.2	34.3	69.5	81.0	104.8	94.7	95.3	26.3	11.7	3.2	546.0	1936-1943
Kalfeng	11.7	8.0	20.3	24.4	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	26.3	20.6	76.0	133.4	62.3	16.1	0.5	4.9	361.6	1933-1936
Tsingtao	11.2	7.9	19.1	30.9	43.1	82.5	143.4	147.1	84.4	36.7	22.2	17.6	646.1	1889-1936
Taishan	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
Sinin	0.8	2.5	4.2	14.0	27.7	50.4	71.6	90.4	85.1	20.8	6.3	0.5	374.3	1937-1941
Tsinan	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	557.7	1886-1936
Chefoo	14.2	9.8	15.9	25.2	45.2	57.9	167.8	155.3	62.8	23.1	27.4	20.4	630.0	1886-1936
Yangku	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
Tsingyuan	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
Chiuchuan	0.7	3.3	3.2	3.7	4.6	11.2	14.3	33.5	5.3	0.2	0.2	1.8	83.8	1945-1943
Peiping	3.9	4.5	8.7	15.6	33.0	82.9	249.5	146.1	68.0	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	83.8	1908-1936
Kungchuling	5.1	4.8	11.5	19.0	53.4	99.5	173.3	139.7	59.8	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
Tihwa	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
Dairen	12.9	8.2	18.3	34.2	44.1	45.4	162.3	130.3	102.3	27.9	24.4	12.0	612.3	1905-1929
Antung	14.2	9.3	27.0	36.2	83.6	55.9	266.4	261.4	128.5	58.7	44.2	22.1	190.5	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	456.7	1928-1931
Mukden	5.3	7.3	18.7	26.6	58.8	87.8	126.5	151.4	77.7	38.7	23.9	9.1	667.7	1906-1929
Etsingnol	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
Yenchi	5.0	5.0	14.0	15.0	49.0	7.4	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	1909-1929
Jaomen	5.0	5.0	10.0	20.0	41.0	76.0	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	559.0	1909-1928
Moutankiang	3.0	4.0	10.0	25.0	52.0	87.0	116.0	108.0	69.0	33.0	16.00	5.0	528.0	1909-1928
Imienop	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	1919-1928
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
Tsitsihar	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	350.0	1909-1928
Khailar	4.0	4.0	4.0	10.0	20.0	46.0	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
Aigun	3.4	4.5	5.8	5.5	25.9	124.2	143.1	142.8	101.5	23.7	15.5	3.5	600.4	1928-1931

CHAPTER IV

POPULATION

SUN PEN-WEN (孫本文)*

I. CHINA'S POPULATION IN 1991-1944

China has never taken such comprehensive nation-wide census as practiced by contemporary western nations, yet she has developed traditional methods of census, the origin of which may be traced far back to 4,000 years ago, though doubtlessly crude judged by modern standards. The procedures of population enumeration, however, have been greatly improved ever since the founding of the Republic in 1912. Further, the promulgation of a modernized Census Law together with many

detailed regulations governing its enforcements has resulted in comparatively reliable population data in recent years.

The popular estimate of China's population given at 450 millions is near the truth. According to statistics released by the Bureau of Statistics in 1944, the total population of China amounted to 464,924,589 including the number of 8,715,737 Overseas Chinese. The following table showing the details of households and population of the nation and of different provinces and municipalities is based on the latest data from governmental sources:—

TABLE I. THE POPULATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA 1931-1944

Locality	Household	Population			Density of Population per Sp. Km.	Date of Census
		Total	Male	Female		
Kiangsu	7,537,174	36,469,321	19,424,205	17,045,116	373.72	1936
Chekiang	5,041,214	21,776,045	11,833,635	9,943,010	204.07	1940
Anhwei	3,586,405	22,704,538	12,447,393	10,257,145	116.00	1940
Kiangsi	2,628,404	14,134,875	7,246,300	6,888,575	91.31	1942 (June)
Hupeh	4,348,735	24,658,088	13,195,358	11,463,630	156.91	1940
Hunan	5,452,611	28,156,923	14,650,722	13,506,201	138.60	1943 (Sept.)
Szechuan	7,767,760	45,868,254	28,594,306	22,273,948	122.20	1943 (June)
Sikang	317,968	1,755,542	890,874	864,668	2.61	1940
Hopei	5,108,921	28,644,437	15,485,351	13,159,086	222.75	1935
Shantung	7,042,303	38,099,741	20,446,838	17,652,933	263.39	1935

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Shansi	2,170,606	11,601,026	6,557,422	5,043,604	74.17	1934
Honan	5,130,669	31,805,621	16,961,066	14,844,555	211.16	1939
Shensi	2,008,387	9,388,797	4,851,552	4,537,245	53.28	1941 (March)
Kansu	1,091,308	6,255,517	3,280,954	2,974,563	17.16	1940
Chinghai	256,940	1,512,823	764,653	748,170	1.64	1940
Fukien	2,042,470	11,990,441	6,461,010	5,539,431	99.00	1940
Kwangtung	6,290,813	32,338,795	17,490,033	14,848,762	146.64	1939
Kwangsi	2,756,527	14,900,041	7,854,950	7,045,091	61.14	1944 (March)
Yunnan	2,068,138	10,853,359	5,539,494	5,313,865	29.83	1939
Kweichow	2,912,471	10,779,752	5,309,050	5,384,702	55.26	1942 (Dec.)
Liaoning	2,311,815	15,253,694	8,457,175	6,796,519	47.40	1930
Kirin	1,065,200	7,354,459	4,150,071	3,204,388	28.35	1929
Heilungkiang	580,527	3,749,367	2,124,964	1,624,403	8.34	1929
Jehol	554,724	2,184,723	1,202,923	981,800	11.35	1931
Chahar	400,934	2,035,957	1,174,640	861,317	7.35	1936
Suiyuan	401,903	2,083,619	1,259,020	824,673	6.06	1936
Ninghsia	126,368	722,334	391,338	330,996	3.50	1944 (Sept.)
Sinkiang	843,848	3,730,051	1,964,609	1,765,442	2.38	1944
Nanking	197,937	1,019,143	611,957	407,191	1.70	1936
Shanghai	756,615	3,726,757	2,126,913	1,599,844	3,903.00	1936
Peiping	296,213	1,550,531	954,614	695,947	2,108.00	1936
Tientsin	255,980	1,217,646	713,437	504,209	—	1936
Tsingtao	100,059	590,374	350,287	240,087	932.00	1931
Siking (Sian)	74,398	327,120	205,412	121,708	—	1944 (Sept.)
Chungking	164,194	946,209	586,582	359,627	—	1944 (Jan.)
Weihsaiwei	40,735	222,247	116,904	105,443	290.00	1937
Mongolia	—	2,077,669	—	—	—	1936 Estimate
Tibet	—	3,722,011	—	—	3.06	1936 Estimate
Overseas Chinese	—	8,715,733	—	—	—	1936 Estimate
Total	82,740,304	464,924,589	240,751,382	209,657,794	47.44	

II. CHANGES OF POPULATION IN CHINA DURING THE LAST THREE DECADES

Official population figures as collected and reported by various provinces and municipalities have been released from time to time by the Ministry of the Interior and the Bureau of Statistics. The relatively important figures of total

population in China so far published are for the years, 1912, 1928, 1933, 1936 and 1944. Although the methods of collecting data adopted by the various provinces and municipalities in different periods are not uniform, a comparison of the figures will certainly give some idea of the main trends of population changes in China in the last thirty years.

TABLE II. TOTAL NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS AND POPULATION IN CHINA, 1912-1944

Year	Household	Population	Source of Data
1912	76,366,074	405,810,967	Minister of the Interior.
1928	83,865,901	441,849,148	Minister of the Interior.
1933	83,960,443	444,486,537	Bureau of Statistics
1936	85,827,345	479,084,651	Minister of the Interior.
1944	82,740,304	464,924,589	Bureau of Statistics

III. SIZE OF FAMILY AND THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS PER HOUSEHOLD IN CHINA

China is known as the only country in the world practicing the "greater family" system. A "greater family" in the Chinese sense includes not only parents and children, but also grand-parents, uncles, aunts, brothers, sisters, sisters-in-law, grandsons, grand-daughters, etc. Yet the family system which the majority of Chinese people practice is not the so-called "greater family" system, but the small family system,—a

family usually consists of parents and children only. Of the 286 families of Kiangning, Kiangsu province, reported in 1935, 78.6 per cent were small families, only 21.4 per cent "greater families." Of the 5,113 families of Kashing, Chekiang province, reported in 1936, 75.4 per cent were small families. In the rural areas of sixteen provinces, there were 37,647 families investigated between 1929—1933, 62.8 per cent of which were reported small families. 35.1 per cent "greater families." A comparison of the percentages of these families is shown below:

TABLE III. PERCENTAGES OF SMALL AND "GREATER FAMILIES" IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF CHINA, 1929-1933

<i>Area</i>	<i>No. of Families</i>	<i>Per cent Small Families</i>	<i>Per cent Greater Families</i>	<i>Per cent Singles</i>
Sixteen Provinces . . .	37,647	62.8	35.1	2.1
Northern Provinces . .	—	57.9	39.7	2.4
Southern Provinces . .	—	67.2	31.0	1.8
Kashing, Chekiang . . .	5,113	75.4	34.6	—
Ting Hsien, Hopei . . .	515	60.5	39.5	—
Kiangning, Kiangsu . .	286	78.6	21.4	—

The average number of population per household, as reported by the Ministry of the Interior or by the Bureau of Statistics is 5.38 in 1912, 5.28 in 1928, 5.29 in 1934, 5.38 in 1936, and 5.49 in 1944, as shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV. AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS PER HOUSEHOLD IN CHINA 1912-1944

<i>Year</i>	<i>Average number of persons per household</i>
1912	5.38
1928	5.28
1934	5.29
1936	5.38
1944	5.49

In certain selected rural areas, the average number of persons in the household, is somewhat less than the average of the whole country. In Chekiang provinces, there were on average 4.41 persons in each household: in Kiangning Hsien, Kiangsu province, 4.57 persons; in Kiangyin Hsien, Kiangsu province, 4.70 persons; in Tsouping Hsien, Shantung province, 4.93 persons; in Lanchi Hsien, Chekiang province, 4.88 persons; in Tsinning Hsien, Yunnan province, 4.58 persons, though Ting Hsien of Hopei, Kunming Hsien and Kunyang Hsien of Yunnan, had the average 5.58, 5.00, and 6.17 persons in each household respectively, as shown in the following table:

TABLE V. AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS PER HOUSEHOLD IN RURAL AREA OF CHINA, 1933-1944

<i>Area</i>	<i>Average persons per Household</i>	<i>Year</i>
Kiangyin Hsien, Kiangsu	4.70	1938
Chuyung Hsien, Kiangsu	4.93	1933
Kiangning Hsien, Kiangsu	4.44	1934
Ting Hsien, Hopei	5.58	1937
Tsouping Hsien, Shantung	4.92	1937
Lanchi Hsien, Chekiang	4.88	1936
Chengkung Hsien, Yunnan	4.41	1940
Changlu Hsien, Fukien	4.57	1937
Kunyang Hsien, Yunnan	5.00	1944
Kunming Hsien, Yunnan	6.17	1944
Tsinming Hsien, Yunnan	4.58	1944

IV. SEX RATIO IN CHINA'S POPULATION

China has more males than females in her population. In 1938, there were on average 119.4 males to every 100 females; in 1943, there were 115.6 males to every 100 females. Among the

provinces in 1938, Suiyuan had the highest ratio 156.4, Sikang had the lowest ratio 95.2, while in 1943, Chahar had the highest ratio 156.4, Chinghai had the lowest ratio 102.2. The following table shows the sex ratios of different provinces in four censuses:

TABLE VI. SEX RATES OF DIFFERENT PROVINCES IN CHINA, 1912-1944

<i>Province</i>	<i>1912</i>	<i>1928</i>	<i>1938</i>	<i>1943</i>
Kiangsu	119.1	113.7	113.3	114.0
Chekiang	118.7	128.4	123.5	119.0
Anhwei	123.1	128.5	121.4	121.4
Kiangsi	126.5	124.9	121.3	106.9
Hupei	118.3	123.9	116.5	115.1
Hunan	127.3	125.8	122.2	111.0
	131.2	131.5	117.5	108.8
Sikang	123.3	123.3	95.2	105.0
Hopei	123.6	123.8	117.7	117.7
Shantung	117.4	117.3	115.6	115.8
Shansi	135.5	137.1	130.0	130.0
Honan	112.6	112.6	114.1	114.3
Shensi	110.0	126.5	118.6	108.5
Kansu	109.8	120.0	119.6	110.3
Chinghai	103.6	103.6	106.7	102.2
Fukien	122.1	116.5	135.4	116.5
Kwangtung	119.2	119.2	117.7	117.8
Kwangsi	110.2	119.2	117.7	117.8
Yunnan	115.4	110.7	107.0	104.3
Kweichow	114.0	111.6	107.8	102.5
Liaoning	123.7	126.3	124.4	124.5
Kirin	132.0	121.8	120.5	129.5
Heilungkiang	120.8	132.8	129.9	130.8
Jehol	120.8	120.8	122.5	122.5
Chahar	100.1	143.3	136.4	156.4
Suiyuan	99.1	155.9	156.7	152.7
Ninghsia	97.8	97.8	126.2	116.7
Sinkiang	115.3	123.4	125.9	125.9

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In rural areas, the sex ratios are much lower than those in the country as a whole. In Tsouping Hsien of Shantung province, there were 93.1 males to 100 females in 1937; in Chengkung Hsien of Yunnan province, there were 90.7

males to 100 females in 1940, while in the three Hsien around the "Tien" lake of Yunnan, namely, Kunming, Kunyang, and Tsinning, there were 95.8, 95.2, 85.8 males to 100 females respectively. This is shown in the following table:

TABLE VII. SEX RATIOS OF ELEVEN RURAL AREAS IN CHINA, 1933-1944

<i>Area</i>	<i>Ratio at Birth</i>	<i>General Sex Ratio</i>	<i>Year</i>
Kiangyin Hsien, Kiangsu	125.5	112.1	1938
Chuyung Hsien, Kiangsu	115.0	116.0	1933
Kiangning Hsien, Kiangsu	—	106.2	1934
Ting Hsien, Hopei	—	110.5	1937
Tsouping Hsien, Shantung	—	93.1	1937
Lanchi Hsien, Chekiang	123.3	125.3	1936
Chengkiang Hsien, Yunnan	89.1	90.7	1940
Changlu Hsien, Fukien	—	129.4	1937
Kunming Hsien, Yunnan	84.2	95.8	1944
Kunyang Hsien, Yunnan	91.0	95.8	1944
Tsinning Hsien, Yunnan	88.9	85.8	1944

In urban areas, on the other hand, the sex ratios are considerably higher than those in the whole of the country. Among the large cities in China in 1938, it is found that the sex ratios range from 127.4 of Canton to 160.2 of Peiping. The table shows the ratios of eight municipalities in China in 1938 as follows:

TABLE VIII. SEX RATIOS OF EIGHT MUNICIPALITIES IN CHINA, 1938

<i>Municipality</i>	<i>Sex Ratios</i>
Nanking	150.3
Shanghai	133.0
Peiping	160.2
Tientsin	141.5
Chingtao	145.9
Hangchow	147.3
Hankow	133.1
Canton	127.4

V. BIRTH RATE, DEATH RATE, AND THE RATE OF NATURAL INCREASE PER 1,000 POPULATION IN CHINA

No complete data based on nation-wide comprehensive statistics have ever been taken as yet. Nevertheless, a limited data of births and deaths of certain selected rural areas of the nation have been collected in recent years. As reported by the Department of Agricultural Economics of the University of Nanking, the birth rate, death rate and the rate of natural increase per 1,000 population in 101 rural localities of sixteen provinces comprising 38,256 farm families, were 38.9, 27.6, and 11.3 respectively. It is interesting

to note that in South China, both the birth rate and the death rate are higher than in North China, the differences being 1.7 and 5.9 respectively, whereas the rate of natural increase is higher in the north (13.6) than in the south (9.4). This means that South

China has high birth rate with low rate of increase, while North China has relatively low birth rate with high rate of increase (see Table IX). It is then apparent that the high rate of increase in the north is not due to high birth rate but due to low death rate.

TABLE IX. BIRTH RATE, DEATH RATE AND THE RATE OF NATURAL INCREASE PER 1,000 POPULATION IN RURAL AREAS OF SIXTEEN PROVINCES IN CHINA.

<i>Area</i>	<i>Birth Rate</i>	<i>Death Rate</i>	<i>Natural Rate of Increase</i>
North China	38.1	24.5	13.6
Hopci, Shansi, Shensi, Shantung, Honan, Anhwei	38.9	25.1	13.8
Sulyuan, Shansi, Shensi	31.2	19.3	11.9
South China	39.8	30.0	9.4
Fukien, Kwantung	37.8	34.3	3.5
Chekiang, Kiangsi	38.5	25.9	12.6
Yunnan, Kwelchow	53.4	26.9	26.5
Szechuen	44.1	40.0	4.1
Kiangsu, Anhwei, Chekiang, Hu- peh	37.2	27.8	9.4
Szechuen, Yunnan	38.3	25.1	13.2
Average	39.7	27.9	11.8

VI. INFANT MORTALITY RATE IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS OF CHINA

Natural rate of infant mortality is still lacking in China. Yet the results of a limited number of recent rural investigations have shown that the infant mortality rate in certain rural areas is around 200 per 1,000 births. Thus, for example, in Ting Hsien, Hopei, the infant mortality rate in registration area was from 185 to 199, while in Kiangyin, Kiangsu, it was on average 240.9. In the rural areas of 16 provinces, as reported by the

University of Nanking, however, the infant mortality rate was much lower than that in both Kiangyin and Ting Hsien; it was 156.2 (see Table X). According to the statistics released by the Ministry of the Interior in 1938, the infant mortality rate in another case of 16 provinces was 163.8. This is 7.6 higher than the former case.

In urban areas, it is found in Table XI, that the rate is considerably lower than that in rural areas. In Peiping, it was 134.0 in 1933, and 126.2 in 1934; while in Nanking, it was 122.6 in 1934.

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TABLE X. RATE OF INFANT MORTALITY IN CHINA, 1929-1933

<i>Area</i>	<i>Infant Mortality per 1,000 Population</i>
Hopei, Shansi, Shensi, Shantung, Honan, Anhwei	157.1
Suiyuan, Shansi, Shensi	136.1
Fukien, Kwangtung	184.4
Chekiang, Kiangsi	154.1
Kiangsu, Anhwei, Chekiang, Hupeh	135.4
Szechuen, Yunnan	200.5
Yunnan, Kweichow	171.4
Szechuen	191.2
Average of Sixteen Provinces	166.3

TABLE XI. INFANT MORTALITY IN PEIPING AND NANKING, 1933-1934

<i>Year</i>	<i>Nanking</i>			<i>Peiping</i>		
	<i>Average</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
1933 . . .	—	—	—	134.0	137.6	129.9
1934 . . .	122.6	129.4	114.0	126.2	138.6	113.1

VII. DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY AGE GROUPS

The percentage distribution of population by age groups is shown in three-fold groupings for certain rural areas in Table XII. In comparison with Sundbarg's table, the

populations of Chuyung, Kiangning, Kiangyin, and Lanchi are more progressive, while those of Ting Hsien, Tsouping, Chengkung, and Tsinning are relatively stationary. Sundbarg's table is as follows:—

<i>Age groups</i>	<i>Progressive</i>	<i>Stationary</i>	<i>Retrogressive</i>
0-14	40	33	20
15-49	50	50	50
50 & over	10	17	30

In Table XIII, it is found that the rate of natural increase in Kiangyin varied from 5.5 in 1932 to 12.0 in 1934 which is more progressive in comparison with the

rate 3.7 in Chengkung in 1942 which is rather stationary. This conforms to the Sundbarg's table quite closely.

TABLE XII. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY AGE GROUPS IN ELEVEN RURAL AREAS OF CHINA, 1933-1944

Area	0 — 14	15 — 49	50 & over	Year
Kiangyin Hsien, Kiangsu ..	40.20	46.70	13.10	1933
Chuyung Hsien, Kiangsu ..	40.46	47.55	11.71	1933
Kiangning Hsien, Kiangsu ..	37.10	50.30	12.60	1934
Ting Hsien, Hopei	33.32	49.11	17.56	1937
Tsouping Hsien, Shantung ..	27.08	54.34	18.58	1937
Lanchi Hsien, Chekiang ..	36.30	50.20	13.50	1936
Chengkung Hsien, Yunnan ..	34.85	48.41	16.74	1940
Changlu Hsien, Fukien	32.70	52.80	14.50	1937
Kunming Hsien, Yunnan ..	34.40	51.20	14.40	1944
Kunyang Hsien, Yunnan ..	36.00	50.00	14.00	1944
Tsinning Hsien, Yunnan ..	37.10	47.50	15.40	1944

TABLE XIII. BIRTH RATE, DEATH RATE AND THE RATE OF NATURAL INCREASE IN REGISTRATION AREAS OF KIANGSU AND YUNNAN PROVINCES, 1931-1944

Area	Birth Rate	Death Rate	Rate of Natural Increase	Year
Kiangyin, Kiangsu	48.3	42.8	5.5	1931-32
Kiangyin, Kiangsu	44.1	36.1	8.0	1932-33
Kiangyin, Kiangsu	40.1	52.0	12.0	1933-34
Chengkung, Yunnan	28.8	25.1	3.7	1940-42

VIII. FARM POPULATION IN CHINA

China has been well known as an agricultural country. She has a greater proportion of farmers in her population than any other occupations. According to statistics released by the Bureau of Statistics, Legislative Yuan, the 25 provinces,

excluding Sikang, Chinghai, Kwangsi, Mongolia and Tibet, had an aggregate of farm population of 307,130,942 being 73.3 percent of China's total population. Among the provinces, the range of variations in percentages is from 62.0 in Kwangtung to 88.0 in Shantung.

TABLE XIV. DISTRIBUTION OF FARM POPULATION OF VARIOUS PROVINCES IN CHINA, 1932

Province	Total Population (in 1,000)	Farm Population (in 1,000)	Percentage
Kiangsu	35,210	25,080	71.2
Anhui	21,444	15,182	70.8
Hupeh	28,492	19,046	67.8
Hunan	26,969	18,992	70.4
Kiangsi	24,069	16,034	66.5
Szechuen	37,625	25,772	68.5
Yunnan	10,086	7,169	71.1
Kweichow	9,164	6,182	67.5
Chekiang	20,706	14,020	67.7
Fukien	10,134	7,202	67.7
Kwangtung	31,366	19,448	62.0
Hopei	30,916	24,117	78.5
Shantung	37,506	33,024	88.0

Shansi	11,928	9,876	82.8
Shensi	10,624	7,767	73.0
Honan	31,231	26,220	84.0
Suiyuan	2,010	1,366	67.9
Ninghsia	385	274	71.2
Sinkiang	2,464	1,665	67.2
Kansu	5,444	4,013	73.7
Heilungkiang	4,165	3,268	78.5
Kirin	8,417	6,279	74.6
Liaoning	14,394	11,840	82.3
Jehol	3,202	2,550	79.9
Chahar	1,986	1,558	78.4
<i>Total</i>	419,950	307,944	73.3

In certain rural areas, farm families occupy more than 85 percent of the total population, as revealed by recent rural social surveys. In Ting Hsien, Hopei province, the farm population occupied about 85 percent of the dwellers of the 453 villages in 1930. In Chuyung, Kiangsu province, approximately 90 percent of the productive population in 1934 were farmers. Of all households of 152 villages in 38 Hsien of Kwangtung, 84.7 percent were farm families.

IX. DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATIONS IN YUNNAN PROVINCE

The degree of urbanization of China as a whole has not been well studied as yet. In recent years, however, well planned investigations regarding the relative distribution of urban and rural populations were carried out in the

model census area of Yunnan province. It is revealed in the reports of the model census committee that there were 66.38 percent of the model area living in rural districts, while there were only 33.62 percent of the population living in urban districts. Kungyang Hsien, the least urbanized region of this area, had only 5.85 percent of the population living in towns while there were 94.15 percent of the population living in rural areas. Kunming Hsien, the next least urbanized region of this area, had 11.42 percent of the population living in towns, while Tsinning Hsien had 14.97 percent. Kunming municipality, the capital of Yunnan province, is a city of 74,174 population in 1944, 77.25 percent of which lived in urban areas, while 22.75 percent lived in rural districts. This is shown in the following table:

TABLE XV. COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGES OF URBAN AND RURAL AREAS OF YUNNAN PROVINCE, 1944

<i>Locality</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Urban Population Per cent</i>	<i>Rural Population Per cent</i>
Whole Area	100	33.62	66.38
Kunming Municipality ..	100	77.25	22.75
Kunming Hsien	100	11.42	88.58
Kunyang Hsien	100	5.85	94.15
Tsinning Hsien	100	14.97	85.03

CHAPTER V

HISTORY

CHANG KWEI-YUNG (張貴永)*

I. THE DAWN OF CHINESE CIVILIZATION

To the questions when and where Chinese history began, no definite answers can be given. Extant records are too scarce to enable us to ascertain an approximate date and recent excavations have not yet spotted the cradle of Chinese civilization. In literary works, however, there are many fanciful suggestions about the antiquity of the Chinese. According to Shu-king, one of the oldest Chinese historical collections supposedly revised by Confucius, history dawned in China in the periods of Ti Yao and Ti Shun (2400 B.C.). When later Ssu Ma-ch'ien wrote his monumental work, Sze-ki, he asserted that veridical history ought to begin with the reign of Hwang Ti (2899 B.C.). The Chinese are a historical people. Possessing a rich store of unsifted historical materials, they love to allow their imagination free play and try to push their history as far backward as possible. Thus at the outbreak of the Nationalist Revolution in 1911, the republicans dated their proclamations in the year of Hwang Ti. The only fact of historical certainty is that by 2000 B.C. our ancestors had already settled themselves down on

the bank of the Yellow River. This area became the nursery of Chinese civilization. About 1000 B.C. they moved southward, extending their authority over the Yangtse Valley. Toward the opening of the Christian era, they added the zone of the Pearl River to the sphere of their activities. By the efforts of numerous dynasties, the present borderland provinces were brought under their influence. Until the Opium War and with the exception of a very short duration of the Mongol rule, China had never lost her supremacy in the Far East. She was the mistress as well the mother of all neighboring countries, at once a ruling power and a civilising influence. Before China came into contact with India or Europe, Chinese culture and developed *sui generis* in all its splendor and originality because the natural frontiers of the country discouraged cultural contacts before the invention of modern means of transportation.

Textual criticism has long been a favorite study of Chinese scholars. They only wanted the power of historical synthesis to become great historians. At the close of the 19th century modern scientific methods were applied to

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the study of Chinese history. Historians began to reconstitute the past, not only from time-honored records but also from evacuated relics, especially those discovered in 1899 at An-yang, the capital of the Yin Dynasty, which lies on the northern bank of the Yellow River. According to their opinion, authentic history of China should begin with the Shang (later the Yin) dynasty (1700 B.C.). Modern writers give a more or less coherent account of the fabulous reigns of the Three Emperors and the Five Sovereigns. Chinese folklore contains vivid tales about P'an-ku, the first human-being, Sui-jen, the Chinese Prometheus, who discovered fire from the stars, Fu-hi, an emperor of great ingenuity, who drew the famous eight symbols, which are the primitive Chinese written characters and Sheng-nung, or the "Divine Farmer" who was presumably the father of Chinese agriculture. These legends, though unreliable, are quite revealing and suggest the stages of progress of ancient Chinese society.

Full-fledged political life seems to have emerged also at a very early date. A central government was established and the tribes had been formed into a nation. According to tradition immemorial, Ti Shun and Ta Yu succeeded to the imperial throne neither by inheritance, nor by election, but respectively by the voluntary abdication of its unanimous occupant. In Chinese history the three emperors Ti Yao, Ti Shan and Ta Yu are known as "philosopher kings" and held up as exemplars for later kings. Ti Yao, Ti Shun and Ta Yu, however, knew nothing of the modern re-

presentative government. They governed the nation rather in behalf of the heaven than with the consent of the people. Hence the crowned head of China was called the "Son of Heaven" and enjoyed the divine right and sacred majesty. This form of government, paternalism at its best and depotism at its worst, persisted in China till the nationalist revolution (1912).

II. THE AGE OF TRADITION

Ta Yu, who is called the Noah of China, did not abdicate his throne in favor of a worthy occupant but gave it to his lineal descendant. Thus he became the founder of the Hsia dynasty (2207 B.C.). The Hsia, the Shang and the Chou dynasties are known as the Three Royal dynasties, which covered a period of almost 2,000 years. This is the ancient period of China. Our idea of the pre-Yin epochs is still very vague, data being not available. From tradition we can infer some facts concerning the rise and decline of the Hsia. In the 18th century B.C. the last king Tseh was dethroned as a voluptuous tyrant and Cheng T'ang founded the Shang dynasty. The name Hsia, which means "greatness", however, has lingered on to become a synonym with China.

If we had not discovered at An-yang the bones, stones, metal implements and divining pieces, made of the ventral shields of the tortoise, we should learn as little about the Shang as about the dynasties before it. The shields were used by the kings of the Yin (or originally the Shang) for purposes of divination and often revelatory of the general social life

of that time. From these we can have some knowledge of the agriculture, astronomy, wars and religion of that age. We learn, for example, that crops were the major stock of food-supply, that silk articles were manufactured, that wine was brewed, and that fishing and herding were minor activities. The vehicles of transportation were carriages drawn by cattle or by horses, or even chariots, harnessed to elephants. We know that the kings' palaces were regarded as the centers of the society. To our astonishment, the Shang house ruled over China for six hundred years, and had removed the capital for six times. The reasons are unknown. Perhaps the fear of barbarian invasions had something to do with this constant shift. By the 14th century B.C. king P'eng-keng established at last his capital at Yin, i.e. An-yang. Feudalism began to be a pronounced feature of Chinese society though it became fully developed only in the Chou dynasty.

A new power came from the west to supplant the Yin. In 1121 B.C. Wu Wang of the Chou dynasty became the common sovereign of the states throughout China. On the death of Wu Wang, Chou Kung, or the Duke of Chou, became the prince regent. This was an age in Chinese history comparable to that of Pericles. Government was boldly centralized; wise laws were condified; finance and taxes reformed; agriculture and manufacture promoted. Besides all these the Duke of Chou had still three more significant achievements. First, in politics, he strengthened the feudal system, which consists of five ranks, i.e.

the duke, the marquis, the count, the baron and the knight, with the members of the royal family as the heads of the vassal states. The vassals owed their allegiance to the feudal lords in the form of military aid and services. Secondly, he instituted ancestor-worship as almost a state religion. Family ties were thus strengthened. The nation became a gigantic family. The "Son of Heaven" is at the same time the father of the people. Loyalty is at once filial piety. Thirdly, he put into effect a policy of proprietorship based upon an equal distribution of land. It was Chou Kung who had forged and fortified the Chinese tradition, leaving laws and rites which are still more or less observed among the Chinese.

III. THE CLASSICAL AGE

In Shih-king, or the Book of Poems, one reads: "Old as the Chou has been, Providence still favors the house." In the 8th century, B.C. P'ing Wang, a feeble king, moved the capital eastward to Loyang in Honan, where the royal house grew weaker and weaker. The rule of the Eastern Chou, though scarcely more than a name, lasted five hundred years. This long reign is traditionally divided into two parts: the Spring and Autumn Age and the Age of the Contending States.

The Spring and Autumn Age derived its name from the title of the celebrated chronicle of which Confucius is supposed to be the author. Tribes had gradually been transformed into states, but the number of the latter was greatly reduced as a result of conquests and amalgamations. The Spring and Autumn Age was the

eve of the Armageddon. Wars were the order of the day. Since the central government was incapable to assert its sovereignty, the states on the frontiers enlarged at the expense of their neighbors. To them were annexed the minor states within China and the barbarians' territories outside. The principality of Chi became a dominant power in the west, and that of Chu in the south. If the dukedom of Sung (in the central) was added to the list, the Big Five would be the result. Four of these leading states were on the Yellow River, while Chu was the only one situated in the Yangtse Valley. In the Spring and Autumn period Chi was the first leader in the order of time while Ching's hegemony was the most enduring.

When Ching was broken up into three smaller states, the epoch of the Contending States began. The three smaller states were Han, Chao and Wei. Now the hegemony which had formerly been held by the Big Five was for a time transferred into the hands of the States of Wu and Yueh in the lower Yangtse region. No sooner had Wu been overthrown than the collapse of Yueh was effectuated by the northern powers. In 256 B.C. Nan Wang, the last scion of the house of Chou, was taken prisoner, and the Chou dynasty came to its long overdue end.

War, pestilence, and famine made the life of the Chinese people at that time a very cheerless one. But there is a silver lining to this picture of universal gloom. Formerly the people had been put in their places and kept rigidly there they shared in neither education, nor government. But with

the decline of royal power and feudalism, they began to play an important role. Education became more general, and the class of intellectuals grew into a power to be reckoned with. It is the golden age of Chinese thought and saw the rise of various schools of Chinese philosophy. Of the great thinkers whose names adorn this age, two must be mentioned—Confucius and Laotse. Both in their different ways have exerted profound influence and are in fact the formative agents of Chinese character.

Confucius is the official philosopher of the nation. But Laotze too had a large following. As to their doctrines, the reader is referred to the article on "Philosophy" in this volume.

IV. THE MIDDLE AGES

A. The Formation Of A Central Monarchy.—After a series of wars Ch'in at length became the supreme power among the rival principalities. The states were conquered one by one until a unified empire resulted. The rulers of Ch'in had long cherished the idea of unification by force. They expanded their territory and usurped the title of the king. But it was not until 221 B.C. that the ideal of national unity was realized.

The title of Shih Huang-ti may be translated as the "First Emperor". And it was he who established in China for the first time an absolutist imperial regime. Shih Huang-ti fondly hoped that he had founded a dynasty which would last till the crack of the doom. He himself showed an obstinate will-to-live and tried to prolong the brief span by elixirs. He ruled

the empire with an iron rod. He was supposed to "put ideas" into people's heads, and buried alive a great number of literati in a sort of mass grave to get rid of seditious malcontents. By the irony of fate, however, he died in 210 B.C., leaving his helpless son at the mercy or intriguing courtiers. Three years later the dynasty of Ch'in came to an end, and the nation was thrown into confusion again. Short as it is, the reign Shih Huang-ti is one of resplendent glory. Magnificent palaces were erected and fine roads laid. His capital Hsien-yang became the envy and admiration of the world. In order to defend his people from the invasion of the Huns, he ordered that a Great Wall be built as a rampart on the northern frontier of his empire. The Great Wall, much longer and more marvellous than that which Hadrian built in Europe or in England, remains one of the wonders of the world. His territories were now expanded to the farthest east and south. Feudal system was abolished and the country was divided into provinces and shires. For the first time in her history China saw a strong central monarchy brought into existence. But Shih Huang-ti was not loved by his people; his high-handed policies made his name a by-word for tyrant in China.

In 204 B.C. unity was again restored by Liu Pang, a plebeian who made himself the emperor and inaugurated the Han dynasty. Under the Han dynasty the Chinese people enjoyed a long period of peace and order. This state of affairs lasted till the opening of the 3rd century A.D. According to Mencius, history has its *corso*

e ricorso. Order and disorder come in successive turns. Since the fall of the Chou, calamities had laid China waste for several hundred years, and it was high time now that order and prosperity should be restored. The first emperors of the Han dynasty gave to the people what they wanted—three generations of peace. The nation was entirely freed from fear of war both internal and external. Laws enforced by Shih Huang-ti prohibiting the reading and publishing of books were annulled. The emperors became patrons of literature and arts. They also believed that to enrich the nation, money should not be kept in the imperial exchequer but allowed to remain in the people's purse. An empire-maker of the calibre of Shih Huang-ti, Wu Ti, the fifth emperor of the Han dynasty, conquered the provinces of the Pearl River, added to his realm the present Indo-China Peninsula, opened the route to the west and annexed Korea in the east. The most dazzling of his conquests is his sending of Wei Ching and Ho Chu-ping, two veteran generals, to overwhelm the Huns. The struggle between the Huns and the Chinese was a desperate and long one, and almost lasted through the whole Ch'in and Han dynasties. In the 2nd century A.D., the Huns were completely beaten and were compelled to migrate to Europe, filling that Continent with the fear and horror of Asiatic nomads. In order to strengthen the national defence against the Huns, Wu Ti adopted many effective measures. At the same time, he did not neglect philosophy. He had a high respect for Confucianism, and

made Confucius the State Philosopher. A sort of royal academy was erected in the capital to teach Confucian doctrines. Consequently, the Confucian theory of State became the orthodox political philosophy of China only to be superseded till very recently. Views conflicting with the teachings of Confucius were henceforth stigmatized and even persecuted as pernicious heresies. Intellectual venture and curiosity were tacitly discouraged.

About the beginning of the Christian era. Ping Ti, the eleventh emperor of the Han dynasty, was dethroned by Wang Mang, who proclaimed himself the Emperor of the Hsing dynasty. Wang Mang introduced many radical, social and political reforms, some of which were quite salutary. More of an idealist than a statesman, Wang Mang was soon overthrown by Liu Siu, one of the Han princes, and the Later Han or the Eastern Han dynasty was inaugurated. For two centuries party conflicts and court intrigues were rampant. The beginning of the 3rd century A.D. witnessed the downfall of the later Han. The empire fell asunder. After the period of the so-called "Three Kingdoms", the Tsin dynasty united the nation for a few years. Foreign invaders soon forced the house of Tsin to retreat to the south of the Yangtze River, leaving North China to various tribes of barbarians. A rapid succession of mushroom dynasties took place. It is a period of chaos and darkness.

B. Buddhism and its Influence on Chinese Cultural Life.—Culture however flourished

amidst this storm and strife. Paradoxically enough, ages of political upheavals proved very congenial to the development of Chinese arts and sciences. The most important event in this period is the introduction of Buddhism into China, Chinese civilization, hitherto autochthonous, began to be percolated with Indian elements. The cross currents of native tradition and foreign incursion make Chinese cultural history an absorbing study. In the reign of Han Ming Ti (58-76 A.D.) Buddhism was introduced into China. But it did not come into vogue until the fifth century. Buddhist writings and images were brought in; Indian and Tatarian priests were warmly received; temples were erected in grand style; Buddhist scriptures were translated. At last Buddhism became one of the chief religions of the nation. At the outset the intellectuals repudiated Buddhism on the ground that it was in many aspects incompatible with Confucian ethical doctrines. They were afraid that it would lead to the abolition of the custom of ancestor-worship. When Christianity was first introduced into China, it met with opposition on precisely similar grounds. Fortunately the Chinese have the genius of compromise with the result that China is a melting-pot of all regions. The new wine of Buddhism was soon put into old Confucian bottle.

The period of discord came to an end in 589 A.D. with the establishment of the Sui dynasty, whose founder was Yang Kien. Once again China boasted of being a united nation. His son and successor Yang Kwang was a hedon-

ist and megalomaniac. He had the Grand Canal constructed to facilitate his tour to Yangchow, then the most famous pleasure resort, and led an expeditionary force to subdue the Koreans. Both expensive feats directly led to the collapse of the imperial house. In 618 A.D. the T'ang dynasty began.

In the reign of T'ai Tsung (627-647 A.D.) peace and order was completely restored. It is second in glory only to the Han as an epoch of territorial expansion and cultural efflorescence. Under the royal patronage of the rulers, old classics were edited with excellent critical apparatus, the technique of painting, especially the landscape genre, was perfected and great literature was produced. The Tang dynasty is the golden age of Chinese poetry. The names of Li Po and Tu Fu are now familiar to all lovers of literature. At the frontier, however, all was not well. The Turks became a serious menace. Kao Tsu, the first Emperor of the T'ang, had been forced to buy peace by marrying princesses to their leaders and offering money. When the Turks were weakened by their own internal difficulties, the humiliating policy of appeasement was abandoned. In 630 A.D. the Turks were overpowered by General Li Cheng, and their khan made captive. Ten years later Hami, Turfan, and the rest of the Turkish territory became part of the Chinese empire. Since the T'ang dynasty the part known in English as Chinese Turkestan, has been one of our provinces. Military governors were appointed in the border land provinces. Four of them there

stationed in Central Asia. The frontiers were now pushed even further outward than in the Han dynasty, reaching on the west to the eastern Persia and the Caspian Sea while on the north, far beyond the Great Walls, including Korea and on the south parts of the Indo-China peninsula. T'ai Tsung became rightfully the "Khan of the khans", and hailed as the "Khan of Heaven". For more than a century he and his successors enjoyed an undisputed sway so that envoys came even from Bagdad and Constantinople to pay tributes to the Chinese throne at Chang-an. Nestorians and Islamites came to China to propagate their respective cults. The silk-route was re-opened; caravans exchanged wares and goods between the West and the East. Just as it had been in the Han dynasty, the Chinese leadership among the nations in the East was generally acknowledged. This is why the Chinese are proverbially called sons of the Han or the T'ang.

From 690 to 704 A.D. Wu Tsehtien, queen of the third emperor of the T'ang, usurped the throne as a dowager empress. Though there had been not a few similar cases in the Han, Empress Wu did something boldly unconventional. She set the tradition at naught and founded a new dynasty for herself called Chou. She proved herself a capable sovereign and enhanced the military glories of China by defeating the Khitans and Tibetans. The restoration of the T'ang followed immediately on her death. The first part of the reign of Yuen Tsung (712-755 A.D.) was also celebrated for its sage government and national prosperity. But by the middle of

the 8th century, owing to the constant breakout of insurrections, at first led by An Lu-shan and then by Sze Shih-ming, both descendants of the Tartars, the court at Chang-an began to lose its prestige and the emperors gradually became figureheads. The T'ang dynasty dragged on through rebellions and feuds for one and a half century till its downfall in 907 A.D. Full fifty-three years of political insecurity and moral turpitude followed, which witnessed the rise and fall of no less than five dynasties.

C. The Dismemberment of the Empire.—In 960 A.D. the Sung dynasty at last established unity and internal peace. T'ai Tsung was proclaimed Emperor by the Chinese counterparts of the Roman "Pretorian Guard". His coup d'état was justified by the circumstances because the nation urgently required a strong hand to wield the imperial scepter. At the same time, China had to ward off the Khiltan Tatars, the most formidable enemy to the Empire, whose extension on the north included the whole "Manchuria" (the present North-eastern Provinces). T'a Tsu and his brother as well as successor T'ai Tsung made many attempts to recover the lost territories in vain. Their successors had to give bribes to this barbarian power in order that both nations could live amicably. In the Sung dynasty China was unified but not strong, and was open to aggression on all sides. On the north-western frontier the kingdom of Shih-hsia, frequently molested China. But the Khitans were far more dangerous,

threatening the very existence of the dynasty. As early as 940 A.D. Yenchow and fifteen other provinces were conceded to the Khitans by Shih Ching-tang with the result that all strategic points on the northern border were lost. From the 10th to the 13th century China was in the most critical situation. Havocs were wrought and disasters caused by the repeated raids and invasions of the Khitan Tatars, the Kinns and finally the Mongols. The invincible Mongols conquered in rapid succession the Great Walls, the Yellow River Valley, the Yangtze Valley until finally they ruled the whole of China, which now formed only a part of the great Mongol Empire.

The events that lead to the wreckage of the Sung dynasty can be briefly told. Hwei Tsung (1101-1125) had invited the Kinns to expel the Khitans from Liaotung, but the remedy proved worse than the disease for the Kinns were even more aggressive neighbors. In 1127 the Kinns laid siege to the capital Kai-feng, taking Hwei Tsung and his son Chin Tsung prisoners to the north, where they lived ignominiously and died tragically. The Kinns penetrated almost into the Yangtse valley. Kao Tsung (1128-1162) and his court retreated to the south of the Yangtse, while the Kinns ruled in the north, making modern Peking their headquarters. Wars were constantly waged between the two peoples with no tangible change in the frontiers.

V. THE ERA OF TRANSITION

A. The Mongol Supremacy.—Meanwhile the Mongols began to

gain ascendancy in the North. Genghis Khan, a genius as great in military tactics as in civil administration, united all the clans and assumed in 1260 the title of Khan. He and his successors led their famous "Golden Horde" challenging the civilized world in the continents of Asia and Europe. The civilized code of ethics was foreign to their ways of thinking. The whole tribe were trained archers and skilled horsemen and loved war and wassail, pillage and plunder. A good many countries were laid waste and overrun by the Mongolian cavalries. In 1212 and 1213 Genghis Khan invaded China, making a general advance southwards. His soldiers swept over Honan, Hupeh and Shantung, and destroyed more than ninety cities. Twenty years later, however, the Mongols made a transient alliance with the Sung in order to put an end to the Kinns. But no sooner had the spoils been divided than a war broke out between them. The Mongols quickly swept over the south of the Yangtse.

In 1259 Kublai Khan ascended the throne. Twenty years later, he completed his conquest and founded the Yuan dynasty, with the capital in Peking. Never before had the Chinese empire been so wide and so powerful.

Kublai Khan adopted the policy of tolerance in religion, gave patronage to arts and literature, and encouraged commerce and trade. The imperial court at Peking became the Mecca of all Eastern nations. The authority of Kublai Khan was acknowledged "from the frozen sea, almost to the Straits of Malacca. With the exception of Hindustan, Arabia

and the western-most parts of Asia, all the Mongol princes at far as the Dnieper declared themselves his vassals, and brought regularly their tribute". It was at that time that Marco Polo, whose "Travels" testify to glories of the "Great Khan", visited the court at Peking. Unfortunately, his successors tyrannized over the Chinese people, who, on their part, never forget that the Mongols were aliens and barbarians. After Jen Tsung's death in 1320, the dynasty fell on evil days. Originally a doughty and warlike race, the Mongols in China became flabby with comfort and self-indulgence and lost much of their valor. Shun Ti (1333-1367) who seemed to combine all the vices and faults of his predecessors, was the last emperor of the Mongol dynasty. In 1368 Chu Yuan-chang, a Chinese ringleader, founded the Ming dynasty and drove the Mongols out of China. North China which had for centuries been occupied by barbarians, came under Chinese sway, again.

B. The Contact with Europe.—

The Mongols, ousted from China, returned to their nomadic life. The commercial intercourse between China and Europe came to its full tide in the Ming dynasty. Chu Yuan-chang carried his conquests into Tatar, and soon brought it into his domain. The capital was at first established at Nanking, but later in the reign of Yung Loh, the third emperor of the Ming, was removed to Peking in order to keep a vigilant guard on the northern frontier. Yung Loh had himself

led an expeditionary army into the Tatar in the north and swept over the Cochin-China and Tonkin in the south. His successors, however, are all feckless emperors *in partibus*, the playthings of cunning eunuchs who wielded great power.

Before discussing the all-important contact between China and Western countries, let us pause for a moment and examine the general trends of our political and cultural developments in the last 2,000 years. Politically China had always been a great nation, assimilating our neighbors and invaders either through cultural supremacy or administrative ability. The political thought of Confucius is cosmopolitan. It aims at world peace and universal brotherhood. Our classical tradition remained pure till it became interwoven with Buddhism. The spread of Buddhism was due first to political and social disorder; men sought spiritual escape in this other-worldly *Weltanschauung*. Secondly, it had special affinity with the ancient Chinese mysticism of Taoism. It left enduring marks on the literature and art of the Pre-T'ang and the T'ang periods. But in spite of its widespread influence, Buddhism has never succeeded in being the state religion. The Chinese are ethical rather than mystical and the family is still the cornerstone of our social structure. The ethical values of Confucianism and the old family system break down only through the impact of industrial civilization of the West. This is however a long story.

In 1517 A.D. the Portuguese first came to Canton. This marks

the beginning of commercial intercourse between the East and the West. The Dutch and English followed in the wake. But the merchants played no role either in Chinese politics and culture. Their activities were limited and there were no official diplomatic relations between China and European powers. Far more important was the introduction of Roman Catholicism by the Jesuit missionaries. The members of the company of Jesus became very popular in virtue of their zeal and knowledge. The Chinese had long ago invented compass and gun-powder, paper and printing. They had their calendar and their way of astronomical calculations. But Chinese sciences fall far short of being exact. Now the Jesuits like Matteo Ricci and others brought in geography, astronomy, and geometry. The emperors looked upon these learned missionaries with favor. Naturally they created a sensation among the Chinese intellectuals, who gradually embraced the new learning. Western books were translated into Chinese among which was Euclid's geometry. Thus the seeds of western science were sown.

The struggle between China and Japan for supremacy in Korea must be mentioned. Toward the 16th century the Japanese invaded Korea, initiated by the prince regent Taikosama. Because the Japanese occupation of Korea would threaten the national security of China, Sheng Tsung, the 13th emperor of the Ming dynasty, sent an army for the deliverance of the Koreans at their urgent entreaty. The same event occurred again three centuries later during

the Manchu regime. The war with Taikosama was protracted with no serious losses on either side. In the end peace was concluded. But the expensive and fruitless Korean expedition spelt the ruin of the Ming dynasty.

VI. THE MODERN EPOCH

A. The Manchu Conquest.—

The nation, worn out with the war in Korea, was also torn by internal party strifes, political tumults, court intrigues and last of all civil wars, all of which gave the desired opportunity to watchful foreign invaders. About 1616 A.D. the Manchu Tatars dispatched an army of cavalries into the Great Wall. Three years later they captured Liaotung, and the Manchu Hwang Tai-chi declared himself independent from the Ming, fixing his capital at Shenyang (Mukden). Strenuous efforts had been made in vain by Chung Tsen, the last Ming Emperor, to preserve his crown. Rebel bands in China became politically ambitious with success and captured Peking. In 1644 when the news of Emperor Chung Tsen's tragic suicide reached him, General Wu San-kwei invited the Manchus to come to China proper to take vengeance on the rebels. Peking soon fell into the hands of the Manchus and the rebels were routed. The Manchus consolidated their position in China and their King Shih-chih was proclaimed Emperor of China, adopting the name of Ts'ing for the new dynasty. For some years the scions of the Ming house desperately tried to hold their own in the South against the Manchurian power. Towards the close of the 17th century China became again a strong united na-

tion under Kang-hsi the Great, the 2nd Emperor of the Ts'ing dynasty.

In the reigns of Kang-hsi (1662-1722 A.D.), Yung Chen (1723-1735 A.D.), and Kien Lung (1736-1795) China resumed her old glory of the Han and T'ang dynasties. These three emperors were excellent statesmen who gave the country 133 years of peace and prosperity. The territory of the empire expanded. Amur was taken as our outpost; the Mongolians were conquered; the Tatars in the Eastern Turkestan were subjugated; so were also the Tibetans and the provinces of Kwangsi and Kweichow, hitherto a primeval wilderness, became an integral part of China. Nepal, the whole Indo-China Peninsula and Korea became tributary states. Meanwhile the three emperors showed their ability not only in the conquests of nations and tribes, but in the encouragement and promotion of arts and sciences. By the help of Chinese scholars and the Jesuits Kang-hsi devoted much of his time to literary and scientific pursuits. Erudition was on a premium and scholars of an unprecedented width of learning appeared. The edicts of Emperor Yung Chen were very often composed by himself for he was a good prose writer and a profound student of Buddhism. But the most brilliant of the trio was Kien Lung, whose works in poetry and prose were enormous in bulk. In 1722 when Yung Chen first ascended the throne, the collection of books for the imperial libraries, seven in number, began in earnest and was completed during the reign of Kien Lung. The whole collection was arranged under four rubrics: classics, his-

tory, philosophy and literature. The twenty-four official historical chronicles were also scrupulously re-edited. Such a prolonged period of peace is followed immediately by an age of storm and tempest to China. The 18th century was marked in Europe with colonial exploits and expansions. In 1793 the British government sent Lord Macartney as a special envoy to Peking to obtain some concessions from Emperor Kien Lung, but his mission turned out a failure. In the latter part of the reign of Kien Lung, the government was honeycombed with corruption. Rebellions broke out. The rule of Chia Ching was very unsuccessful. In 1816 Lord Amherst was dispatched to China by the British government. As he declined to "kowtow" before the emperor, he was not admitted to the imperial presence. The request of the British Government had not been accepted by the Chinese until the accession of Tao Kwang (1820-1850).

B. China and the Great Powers since 1839.—In the reign of Tao Kwang events of vital importance happened. Insurrections broke out in many provinces. But what mattered most to China's future destiny was the change of attitude on the part of the European nations. Great Britain was the first power who determined to take action against the "heavenly" empire. Having gradually conquered India, the British felt their interests in China at stake. The apple of discord was opium in which the British traded profitably with the Chinese. Lord Napier was succeeded by

Captain Elliot in 1839 to superintend the trade at Canton and the Chinese viceroy of Canton, Lin Tse-shu, a man of great integrity and insight, sternly forbade the importation of opium. Elliot got into trouble because of his insolent defiance of the Chinese imperial decree. In 1840 war started. The Chinese with their backward firearms fought against overwhelming odds. The British fleet took control of the Chinese sea coast. In 1841 they threatened to capture Nanking, if Tao Kwang had not proposed terms of peace in due time. A treaty was henceforth concluded at Nanking, by which four additional ports of Amoy, Foo-chow, Ningpo and Shanghai were declared upon for foreign trade, Hongkong was ceded, and an indemnity of 21,000,000 dollars was to be paid to the British. It was an unprecedented humiliation for China, and marks the real beginning of modern Chinese history. For the first time in her diplomatic relations, China formally recognized the equality of foreign nations. The Treaty of Nanking is the first of those unequal treaties, which the Chinese Empire was obliged to conclude one after another with the European powers.

In 1850 the T'ai P'ing rebellion broke out in Kwangsi. It soon became a widespread campaign, extending over southern China. For some years the rebels had their capital at Nanking. Owing to unpopular reforms and internal discord, the T'ai P'ing government came to nought. In 1863 Nanking fell to the hands of government forces led by Tseng Kuo-fan. But the effect of the rebellion was subtly deep and lasting. The spark of the revolutionary idea has not

really been extinguished and Dr. Sun Yat-sen, father of the Chinese Republic, was inspired with the idea during his childhood by a veteran of the T'ai P'ing army. As a result of Tseng Kuo-fan's successful campaigns Chinese generals began to be admitted to the higher official positions hitherto almost exclusively reserved for the Manchus. Close on the heels of the rebellion another incident followed. The invasion of the Allied forces of England and France and the slow but steady invasion of the Russians in the northern frontier forced the government to make further concessions. Nevertheless, the reigns of Hien Feng (1851-1861) and Tung Chi (1862-1874) were regarded as a period of rejuvenation. Modernist reforms were carried out in some provinces. Students were sent abroad to imbibe western ideas. But such modernization was more apparent than real. Administration was inefficient and education was old-fashioned. The recovery of Sinkiang by General Tso Chung-tang was a great deed, but on the whole things went from bad to worst. The reforms proved, in the long run, futile, not to be compared with the Japanese reforms of 1868, introduced by Mikado Mutzu Hito.

The Japanese plans of aggrandisement at the expense of China became ominously apparent. The Liu-kiu Islands (Okinawa), Taiwan (Formosa), Korea and the North-Eastern Provinces (originally Manchuria) of China fell into her clutches one by one. The Dowager-empress Tse-hi was an ignorant and self-willed woman whose obstructionism to modern reforms was almost fatal. For over

ten years, riots were frequent in Korea, in which both the Chinese and the Japanese troops took sides. China had been invited to render support to the Korean court while Japanese intervention was a part of her diplomacy. The year of 1894 witnessed the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, the result of which was the rise of Japan as a new power in the Far East, with China completely stripped of her glory. The terms of the Treaty of Shimonosoki (in Japan, signed by Li Hung-chang in April 1895) included the cession of Liaotung and Taiwan, an indemnity of H. taels 200,000,000 and the concession of various commercial privileges to Japan.

Meanwhile China was menaced on the south by the French protectorate in Annam. On the northern border the Tsar of Russia had been applying pressure with the view to colonizing the lower Amur region and pressing towards the Pacific, where the Russians fortified the port of Vladivostok. Under the pretext of the balance of power in the Far East, Russia plotted an European intervention together with France and Germany and forced Japan to give up the Liaotung Peninsula. But scarcely when China had been overjoyed with the news of intervention when Russia, France and Germany claimed the lease or cession of trade ports and territory, and mining and railway rights. Port Arthur was seized by Russia, Kiaochow by Germany and Kwangchowwan by France. British troops landed on Wei-hai-wei and enlarged the concession of Kiu-lung. All except America claimed their spheres of influence. At this cri-

tical juncture, John Hay, U.S. Secretary of State, initiated in 1899 the "open door" policy with the aim of maintaining the integrity of Chinese territory and sovereignty. "Open door" has ever been the bedrock of American diplomacy in the Far East. This principle was seriously reiterated in 1921 in the Washington Conference. It has formed the basis of friendly relations between these two great nations of the Pacific.

China was thus saved from the fate of Poland in being partitioned. The menace of European imperialism awakened nationalist sentiments among the Chinese people. Throughout the south, a general and genuine reform movement spread far and wide, while in the north the anti-foreign movement, abetted by many officials grew to alarming consequences. In 1898 things came to a head and Emperor Kwang Shu who thought of freeing himself from the pernicious domination of the dowager-empress summoned Kang Yu-wei, the leader of the reform party to Peking, and sought his advice with regard to the modernization of China into a progressive nation. Many of his proposals were soon adopted. The system for civil service examinations was strictly observed, schools were built upon Western models, special academies were erected for the study of languages and sciences. These drastic reforms were vehemently opposed by the Conservatives. In September of the same year the Empress staged a coup d'etat and put a stop to the reform. The Emperor was imprisoned. Another campaign for national salvation soon followed. In 1899 the Boxer movement started in Shangtung. The situa-

tion grew more sinister in the next year and a reign of terror for foreigners took place in Peking. The Boxers laid siege on the foreign Legation Greater and killed the German minister. Germany, Russia, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Austria, Sweden and the United States joined their forces in a punitive expedition to China and the Manchu court was forced to retreat to Shensi. In August the Dowager-empress, seeing her cause lost, ordered Li Hung-chang to make terms with the allied nations, by which more major privileges, including the fortification of Legation Quarter, were granted to the Western powers.

In 1905 Japan emerged victorious from a war with Russia. She regained her position in the southern part of the Northeastern provinces, the Liaotung Peninsula, while Russia withdrew to the north of Chang-chun. At the end of that year a committee was dispatched to Europe by the Manchu Court to study the scheme of national reconstruction. Subsequently, edicts were issued to the effect that the absolutist form of government would be abandoned in favor of constitutional monarchy. This was however an insincere promise. Public opinion demanded vociferously the immediate revision of laws, propagation of education, etc. Conservative die-hards in the government still tried to temporize. Time was ripe for the people to act on their own behalf. Inspired by the ideals of nationalism and democracy, the revolutionary movement led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, reached its height. On October 10, 1911 it actually broke out at Wuchang, the capital of the province of Hupeh. The flood could

no more be dammed, and the Manchu dynasty fell without putting up much resistance. The baby emperor who was to become the puppet emperor of Manchoukuo through the machinations of the Japanese, abdicated much to his own advantage. On the New Year's Day 1912 the Republic of China was proclaimed at Nanking.

C. The Modern Period.—

The revolutionary movement found an ideal leader in Dr. Sun Yat-sen whose dauntlessness of spirit and tenacity of purpose put heart into his followers. He launched the first revolutionary uprising in Canton on September 9, 1895. In 1900, 1902 and 1904 three more unsuccessful attempts were made. In 1905, he organized the Chung Kuo Tung Men Hui or the Revolutionary League of China. In the interval between the organization of the Tung Men Hui in 1905 and the Wuhan Uprising in 1911, he instigated no less than 13 revolts. On October 10, 1911, the revolutionaries broke out in Wuchang and soon made their cause victorious in Hunan, Shensi, Shansi, Yunnan, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Kwangtung, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Fukien, Shantung, Honan, Szechuen, Shanghai and Nanking. Dr. Sun was then in Denver, Colorado, and hurried back to China. In Nanking he was elected provisional president of the Republic of China and assumed his office on January 1, 1912. Dr. Sun, whose aim being the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty and the establishment of a republic in China, resigned his presidency on February 23, 1912 on the completion of his self-imposed mission in favor of Yuan Shih-kai. The monarchic

regime seemed to have been done away with once for all. But one or two warlords still fondly dreamed of putting the clock back and introducing the imperial regime. Two such attempts were made by Yuan Shih-kai who wished to found a new dynasty (1915-1916) and by General Chang Hsun who tried to restore the Manchus (1917). Both attempts led to nothing.

A period of civil wars and intestinal friction among the provincial military governors followed. The disorder lasted until 1926, when the Kuomintang sent its expeditionary force northward. During the years of World War I, a cultural movement started in Peking and spread over all the country. This movement advocated the use of the vernacular instead of the literary style of writing, the unification of the various dialects by adopting the mandarin as the standard speech, a critical overhaul of traditional morality and an intensive examination of Western civilization.

The Northward Military Expedition was led by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. The expeditionary force, in less than two years, was able to unite the whole country under a strong government which is a party government under the direction of the Kuomintang undergoing a tutelage period preparing for democracy. The National Government, perhaps the strongest and most progressive in the history of the Republic, has not had a smooth course to run. Foreign aggression was halted, and many western powers showed a friendly desire to cooperate with China financially and industrially. Only Japan persevered in her age-

old policy of grabbing and bullying. The Twenty-One Demands in 1915 to Yuan Shih-kai, the occupation of Tsingtao during World War I, the notorious Tanaka Memorial in 1927 were part and parcel of her nefarious plan of aggrandisement at the expense of China.

The unification of entire China under the National Government and the rapid progress made by the Government prompted Japan to take more drastic measures. The "Mukden Incident" on the night of September 18, 1931 marked the first step of the realization of Japan's Continental Policy. By the Spring of 1932, the Three Eastern Provinces were forcibly occupied and the Puppet state of "Manchoukuo" was set up. On January 28, 1932, Japan launched another attack on Shanghai with the aim of strengthening her position in the important city. The seizure of Jehol in the spring of 1933 and the conclusion of the Tangku Truce on May 31, 1933 gave Japan a free hand in the Northeast and Jehol, while China was compelled to withdraw its armed forces from the territory between the Great Wall and the Peiping Area. Japan was by no means satisfied with her gains. In the summer of 1935, by military pressure, she forced the withdrawal from Hopei of all troops under the direct command of the National Government and attempted to detach the five northern provinces of Hopei, Chahar, Shantung, Shensi, and Suiyuan from the control of Nanking. By the end of 1935, Japan made further infiltrations by setting up an "autonomous regime" in Northern Chahar and the "demilitaril-

ized zone" in Eastern Hopei. After 1935, Japan restored to large-scale smuggling to undermine China's financial strength and drug-trafficking to poison the Chinese people. On the diplomatic front she presented a number of economic demands whose aim was no less than the eventual alienation of North China from the rest of the country. Still not satisfied with the immense concessions made to her, Japan made repeated attempts at coercing China to conclude an Anti-Communist pact, so as to secure for the Japanese military forces a freedom of action on Chinese soil.

This persistent Japanese harrasing had not, however, checked the process of unification in China or weakened the Central Government, which under the able leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek had been quietly going ahead with its program of military preparation. The establishment of a well-equipped army, the construction of a net-work of highways and railroads, the reform of the national currency, had all been under way. The Sian Incident in December 1936 showed Chinese solidarity and the nation-wide support of their leader.

VI. THE WAR YEARS (1937-1944)*

Alarmed by the growing might and unity of China, the Japanese militarists decided to strike before it was too late. By the summer of 1937 they were ready for a new and far-reaching venture. Manufacturing the story of a Japanese soldier missing during night manoeuvres at Lukowichiao or

* This part was writttn by Lei Hua University. Hal-tsung, Professor of History, Tsing

Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peiping, where the Japanese had neither legal nor any other reasonable excuse for conducting military manoeuvres, the army of the Mikado started an offensive against the nearby city of Wanping on July 7, 1937, thus lighting the spark that was to start the greatest war ever fought in East Asia, and ultimately to be partly responsible for the outbreak of the present global conflagration.

Though the trouble started around Peiping, the first real theater of war was to be far to the south. On August 13 fighting flared up in earnest in and around Shanghai, where the ill-equipped Chinese army withstood the invaders for three full months. Pushing further inland, on December 13 the Japanese entered Nanking, where they indulged in an unbelievable orgy of slaughter, looting, and rape. The seat of government was transferred to Chungking though most of the important organs of government made Hankow their headquarters. Meanwhile the war continued; an enemy attempt through Germany to induce China to surrender after the fall of Nanking was decisively rejected. After inflicting a severe defeat on the self-styled invincible "imperial army" at Taierschuang along the Tientsin-Pukow Railway, April, 1938, the poorly-equipped Chinese army withdrew from Hsuechow, the important junction of the Tientsin-Pukow and Lung-Hai Railways, May, 1938, thus leaving the Japanese in control of the whole of the Tientsin-Pukow Line and allowing the northern and southern forces of the enemy to be united into one front.

The next important object of

enemy attack was Hankow, the actual seat of government and the northern terminus of the Canton-Hankow Railway, the last important line of communication with the outside world. The battle of Hankow dragged on throughout the summer and autumn. By a surprise move, the Japanese took Canton on October 21, 1938, thus greatly reducing the usefulness of the railway, and on October 23 the Chinese Government abandoned Hankow and made Chungking the wartime capital both in name and in fact. The fall of Canton and Hankow meant that Free China was temporarily to be limited to the mountainous West, leaving China east of the Peiping-Hankow and Canton-Hankow lines to the enemy, though large pockets of resistance, including many important cities both inland and along the coast, continued to exist. The end of 1938 saw the Sino-Japanese war reach a stalemate: the modern and mechanized Japanese army was able to take and to hold most of the lines of communication of the coastal provinces and the eastern plain, but could neither penetrate the mountainous west, nor mop up the innumerable guerilla areas still left in the east.

Resorting to their old strategem in Manchuria, the Japanese set up a series of puppet governments in the occupied provinces. The first bogus regime was established in 1937 in Peiping (which the Japanese called by its old name Peking), known as "The Provisional Government of the Republic of China". In the spring of 1938. "The New Reformed Government of the Republic of China" began to function in Nanking, which the

Japanese purposely made a counterweight to the Peiping regime, liking nothing so well as the old game of "divide and rule". Neither regime, however, was taken seriously by the people: no Chinese of any standing could be induced to join. But in March, 1940, the Japanese succeeded in establishing a so-called new Kuomintang Central Government in Nanking, under the control of the archtraitor, Wang Ching-wei, who, after deserting Chungking had proclaimed the intention of ending the war and promoting Sino-Japanese cooperation, which would virtually make China a Japanese colony. The Wang Ching-wei regime superseded the "Reformed Government", and was also given nominal control over North China, where the "Provisional Government" had been demeaned to the status of a local regime, though actually it was still totally free of interference from the southern government.

Under the cloak of the various puppet regimes the Japanese perfected plans for the economic exploitation of China. In 1938 two chartered companies were established, the North China Exploitation Company, with a capital of 350,000,000 yen, and the Central China Development Company, with a capital of 100,000,000 yen. When Wang Ching-wei entered Nanking, his new "Central Government" gave full recognition to both these companies.

Actual hostilities, however, were not to cease altogether. Besides constant guerilla clashes, the Japanese now and then made military attempts of a more comprehensive nature, of which the most important were the three

campaigns of Changsha, September 1939, September 1941, and December 1941. Both Hankow and Canton had, indeed, fallen to the Japanese, but the central sector of the railway line around Changsha and Hengyang still remained in Chinese hands. All three thrusts at Changsha were aimed at the closing of this important gap, but all three attempts failed, and there was no prospect of breaking the military stalemate.

After the surprise bombing of Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941, Japan declared war on the United States and Great Britain, whereupon China formally declared war on the island empire, thus linking the war in Europe and the war in Asia into one vast global war. At first the global war was to bring more misery to China rather than immediate relief. Within six months the Japanese, besides having taken most of the South Sea Islands of the United States, Great Britain, and the Netherlands, had succeeded in occupying Singapore, Malaya, and Burma. The midget Fascist state of Thailand had already decided to cast in its lot with Japan, and the feeble hold of the Japanese over Indo-China, which had allowed the imperial army "limited" occupation in September 1940 after the fall of France, turned into a stranglehold with the outbreak of the Pacific War. All possible avenues of approach abroad were blocked; the siege of China became complete; and the already hard pressed Chinese army became still less well equipped for modern war. By the spring of 1944 the Japanese, sorely punished by the growing might of the American naval and

air forces in the Pacific, had come to a desperate conclusion. They decided to take advantage of China's isolation, throw in all their available forces, and make a last supreme effort to smash up Chinese resistance, hoping to open up the direct route between Canton and Peiping and, therefore, Manchuria, and to forestall an Allied invasion of the China coast at one and the same time. Through the summer and autumn of 1944 the invaders successively occupied Chengchow, Changsha, and Hengyang, and by October they were thrusting toward Kweilin. But the Canton-Hankow Line was still blocked by the Chinese army, and further western penetration was being firmly and desperately resisted.

The diplomatic recovery of establishment of the National Government in 1927, was to be completed amidst the turmoil of

war. On January 11, 1943, China concluded new treaties with the United States and Great Britain, abolishing extraterritoriality, annulling all Concessions and leased territories, and cancelling all the special rights and privileges of foreign nationals in China. In November 1943, President Chiang Kai-shek proceeded to Cairo to confer with President Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill, and the three leaders of the three most important countries at war with Japan announced their determination to prosecute the war to a victorious conclusion and their agreement to take from Japan all the forcibly occupied territories of the last fifty years, among which Formosa, the Pescadores, and Manchuria were to be returned to China—an eventuality tacitly implied, if not formally proclaimed, by the war of resistance that started at Lukowchiao on July 7, 1937.*

*(For later developments see the Chapters on Military Campaigns, Japanese Aggression and the Pacific Theater of War, The Unconditional Surrender of Japan, the Disarmament of the Japanese Troops in the China Theater.)

CHAPTER VI

PHILOSOPHY

TSAO WEN-YEN (曹文彦)*

That Chinese civilization, one of the oldest in the world, has been a formative influence in the life of the peoples in the East is a fact established beyond controversy. Since the beginning of the nineteenth century the impact of the West upon the East has led to a deeper appreciation of the teachings and works of great Chinese thinkers. A comprehensive historical survey of Chinese philosophy will bring to light the basic concepts of Chinese culture and prepare for a better understanding of the inscape of the Chinese mind.

I. CONFUCIANISM

Confucius once said that he was a transmitter rather than an originator. He meant that whatever he believed, taught and recorded was but a systematization and synthesis of the philosophic ideas of sages who had lived before him. To be sure, he touched nothing that he did not adore, but a sound knowledge of Confucian teachings enables us to thoroughly understand the philosophy of the pre-Confucian era.

A. Life of Confucius.—Confucius who lived from 551 to 479 B.C., was a son of a military officer in the State of Lu. Like all well-educated men in the real sense of the term, he was self-taught. "I was not born with know-

ledge," he said, "but I am fond of antiquity and earnest in seeking knowledge there." During his early manhood, he went to the Kingdom of Chow to make inquiries about ceremonies and maxims of the founders of the dynasty. While in Chow, he met Lao Tzu, the father of Taoism, and exchanged views, the result of which enhanced his knowledge. In the *Analects* he says: "Among any three persons there must be one who can be your teacher." Indeed one lives and learns; life itself is a continuous schooling.

When 56 years old he was appointed Minister of Justice in the State of Lu, and in three months of his administration, he put all crimes to an end. The ruling Duke of Lu, however, failed to observe the virtues Confucius insisted upon, and the Sage reluctantly resigned. Leaving the State of Lu, he visited other States for a period of 13 years, with the object of securing the patronage of some ruler, who could appoint him to a position whereby he could put his political and ethical beliefs into practice. It was not a successful quest, for the rulers of his time were militarists who lacked faith in the efficacy of moral and ethical ideals which alone the Sage advocated as essential to good government. He succeeded, how-

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ever, in propagating his teachings, and won the respect of the intellectual and learned men of the era. He is said to have had 3,000 students, among whom 72 were the most accomplished scholars of the day.

Tel arbre, tel fruit. A philosophy is not born in a vacuum, but the outcome of its environment. Confucianism is no exception. Although Confucius did not claim to be the founder of a brand new school of philosophy, the social and political ferment of his time gave an impetus to the development of his philosophy and made it what it is.

During the lifetime of the Sage, the Dynasty of Chow (1134 to 256 B.C.) was on the decline. For about five centuries State contended against State, and clan against clan, the result being chronic misrule, with frequent famines, wars and intrigues. According to Mencius (371 to 288 B.C.) Confucius appeared at a critical moment in the national history, when the world had fallen into decay and right principles had disappeared. Pernicious views and tyrannical deeds were rife, ministers murdered their rulers, and sons their fathers. Confucius was alarmed at what he saw, and he undertook the work of spiritual reform.

B. The Fundamental Principles of Confucianism.—Although the *Analects* is but a sketchy record of a series of *ipse dixit magister*, we may weave these dangling threads into a coherent fabric.

1.—The Doctrine of Golden Mean
—One of the fundamental principles of Confucianism is Moderation, or the Doctrine of the Golden Mean, which was not new

at the time of Confucius but an old virtue observed ages before by great rulers like Emperor Yao, Emperor Shun, and Emperor Tang. In *Shuking*, or the *Book of History*, which contains the earliest Chinese political documents, Emperor Yao, on his voluntary abdication, advised Emperor Shun to "hold the Mean". Of Shun, Confucius said: "He indeed was greatly wise. He loved to question others and study their words, though they might be shallow. He concealed what was bad in them and revealed what was good. He took hold of the two extremes, determined the Mean, and employed it in his government of the people. It was by this that he was Shun." Mencius said of Emperor Tang that he "held the Mean." Emperor Tang listened to both sides of a question and steered a middle course in giving an opinion which was not only reasonable but also practical.

In the *Doctrine of the Golden Mean*, which was presumably written by Confucius' grandson, Tzu Szu, we read: "While there are no stirrings of pleasure, anger, sorrow or joy, the mind may be said to be in the state of equilibrium. When these feelings have been stirred and they act in their due degree, there ensues what may be called a state of harmony. This equilibrium is the great root from which grow all human actions in the world, and this harmony is the universal path which they all should pursue. Let the states of equilibrium and harmony exist in perfection and a happy order will prevail throughout heaven and earth, and all things will be nourished and flourishing."

What Tzu Szu meant was to educate oneself to become a superior

man by controlling one's passions, which were the springs of behaviour. One's passions being regulated according to the Principle of *nec-nimis* a reasonable behaviour could be attained, leading to an harmonious form of existence.

In the Doctrine of the Golden Mean, Tzu Szu quoted Confucius as follows: "I know how it is that the path of Mean is not walked in; the knowing go beyond it, and the stupid do not come up to it. I know how it is that the path of mean is not understood; the men of talents and virtue go beyond it, and the worthless do not approach it." The saying contains a grain of perennial truth. In a world where extreme "isms" contend for supremacy, it is the middle course, which avoids the excesses of all, that would bring the greatest happiness to the greatest number of man.

2. Confucius' Idea of Benevolence.—The Chinese term "*Jen*" has been translated into English by different authors as Love, Benevolence, Sympathy, Charity, Humanity, Goodness of Heart, the Highest Virtue, Loving Kindness, Unselfishness, Altruism and the Feeling of Fellowship. However, none of these terms, singly used, is comprehensive enough to bring out all the meanings of "*Jen*." The real meaning of this term is "Man." The Chinese character for "*Jen*" conveys the idea of "two men". Therefore, "*Jen*" is a high virtue regulating the ideal relations between man and man.

Tzu-kung, one of the disciples of Confucius, asked if the Master could give him one word to serve as a rule of life. The Master said:

"Would not 'Reciprocity' be such a word? What you do not wish others to do unto you, do not do unto others."

The teaching of "*Jen*", though less striking in its negative than in its positive and Christian form, emphasises self-examination as a guide to reasonable conduct.

Furthermore, this dictum "*Jen*" like the proverbial charity which begins at home and from home teaches us to start from near to far, from easy to difficult, from within to without. Filial piety to our parents, reverence to our own elders and love of our own children, are the first step towards loving others. By extending this love and reverence we can achieve the virtue of "*Jen*." In the works of Mencius, we find the following passage:

"Treat with the reverence due to age the elders in your own family, so that the elders in the families of others shall be similarly treated; treat with the kindness due to youth the young in your own family, so that the young in the families of others shall be similarly treated--do this, and the empire may be made to go round in your palm."

With this willing sympathy towards mankind, a true Confucian will not only endeavor to rectify himself, but also aim at the rectification of others. In the *Analects*, Confucius says: "Now the man of perfect virtue, wishing to be established himself, seeks also to establish others; wishing to be enlarged himself, he seeks also to enlarge others."

Tzu-Kung, addressing Confucius, said: "Master, are you a Sage?"

Confucius replied: 'Nay, that I cannot say. I am never weary of learning; I am always ready to teach—that much I can say of myself.' 'Master,' replied Tzu-Kung, 'you are never weary of learning—that shows how wise you are; you are always ready to teach—that shows how loving you are. Endowed as you are with Love and Wisdom—Master, in very truth you are a Sage.'

In practising the teaching of benevolence or the virtue of "*Jen*," one has to possess the spirit of valor. In the *Analects*, Confucius says: "The determined scholar and man of virtue will not seek to live at the expense of injuring his virtue of '*Jen*.' He will even sacrifice his life to preserve his virtue complete."

As to the way in which the virtue of "*Jen*" manifests itself in action, Confucius says in *Analects*: "In the domestic relationships it is shown in the maintenance of a balance between familiarity and reserve; in the management of affairs, it is shown in courtesy; in the general intercourse with mankind it is shown in loyalty and good faith. Even when contact is made with uncivilized peoples, kindly sympathy or '*Jen*' must not be withheld." It coincides with the Sage's famous and oft-quoted remark, "Within the four seas"—supposed to be the boundaries of the known world—"all are brothers." Narrow nationalism and racial prejudice are unknown to Confucianism which is for all-embracing sympathy.

3. Confucius' Idea of Good Government and Social Order.—The Confucian idea of good government is the rectification of names.

To Confucius, a good government could be obtained when the ruler was ruler and the ministers ministers. "To govern means to rectify; if you lead the people with correctness who will dare not to be correct?" "If a superior love propriety, the people will not dare to be irreverent. If he love righteousness, the people will not dare to refuse to follow his example. If he love good faith, the people will not dare to be insincere." "When a prince's personal conduct is correct, his government is effective without the issuing of orders. If his personal conduct be not correct, he may issue orders but they will not be followed." "If a minister's own conduct be correct, what difficulty will he have in assisting in government? If he cannot rectify himself, what has he to do with rectifying others?"

In the *Great Learning*, we find the key to good government, which emphasizes the cultivation of the person as the root of everything else. "In order to cultivate the ideal personality it is essential to complete the knowledge by the investigation of things; the knowledge being completed, the thoughts would be sincere; the thoughts being sincere, the heart would then be rectified; the heart being rectified, the person would be cultivated; the person being cultivated, the family would be regulated; the family being regulated, the State would be rightly governed; all the states being rightly governed, the world would then be made tranquil and happy."

In contradistinction to government by law and order, Confucius advocated government by propriety. He said: "When rulers observe the rules of propriety the

people respond readily to the calls for service." Also, he went on to say: "In hearing litigations, I am not unlike any others. What is necessary is to cause the people to have no litigations." It is tantamount to saying, "prevention is better than cure." The way to eliminate crime is to train the people to observe moral principles and adhere to the rules of strict propriety—in the achievement of which mere legislation apparently fails.

In the maintenance of a good social order, the rectification of names is also applicable. Confucianism divides human relations into five categories, namely, between the ruler and the ruled, between parents and children, between husband and wife, between brothers and sisters, and between friends. To Confucius rulers must be rulers, ministers ministers, fathers fathers, sons sons, husband husband, wife wife, each fulfilling the duties proper to his or her station. There should always be benevolence on the part of the superior and loyalty on the part of the inferior, so that an ideal social order could be maintained.

C. Confucianism and Religion.—

Our analysis above would perhaps remove the vulgar error of taking Confucianism for a religion. It is rather a social and political philosophy, pragmatic and not speculative.

In reply to an enquiry of one of his disciples, Confucius said: "While you cannot serve man, how can you serve spirit? While you do not know life, what can you know about death?" In Confucian *Analects* the vague impersonal term "Heaven" means simply an ideal order of things, the rational

principle, "the realm of ends" somewhat equivalent to the Platonic Ideal and the Christian word. "Respect deities and spirits, but keep away from them" is one of his famous sayings and can be quoted as evidence to prove the non-religious character of Confucianism.

D. Confucius as a Great Man.—

Confucius had a grave missionary spirit without the fanatic missionary zeal. Amid social and political chaos of his life-time, he bore the responsibility of awakening the people. "It is impossible," he said, "to withdraw from the world and associate with birds and beasts that have no affinity with us; with whom should I associate but with suffering people? The disorder that prevails is what requires my efforts." It seems that he would never abandon the cause of the people; defeated he might be but he would be true to his humane and righteous mission. Since his death, the Sage has become an object of unbounded admiration. The title given to Confucius under the Sung dynasty, "the most sagely ancient teacher; the all-accomplished, all informed king," shows the veneration in which he was held by the Chinese people.

II. PERIOD OF PHILOSOPHICAL FLOWERING

The period approximately from 722 B.C. the year marking the beginning of the *Annals of Lu*, down to 246 B.C., the year of the unification of the seven kingdoms by the Emperor of Ch'in, is regarded as one of chaos. It is also considered as a period of philosophical efflorescence unparalleled in Chinese history. Its causes are briefly as follows:

Chinese educational system before this period was divided into two departments, "Kuo Hsue" or national school and "Shiang Hsue" or local school—the former for the education of aristocracy, the latter for the instruction of the people. There was a certain difference in degree of learning between these two, but the subjects of study, such as manners, music, archery, charioteering, calligraphy and mathematics, were the same. As to the more advanced study of the art of administration and government, it was imparted by high officials to those of lower grade, the teachers and the taught both necessarily belonging to the aristocracy. This cast-iron tradition made studies stereotyped and musty. However, since the beginning of the *Annals of Lu* the Chow Dynasty began to decline. Constant warfare reduced the number of States with the result that many aristocrats lost their privileged positions and influence. Feudalism gradually waned and it was not uncommon in that period for plebeians to rise to power. Hence, higher learning was no longer confined to the privileged class and its teachers not necessarily high officials of the government. Confucius and his school were shining examples. With this abrupt change in the political and social organization and spread of education, naturally there arose a host of philosophical schools.

A. Taoism.—Of these various schools of thought, Taoism stands out pre-eminent.

Li Erh, better known as Lao Tzu (born 604 B.C.?) was the founder of the Taoist school which in its pristine form like a spring pure at its source, had nothing to do with

the modern conglomeration of witchcraft, sorcery, astrology and demonology, which pass under its name. *Tao Te Ching*, a classic, attributed to Lao Tzu, contains some significant dogmas of Taoist philosophy. "Tao" means the way, "Te" means virtue. Lao Tzu like all mystics of the Immanent school, held the belief that there is always the unity underlying all diversity, the changelessness lying behind all change, the infinite surrounding the finite. This nameless thing is the eternal principle of the universe, which for the want of a better word may be called "Tao." Lao Tzu thought that, when one walked in accordance with this eternal principle, keeping alongside this Tao, right conduct or high virtue could be attained.

It would be wrong to regard that Lao Tzu was an anarchist in his political philosophy. Although he proposed to reduce the function of government to the minimum, he did not go so far as to denounce government entirely. The end of government, according to Lao Tzu, should be the welfare of the people. "Filling their bellies with food" should be the main function of the government. Having fulfilled this function, the government should not go any further in interfering with the people. He had strong disgust of government by legislation. "The more laws and commands there are," he said, "the greater the number of thieves and robbers." Indeed his was a philosophy of non-interference in government, the logical consequence of naturalism in ethics. He believed that a government which did nothing was an ideal government. His ideal philosopher-king is *roi faineant*. If the ruler could leave

the people in their state of primitive freedom, universal happiness would be achieved.

To Lao Tzu, as to J. J. Rousseau, civilization spells degeneration. Contrary to the teaching of Confucius, who worshipped antiquity and revered the Gold Age of Yao and Shun, Lao Tzu, who did not have the slightest reverence for ancient Sages, said: "There would be no end to robbery if 'Sages' did not die." What the ruler should bear in his mind was advocated by Lao Tzu as follows:

If you so not esteem the gifted ones, the people will cease from rivalry.

If you do not prize the rare goods, the people will stop stealing.

If you do not display what is desirable, the people's hearts will remain at peace.

Therefore, this is how a king should rule his people:—

Emptying their hearts of desires;
Filling their bellies with food;
Weakening their ambitions;
Strengthening their bones.

His object is to keep the people without knowledge and without desires, and to prevent even the knowing ones from any ado.

Do the Non-Ado, and everything will be set in order.

"Doing Nothing" is also the keynote of Lao Tzu's philosophical idea of personal virtue. "Whosoever endeavors, fails," he said, "he who seizes, loses. The holy man does nothing, so fails in nothing." Again, he taught: "There is no sin greater than desire. There is no misfortune greater than not to know when one has had enough; there is no fault greater than greed of gain." He even went so

far as to expound paradoxically the wisdom of stupidity, the strength of weakness, the shrewdness of being inconspicuous. Chuang Tzu, one of Lao Tzu's followers, expatiated on the advantages of uselessness. He told of seeing a very big gnarled tree which had lasted centuries, and he knew that it must have escaped the axe because of its uselessness, otherwise, he said, it would never have existed unto that day. This high virtue of eliminating personal desire, lying low and returning to Nature may be also called the way of Tao.

Lao Tzu was a great lover of peace. There is striking similarity between the Christian teaching of "the other cheek" and the Taoist teaching of love. Lao Tze taught: "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." Peacelover as he was, he naturally hated war, either as an instrument of national policy or as a means to achieve selfish ends.

B. Mao Tzu.—Mao Tzu, a contemporary of Confucius, had the fundamental theme of his philosophy universal love. The difference between his doctrine of universal love and the teaching of Jesus lies in the fact that the Chinese philosopher is a utilitarian. Universal love according to Mao Tzu, would make the world a better place to live in; there is no other-worldliness about it. Brotherhood among States would eliminate war; love between the ruler and the ruled would obviate rebellion;

love between individuals would diminish personal antagonisms.

A *frotiori*, Mao Tzu opposed to war. His anti-war attitude was naturally the reflection of the militarist reign of terror which dominated his age.

Another tenet in Mao Tse's philosophy is thrift, which was also rooted in his utilitarian outlook. He opposed to the Confucian principle of propriety usually ceremonial and formal in nature, the practice of which was, in his opinion, too expensive.

While Confucius acknowledged himself ignorant of spiritual and immortal beings, Mao Tse, on the other hand had much to say of the existence of Heaven and deities who blessed the good and condemned the evil. Yet with him religion is a practical State function and has nothing numinous about it. At the same time, he thought that there was no predestination of human fate. He warned that disaster was the outcome of corrupt government, prosperity was the result of honest administration, and that similarly misfortune in life was the effect of wickedness, and happiness the reward for righteousness.

C. Mencius.—As Aristotle was to Plato, so Mencius was to Confucius. The furtherance and spread of Confucianism must be ascribed in no small measure to the efforts of Mencius.

1. Benevolence and Righteousness.—Although Mencius lived in the time of warring kingdoms, when State was fighting against State, and right gave way to might, his idea of good government and social order was based on the teaching of benevolence and right-

eousness. His argument was that, if everyone sought personal profit, if superior and inferior snatched this profit from one another, the State would be endangered. In reply to one of the princes who asked advice, Mencius said: "Benevolence and righteousness would be the only themes, for there would never be a man trained to benevolence who would neglect his parents. Similarly, there would never be a man trained to righteousness who made his sovereign a secondary consideration."

Further, Mencius was a philosophical teacher who based his theory on practical reasoning. The teaching of benevolence and righteousness would be impossible while economic well-being of the people was not safeguarded. In one of his passages he gave prominence to this idea by stressing particularly the importance of planned economy, such as rural productivity, reafforestation, the conducting of model farms, and the breeding of livestock, by which, in providing an abundance of the necessities, the happiness of the people could be ensured. The passage runs:

"Only men of education and culture, though without a certain livelihood, are able to maintain a fixed heart. As to the people generally, if they have not a certain livelihood, they will not have a fixed heart. And if they have not a fixed heart, there is nothing which they will not do, in the way of self-abandonment, of moral deflection, of depravity, and of licentiousness. When they thus have been involved in crime, to follow them up and punish them

would be to entrap the people."

2. Father of Democracy.—

Mencius is regarded as the father of democracy, for he insisted that the welfare of the people should take precedence to the private interest of the ruler. The ruler was allowed to rule, according to Mencius, so long as he adhered to the principles of benevolence and righteousness. Once he was asked by one of the ruling princes, whether it was right for a minister to put the ruler to death. In reply, Mencius said: "He who outrages the benevolence proper to his nature is called a robber; he who outrages righteousness is called a ruffian. The robber and ruffian are called a mere fellow." And he concluded that the ruler who lacked the virtues of benevolence and righteousness was no longer a sovereign but a mere fellow whom anybody could either depose or put to death. Far in advance of his time Mencius had a strong conviction of democratic government even during the reign of monarchical and despotic rule.

3. Human Nature Inherently Good

—Mencius believed that a government and society based on the principles of benevolence and righteousness was possible, because human nature was inherently good. His optimism is reflected in his famous saying: "All men have a mind which cannot bear to see the suffering of others." He reached the conclusion that, if men did what was not good the blame could not be imputed to their natural powers. Mencius proved his doctrine that inborn nature was good by asserting that the feeling of commiseration

belonged to all men, so did that of shame and dislike; and that of reverence and respect, and that of approving and disapproving. None of these things were infused into us from without; we were certainly furnished with them as an original part of our moral set-up. Hence, he suggested, "Seek and you will find them, neglect and you will lose them."

D. Legalism

1. Shyun Tzu: The Wickedness of Human Nature.—

Contrary to Mencius' idea that human nature was good, Shyun Tzu, declared human nature to be wicked. According to Shyun Tzu, goodness was due to man-ordered propriety and law, so being good is mere artifice. In one of his treatises, Shyun Tzu insisted that, from the cradle to the grave, man is selfish and avaricious, grabbing profit and exploiting the weak.

2. Han Fei.—Han Fei, one of Shyun Sze's disciples, adhered to the philosophy of the wickedness of inborn human nature and denounced the Confucian idea of government by propriety; instead he advocated government by strict enforcement of rigid law. Equality before the law was his dictum.

3. Shang Yang.—Shang Yang, Prime Minister of Ch'in in the period of the warring kingdoms, ruled the State of Ch'in in accordance with strict law. He condemned the Prince, the heir to the Throne, who had broken the law, by punishing the Prince's tutor, to show that everyone was equal before the bar of justice. The State of Ch'in by the rule of jurisprudence and equity, thus secured power, and eventually incorporated the other six States to form the Empire of Ch'in.

III. SUPREMACY OF CONFUCIANISM

After the establishment of the Empire of Ch'in, the King proclaimed himself to be the First Emperor, in the year 246 B. C. He had the idea that if the people were ignorant they would be easier to rule, and consequently regarded scholars with suspicion and hatred. Therefore he ordered, in the year 213 B.C. that all books except those on agriculture, divination and medicine, should be burnt, and that anyone in possession of prohibited books would be condemned to death. Some scholars hid their books, while others memorized the Confucian Canons and other important philosophical works by heart otherwise the whole literature and philosophical writings of China from the earliest days to that time would have been irretrievably lost.

As the Empire of Ch'in was short-lived (246 to 207 B.C.) the spread of philosophical thought was not seriously retarded. By the time of the Han dynasty (207 B.C. to 220 A.D.) Confucianism excelled all other philosophical doctrines in its prestige and influence. Emperor Wu of the Han Dynasty, who reigned from 140 to 86 B.C. issued decrees in which all non-Confucian schools of thought were denounced as heretic and only the Confucian classics, such as *Book of Changes*, *Book of Propriety*, *Book of History*, *Book of Poems*, and *the Annals of Lu*, were authorized to constitute the basis of high learning.

IV. TAOISM AS A PHILOSOPHY AND AS A RELIGION

In the latter part of the Han Dynasty, the rulers gradually lost their power, and the Empire was at sixes and sevens. In the Wei and Tsin dynasties, 220 to 264 A.D. and 264 to 419 A.D. respectively which succeeded the Han dynasty, China was overrun, especially in the north, by foreign races. The suffering of the people beggared imagination. Admit this chaos philosophies of an escapological character arose in opposition to Confucianism.

A. Ho Yien and Wang Bih.—

Among the Taoist scholars of Wei and Tsin periods, Ho Yieh and Wang Bih were the foremost. Ho Yien, who advocated the doctrine of doing nothing and believed that a real sage should be self-abnegating and free from passions. Wang Bih, however, acknowledged that the real sage has passions, which are only appropriate response to happenings, though his inmost ego remains serene and calm. Many scholars of this school, even went so far as to renounce ceremony and propriety, pretending to be indifferent to existing conventions and social customs, neglecting personal appearance, dressing in shabby clothes, and abandoning themselves to excesses. In this respect, they are like the Greek cynics. Liu Ling, one of the most prominent men of letters of the time often had a lad follow him with a spade, with the instruction that wherever he should die as a result of intoxication, the lad must

bury him. Life was considered meaningless, and personal enterprise and heroic undertaking were laughed to scorn. These eccentricities were due, as has been mentioned, to the instability of the regime and the chaotic social conditions.

B. Taoism as a Religion.—The transformation of Taoism into a religion can be traced to the latter part of the Han Dynasty, when a man by the name of Chang Lin pirated the teaching of Lao Tzu and mingled it with superstition and Buddhist ritual practice. It is supposed to be the first religion indigenous to Chinese soil, and gradually developed into a system of worship embracing belief in fairies, incantations, magic, witchcraft, astrology, legendry with its priesthood and pope. During the Wei and Tsin dynasties, while many intellectuals believed in Taoism, as Lao Tze Chuang Tze taught it, ordinary people were infatuated by this jumble of fetiches. Even among the *Cognoscendi*, many were misled by the Taoist medical quackery, and shortened the span of their life in the very attempt to prolong it by quaffing poisonous potions allegedly representing the elixir of life. Meanwhile, Buddhism, which was probably introduced into China during the regime of Emperor Ming of the Han Dynasty, who had sent envoys to India in 61 A.D. to secure the Buddhist scriptures, began to take root. There was a strong rivalry between Taoism as a religion and Buddhism. Although in the year 446 A.D. many Buddhist monks were persecuted, and

Buddhist monasteries burnt down by imperial order, Buddhist doctrines were deeply imbedded among the mass of the people. Through the effort of great monks and accomplished scholars who translated Buddhist scriptures into Chinese, a new inspiration stimulated Chinese philosophy, which for hundreds of years had been dominated by Confucianism.

V. A TRIO OF "ISMS"

A. Struggle for Supremacy.—Buddhism had such a powerful fascination that Emperor Wu of Liang, 502-549, A.D. neglected state affairs in order to devote himself to the pursuit of eternal happiness in Nirvana. The influence of Buddhism upon the Chinese people generally can be readily imagined. For hundreds of years Taoism, Buddhism and Confucianism form the trio of isms in China, with Confucianism leading in the bulk of its followers.

In the Tang Dynasty, 618-935 A.D. Taoism gained supremacy owing to the rather trivial reason that the surname of the Tang Dynasty was Li, the same as that of the founder of the Taoist philosophy. The temple of Lao Tsu was built almost in every town, and Lao Tsu was posthumously honored with the title "The Greatest Emperor of Metaphysics." According to authentic history, six emperors of the Tang Dynasty died as a result of taking poisonous medicines prepared according to Taoist prescriptions for prolonging life. Buddhism suffered a severe setback. Thousands of monks and nuns were ordered by the Imperial authorities to leave

the monasteries and convents and revert to secular life. In the year 845 A.D. approximately two hundred and sixty thousand monks and nuns were hounded out and millions of acres of land, which comprised the estates of monasteries and convents, were confiscated. However, the influence of Confucianism did not wane. The civil service examination, which started in the Han Dynasty and became an established institution in the Tang Dynasty, required a profound knowledge of Confucianism, thus Confucian doctrine and classics were the "open sesame" to the gate of officialdom.

B. Neo-Confucianism.—Taoism as a philosophy was convincing with its nihilistic outlook on life and its mystical reconciliation of contradictions too had an irresistible fascination for the mass of the people. After centuries of existence in the soil of China, both Taoism and Buddhism took deep root in the lives of the people socially and psychologically. Their wines were put into the Confucian bottle and resulted a new syncretistic philosophy which is called Neo-Confucianism.

C. Chu Hsi.—Thinkers of the Sung Dynasty (960-1127 A.D.) succeeded in working out a synthesis of Buddhism, Taoism and Confucianism. This eclectic and synthetic product flourished throughout not only the Sung era, but also the two dynasties which followed. Although this synthesis went on for ages and a number of scholars contributed each his mite the efforts of one very remarkable man—Chu Hsi—(1130-1200 A.D.)

were mainly responsible for it. Chu Hsi, like Confucius, was a transmitter rather than an originator. His main purpose was to elucidate the commentary on the Confucian classics by two brothers Cheng Hao (1032-1085 A.D.) and Cheng I (1033-1107 A.D.). Chu Hsi began his life as an official and attained high position. He revised the works of early Chinese thinkers and most of his time was occupied in the study of the *Analects*, of which elaborate interpretations were embodied in a series of books entitled "*The Collected Interpretation of the Analects*." He also distinguished himself as an historian and writer on metaphysics. He immersed his mind in forming a theory that the universe evolved from ether; the ether gradually coalescing formed a single nucleus, which, in time, separated into two, and whirled around each other. Hence, he discovered *Ying* and *Yang* or the male and female forces in nature, by the interaction of which the universe and all things in it were created.

But cosmogony has its ethical significance. Chu Hsi defined goodness as getting access to one's real heart. By real heart he meant the original state of conscience, equivalent to that state before the creation of the cosmos, which did not experience gaiety, anger grief or delight, but once a man began to pursue his own private ends, harassed by rage and desire, he ceased to be, in any proper sense, a man. Therefore, by getting the heart back to its original state, wherever he went, there would be goodness. That

this interpretation of goodness or high virtue was to a large extent influenced by Buddhist and Taoist doctrines is quite apparent. Chu Hsu was gradually recognized as the orthodox master, and during the Ming Dynasty (1403-1644 A.D.) he was canonized as a sage, "the greatest after Confucius."

VI. WANG YANG-MING

The influence of Chu Hsi began to fade when the great thinker of the latter part of the Ming Dynasty, Wang Yang-ming (1472-1528 A.D.) came to the fore. A versatile genius, Wang is equally distinguished as a statesman, a strategist, a man of letters and a philosopher. His is the most outspoken idealism within the Confucian fold. According to him, from the sage down to the ordinary man, one thing in common was inborn conscience. By "in-born" conscience, he meant the innate feeling and judgment of what was good or evil, right or wrong. By the cultivation of this inborn faculty, any man could be a sage. Evil was the result of not being dictated by this conscience, which alone could safeguard one in the right path.

By clearing the "inborn conscience" one can obtain true knowledge, Wang Yang-ming used the simile of "polishing the mirror". In a superior man knowledge and action must be synchronized. "Knowledge and action must not be separate. Knowledge is the mother of action, action is the effect of knowledge. A true knowledge must always be practicable. Knowledge without action is equal to ignorance, or the knowledge is imperfect. Therefore, the real worth of a true

knowledge lies in action, the essence of effective action is found in true knowledge. Before taking any action, investigation of things from different angles is indispensable in order that a complete knowledge may be obtained. When applying knowledge to action one has to ignore the consequences and remain unshaken."

Wang Yang-ming's doctrine not only gained a following in China but also spread abroad to Japan. That national consciousness which culminated in the Japanese Restoration Movement was confessedly fostered by Wang Yang-ming's dynamic philosophy.

In the Manchu or Ching dynasty (1644-1911 A.D.) intellectual effort was confined mainly to philology and textual criticism of the classics. Speculative philosophy was rather sneered at as an idle pastime unworthy of serious students.

VII. DR. SUN YAT-SEN

The introduction of western civilization to China during the latter half of the 19th century, together with the corruption and deterioration of the Manchu regime, gave rise to a more constructive and progressive philosophy, that of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the Father of the Republic.

A Knowledge Difficult, Action Easy.—The fundamental principle of his theory is found in the cardinal dictum that "knowledge is difficult, action is easy". This dictum can be verified in every field of human activity. Take driving a motor car, for instance. To use a car is easy, to understand how it works is not so simple. Owing

to the efficacy of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine in eliminating the old belief that action was difficult and knowledge easy, the psychological confidence and the morale of the revolutionists were created. Thus, the new dictum helped to pave the way for the national revolution in 1911.

B. The Central Force in History.—In contradistinction to Karl Marx's theory that history gravitates about material forces, which are the basis of human progress, and that if the material basis of life changes the world also changes, Dr. Sun Yat-sen held the conviction that livelihood, or struggle for living, is the central force in social progress, and that social progress is the central force in history; hence the struggle for living, not material forces, determines history.

While Marx considered class war the cause and social progress the effect, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, emphasized that society progressed through the adjustment of major economic interests, and by harmonizing various contrasting elements, rather than through the clash of interests. Here the Confucian Doctrine of the Golden Mean is manifested.

C. The Essence of Equality.—Since the latter part of the eighteenth century, the teaching of equality among human beings has been an inspiration of modern political and economic institutions. However, we have to admit that equality—that human beings are born to be equal—is an artificial and fallacious theory in so far as natural endowments of intelligence and ability are concerned. Dr. Sun, as a great thinker, would naturally mingle his doctrines with

the theory of equality, and he solved the dilemma by adhering to the old Chinese saying, "The skilful are always the slaves of the stupid." His philosophy of life is to serve and to benefit others. "Those with greater intelligence and ability," he said, "should serve thousands and tens of thousands to the limit of their power, and make thousands and tens of thousands happy; those with less intelligence and ability should serve tens and hundreds to the limit of their power and make tens and hundreds happy; those who do not have much intelligence nor ability should still to the limit of their individual power each serve one another and make one another happy. This is the essence of equality."

D. New Nationalism.—The greatness of Dr. Sun's political outlook is especially obvious in the new nationalism, as contrasted to the traditional narrow nationalism and imperialism. He said: "The road which the great Powers are travelling today points to the destruction of other States; if China, when she becomes strong, intends to crush other countries, imitates the Great Powers' imperialism and embarks on their road, she will ultimately fall into their blunder. Only by adhering to the Chinese proverb: 'Rescue the weak and lift the fallen,' will China be carrying out the divine obligation of her nation. Let us today, before China's development begins, pledge ourselves to undertake this great mission; then we will be able, as Confucius said, to govern the State and pacify the World."

E. Revival of Ancient Virtue and Wisdom.—In his *"Three Principles of the People,"* Dr. Sun urges the people to revive the ancient virtues, such as loyalty, filial devotion, benevolence and love, faithfulness and justice, harmony and peace, which were taught by Confucius. In the same work he praises Confucian political philosophy embodied in the Great Learning, which called upon man to develop outward from within, to begin with his inner nature and strive systematically with unceasing effort, until the world is at peace. "Such a deep, all embracing logic," he said, "is not found in or spoken by any foreign political philosophers. It is a nugget of wisdom peculiar to China's philosophy of government, and worthy to be preserved." From what has been quoted we can realize that Dr. Sun's philosophy is a happy marriage of the West and the East, the Old and the New.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Since the reign of Emperor Wu of Han Dynasty Confucianism has become the undisputed orthodoxy. Civil service examination served to perpetuate the influence and enhance the prestige of Confucianism for successful candidates had to have Confucian classics by rote. *The Four Books* and *Five Classics* used as text books by students until the beginning of the present

century helped to a great extent in forming the Chinese national characteristics, such as moderation, love-of-peace, reasonableness, humaneness, tenacity, and optimism, which have made China great and her history glorious. Although Confucian doctrine has been interpreted in different lights by different scholars, and Taoism and Buddhism had some influence on it, Confucianism has remained fundamentally unchanged. It may be safe to say that the greatness of Confucianism lies in the Doctrine of the Golden Mean. While Taoist philosophy of returning to nature and doing nothing and Buddhist teaching of the futility of life and withdrawing from the world, belong to the extremes, Confucian doctrines always adhere to the middle course. Therefore, Confucianism is a working philosophy of life which has courage to face the world, wisdom to understand it and patience to ameliorate it.

That Confucianism still commands the highest respect among the Chinese people can be seen from the decision of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang on May 31, 1934, that August 27, the birthday of Confucius, should be observed as a National Holiday, on which official delegates of the Government should participate in the sacrificial ceremonies at Chufu, the birth place of the Great Sage.

CHAPTER VII

CHINESE LITERATURE

C. S. CH'EN (錢鍾書)*

It is the boast of the Chinese that their literature has the longest uninterrupted tradition among all the literatures of the world. This unique historical continuity of which the patriotic Chinese are justly proud, must have filled conscientious students with despair and even annoyance. Like certain ladies, Chinese literature has too much past, too much altogether for the comfort of a historian exhausted in the effort to be exhaustive. A period of more than two thousand five hundred years is a big slice of eternity, and even when the teeth of time have done their worst, an enormous amount of good prose and poetry still remains and spreads joy in wide commonalty. Beginning at a time almost contemporaneous with the heyday of Greek literature, Chinese literature had wound without haste and without rest across the ages, unfolding new aspects, developing new forms and techniques, complacently self-sufficient though not inaccessible to occasional good things out of Nazareth or rather India, and ignoring the passing away of the Graeco-Roman antiquity as well as the rise of literatures of modern European languages until its smooth course was rudely checked by the New Chin-

ese Literature Movement in 1917. As a great German poet once said, "every literature ends by being bored with itself, if foreign curiosities do not arrive to refresh it." Since then, Chinese literature has looked outward to foreign literatures, English, French, German, Russian, Scandinavian and even Japanese, for model and inspiration rather than backward to its own classics. But the New Literature in spite of foreign debts contracted and foreign influences submitted, is at its best as home-made, as racy, as the Old Literature. *L'influence ne crée rien; elle éveille.*

One thing may be disposed of at the outset, the relation between Chinese written characters and Chinese literary style. The truculent "American" poet Ezra Pound has made laudable attempts to mitigate the curse of the Babel and included a knowledge of Chinese among his linguistic repertory. With a fanciful ingenuity which always distinguishes the clever *Scheingelehrter*, he harped on the "concreteness" of Chinese literature as a result of the "concreteness" of Chinese written characters. The Chinese, according to him, excelled in the art of casting images on the visual ima-

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gination, and attained the known maximum of phanopoeia, owing to the nature of their written ideograph which consists simply of abbreviated pictures.⁽¹⁾ Pound talks as if all images were visual. But auditory and olfactory images are no less concrete than visual ones, and no less numerous in Chinese poetry, though "abbreviated pictures" of them are in the nature of things impossible. He makes the further mistake of assuming that all Chinese written characters are pictorial ideograms with self-evident meanings which any one can understand *prima facie* without study. As a matter of fact, ideograph is only one of the six traditional ways of word-making in China, and most of the ideograms have either become so simplified in structure as to cease to represent objects at all, or been used to denote suprasensible entities precisely as the abstract terms in European languages are "fossil poetry" or faded concrete metaphors. He also seems naive enough to imply that the meaning of a word or character by itself remains unmodified when it forms part and parcel of a group, and that in reading Chinese, one needs only to see each individual "abbreviated picture" and add up one by one in order to arrive at the sense of a passage. But *ein Text ist gar nichts ohne den Kontext*. In our total consciousness of a passage, the meaning of each individual word loses its sharpness of contour to fit into a prescribed pattern of associations. Pound is construing Chinese rather than

reading it, and, as far as Chinese literature is concerned, his *A. B. C. of Reading* betrays him as an elementary reader of mere A.B.C.

So the Chinese poets are not so many Théophile Gautiers or Charles Demaillys for whom only the visible world exists. But Pound's fantastic view, like a lucky shot in the dark, does hit something which students of Chinese literature are apt to overlook. The Old writers, especially the poets, have a keen sense of form which extends to the very shapes of words. And Chinese words, because of their visual aesthetic character, can arouse feelings which have little to do with their meanings. Out of the different forms of the same word, a writer would choose the one most suited to the atmosphere or effect he wants to achieve. For example, the term *ts'ao ts'ui*, meaning "pale and wan", can be written in two forms: 憔悴 and 蕉萃. If, in writing a verse couplet or a prose parallelism, the author employs some concrete adjective in the first line, he would prefer the latter form at the corresponding position in the second line to balance it, because 蕉萃 with the abbreviated picture of grass 艸 as its component looks more concrete than 憔悴. In a poem, characters with the same *p'ien p'ang* 偏旁 or component sign should be used sparingly to avoid visual monotony, except in a cumulative description like Mu Hua's celebrated prose-poem on the sea 木華海賦 which seems almost hydropoetical with words containing the

(1) See *A. B. C. of Reading*, p. 7; *How to Read*, p. 28. Both books were before the War cherished by the not-very-intelligent in China, and, I think, Japan.

p'ien p'ang of water (シ). This subtle consciousness of the formal aspect of words can of course also be discovered in the West. Novalis, in discussing human physiognomy, says: "Die uebrigen Gesichtsgedaerden, oder Mienen, sind nur die Konsonanten zu den Augenvokalen." (2) Accordig to Charles Monselet, Victor Hugo "éstime que l'écriture a sa physionomie et veut voir les mots." (3) Gautier also insists on "un rythme oculaire" in writing. (4) Francois Coppée objects to simplified spelling because "les mots sont d'autant plus beaux qu'ils sont plus remplis d'ornements." (5) But the sense of the physiognomy of words is phenomenally developed among the Old Chinese writers. And no wonder. China alone has raised calligraphy into as fine an art as painting, and as early as the first century, a Chinese stylist laid down the law *shu sin hua yeh*, (書心畫也) (6) i.e., *scripta imago animi*.

At the risk of binding the leviathan with a ribbon, we shall in the limited space at our disposal attempt to define the characteristics of various Chinese literary kinds.

I. POETRY

There is no epic in Chinese literature. Nicolas de Malezieu would certainly say that the Chinese, like the French, have no *tête épique*. The Chinese drama, is, as we shall see, more lyrical than dramatic. Chinese poetry is, therefore, if not *toute la lyre*, preponderantly lyrical. Pure lyricism or

lyricité, the quintessence and summit of poetic consciousness, appears very early in Chinese literature. The same precocity can be discerned in other branches of Chinese civilization which indeed seems to grow on the sunny side of the wall. Chinese pictorial art has reached the stage of pure painting such as developed by Impressionism and Post-Impressionism in the West long before it perfects the technique of creating realistic illusion. Chinese philosophy boasts of a supple dialectic method while Chinese logic remains elementary.

Chinese poems would have met even Edgar Allan Poe's exigent standard of brevity as the soul of a lyric. The Chinese have a Long Wall, but short poems. Compared with the great architectonic poems of the West, the long Chinese verse, narratives seem but short swallow-flights of song. A Chinese poem is structurally much more compact and close-knit than a Western poem and has no breathing spaces in the form of sharp-cut stanzaic divisions. The arrangement of words follows almost rigid tonal patterns. One word should not be used twice as a rhyme in the same poem, and sometimes should not even appear twice in it. All these restrictions naturally hamper large movements and long flights, and often make a Chinese verse form as scanty a plot of ground as the sonnet, fit only for the ancient Chinese belles' notorious *bluehenden Lilienfuesse* to walk in. Moreover, the Chinese used

(2) See *Fragmente*, 1165.

(3) Cited in Leopold Mabilleau: *Victor Hugo*.

(4) See *Journal des Goncourts*, 3 mars, 1862.

(5) Quoted in Remy de Gourmont: *Le Problème du style*, p. 281.

(6) 楊雄法言問神篇.

to think minute details and elaborate descriptions, i.e., amplification in the Longinian sense, prosaic. When the T'ang poet Yuan Chen (元稹) praised the great Tu Fu's (杜甫) poetry for the skill of amassing facts and making a pageant of them (鋪張排比), he was severely taken to task for mistaking the pinchbeck in Tu Fu for his refined gold (少陵自有連城璧爭奈微之識瑱珉).

(7) Po Chü-i (白居易), whose circumstantial realism and autobiographic expansiveness have made him popular among *Bildungsphilisters*, was not considered a poet of the highest order of merit. There was a legend that he used an illiterate old woman as a sort of foolometer, and made his verses according to her level of understanding. The same story has been told of Molière and Swift. Unfortunately, Po Chü-i's poems often seem to have been written, not for an old woman, but by an old woman, garrulous, trivial, sentimental, with loose texture and obvious morals. But one man's *bête noire* may very well be another's black swan. Western translators have recently made a fetish of him because, one suspects, he is easy to read and translate and therefore keeps them in conceit with themselves. *Caelum non animus mutant*, poor progeny of the old woman!

In probably the earliest reference to Chinese poetry by a European critic, the Chinese poets are correctly characterized as "not to delight so much as we do in long

tedious descriptions." (8) Generally speaking, the Chinese poets, carvers of two-inch ivory bits and cherry-stones beside the Western wielders of big brush and cutters of rough rock, have the knack of making the infinitesimal a window on the infinite. A short poem should open long vistas and awaken long reverberations in the soul. "The words stop," as one Chinese poet said, "but the sense goes on to infinity" (言有盡而意無窮). "A poem should," said another poet, "describe elusive scenes in such a way that they seem present to the eye, and contain inexhaustible meanings so that they seem at once within and beyond the worlds" (狀難寫之景如在目前含不盡之意見於言外). This simultaneous concealment and revelation constitutes the magic of suggestiveness which all Western readers have noticed in Chinese poetry. The most finished form can yet evoke something vague and hint at something indefinable. We might call the art one of eloquent or pregnant silence. What is said matters much less than what is left unsaid and only adumbrates what cannot be said. It springs from the same root as the subtle flair of leaving spaces beautifully empty in Chinese painting and Chinese gardening. Sometimes the poet leads the reader to the brink of silence—

"There is true meaning in these scenes,

But I forget the words to express it."

(此中有真意欲辨已忘言)

(7) 元好問論詩絕句。

(8) George Puttenham: *The Arte of Englishe Poesie* (1589), ed. by G. D. Willcock and A. Walker, p. 91. The passage was quoted by Sir John Hawkins in his *History of Music*, Vol. III, p. 416, and Robert Southey in his *Commonplace Book*, Vol. I, p. 286.

Sometimes he leaves the reader in a teasing uncertainty—

"One sees the tear-stains on her cheeks

But knows not for whom the tears are shed."

(但見淚痕濕不知心恨誰)

The *ubi sunt* formula which has found its way into the poetry of all European languages, (9) was also a favorite with the Chinese poets because of its haunting inconclusiveness:

"The river outside flows on desolately,

But where is the prince who used to be in this room?"

(閣中希子今何在檻外長江空自流)

"The moonlit scene is like that of the last year,

But where is the man who looked on it with me?"

(同來玩月人何在風景依稀似去年)

Duke Orsino in *The Twelfth Night* says—

"Enough; no more: 'Tis not so sweet as before,"

But the Chinese poets prefer to ask *a la Villon*:

"*Mais ou sont les neiges d'antan?*"

A poignant exclamation is subdued into a quiet interrogation, and the rest is silence charged with pathos too deep for tears. The art of talking intimately in half-tones and demi-mots is perfected in that intricate verse pattern called *tzu* (詞), which, with its lines of unequal length, enjambements, and *tours, détours et retours* of phrasing, presents a sinuous form beautifully adapted to the *chiaroscuro* insinuation of shy feelings and twilight moods.

There is an old definition of

poetry as the art of restraining one's emotions (詩者持也). Sobriety and concision, lightness of touch and quietness of tone should have won for old Chinese poetry the epithet of "classical". Yet its magic of evocation and technique of making speech and silence hand in glove with each other, have suggested to many a discerning Western critic the symbolist poetry of Verlaine. (10) Thus one ought to be wary and chary of subsuming Chinese poets under Western critical categories. The cap rarely fits. For example, *Li Sao* (離騷) contains some of the most magnificent pieces of escapist literature in the Chinese language. Chü Yüan (屈原) sought to leave his gnawing sorrows behind by wandering afar only to discover, as all persons in the same predicament have discovered—

Post equitem sedet atra cura.

It is a typically romantic mood, but there is nothing about him of that febrile restlessness and self-conscious deliberation which make *Wanderlust* a malady in many Western romantics, and a vocation in others. The difference is simply one of emphasis; but a little more, and how much it is! Again, Tao Ch'ien's (陶潛) return to nature is totally free from any trace of didacticism and misty religiosity so common in Western nature poets. He enjoyed nature without fuss, and sang of it without fustian. His hermitage is rather the Horatian *fallentis semita vitae*, and his rural lyricism is very urbane, if not urban.

(9) See E. Gilson: *Les Idées et les lettres*, pp. 31-38.

(10) E.g. Lytton Strachey in *Characters and Commentaries*, and Desmond MacCarthy in *Experience*.

Li Po (李白) who is in verse what Chuang-tz (莊子) is in philosophical prose (11), is an aeromantic rather than a romantic; the old Chinese soubriquet "poet-fairy" (詩仙) suits his airy-fairy personality better. The Chinese poets are more "naive", less "sentimental" or sicklied over with metaphysical reflection than their Western confrères. In dealing with such poets of light specific gravity, *glissez et n'appuyez pas* should be the motto of the critic.

The old Chinese punctuation signs merely denote pauses for the reader and do not express the meaning of the writer. It is slightly Shakespearean. In many modern editions of old Chinese poets, Western punctuation has been adopted. But the studious avoidance of finality and the skilful exploitation of ambiguity (12) so characteristic of Chinese poetry, make the Western art of pointing sometimes break down. A psychological state of ambivalence is compelled to assume an appearance of false simplicity. The clearness punctuation brings is often a mean clearness, and the precision, a *rigor mortis*. It gives undue decision to the buzzing blooming confusion and robs the reader of his luxury of imagination. Even in the West, writers protest against the inadequacy and chafe under the rigor of punctuation. Alcanter de Brahm wanted to supplement the ordinary stock

of points with "the point of irony", and James Joyce tried to do without punctuation in his conscious-stream passages. In punctuating a line of Chinese poetry, one occasionally feels that only a combination of dash, interrogation and exclamation marks would be adequate to its complex of feeling values.

II. THE DRAMA

The drama is the crudest of all Chinese literary kinds. The practice of talented playwrights of three dynasties, the Mongol, the Ming and the Manchu, had not succeeded in discovering the technical secret of purity of form, singleness of purpose, and unity of interest. It remained a glorious muddle. There are many passages of poetic splendour and psychological clairvoyance, there are many very dramatic scenes, but there are few well-made plays. The plots as bare plots are neither better nor worse than those of Western plays, and indeed they may be all arranged under the famous thirty six headings.(13) But the exposition is rarely free from arbitrariness and haphazardness. There is also something unreal about the characters who often seem figures walking off from Charles Lamb's set of old china onto the "red carpet" (紅氍毹) or stage. The dramatic movement is clogged and the issue confused by episodes and "reliefs". The tragedians all showed a constitutional inability to stop at the

(11) Ste, e.g., 劉壎隱居通議卷六.

(12) See 李光地榕村語錄卷三十五應奎柳南隱筆卷五 for examples of "holding two meanings in solution" (盛涵兩意) in the T'ang poets.

(13) Georges Polti in *Les trente-six situations dramatiques* gave three Chinese examples: Kouan-han-king: *Le ressentiment de Te-oun-go* (situation III, B3); Tehang-koué-ping: *La tunique confrontée* (situation III, A1); Anonymous: *La chaneuse* (Situation III, A1).

psychological moment and leave well enough alone. "Superfluous lags the *play* on the stage" until poetic justice is rendered and everything is again for the best in this truly best of all possible worlds. Though the comedies are better constructed, the violation of logic and probability is still too frequent. The long arm of coincidence is stretched to the point of dislocation, and the shabby device of *deus ex machina* is shamelessly exploited. There is little or none of *comique de caractère*, plenty of *comique de situation* and most of all *comique de mots*. This verbal wit is largely ribald, what Freud calls *Tendenzwitz*, bent upon exposing the inherently grotesqueness and ridiculousness of sexual behavior.(14) It is rarely *mot de situation* or *mot de caractère* and often put into the mouths of the characters with a total disregard of dramatic as well as moral propriety.(15) At its worst it becomes word-catching pure and simple, the sort of thing in English which Leigh Hunt parodied in his essay *Wit made Easy*.(16)

The Chinese valued the beauty of poetry in a play above everything else. A master of stagecraft like Li Yü (李漁) was under-

rated because he was an indifferent versifier. That the Chinese with their love of finished form, should have produced plays which are sprawling invertebrate masses of dialogue and action, is a literary mystery. The late Wang Kuo-wei (王國維) boldly asserted that some of the dramas written in the Mongol dynasty are worthy of the company of the greatest tragedies of the world.(17) But Wang Kuo-wei, with all his Chinese scholarship and assiduous study of Schopenhauerian aesthetics, is a poor critic. Richard Hurd who elaborately proved the Chinese play *The Orphan of the House of Chao* as showing "an identity of composition" with the great Greek tragedies, was wise enough to say that it falls short of the excellence of Sophocles's *Electra*, (18) and eventually recanted his youthful enthusiasm for it.(19) The plays praised by Wang Kuo-wei all contain beautiful poetry but they are not tragic except in the journalistic sense of the epithet. Pei Jen-fu's lyrical drama *Rain in the Trees* (白仁甫梧桐雨), like *Antony and Cleopatra* and *All for Love*, deals with the theme of a kingdom lost for love. The emperor's mistress dies in the third act, leaving a whole act to her

(14) Cf. Hans Licht: *Beitrag zur antiken Erotik*, S. 16 ff.

(15) For examples: 湯顯祖邯鄲記第四折 (the lady's whispered questioning of her nurse); 第二十四折 (the dialogue between the hero and his wife at a banquet); 李日華南西廂第二十四折 (the dialogue between the heroine and the maid at the end of the scene); 高濂玉簪記第十八折 (the heroine's soliloquy and poem). The characters jest and talk with an indecency all the more shocking because they are polite gentlemen and demure ladies.

(16) For examples: 梁辰魚浣紗記第二十四折 (the dialogue between the maids and the eunuch); 梅鼎祚玉合記第四折 (the dialogue between the maids and the eunuch).

(17) 宋元戲曲史第十二章

(18) Q. Horatii Flacci *Epistola ad Augustum with an English Commentary and Notes*, 1751 ed. pp. 162-167.

(19) See Thomas Percy: *Miscellaneous Pieces relating to the Chinese*, Vol. I, p. 217.

imperial lover to pine and whine and eat away in impotent grief the remains of his broken heart. The emperor is a weak, feckless and selfish sensualist who drifts along the line of least resistance. He loses the world for loving his mistress and then gives up his mistress in the vain attempt to regain the world. He has neither character enough to be torn between two worlds nor sense enough to make the best of both worlds. Far from being of the stern stuff of which tragic heroes are made, he can at best only be a pathetic figure.(20) The other two plays, Kuan Hanch'ing's *A Girl's Martyrdom* (關漢卿竇娥怨) and Chi Chün-hsiang's *The Orphan of the House of Chao* (紀君祥趙氏孤兒), end with ample poetic justice and almost universal jubilee. The heroine in *A Girl's Martyrdom* is a virtuous widow who refused to marry the villain of the play after the death of her consumptive husband. The Chinese code of morality inexorably demanded women to be *univirae*, and the heroine became a willing martyr to this ethical ideal. Indeed she might be used to dispel the bad reputation of Chinese womanhood in eighteenth-century Europe incurred through that notorious Chinese matron who, like the Ephesian matron and Hamlet's mother, seems to have considered brevity the soul of widowhood(21). Her character as presented by the playwright is so noble and flawless, the wrong done to her so

outrageous, and her execution such a crying injustice that the readjustment of the reader's and spectator's emotional balance in the last act is perfectly justified. The playwright's sympathy is with her, the moral judgment is with her, and even the Fate of Divinity is with her—witness the drought and snow as a result of her imprecation to the Heaven. Why then—in the name of all jealous gods and wanton boys who kill for sport—not a little poetic justice to soothe our exacerbated feelings? The tragic conflict is purely external. The widow's mind is all of a piece: she embraced the conventional code of conjugal morality wholeheartedly and opposed the physically as well as spiritually detestable villain with an undivided soul. In the *Orphan of the House of Chao* which contains a pretty big "butcher's bill", the tragic conflict is more *innerlich*. But the competing forces, paternal love and feudal loyalty, are not of equal strength, so that the issue of the conflict is almost a foregone conclusion. Chinese ethical values were arranged in a hierarchy. The antagonism between two incompatible moral claims loses much of its sharpness, because the conflict becomes simply an act of insubordination of one's lower half to one's higher self and is to be checked as quickly as possible. "To sigh as a lover, but to obey as a son," seems to have been the Chinese ideal of a well-integrated personality, a personality linear or serial, but not complex or

(20) See Th. Lipps: *Aesthetik*, Bd. I. S. 599 for the distinction between tragedy and pathos.

(21) See J.B. du Halde: *Description de la Chine*, Eng. tr. printed by Edward Cave, Vol. II, pp. 167 ff., Voltaire: *Zadig*, Ch. ii; Goldsmith: *Citizen of the World*, letter xviii; Percy: *The Matrons*, pp. 19 ff.

manifold. Such materials are unpromising for the purpose of tragedy.

The absence of tragedy in Chinese literature has been variously explained.⁽²²⁾ After the Mongol dynasty, even attempts at tragedy became rare. The Ming and Manchu dynasties were ages of comedies. A European historian has pointed out that the expression of the "peaceful mixed-feelings" (*ruhigen Mischgefuehle*) like the tragic and the sublime is more frequent in the ancient times, while that of the "prickling mixed-feelings" (*prickelnden Mischgefuehle*) like the cynical, the lascivious and the sarcastic is more frequent in the modern times.⁽²³⁾ The history of the Chinese drama seems to confirm this observation.

III. FICTION

Chinese short stories can be divided into two kinds.⁽²⁴⁾ There is the plain unvarnished report of a marvelous event or a witty remark or a good deed, like the *faits divers* in a modern newspaper. It is indeed often news in the sense of the famous definition that a man biting a dog is news. It records such things as a woman giving birth to a monster, a dog warning its master of some approaching evil, an old fox transformed into an incubus or succubus—the foxes, like Milton's spirits, "can either sex assume, or both"—all with a literal matter-

of-factness which constitutes not the least part of its charm. The other kind is more artistic and imaginative, a well plotted story in a well-written style. This genre, fully developed in the Tang dynasty, is known as *ch'uan chi* (傳奇) literally, "history of a wonderful event", though its theme is frequently romantic love treated with great psychological acumen. The dialogues are often very vivid and show an endeavour on the writers' part to capture the accent of vivacious colloquial speech and preserve it in a literate bookish language.⁽²⁵⁾ Many dramatists of the Mongol, Ming and Manchu dynasties derived the plots of their plays from these stories, just as the Elizabethan dramatists drew upon *Decameron* and the *Palace of Pleasure*. By a curious coincidence, precisely as the Elizabethans sometimes called their plays "histories" (e.g. *The Tragical History of Romeus and Juliet*, *The Famous History of the Life of King Henry the Eighth*), the Chinese dramatists called theirs *ch'uan chi*. Some of the stories were embroidered upon, tinkered up, and expanded into novelettes in such famous collections as the one from which the eighteenth-century Jesuit missionary D'Entrecolles translated *The Chinese Widow*.⁽²⁶⁾

Hau Kiou Chooan or the Pleasing History, the first Chinese long novel translated into a European

(22) E.g. Irving Babbitt in the note on "Chinese primitivism" in *Rousseau and Romanticism*.

(23) See R. Baerwald: *Psychologische Faktoren des modernen Zeitgeistes*, S. 39 ff.

(24) 紀時姑妄聽之盛時產駿

(25) E.g. 太平廣記卷四百八十一霍小玉傳 (the talk of the procuress Pao).

(26) 警世通言卷二莊子休鼓盆成大道

language, is by no means a fair "specimen" of the way "a Chinese author conducts himself through the windings of a long narration." (27) The Chinese novel which so delighted Goethe and made him hope grandiosely for the advent of the age of *Weltliteratur*, (28) is even worse. It is curious that in literary export, even as in emigration, the worthless always lead the way. One recalls in this connection that the first English poem translated into Chinese is Longfellow's *Psalm of Life*. (29)

A few points may be raised with regard to the Chinese novel in general.

Chinese novels have as a rule large canvasses and contain dozens of well-delineated characters, not to mention dummies and lay figures. The reason is not far to seek. Most Chinese novels are picaresque. Even the famous *Red Chamber Dream* is a "chronicle" and not a "dramatic novel". Hence the leisureliness of pace, the multitude of characters, and the variety of incidents in these "large, still books".

The historical element predominates in Chinese fiction. The rise or fall of almost every dynasty has been the theme of a novel. No Chinese hero need lament like the strong men before Agamemnon that *caret vate sacro*. The household work *Romance of Three Kingdoms* (三國演義) is indeed so veracious as to be a triumphant proof that historical fiction need not be very unhistorical and fictitious in order to be highly entertaining. One might reverse the

hackneyed formula of Western novelists and inscribe on its flyleaf: "None of the characters in this story is imaginary." Sometimes history is enlivened with mystery as in the popular romance *Apotheosis of Heroes* (封神榜). Even in the novels that are not historical, the authors love to place the scenes and imaginary characters in some past age. They rarely ostensibly deal with what is contemporary to them. Aestheticians who study the problem of psychical distance, will have a good deal to say about this.

Love interest is not the *sine qua non* of a Chinese novel. The historical novels are almost entirely devoid of it. Love figures in them only in the light of *damnosa Venus* as the surest cause of the ruin of a personal career or the downfall of a royal house. The Chinese novelists take a Cornéillian attitude towards love as a literary ingredient. The heroes are never "herotic", and the way of a man with a maid has no place in "he-mannerism." For example, the wonderfully well-told love episodes in *All Men are Brothers* (水滸) are calculated to bring out all the sordidness in clandestine love-making and show how womanizing is utterly unworthy of a real hero and he-man. The attempt to present a hero who is the epitome of all possible virtues including sexual athleticism and a chaste, strictly nuptial though polygamous love in the absurd *Old Fogys' Tale* (野叟曝言) shows the wisdom of Voltaire's remark that love

(27) Percy-Wilkinson: *Hau Kiou Chooan* (1761), Vol. I, p. ix.

(28) J.-P. Eckermann: *Gespraeche mit Goethe*, 31 Januar 1827.

(29) 方濂師集軒臨錄卷十二.

must reign as a tyrant or not appear at all. There are of course Chinese novels in which love reigns as a tyrant. The courtship is often illicit, but the marriage is sure to be legally solemnized after many mishaps and difficulties. The lovers, especially the men, are pale-faced, sickly milk-sops, because extreme delicacy of health was supposed to be the earmark of good breeding, culture and even genius. If such timid weaklings deserve the fair, no wonder the brave in Chinese fiction find sexual love a bore and a shame. An outstanding exception from the milk-and-water romances is the *Red Chamber Dream*, a poignant love-story and a panorama of Chinese high-life, though its principal male character is also an effeminate molly-coddle. It is almost a realization of Baudelaire's plan of a *musée de l'amour ou tout aurait sa place*. One finds in it every variety of love, fulfilled or sublimated, homosexual as well as heterosexual, of the heart, of the body, and of the brain, as sensuality, as sympathy, as vanity and as passion. The writer or writers have with the subtlest insight and deftest touch made convincing a case of almost complete dissociation between sexual relation and what American movies would call "superlove." The principal male character is at once a promiscuous lecher and an almost virginally passionate lover of the consumptive girl who, as he has to admit to himself after odious mental

comparisons, is rather wanting in "glamour." (30)

There is no novel of pure humour in Chinese, but a good deal of social satire. The satire is almost exclusively directed against the corruption and snobbery of officialdom and literati. For thousands of years, literati chosen after elaborate competitive examinations formed the ruling class in China. Robert Burton in the seventeenth century and Thomas Carlyle in the nineteenth both spoke wistfully of this system as worthy of adoption by England (31). If they could have read, e.g., *The Unofficial History of the Literary World* (whose subtitle might very well be *A Book of Nobs and Snobs*) (儒林外史), their views on the Chinese literati would certainly have been less rose-colored. These hand-picked gentlemen of China have one aim, viz., to mount higher on the official ladder, and keep one commandment, viz., the eleventh. But the Chinese satirists glide off the surface and never probe into the essential rottenness of human nature. They accept the traditional values, social and moral, believe in the innate goodness of man, and poke gentle fun at what they regard as unfortunate backsliding from probity and decorum. They lack that clear-sighted and dry-eyed misanthropy which understands that "the best of men are but men at the best". Just as the Chinese dramatists have no sense of "tragic justice", so the Chinese satirists also lack that terrible *saeva indignatio* which like fire

(30) E.g. 紅樓夢二十八回 (His thoughts on seeing the plump white arms of the girl's rival).

(31) See *Anatomy of Melancholy*, "Democritus Junior to the Reader." and "Remedies against Discontents"; *Heroes and Hero-worship*, Lecture V.

can purify the filth it touches. They remain only witty and shrewd observers.

The supernatural element in Chinese fiction is never weird or mysterious. It appears only as a part of the natural. In Chinese theology, there is no hard and fast line of demarcation between gods and men. Men are the dough of gods, and *vice versa*. A good man may become a god after death, and a god may through natural physiologic processes (without even the facesaving convention of "immaculate conception") become a man for some special reason. Schiller's lines on the Homeric world, *da die Goetter menschlicher noch waren, waren Menschen goettlicher*, might be applied to the supernatural-natural world in Chinese fiction and drama. One finds this world in the other, and the other world in this. Almost all Chinese novels of real life contain episodes of supernatural intervention. Meanwhile, realism and satire keep obtruding into pure fantasies like the delightful *Journey to the West* (西游記)

Chinese fiction is impersonal in art. It possesses to an eminent degree the mediaeval characteristic of anonymity. In the *ch'uan chi* of the T'ang dynasty, one occasionally finds accounts of adventures, amorous or otherwise, told in *propria persona*.⁽³²⁾ But in the long novels, *Ichroman* or autobiographical fiction is almost nonexistent. In the rare cases of *authobiographie romancée* (which is not to be confused with *Ichroman*), the author's ego under the

conventional disguise of the third person is treated with such cold detachment and aesthetic distance as to constitute a veritable feat of jumping out of one's own skin—witness the *Red Chamber Dream*.

IV THE ESSAY

The conception of the Chinese as a scholarly, contemplative people, turning idleness into an art and extracting and savoring the very essence of life, was popularized in the West by *Letters from John Chinaman*. Bertrand Russell, finding it a good stick to beat the Western hustlers and go-getters with, made great play with it in his *Sceptical Essays*. The Chinese ideal is to live on a small scale and at a slow pace in order to live fully and deeply. It is a life *étroite et forte* rather than *étendue et faible*. The Western craving for a great variety and wide range of experiences denotes a greedy gluttony and not a delicate taste for life. A connoisseur of life needs leisure which allows him to stand and stare, to chew and absorb. This hedonist idleness is entirely different from the mystical inactivity of the Indian philosophers on the one hand, and the "fecund idleness" sung by the European romantic poets on the other. One has only to compare the eloquent vindication of indolence in Giordano Bruno's *Spaccio della Bestia Trionfante* or the vociferous *Idylle ueber Muessigang* in Fr. Schlegel's *Lucinde* with such a line from a Chinese poet,

(32) e.g. 張鷟游仙窟牛僧孺周秦行紀.

"Illness isn't bad, leading to idleness",

(因病得閑殊不惡)

to see with what ease the Chinese take their ease. The difference is again not so much of purpose as of emphasis. The Chinese can afford to be indolent without defiance or apology.

The best literary expression of the hedonism of idleness is the kind of essay which, after long cultivation in the T'ang and Sung dynasties, came to perfection in the M'ing dynasty. "A rose in a moonlit garden, the shadows of trees on the turf . . . the moment that glides forever away with its freight of music and light, into the shadow and mist of the haunted past . . . to all these things we are trained to respond, and the response is what is called Literature." So wrote John Chinaman, and he might very well limit literature with capital "L" to the essay. It is destined to be the chosen form of the minor writers. Pose, aesthetic trivialism, a lurking fear of the grim realities in life, and an excessive preoccupation with *baga'elles et bibelots* are the bane of the Chinese essay. A few years before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, the M'ing essayists had a boom with editions and imitations galore. It is significant that the most ardent populariser of the M'ing essayists is also a professed admirer of George Gissing's *Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft*. Any comment on this is superfluous.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The New Chinese Literature Movement was only the coming to a head of things. The Chinese literary history of the last thirty

years seems a foreshortening rehearsal of the history of the literary movements in Europe of the last two centuries on the biological principle that ontogeny repeats phylogeny. Who would say again that "fifty years of Europe" is better than "a cycle of Cathay"? Literary Schools and sects with Western names and programs, classic, romantic, realistic, naturalistic, symbolist, even dadaist and expressionist, sprang like mushrooms on Chinese soil. A joint stock company of writers industriously transplanted humour, the name as well as the thing, and the low fun of the *Punch* was taken with high seriousness. As the Germans have their acclimatised *Humor*, the French, *humour*, and the Italians, *umorismo*, the Chinese, thanks to those jestsmiths, now have their *you mo* (幽默). The leftist writers and *poputchiki* write about the "masses" in the now almost genteel tradition of brutal realism. Chinese literature, aroused from its customary slow motion, seems to catch up and match the younger literatures of the West. At any rate, the Chinese would no longer say as their spokesman once said in Theodore Fontane's charming ballad: "*Aber wir lassen es andere machen.*"

This acceleration of the pace of Chinese literary history shows one thing. The old literature is not dead, nor is the new literature powerless to be born. True, it is "fecund in abortions". But the best is yet to be, of course. After all, what is thirty years? In the history of a people burdened with so much dust of the ages, it is a mere speck. The influence of Western literatures is all to the

good, but it has produced different effects upon different genres. While liberating Chinese poetry from 'the shackles of rigorous formalism, it imposes restraint upon the Chinese drama and novel. No self-respecting playwright or novelist will now write those loose, shapeless works which fling artistic unity and probability to the winds. Modern Chinese plays and novels may be often heavy and dull and fail to combine gravity of matter with gaiety of manner, but they are certainly better constructed than the rank and file of old plays and novels.

The excruciating experience of the greatest war in Chinese history left indelible scars on the soul of those who have survived it almost by a miracle. Will the

literary aftermath of this war be more or less similar in character to that in Europe and America after the War of 1914-1918? No one can tell. A seventeenth-century English poet said: "A war-like, tragical age is the best to write of, but worst to write in." An eighteenth-century Chinese poet said: "The misfortune of the country is the fortune of its poets. When one writes of national calamities, one inevitably writes well" (國家不幸詩家幸賦到滄桑句便工). A historian of literature is a Leibnizian optimist like Pangloss. He believes that, whatever may be the tendency of the post-war literature, whether saying "yea" to life or saying "nay", Chinese literature will be enriched and its panorama enlivened.

LANGUAGE

LI FANG-KUEI (李方桂)¹

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 North-eastern 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 asyllabic, 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

¹Member of the Academia Sinica.

²The written language remains the same throughout China.

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 rhymes 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 rhyme 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

the final -p, -t, -k, and the simplification of rhymes. The modern Peiping dialect which has been adopted as the National Language (Kuo-yu) has only about 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 North-eastern 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" (入聲). There are as a rule only four tones: ying-ping (陰平), yang-ping, (陽平), shang (上), and Chü (去). Further division into sub-groups is possible, but these will suffice.

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 has therefore five tones.

3. The *Southwestern Mandarin* group is a fairly uniform type of

speech spoken in Szechuen, Yun-nan, Kweichow, and in 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. Further division into sub-groups is also possible.

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 Kwangsi. 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 pronounced 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 the 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 a distinct tone class. It often presents 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 north-eastern 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 included here. Of these various groups some are mutually intelligible, while some are quite unintelligible to one another.

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, 'y, 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 found 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, Pent, 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 groups 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*-, cor-

responding 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 subdivisions: (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. Its word order resembles that of 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 relations to 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 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. Among the eastern dialects, the Khams 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 Chu-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 scholars the Annamite belong, we may only mention the Mon-Khmer group of which there are specimens 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 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 asyllabic, such as p-, pan-, hr- kar-; for example: yam "to die," p-yam "to kill," pan-p-yam "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.

III. ALTAI FAMILY

All along the northern territory of China from Sinkiang through Mongolia to the Northeastern Provinces may be found traces of this family. 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*, *o*, or back vowels such as *ı*, *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 neighborhood of front vowels and velars in the neighborhood of back vowels.

Its word order is subject-object-verb, the verb always staying at the end of the sentence. Modify-

ing 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 indifferent *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 Mohammedanism.

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; 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 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 Tungs 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 available data. 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 province 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, who are the descendants of earlier Manchu garrisons.

PART II

PARTY AND POLITICS

CHAPTER VIII

DR. SUN YAT-SEN'S POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY

SUN FO (孫科)*

I

In recent years, many excellent books dealing with the science or the philosophy of politics have made their appearance in England and America, and yet, strange to relate, few of them mention even the name of Dr. Sun Yat-sen. To take an instance only, in Professor George Catlin's *Story of the Political Philosophers*, the views of Lenin, Stalin, Harold Laski, John Strachey, and some others are all discussed at some length, but in it one looks in vain for any reference to Dr. Sun or the *San-Min-Chu-I*. Of the Chinese thinkers, only Confucius, Lao-tze, Mencius, Yang Chu and Mo Ti are taken notice of in the book. It would seem that the author is of the same mind as the European collector of ancient Chinese bronzes, who is never tired of repeating to all those who are prepared to admire his Ch'ou tripods and sacrificial vessels that "nothing good has come out of China since the Period of the Contending States!" (483-221 B.C.) Perhaps Professor Catlin is not to blame for this oversight since Western scholars

are not supposed to familiarize themselves with what is written in the living Chinese language as they are with the long dead Greek and Latin.

True, there are also scholars in the West who recognize only too well the greatness of Dr. Sun both as a man and as thinker; but taken all in all, their number, I must say, is regrettably small.† Among them, Retrand Russell is the most outstanding. In *The Scientific Outlook* published in 1931, he has written: "The important men in the age that is just ended are Edison, Rockefeller, Lenin and Sun Yat-sen. With the exception of Sun Yat-sen, these were men devoid of culture, contemptuous of the past, self-confident, and ruthless. Traditional wisdom has no place in their thoughts and feelings; mechanism and organization are what interested them."

Whether or not Russell is quite fair in his judgment about Edison, Rockefeller and Lenin is a point which we needn't here enter into, but no one can gainsay that he is right in implying that Dr. Sun is thoroughly imbued

* President of the Legislative Yuan.

† So far as the writer is able to learn there is only one book written by a Western scholar on the subject of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's political teachings, and that is the study by Dr. Paul Myron Anthony Linebarger on *The Political Doctrines of Sun Yat-sen*, published by Johns Hopkin's University Press, Baltimore, 1937.

with the traditions of his race. No one can read Dr. Sun's writings without being impressed by his thorough knowledge of the ancient Chinese classics. Dr. Sun himself has more than once openly acknowledged his debt to the past, especially to Confucianism. One of his favorite books is *Ta Hsueh* or *The Great Learning*, about which he has said that it is "a specimen of political philosophy so systematic and so clear that nothing has been discovered or spoken by Western statesmen and political thinkers to equal it." *The Great Learning* may in fact be considered one of the cornerstones of Dr. Sun's political philosophy though I would not go so far as to say that it is on this alone that his whole system rests. Dr. Sun finds his inspiration from many sources; past and present, Chinese and Western. He is not parochial in space or in time. Above all, he is gifted with a very keen historical sense which involves the ability to distinguish between what in the past is worth preserving and what should be rejected. In Lecture 6 of the First Part of *San-Min-Chu-I*, he dwells on the importance of Filial Devotion, while giving at the same time a new interpretation to the traditional Chinese idea of Loyalty. He tells his audience that Loyalty is not an outworn virtue, for although in a democratic state it is no longer necessary for us to show loyalty to an emperor, we should still be loyal to the people and to our tasks. In a word, Dr. Sun is a true revolutionary, in that whenever necessary, he always seeks to

reinterpret the wisdom of the ancients in the light of the present.

The most revolutionary, since it is the most fundamental, of all his teachings is the thesis that "to know is difficult, to act is easy," which he expounded and developed in what he himself considered as the most important of his writings, originally published under the title *Sun Wen Hsueh-shuo* or *Philosophy of Sun Yat-sen*. This thesis is not, however, a species of Activism, like that of Mussolini's (vide Mussolini's remark: "I had no specific doctrinal attitude in mind . . . My doctrine, even in this period, had always been a doctrine of action"). Fascism glorifies action, pure and simple, and wants man who feels and does everything the dictator bids him to do. *Logos* is replaced by *Mythos* (the Ayran Cult, the Yamato Spirit, etc.); hysteria foaming at the mouth passes for thought; the clap-trap of theatricalism is mistaken for the gentle art of persuasion. Between this farrago of nonsense and the body of Dr. Sun's doctrine, there is a world of difference. It is the Fascist idea that power makes values and truths; Dr. Sun, on the contrary, insists that it is from values and truths that power is generated. In this, he is influenced, perhaps more than anything else, by the philosophical idea in *The Great Learning*, that "the investigation of facts" and "the extension of knowledge to the utmost" should be attended to first, before we can make sincere the purpose, regulate the mind, improve the character, rule the family, govern

the state, and bring peace and harmony to the world."

From the above, it should be abundantly clear, too, that this theory of Dr. Sun's is not a form of sterile intellectualism either. Thought is emphasized, so is action. "Genuine knowledge engenders belief, and belief necessarily translates itself into action." Only, as Dr. Sun says, one must make sure that the knowledge one has is genuine, not a kind of illusion. This again affords a striking contrast to a view shared by Nazis and Fascists alike, a view which has thus been expressed by Mussolini: "Humanity needs a *credo*. It is faith that moves mountains because it gives illusion that mountains move. Illusion is perhaps the only reality in the world."

II

Unlike the principles underlying both Fascism and Nazism, Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine is not so much a set of dogmas as a plan of action which carries with it a critical apparatus for judging others as well as for correcting and perfecting itself. Dr. Sun is no megalomaniac like Mussolini or Hitler. To people who knew him intimately, he never gave the impression that he wished his ideas to be regarded as revelations from above, to be taken on faith, and faith alone,—believing where we can not prove. The tendency to be magisterial and oracular is not in his nature. In his preface to *San-Min-Chu-I*, he points out that his lectures are based upon years of reading and thinking, but the materials he had previously collected and the

manuscripts he had prepared were all lost in Canton in 1922 during Ch'en Ch'ung-ming's revolt. Realizing that "in clear presentation of the theme, in orderly arrangement of the discussion, and in the use of supporting facts, these lectures are not at all comparable to the materials which I had formerly prepared," he expresses the hope therefore that "all our comrades will take the book as a basis or as a stimulus, expand and correct it, supply omissions, improve the arrangement and make it a perfect text for the purpose of propaganda." Such then is the modesty of a man whom unthinking critics have called a dogmatist!

Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine is instinct with life: it is a thing of flesh and blood. It can, therefore, never be ossified into a set of rigid dogmas. One of the fundamental tenets of the doctrine is that "we must base our methods not upon abstruse theories or upon empty learning but upon facts, not facts peculiar to foreign countries but facts observable in China." Dr. Sun's principles are derived from facts, facts which form, so to speak, a constant in the "social statics" of present-day China. We do not follow them blindly, as people sometimes do a religion. We follow them because we are convinced intellectually that his analysis of China's problems squares with facts and his proposed solutions of these problems are carefully thought out and are practicable, and may therefore be looked upon as the best possible ones we have at the present time.

The criterion of a sound political theory is, therefore, it must base itself upon facts relevant to the problems it seeks to solve. By this criterion, we may test other theories, as Dr. Sun has for example done in his criticism of the extreme wing of Chinese Marxists, which holds the view that this country is ripe for a communist revolution; and with this criterion in mind, we may likewise correct and perfect our own views about politics.

A sound political theory should moreover be flexible and fructifying and lend itself to the widest applications. That Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine possesses the virtue of flexibility is borne out by the fact that some of his interpreters tend to stress one aspect of it, while others tend to stress another aspect of it. As a Chinese saying has it, "benevolent men see benevolence everywhere, wise men see wisdom in everything." In *The Triple Demism*, which is a free translation of the Lectures on *San-Min-Chu-I*, Father Paschal M. d'Flia, S. J. has even made out a case that Dr. Sun's teachings are consistent with the truths of Catholicism, thus indicating that the doctrine of Dr. Sun is so rich in suggestive ideas that food for thought will be given to anyone and everyone who is willing to make a study of it.*

In this connection, it must be pointed out further that Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine, especially his Three Principles of the People, constitutes an indivisible whole. The Three Principles are all equally important, though it may be argued that emphasis should be laid on one of them at a certain stage in the revolutionary movement, while at a different stage, another of these Principles should be emphasized. What should be kept in mind, nevertheless, is that in laying emphasis upon any particular Principle, one must not therefore overlook or lose sight of the others. Dr. Sun himself has said in the *General Principles of National Reconstruction* that in rebuilding the country, the Principle of the People's Livelihood must be kept foremost in our mind; but by this clearly he does not mean that we should neglect the other Principles in *San-Min-Chu-I*. However, the very fact that people do put emphasis sometimes on this, and sometimes on that or the other principle is an eloquent testimony to the flexibility of the doctrine of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

Dr. Sun's doctrine is also highly fructifying. This is shown by the widely acknowledged fact that the Party which works on the assumption of the correctness of his principles, or in other words, follows them as its guide, has thus far not been without a measure

* It is interesting to note that in this respect Dr. Sun may be compared with Plato, whose philosophy attracts various people for reasons that are different and sometimes, even opposed to one another. Plato has been called the First Communist; of late, some people have also accused him of being a Fascist (see R. H. S. Crossman: *Plato To-day*, London, 1937). The truth is that probably he is neither; like Dr. Sun, he is many-sided, it is true: but like Dr. Sun too, he is absolutely original and defies all attempts of lesser men to label and pigeon-hole him.

of success, not only in the military and the political field, but in its program of financial, educational and social reforms as well. The Kuomintang has succeeded, because Dr. Sun's doctrine has worked, or, at any rate, is beginning to prove its workability. By their fruits ye shall know them. The tree of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's wisdom has already borne fruit on the Chinese soil,—and I have reason to believe that if transplanted elsewhere, it will also grow and bloom and become fruitful.

III

The conclusion just reached in the above naturally leads to the next point I wish to make, namely Dr. Sun's doctrine is not merely Chinese but also international in character. The meaning of this is twofold. A. To begin with, Dr. Sun's doctrine is deeply informed with the traditions of the West no less than those of China. Dr. Sun is a voluminous and industrious reader of books in the foreign languages; his interest covers an extensive field, as is evidenced in the following quotation from Sir James Cantlie. Recalling the days when the Father of the Chinese Republic was a political refugee abroad in the years 1295-1900, Sir James says: "When residing with us in London, Sun wasted no moments in gaieties; he was forever at work, reading books on all subjects which appertain to political, diplomatic, legal, military and naval matters; mines and engineering, agriculture, cattle-rearing, political economy, etc., occupied his attention and were studied

closely and persistently" (Cantlie and Sherdian-Jones: *Sun Yat-sen and the Awakening of China*, London, 1912, p. 42). Even a casual glance through the pages of, for example, the Lectures on the Three Principles would be sufficient to make anyone see that Dr. Sun has a profound knowledge of European and American political and economic writings, both classical and modern. Plato, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Marx, Henry George, Maurice William—all's grist that comes to his mill. His catholicity of taste and openness of mind are, however, ever combined with a critical acumen which can separate the essential from the accidental, the genuine from the bogus. Assailed on every side by winds of doctrine, he never feels baffled or lost; out of contradiction and chaos, he always manages to rise to a higher level and achieve a creative synthesis. His criticism of the theory of Natural Rights of Jean Jacque Rousseau and of the economic theory of Karl Marx whom he calls a "social pathologist," as contradistinguished from a "social physiologist," are typical specimens of his penetration and analytical power. Similarly, on the constructive side, the distinction made by him between the People's Political Power (*Ch'uan*) and the Government's Functional Ability (*Neng*), together with his theory about a Five-Power Constitution, must be reckoned among the notable and lasting contributions to political science.

B. In the second place, Dr. Sun's doctrine is international in character in the sense that besides

being "the Principles of our national salvation," they are also the Principles for the salvation of the world. His Lectures on *San-Min-Chu-I*, delivered in the days soon after the First World War when times were out of joint and people were weary and heavy-laden, have a special significance for his generation of ours that is finding itself in the midst of another world-wide conflict. For *San-Min-Chu-I* is nothing less than a blue-print for peace and reconstruction, it brings with it a message of cheer and of good hope to all of us who are going through a baptism of fire anew in order that the ideals we cherish might be saved and made triumphant. In fact, signs are not wanting that already ideas similar to his are spreading far and wide and are being given heed to wherever men have not lost their reason. For example, the reaffirmation of the principle of national freedom, the advocacy of independence for India by men like Professor Harold Laski, and the growing conviction of the necessity of a strong international organization as are voiced in the Atlantic Charter, the Moscow Declaration, etc.—all these are in line with the *Min-Chuh-Chu-I* or the Principle of Nationalism as stated in the Lectures on *San-Min-Chu-I*. Again, the demand for a more thorough democratization in the sphere of government, as shown in the proposal made by many British publicists and political thinkers that the House of Lords should be abolished after the War, is a striking instance that the *Min-Ch'uan-Chu-I* or

Principle of Democracy has already found expression in the West. Finally, the Beveridge Report on Social Insurance and the social security programs recommended for the United States indicate that the progress of economic thought both in England and America is in the same direction as the *Min-Sheng-Chu-I* or Principle of People's Livelihood. Indeed, as Vice-President Wallace has shown in an article published two years ago in *The New Republic*, the doctrine of Dr. Sun Yat-sen will come to occupy an important place in the world of thought when men begin to realize that in addition to political freedom, democracy implies also racial, economic, and educational equality as well as equality between the sexes.

IV

It has not been my purpose in this article to give a detailed exposition and analysis of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine. I have only put forward a few suggestions in the hope that they might be of some help to those who wish to make a study of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's doctrine by going to the first-hand materials themselves. However, so much has been said about Dr. Sun that it is not true that perhaps it would not be out of place for me to try in the following paragraphs to clear up some of the misunderstandings regarding his doctrine, especially his Three Principles of the People.

A. The *Min-Chuh-Chu-I* has usually been translated as the Principle of Nationalism, consequently some people have been

misled by it to think that it is only re-echoing the idea, "Right or wrong, my Country!" To think thus, however, is mistaken. The *Min-Chuh-Chu-I* does not preach chauvinistic and jingoistic ideas. It is the principle of freedom and equality for the nation-state, or to be more specific, it is the principle that a nation must have a reason for being. For just as manhood is what marks an adult from a child, so a nation must also achieve a certain status before it may be worthy of its name. This implies first of all that a nation must struggle to attain to a position of independence and equality in the world; for failing this, it would suffer an abridgement in personality and would in fact be degraded to the rank of "semi-colony" or even "hypo-colony" at the mercy of others. Supporing this indispensable minimum has been fulfilled, a nation should then take upon it as its duty further to "rescue the weak and lift up the fallen," that is to say, to emancipate the weak and oppressed peoples throughout the world, helping them to achieve nationhood for themselves. As its final goal, the *Min-Chuh-Chu-I* envisages a *civitas maxima*, a World Commonwealth in which the Confucian ideal of *Tatung* or in other words, of Cosmopolitanism, shall have been fully realized.

B. The *Min - Ch'uan - Chu - I*, though translated as the Principle of Democracy, must not be understood to mean the same principle that animates political organization in such countries as England and America. What it aims at

bringing about is a direct and functional democracy as opposed to a parliamentary or representative form of government run usually by amateurs serving the interest of a particular class or some pressure group. Dr. Sun firmly believes that a democracy, as its name implies, should be a government by the people. For this reason, he looks to Switzerland rather than to England and America for his working model. He asks accordingly, why are the large states not using Switzerland's methods, which, though partial and incomplete, are nevertheless in the right direction? And his answer is that they fear difficulties and follow therefore the line of least resistance. He then proceeds to outline a plan whereby China would ultimately become a democracy more thoroughgoing than even the Helvetian Republic. Briefly explained, the plan is to let the people exercise to the fullest extent the rights of suffrage, recall, initiative, and referendum; while leaving the administrative functions of government to a body of experts. This constitutes his theory of the distinction between the People's Political Power and the Government's Functional Ability, already referred to. His theory about a Five-Power Constitution is also a revolutionary departure; it involves, as is generally known, a division of governmental functions into the Executive, the Legislative, the Judiciary, and the two additional functions of Civil Service Examinations and of Impeachment and Control.

In short, nothing quite like Dr. Sun's political system has ever

been tried out in the West; it would be a grievous fault, therefore, to think that in laying down the *Min-Ch'uan-Chu-I*, Dr. Sun was only pouring old wine into new bottles.

C. The *Min-Sheng-Chu-I*, or the Principle of the People's Livelihood is also somewhat unfamiliar to Western philosophy. Contrary to the opinions of some people, it is neither a modified Capitalism nor yet Communism in disguise. It differs from the former in that its aim is to make the concentration of capital into the hands of a few impossible. By adopting the methods of equalization in landownership and regulation of capital, it is hoped that China would be able to avoid the pitfalls of a capitalist society. Coupled with these is another necessary measure: the nationalization of Capital. It is explicitly enjoined that these measures are, however, to be carried out peacefully, renouncing thus the theory of violence advocated by some of the followers of Karl Marx.

Marx, to repeat, is a social pathologist, who after examining a society infected with the virus of Capitalism, offers a drastic cure. But may it not be possible for the methods of social hygiene to be applied in an effective way to a society in which the infection has not yet taken place, so that not only would there be no necessity to resort to such a violent medicine as that prescribed by Marx, but also the social organism in question would thereby achieve a high degree of health, efficiency, and integration impossible to be found in a capitalist or even a communist state? An ounce of prevention is better than a pound of cure. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who has not studied medical science in vain, is a believer in this maxim; for this reason, his Principle of the People's Livelihood seems ever so fresh and new, and constitutes indeed a salutary and exhilarating influence which releases the spiritual energies, and adds to the happiness of mankind.

CHAPTER IX

THE KUOMINTANG AND THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

PAN KUNG-CHAN (潘公展)*

I. THE HISTORY AND PRINCIPLES OF THE KUOMINTANG.

The Kuomintang is the largest and oldest revolutionary party in China. Founded by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the Father of the Chinese Republic, fifty years ago, this party has been charged with the historic mission of establishing a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people." Since its inception, the Kuomintang has passed through many vicissitudes, and the party was known to the world under no less than five different names, (i.e., the Shing Chung Hui, (1894-1905), the Tung Meng Hui (1905-1912), the Kuomintang (1912-1914), the Chinese Revolutionary Party (1914-1919), and the Chinese Kuomintang (1919—). Notwithstanding these changes, it has consistently endeavored to realize the Three Principles of the People advocated by Dr. Sun and to help foster world peace and prosperity.

From the very outset, Dr. Sun had visualized that the supreme goal of revolution lies in the achievement of three important things, namely: national democracy, political democracy, and economic democracy. A study of world history shows that whereas the revolutionary parties of

various foreign countries succeeded in tackling one or two of these problems, none seemed to have attended to all three of them. In order to bring about internal stability and world peace, it is necessary to establish a new China firmly grounded on the Three Principles of the People. This is the trilogy of Dr. Sun's political philosophy which has been scrupulously observed by the Government and people of China.

With reference to national democracy, the first goal is to achieve the emancipation of the Chinese people from alien encroachment. An important phase of this task has been our struggle for the abrogation of unequal treaties and the preservation of territorial and sovereign integrity. Internally, all the racial groups which form component parts of the Chinese people must enjoy complete economic and political freedom and equality, and externally, the independence of the oppressed and weak nations must be upheld in order to ensure international peace and cooperation.

By political democracy is meant the attainment of political equality on the part of the people. In Dr. Sun's principle of political

* Member of the C.E.C. of the Kuomintang.

democracy, the instrument of Government rest on political rights and administrative powers. The former consist of the familiar rights of election, dismissal, initiation, and referendum, all of which belong to the people, while the latter, being five in number, namely: legislative, judicial, executive, examination, and control, fall within the scope of the Government. The above arrangement is the basis of China's famous Five-Power Constitution which, in the eyes of our political scientists, is the most progressive of all modern constitutions.

The aim of the principle of economic democracy is to provide opportunities of economic equality among the Chinese people. On one hand, the sinister influence of foreign economic imperialism must be checkmated to ensure the unimpeded development of our national economy. On the other hand, laws must be enacted to restrict capital and equalize land ownership, so as to effect a more even distribution of wealth, and to eventually forestall class struggle. In the meantime, in keeping with the spirit of reciprocity and cooperation, foreign technical and financial assistance will be solicited to help our economic reconstruction as a means of improving the living standard of the people.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. National Congress | Central Executive Committee |
| 2. Provincial Convention | Provincial Executive Committee |
| 3. Hsien Convention | Hsien Executive Committee |
| 4. Chu (district) Convention | Chu Executive Committee |
| 5. Branch Chu (district) Convention | Branch Chu Executive Committee |

The last mentioned unit, being at the bottom of the hierarchy, is the organ through which the member establishes his contact the most basic organ in the Party

II. THE ORGANIZATION OF KUOMINTANG

During its early stages, the Kuomintang, then known as the Shing Chung Hui or Tung Meng Hui, was essentially a secret revolutionary party and so had a rather small organization. The present party organization, with its hierarchy of various party headquarters, owes its inception to the resolutions adopted by the First Plenary Meeting held in 1942. The main principle of party organization is based on centralization of powers on a democratic basis, in order to effect the closest cooperation between the member and his party. Qualifications for membership are given in Article 1 of the Kuomintang constitution which reads:

"Anyone who is willing to accept the Party principles, carry out the Party resolutions, observe the Party discipline, and fulfil the Party obligations, may apply for membership, and when approved, may become, without the distinction of sex, a member of the Party."

From the standpoint of jurisdiction, there are two kinds of Kuomintang organizations, namely: ordinary headquarters and special headquarters.

A. Ordinary Headquarters:

There are altogether five degrees of ordinary headquarters in the Kuomintang hierarchy, namely:

machinery, through which its principles and policies are spread among the people, while the sentiments and voices of the members are made known to the

higher authorities. The branch chu headquarters also serve as a center for the disciplining and canvassing of new members.

B. *Special Headquarters*: The following categories of special headquarters may be mentioned:

1. Special Area Headquarters, in special administrative areas enjoying the same status as provincial headquarters,
2. Special Municipal Headquarters, equal in rank to the provincial headquarters,
3. Important City Headquarters, same as Hsien headquarters,
4. Overseas Headquarters, same as provincial or hsien headquarters.

The Kuomintang headquarters are of two kinds. Those which exercise jurisdiction over a district are called superior organs and those which operate in parts of the same district are called subordinate organs. The party conventions and the plenary meetings of Kuomintang members form the centers from which the powers of the respective headquarters are derived, while the executive committees constitute the administrative organs of the various grades of headquarters.

The title of Tsungli, meaning leader, was conferred on Dr. Sun Yat-sen at the First National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates in 1942. His death on March 12, 1925 deprived the Kuomintang of his valuable leadership and the loss of its guiding spirit caused considerable confusion among the rank and file of the Party. Following the outbreak of Sino-Japanese war, it was decided to restore the system of leadership in the Kuomintang. Consequently Generalissimo Chiang

Kai-shek, was unanimously elected the Tsungtsai (leader) of the Party at the Provisional National Kuomintang Congress in 1938.

III. PLATFORM AND POLICY OF THE KUOMINTANG

In order to translate the party's political doctrine into actual deeds, concrete and practical policies have to be evolved from time to time. Ever since its founding, the lofty ideals embodied in the Three Principles of the People have served as an un-failing guide to the national revolution. On the other hand, in keeping with the changing circumstances, new policies have been shaped as time goes on. It is generally recognized that the party platforms formulated during the first four stages of the Kuomintang have by now become practically obsolete. The "Political Principles of the Kuomintang," consisting of a total of 22 articles, which were adopted at the First National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates in 1924, still serve as a useful model of party program, both in clarity and comprehensiveness. The same is true of the "Outlines of Political Tutelage" (6 articles), which were adopted at the 172nd meeting of the Second Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee in 1928 and reaffirmed at the Third National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates in 1929. At the Third Session of the Second Plenary Central Executive Committee in 1929, the "Outlines Regulating the Administration of the National Government during the Period of Political Tutelage," an instrument comprising 12 sections and 109 articles, were passed and put into force until the outbreak of the

war. In order to cope with war-time conditions, the "General Principles of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction" were adopted at the Provisional National Congress of the Kuomintang in 1938. This instrument has a total of 32 articles, in which detailed provisions are made regarding foreign relations, military affairs, politics, economy, and education. Over and above all these party platforms, the "Outline of National Reconstruction," a set of 25 articles devised by Dr. Sun Yat-sen himself in April, 1924, forms the guiding principle of the party. These articles contain a clear statement of the goals and methods of our national revolution in accordance with the Three Principles of the People and Five-Power Constitution, and also the future policy of China's national reconstruction.

A review of the numerous resolutions adopted by the past sessions of the Kuomintang Congress will show that the party has been most consistent in its internal and external policies during its existence. Externally, it has always stood for the abrogation of unequal treaties, thereby to achieve a status of complete equality in the family of nations. It also favored closer international cooperation, so that China may undertake her responsibilities of world peace along with other friendly powers. Internally, the Kuomintang is interested in pushing ahead the program of reconstruction during the period of political tutelage, hastening the inauguration of constitutional government, adopting the Five-Power Constitution as the basis of democracy, and making the hsien as the basic unit for local self-

government where the people may pursue their primary tasks of administration, education, public sanitation. In other words, the chief concern of the party vis-à-vis its policy is to insure a better living for the people and to create a new and invigorated China out of the old.

Under the guidance of the Kuomintang, China's national unification was happily achieved during the decade following the successful launching of the Northern Expedition. Remarkable progress was made in all directions, and the nation was forging ahead with a well mapped-out program. The outbreak of war put an end to this, but the Party has been most wavered in its policy of aligning ourselves with all peace-loving nations and vigorously pursuing the dual task of resistance and reconstruction. The fact that we have successfully emerged victorious from a predatory war of eight years and tided over such difficult times testifies eloquently to the soundness of the internal and external policies adopted by the Party.

IV. THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE PARTY AND THE GOVERNMENT

In order to understand the machinery of the Chinese Government, one point should be borne in mind, viz., the National Government of the Republic of China derives its mandate from the Central Executive Committee elected by National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates. It was the Kuomintang, under the able leadership of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, which brought about the downfall of the Manchu Regime and gave birth to the Republic in 1911. It

is due to the Nationalist Party which was reorganized in 1924 that the revolutionary spirit has been kept alive. It is due to this Nationalist Party, under the brilliant leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, that the Northern Expedition of 1928 against warlords was planned and carried out successfully. Thus, the Party claims that it is entitled to nurse the Republic until the latter is strong enough to look after itself. Dr. Sun in the "Fundamentals of National Reconstruction" drafted on April 12, 1924 carefully planned a program for national reconstruction which should be divided into three periods, viz: (a) Period of Military Operation; (b) Period of Political Tutelage; (c) Period of Constitutional Government. During the first period a military government under the absolute rule of the Kuomintang should be responsible for the clearing of all the obstacles in the way of National Revolution, in the meantime spreading the gospel of the Three Principles of the People for the political education of the people, and paving the way for national unification. During the second period, the Period of Political Tutelage, the Government should despatch trained officers, who have passed the required examinations, to various districts (hsien) to assist the people in making preparations for local self-government. The attainment of local self-government depends on the completion of the census, the survey of the district (hsien), the organization of an efficient police force, and the development of communication facilities. Moreover, the people must

be* properly educated for the wielding to fulfil their duties as of the four rights—Election, Initiative, Referendum and Recall, and they must pledge themselves to observe the principles of the Revolution, before they are entitled to elect the magistrate, and the legislators. By that time, the district (hsien) will then be considered as fully self-governing (See Article 8, Fundamentals of National Reconstruction).

According to Dr. Sun, at the beginning of the Period of Constitutional Government, the Central Government should complete the establishment of five Yuan for the exercise of five powers, the order being as follows: Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan, Judicial Yuan, Examination Yuan and Control Yuan.*

As soon as a permanent Constitution is in force the People's Congress based on popular suffrage shall have the power to elect and recall officials of the Central Government, and to initiate laws and veto laws promulgated by the Central Government.

It is obvious that prior to the adoption of a permanent Constitution the Kuomintang is the very source from which the National Government emanates.

As early as June 19 it was decided by the Party that a Central Political Council responsible directly to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang should be created. This Political Council was given the power to determine the fundamental policy of the Government, and its first work of constitutional significance was the Laws Governing the System of Organization of the Re-

*The establishment of the five Yuan at an earlier period viz., at the beginning of the Political Tutelage Period was a provisional measure.

public of China, which were promulgated on July 1, 1925. Article 1 of the said Laws provides: "The National Government is empowered to control and direct all political affairs of the entire country, under the superintendence of the Kuomintang." As to the exact relationship between the Kuomintang and the National Government it was clearly defined on October 3, 1928 by the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, which adopted the "Principles underlying the Period of Political Tutelage" as follows:

Article 1. During the Period of Political Tutelage of the Republic of China the National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates shall take the place of the People's Congress to lead the people and formulate all policies.

Article 2. When the National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates is not in session, its powers shall be exercised by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

Article 3. The people be taught to exercise the rights of election, initiative, referendum and recall as provided in Dr. Sun's "Fundamentals of National Reconstruction," in order to prepare the way for a constitutional government.

Article 4. The exercise of the executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and censorial powers shall be delegated to the National Government, so as to lay the foundation for the representative government in the Constitutional Period.

Article 5. The direction and control of the National Government in the administration of important State affairs shall be entrusted to the Central Political Council of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

Article 6. The Organic Law of the National Government of the Republic of China may be amended and interpreted by resolutions of the Central Political Council of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

The functions of this Central Political Council were defined by the Third Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang on March 4 1930. The matters to be discussed and decided by Central Political Council were of five categories, viz., (a) Fundamentals of National Reconstruction; (b) Principles of Legislation; (c) Administration of Policies; (d) General Plans for National Defence; (e) Financial Programs; (f) Election of the President and Members of the State Council, Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Members of the various Yuan as well as the specially appointed officials of the National Government.

It is to be noted that the Political Council though subordinated to the Executive Committee of the Kuomintang was not concerned with party matters. Although it was the very authority by which alone the fundamental policies of the Government were formulated and determined, and high and responsible officials of the National Government were selected, it was not the Govern-

ment or a department of the Government itself. It would not directly issue orders or mandates or direct political affairs. It is obvious that this institution served as an important link between the Party and Government. The Party formulated fundamental policies by virtue of this institution and through it they were passed on to the Government which was invested with executive powers. Politically, the National Government was responsible to the Political Council, but, legally, it was the highest political organ of the Republic of China and not subject to the Political Council. (1)

During the Period of Political Tutelage, Party government or Party rule is not merely a political necessity, but also an essential part of the governmental system which must eventually be run along constitutional lines. To my mind the value of a constitution is proved in its working. It is repulsive to me to find that the letter of the constitution goes one way and the spirit of it goes another. It is gratifying to say that no such anomaly exists in the actual working of the Chinese Governmental System. If the supremacy of the Kuomintang is the axiom of the Chinese governmental system during the Political Tutelage Period, the Party has done nothing to hide it. On the contrary, this axiom has been reiterated in various documents which are bound to have great value in China's history of constitutionalism. Organic Law of

the National Government of China was ordained and promulgated by the Kuomintang. This provides that the President of the National Government, the State Councillors, the Presidents, and Vice-Presidents of the various Yuan shall be elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang (Article 10). Furthermore, the Organic Law itself is subject to revision by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

In the Provisional Constitution of the Political Tutelage Period, the supremacy of the Kuomintang again obtains constitutional recognition. Article 30 reads: "During the Period of Political Tutelage, the National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates (Kuo-Min-Tang-Ch'uan-Kuo - Tai Piao-Ta-Hui) shall exercise the governing powers on behalf of the People's Congress (Kuo-Min-Ta-Hui). During the adjournment of the National Congress of Kuomintang Delegates, the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang shall exercise the said powers."

That the National Government shall derive its mandate from the Kuomintang is again stipulated in Article 72 of the Provisional Constitution which reads: "The National Government shall have a President and an appropriate number of State Councillors, who shall be selected and appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. The number of State Councillors shall be separately determined by law."

1 On November 11, 1937, by a resolution adopted by the Standing Committee of the Kuomintang Headquarters, it was ordered that, pending the conclusion of the war, the functions of the Political Council should be absorbed by the Supreme National Defence Council.

The power of interpreting the Provisional Constitution, again, is vested in the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang (Article 85).

V. THE SIXTH NATIONAL KUOMINTANG CONGRESS AND ITS RESOLUTIONS

The Sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates was convened in Chungking, China's wartime capital, from May 5 to 21, 1945. Attended by some 600 delegates from all parts of the country, the Congress received and discussed a total of 460 proposals. Further, it examined a long agenda of important subjects, such as party affairs, constitutional measures, administrative reforms, industrial reconstruction, agricultural policies, education, military affairs, and diplomatic relations. During its 20 meetings, the Congress adopted many resolutions of which the more important are briefly reviewed below:

A. The Adoption of a New Party Platform: In view of the imminence of victory following eight years of armed resistance, it was deemed appropriate for the Congress to state anew the important policies of the Party. Accordingly, at the 17th meeting of the Congress, a set of principles, totalling 30 articles, were adopted. These principles deal essentially with the problems of national democracy, political democracy, and economic democracy, as conceived by the Party. With reference to the first, it was resolved to adopt a more efficient prosecution of the war, to consolidate and strengthen the national

economy and to give assistance to the frontier races, so that China may achieve the goal of an independent, free, and unified country. In the meantime, every effort will be made to cooperate with China's Allies to set up an international security organ and to uphold permanent world peace. Regarding political democracy, the Congress urged the early application of constitutionalism and the completion of local self government. The people's freedom of speech, assembly, and publications should be safely guarded. It also advocated the setting up of a sound civil service in order to improve administrative efficiency and in upholding the integrity of the judiciary in order to safeguard the rights of the people. Lastly, in the economic field, a post-war economic reconstruction plan was adopted. This plan envisages the granting of assistance to private industries, and the soliciting of foreign technical and financial cooperation. The interests of the farmers will be protected by ensuring a coordinated development of both rural and urban societies, while social insurance and community welfare projects will be carried out.

B. Preparations for Constitutional Government: One of the most important achievements of the 6th National Congress is its decision to convene the People's Assembly on November 11, 1945.* For many years, the Party has been most solicitous in convening such a congress and in inaugurating a constitutional government. Internecine strife and foreign aggression have, however, render-

*The date for the convocation of the People's Assembly has since been postponed until May 5, 1946.

ed it impossible to fulfil this mission. Even during these long years of resistance, the Government, under the guidance of the Party, has not relented its energies in training the peoples in the exercise of their political rights, preparatory to the introduction of constitutional rule. The impending convocation of the People's Assembly, therefore, signifies a gigantic stride in China's march towards constitutional democracy.

In order to facilitate the inauguration of constitutional government, the 6th National Congress further adopted a number of important measures. (1) It was decided to withdraw all the Party headquarters in the armed forces. (2) No Party organ will be established in schools and universities. (3) Within a period of 6 months, provincial, hsien, and municipal councils shall be duly elected to serve as organs of public opinion. (4) Laws shall be enacted to legalise political assemblies, so that all other political parties and groups may have a

lawful status. The above decisions of far-reaching consequences prove clearly the sincerity of the Kuomintang in ushering in the long hoped for constitutional regime.

C. Adoption of Economic Plans: Inasmuch as the realization of Dr. Sun's economic principles forms an important object of China's national revolution, great efforts were made by the Congress to study ways and means of their application. It was recognized that the cardinal policies of equalization of landownership and restriction of capital must be strictly and faithfully carried out. Among the economic plans formulated by the Congress may be mentioned: "the Outline of Industrial Reconstruction", "the Outline of Agricultural Policy", "the Outline of Labor Policy", and "the Outline of Land Policy". All of these plans were drawn up with special reference to the Principles of Economic Democracy and so should prove to be invaluable in guiding China's post-war economic development.

APPENDIX I.

FUTURE PROGRAMME FOR THE KUOMINTANG

(The future programme for Kuomintang was outlined by President Chiang Kai-shek, Tsungtsai of the Kuomintang, in his opening address at the Sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang on May 5, 1945 at Chungking. This is a summary of President Chiang's address.—Ed)

"The mission of the Sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang is to decide on the policy which is to guide our efforts in relation with the present war needs and to seek for our nation a bright future.

"It was ten years ago (1935) when we convened the Fifth National Kuomintang Congress and seven years ago (1938) when

we called the Extraordinary National Congress of the Party.

"In these seven years, from fighting Japan alone, we have come to fight Japan and Germany—in alliance with all the peace-loving nations.

"We have fulfilled the hope Dr. Sun Yat-sen expressed in his political testament of abolishing the unequal treaties. Now that

the Three People's Principles has become the common creed of the entire nation and that the progress of the political sense of the people has been accelerated by the war of resistance, early inauguration of constitutional government is necessary.

"Now is also the time when we are exerting jointly with our Allies for the establishment of an international security organization to safeguard justice and peace. We are building a new China as well as participating in the construction of a new world. The convocation of the Sixth National Kuomintang Congress at this time is therefore an epoch-making event in the history of China.

"We must understand the history of the struggle of the Kuomintang. We must treasure the Party's revolutionary records. For fifty years the Kuomintang has encountered and surmounted all difficulties with an indomitable spirit. In facing our heavy tasks ahead, we must always keep this in mind.

"At the present Congress we shall specially give our attention to the following three points:

TO REDOUBLE EFFORTS FOR FINAL VICTORY

"First, we shall increase our fighting strength to win the final victory. With the sacrifice of more than 3,100,000 armed forces and countless number of civilians in the eight years of war, we have laid the foundation for final victory.

"The Nazis are being exterminated and the European War is drawing to an end. The main arena of the anti-aggression war will soon be shifted to the Far

East. When victory is close at hand, we must further concentrate our power and redouble our efforts.

"This Congress should study ways of increasing our fighting power, of correcting our past deficiencies, and of bringing about closer coordination between the front and the rear, the army and the people, war and production, and civil and military affairs. Our Party members should, as Vanguards of the people, seek to accomplish with the fullest vigour either at the front or in the rear, our mission of combating the enemy and safeguarding the country.

TO CONVENE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY FOR CONSTITUTIONALISM

"Second, we shall make plans for the inauguration of constitutionalism. Twice I have made known my decisions to conclude the period of political tutelage and to introduce constitutionalism in the opening address to the People's Political Council last September, and in the message to the nation on New Year's Day. On March 1, I announced that the National Assembly be convened on November 12 (the 80th birthday anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen) for the inauguration of constitutionalism. I hope this Congress will adopt this proposal.

"If we cannot promulgate a constitution and achieve constitutionalism, there can be no foundation for national reconstruction. If we cannot convene the National Assembly, we shall not be able to return political power to the entire people. Therefore, we must decide on a date for the

convocation of the National Assembly and see to it that it meets in time to adopt a constitution.

"The persistent purpose of our national revolution has been the adoption of a democratic constitution based upon the quintuple-power principle. We hold that the inauguration of constitutionalism should not be delayed. We are aware that large sections of the people may not yet possess all the qualifications required for the exercise of the people's rights. But it is only through practice that the people may receive full training in the exercise of their four political rights and increase their political knowledge so that they may perform their duties with competence.

TO IMPROVE PEOPLE'S LIVELIHOOD

"Third, we shall improve the livelihood of the people. The ultimate objective of our national revolution is the promotion of the welfare of the entire people. Therefore, at the same time, we are achieving constitutionalism, we must put into practice without reserve the principle of the people's livelihood.

"We shall prevent monopoly by capitalists. We shall eliminate the cause of class struggle. We shall firmly establish social security. We shall elevate the living and cultural standard of the people. We shall enable the people to lead a decent and respectable life. We shall carry out

the dual policies of land equalization and control of private capital in order to eliminate monopoly and exploitation. Meanwhile, we shall, in accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's program of industrial development of China, commence material and economic reconstruction even before the war ends. The fruits for such economic reconstruction are to be enjoyed by the entire people.

"The welfare of the country and nation shall come before everything else. We must not consider the interest of any one party or section as of supreme importance.

"Fellow Party members, the peace-loving and anti-aggression nations of the world are meeting at the same time on the other side of the Pacific to confer on the establishment of an international security organization. Mankind is entering a new era just as we are writing a new page for China at this momentous Congress.

"The San Francisco Conference is to rebuild the world for the welfare of mankind. The Sixth National Kuomintang Congress is to conclude our fifty years of revolution and secure for our country a bright future.

"We shall, as members of the robust and progressive Kuomintang, rally all the ardent patriots and progressive forces in the country to strive shoulder to shoulder for the successful conclusion of the war as well as national reconstruction."

APPENDIX II.

SUMMARY OF THE CONVERSATIONS BETWEEN THE
GOVERNMENT AND THE REPRESENTATIVES
OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY

With a view to discussing matters of national interest, President Chiang Kai-shek, upon the successful conclusion of the war, invited Mr. Mao Tse-tung, Chairman of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, to come to Chungking. Mr. Mao arrived in Chungking on August 28, 1945 and since he had a number of talks with President Chiang. Meanwhile, representatives on their behalf were appointed. The Government representatives were Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, General Chang Chun, General Chang Chih-chung and Mr. Shao Li-tze while the Chinese Communist representatives were Messrs. Chou En-lai and Wang Je-fei.

The Government and Communist representatives met and conferred on many occasions in an atmosphere of friendliness and harmony, and they reached a number of conclusions. Their talks will continue, on a basis of mutual trust and mutual concession, to seek a satisfactory solution of the issues still outstanding.

A summary of the conversations held so far is as follows:

(1) **Basic policy on peaceful national reconstruction.**—It was agreed that as China's War of Resistance against Japanese aggression has been brought to a

victorious conclusion China is now on the threshold of a new era of peaceful national reconstruction, and that peace, democracy, solidarity and unity should form the basis of the nation's concerted efforts. It was likewise agreed that under the leadership of President Chiang, cooperation should be perpetuated and resolute measures taken to avert internal strife so that a new China, independent, free and prosperous, may be built and the Three Principles of the People fully implemented. Both parties further agreed that political democratization, nationalization of troops and the recognition of the equal legal status of political parties, as advocated by President Chiang, are absolutely essential to achieving peaceful national reconstruction.

(2) **On political democratization.**—It was agreed that the period of political tutelage should be brought to an early conclusion, that constitutional government should be inaugurated and that necessary preliminary measures should be immediately adopted, such as the convocation by the National Government of a Political Consultative Council, to which all parties and non-partisan leaders will be invited, to exchange views on national affairs and discuss

questions relating to peaceful national reconstruction and the convocation of the National Assembly. Both parties are now conferring with various interested quarters on the membership, organization and functions of the proposed Council. It was agreed that, as soon as such consultations are completed, the proposed Council shall be convened.

(3) **On the National Assembly.**—Three proposals were advanced by the Chinese Communist Party, namely, re-election of all delegates to the National Assembly's organic and election laws and of the May Fifth Draft Constitution. The Government representatives maintained that the election of the delegates for the National Assembly already held should be valid, but that the number of delegates may be reasonably increased and the increase should be legalized. As regards the May Fifth Draft Constitution, the Government representatives reminded the Communists that the draft constitution had already been submitted to the public for study and suggestions for its revision were invited. No agreement was reached on those points. But the Communist representatives made it known that they do not wish to permit national unity to be ruptured by the differences. Both parties agreed that the points concerned shall be brought before the proposed Political Consultative Council for settlement.

(4) **On the people's freedoms.**—It was agreed that the Government should guarantee the freedoms of person, religion, speech, publication and assembly, the rights enjoyed by people in all democratic nations in normal

times. Existing laws and decrees should be either abolished or revised in accordance with this principle.

(5) **On the legality of political parties.**—The Chinese Communist proposed that the Government should recognize the equality and the legal status of the Kuomintang and the Communist Party as well as that of all other parties. The Government stated that a common attribute of constitutional government is that all parties are equal before the law that this fact will be given immediate recognition.

(6) **On the special service agencies.**—Both parties agreed that the Government should strictly prohibit all offices other than law courts and police to make arrests, conduct trial and impose punishment.

(7) **On release of political prisoners.**—The Chinese Communists proposed that all political prisoners with the exception of those guilty of treason should be released. The Government representatives stated that the Government is prepared to do this of its own accord and that the Chinese Communist Party may submit a list of people who they think should be released.

(8) **On local self-government.**—Both sides agreed that local self-government should be vigorously promoted. General election should be conducted from the lower level upward. However, the Government expressed the hope that this would not affect the convocation of the National Assembly.

(9) **On the nationalization of troops.**—It was proposed by the Chinese Communists that the Government should effect an equitable and rational reorganization of the entire Chinese Army, decide on the program and different stages of re-

organization, redemarcate the military zones, and inaugurate a conscription and replenishment system with a view to unifying military command. Under this program, the Chinese Communists finally expressed their readiness to reduce the troops under their command to 24 divisions or to a minimum of 20 divisions. The Chinese Communists further stated that they would take prompt action to demobilize their anti-Japanese troops now deployed in Kwangtung, Chekiang, south Kiangsu, south Anhwei, central Anhwei, Hunan, Hupeh and Honan (not including north Honan), and that such troops as are to be reorganized will be gradually evacuated from the said areas, to be concentrated in the liberated areas north of the Lung-hai Railway and in northern Kiangsu and northern Anhwei. The Government representatives stated that the national troop reorganization program is being carried out, and the Government is willing to reorganize the Communists-led anti-Japanese troops into 20 divisions, if the other issues coming up in the present talks could be satisfactorily settled. Regarding the garrison areas, the Chinese Communists may submit plans for discussion and decision.

The Chinese Communists proposed that the Communist military personnel should participate in the work of the National Military Council and the various departments under the Council, and that the Government should respect the personnel system of the army units and commission the original officers after their units have been reorganized. Discharg-

ed officers should be given training in different areas, and the Government should adopt a reasonable and satisfactory system of maintenance and political education.

The Government indicated that it was ready to consider the proposals and discuss details.

In reply to the Chinese Communists' proposal that all the militiamen in the liberated areas should be reorganized into local self-defense corps, the Government expressed the view that this matter will have to be determined in accordance with local conditions and needs. In order to formulate concrete plans in regard to all the questions mentioned in this section, it was agreed that a sub-committee of three with one representative each from the Board of Military Operations of the National Military Council, the Ministry of War and the 18th Group Army be formed.

(10) On local governments in the liberated areas.—The Communist representatives proposed that the Government should recognize the popularly elected governments in the liberated areas. The Government representatives pointed out that after the unconditional surrender of Japan the term "liberated area" becomes obsolete and the integrity of the administrative authority of the country should be respected.

The initial formula advanced by the Communist representatives was to redemarcate the provincial and administrative areas according to the conditions that now obtain in the eighteen liberated areas. And to preserve administrative integrity, the Communist Party would submit to the Gov-

ernment a list of officials of the popularly elected governments for re-appointment.

The Government replied that the re-demarcation of provincial boundaries would involve changes of unusual magnitude, and the question should be very carefully and thoroughly considered and could not be resolved in a short time. At the same time the Government representatives reiterated what President Chiang had stated to Mr. Mao Tse-tung: That after the unification of the military command and administrative authority, the National Government would take into consideration administrative personnel nominated by the Communist Party. The Government would consider retaining the services of those functionaries who have served in the recovered areas during the war on the basis of their ability and record without regard to party affiliations.

Upon this, a second formula was proposed by the Communist representatives, asking the National Government to appoint nominees of the Communist Party as chairman and members of the provincial governments of the Shensi-Kansu-Ninghsia Border Region, Jehol, Chahar, Hopei, Shantung and Shansi. They further asked that Communist nominees be appointed deputy-chairmen and members of the provincial governments of Suiyuan, Honan, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Hupeh and Kwangtung, and deputy-mayors of the special municipalities of Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao and Shanghai. The Communist representatives also requested participation in the administration of the Northeastern provinces.

After lengthy discussions on this topic, the Communist representatives modified their proposals by requesting the appointment of their nominees as chairmen and members of the provincial governments of the Shensi-Kansu-Ninghsia Border Region, Jehol, Chahar, Hopei and Shantung, as deputy-chairmen and members of the provincial governments of Shansi and Suiyuan, and as deputy-mayors of the special municipalities of Peiping, Tientsin and Tsingtao.

The Government representatives replied that the Communist Party might nominate those members of the Communist Party, who possess administrative ability and have rendered commendable service during the war, to the Government for appointment. But if the Communist Party should insist upon nominating chairman or deputy-chairman or members of a provincial government for specific provinces, this would not be sincerely endeavouring to achieve military and administrative integrity.

The Communist representatives then said they would withdraw their second suggestion and propose a third formula. They suggested that general elections be held in the liberated areas under the existing popularly elected governments. Under the supervision of the Political Consultative Council the Communist Party would welcome members of all other political parties as well as members of various professions to return to their native places to participate in the elections. A popular election is to be held in any *hsien* (district), in which the public officers of more than one half of its *chu* (sub-districts) or *hsiang*

(villages) have been elected by popular vote. Likewise, a popular election is to be held in any province or administrative area in which public functionaries of more than one half of its hsien have been elected by popular vote. In the interest of administrative integrity, the names of all the provincial, chu or hsien officials thus elected should be submitted to the National Government for appointment.

The Government representatives replied that this formula is not acceptable as such a process is not conducive to real administrative integrity. But the Government might consider the appointment of popularly elected hsien officials. Popular election of provincial government functionaries could only be held after the status of the province has been definitely defined following the promulgation of the constitution. For the time being, only those provincial government officials who have been appointed by the National Government should proceed to take up their posts so that conditions in the recovered areas may be restored to normalcy at the earliest possible moment.

At this point, a fourth formula was proposed by the Communist representatives: That all liberated areas temporarily retain their status quo until the constitutional provision for the popular election of provincial government officials has been adopted and put into effect. For the time being an interim arrangement is to be worked out in order to guarantee the restoration of peace and order.

Finally, the Communist representatives suggested that this particular problem be submitted to the Political Consultative Council for discussion and settlement. The Government, desirous of the early establishment of administrative integrity so that peaceful reconstruction might not be delayed, hoped that an agreement could soon be worked out on this matter. The Communist representatives concurred. Discussions will continue.

(11) On traitors and puppet troops.

—The Communist representatives proposed that traitors be severely punished and puppet troops be disbanded. The Government representatives' reply was: In principle there is no question. But traitors should be dealt with according to due process of law and the disbandment of puppet troops should be carried out in such a manner that peace and order in the areas concerned would not be disturbed.

(12) On accepting the surrender of the Japanese army.

—The Communist representatives asked that the Communist troops be allowed to participate in the task of accepting the surrender of Japanese troops and that the areas of surrender should be redefined. The Government representatives answered that the participation of the Communist Party in accepting the surrender of Japanese troops could be considered after the troops of the Communist Party accepted the orders of the National Government.

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CHAPTER X

THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL

SHAO LI-TSE (邵力子)*

I. A BRIEF HISTORY

Although the Sino-Japanese War had caused an inevitable but necessary postponement of the adoption of a permanent constitution, it brought forth a new representative institution which is democratic both in spirit and practice which must be regarded as an experiment on the working of the future National Assembly envisaged in the Draft Constitution. The institution is the People's Political Council which was brought into being by an order of the Emergency Session of the National Congress of the Kuomintang Delegates held in Hankow in March, 1938. With a view to strengthening the national unity and to consolidating all intellectual factors in the tasks of resistance against aggression and national reconstruction, the People's Political Council has justified its existence.

The Organic Law of the People's Political Council was adopted during the Fourth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang which was convened in April, 1938; it was subsequently promulgated on April 13 the same year by the National Government.

The First Session of the First People's Political Council took

place at Hankow on July 7, 1938. The Session endorsed with unanimous consensus the Kuomintang's programs on national resistance and reconstructions and thus it strengthened not only the people's belief in the final victory over the Japanese aggressors but also laid a solid foundation for a future democratic government.

Since its inception, the People's Political Council has had four councils with a total of eleven sessions, of which five held in the first Council, two in the second, three in the third and one in the fourth. All the sessions were convened in Chungking except the first one which, as has been mentioned, was held in Hankow.

II. ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS

The Organic Law of the People's Political Council has had three revisions which took place on December 24, 1940, on March 16, 1942 and on September 16, 1944 respectively. The functions and the number of members of the Council were both enlarged after every revision. In accordance with Article 3 of the revised Organic Law of September 16, 1944, the People's Political Council shall have 290 members to be elected or selected as follows:

*Secretary-General of the People's Political Council.

Group A. 199 members are to be elected from various provinces and municipalities.

Group B. 8 members are to be selected from Mongolia and Tibet, (5 from Mongolia and 3 from Tibet).

Group C. 8 members are to be selected from overseas Chinese.

Group D. 75 members are to be selected from cultural and economic bodies.

According to Article 4 of the Organic Law Group A members are to be elected in the Provisional People's Political Council of the various Provinces and municipalities. In those provinces and municipalities where the Provisional People's Political Councils have not yet been set up, the provincial and the municipal governments concerned should hold a joint conference with the Kuomintang branches of the same level to nominate twice as many candidates to be submitted to the Supreme National Defence Council for further transmission to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang for final decision. Candidates for Group B and C members are to be selected by the Commission of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs and by the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission respectively. The two Commissions should nominate twice as many candidates to be submitted to the Supreme National Defence Council for further transmission to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang for final decision. Candidates for Group D members are to be nominated by the Supreme National Defence Council; such nomination is to be submitted to the Central Execu-

tive Committee of the Kuomintang for final decision.

The functions of the People's Political Council as envisaged in Articles 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 of the Organic Law are as follows:

Article 6: The Government, before putting into execution any important measures with regard to domestic and foreign affairs, is required to submit them to the Council for discussion and approval. The resolutions of the People's Political Council, after having been approved by the Supreme National Defence Council, should be forwarded to the appropriate and competent departments concerned for formulating into laws or statutes. However, the Chairman of the Supreme National Defence Council in conformity with the Organic Law of the Supreme National Defence Council shall have emergency power to issue orders to cope with the situation and is not subject to the limitation of this article.

Article 7: The National Budget, before finally approved by the Government, should be submitted to the People's Political Council or to the Resident Committee of the People's Political Council for a preliminary examination.

Article 8: The People's Political Council may make proposals to the Government and have the right to hear the reports of the Government and may exercise the right of interpellation.

Article 9: The People's Political Council may set up an Investigation Committee to investigate matters entrusted by the Government. The result of the investigation may be submitted by the People's Political Council (or

by the Investigation Committee empowered by the People's Political Council) to the Government for putting them into effect.

Article 10: The People's Political Council or its Resident Committee may on its own initiative make an investigation on certain measures of the Government and also it may ask the Government to investigate into them with the subsequent report to the People's Political Council or its Resident Committee.

After hearing the report, the People's Political Council or its Resident Committee may make recommendations or suggestions to the Government for the latter's adoption or enforcement.

According to Article 11 of the Organic Law, the tenure of office of the People's Political Council members is one year. However, the National Government may extend the period of tenure when necessary. According to Article 12 of the Organic Law the People's Political Council should hold a session once every six months for a period of fourteen days. The National Government, when it deems necessary, may extend the period of the session and also it may convene provisional sessions.

The People's Political Council may set up a Resident Committee during its recess. The members of the said Committee which is composed of 31 members are to be elected from the People's Political Council Presidium and from the People's Political Council members. The functions of the Resident Committee are as follows:

1. To receive reports from the Government;

2. To supervise the execution of the resolutions of the People's Political Council;
3. To exercise the rights of recommendation and investigation within the scope of and not in contradiction to the power delegated by the People's Political Council.

According to Article 17, the People's Political Council shall have a Presidium of 5 to 7 members, who are not necessarily the members of the People's Political Council. When the People's Political Council or its Resident Committee is holding its meeting, the meeting will be presided over by a member of the Presidium.

III. IMPORTANT RESOLUTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS OF THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL FROM 1944 TO 1945

From 1944 to 1945, the People's Political Council has had two sessions, namely, the Third Plenary Session of the Third Council and the First Plenary Session of the Fourth Council, being held on September 5, 1944 and on July 7, 1945 respectively, resulting in passing more than 670 resolutions, of which 220 were carried during the former Session and the rest were carried during the latter Session.

These resolutions were passed to meet the pressing need of the time and may be regarded as satisfactory measures to cope with the difficulties occurred during and after the war.

During the Third Plenary Session of the Third Council held in September, 1944, the most important resolutions and suggestions made by the members of the Council may be summed up as follows:

On Military Affairs: Under this heading, the main resolutions and suggestions were centered on three subjects, namely, the improvement of the life of the average soldier, the modification of the conscription system, and the military reform. With a view to facilitating the enforcement of the above-mentioned resolutions and suggestions, the Council introduced three substantial means, viz., donation in the form of money, contribution in the form of foodstuff and the borrowing of money deposited by some wealthy Chinese in foreign countries.

On Diplomatic Affairs: The unanimous suggestion of the Session was to urge the Government to spare no effort to strengthen its relations with Soviet Union and to bring about a closer collaboration with all Allied nations.

On Economic and Financial Affairs: The prevention of further inflation, the balance of Budget and stabilization of commodity prices were the main subjects of the Session on the economic and financial affairs. In addition it laid stress on the readjustment of the structures and functions of the Ministries of Finance, of Economic Affairs and of Foods.

On Interior Affairs: The Council adopted two important resolutions, namely, the complete readjustment of administrative structure and functions of various government organizations and the establishment of a Provisional People's Political Council in every province, municipality and hsien. In those hsien where the local self-government has been successfully carried out, there should be established a permanent hsien

People's Political Council to elect its own magistrate in order to accelerate the early realization of a democratic system.

The resolutions and suggestions of the Third Session of the Third Council were submitted to and scrupulously observed by various competent departments of the Government, resulting in modifications of policies and measures.

During the First Plenary Session of the Fourth Council held in July, 1945, the most controversial subject under discussion was the question of the convocation of the National Assembly. After much deliberation and examination by the Plenary Session as well as by its Examination Committee, a number of resolutions and suggestions covering a wide field of foreign and domestic affairs were adopted, a full account of which is shown here in the Appendix.

The question of military reform was also one of the main subjects of the Session. A number of resolutions and suggestions were forwarded to the Government for immediate and effective enforcement in order to ensure the final victory.

Resolutions and suggestions concerning the financial and economic affairs may be summed up as follows:

1. Readjustment of taxation;
2. Simplification of financial structure;
3. Strengthening of financial control;
4. Coordination of financial policy with economic policy in order to ensure prosperity of the nation and to improve the life of the people at one stroke;

5. Balance of Budget; regulation of money issuance and stabilization of commodity prices;
6. Increase of production of coal, petroleum, alcohol, steel and iron; a plan for economic demobilization and the formation of a post-war economic policy.

Apart from those mentioned above, there were a number of resolutions and suggestions in connection with social relief, social security, educational reform, land reform, development of conservancy etc., the details of which are to be found in the Appendix.

IV. THE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL AND DEMOCRACY.

The People's Political Council as a war-time institution was brought into existence by the Kuomintang for the purpose of attaining in near future a democratic form of government. It is within the schedule of the Kuomintang's political programs that China must

forge ahead from the Period of Tutelage to the Period of Constitutionalism. The People's Political Council, though experimental and transitional in nature has been serving its best for this purpose and thus justified its existence. With the gradual expansion of the functions and powers of the People's Political Council and the enlargement in number of the members elected by the people, the Council has been steadily marching towards the goal of democracy. When Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek spoke at the Council on February 21, 1939, he made the following remark which proves to be a prophecy.

"In the history of Chinese political institutions, the Council will assuredly occupy a position of importance and glory. The historic mission of the Council is to pave the way for a constitutional form of government, and in particular to erect a base on which to build a genuine democracy."

APPENDIX

Reports and Resolutions in the PPC Session in July, 1945.

1. OPENING ADDRESS

By PRESIDENT CHIANG KAI-SHEK

The First Plenary Session of the Fourth People's Political Council was convened on July 7, 1945 being the 8th anniversary of the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war. The following is a summary of the opening address made by President Chiang Kai-shek at the inaugural meeting of the First Plenary Session.

The People's Political Council meets again as we are entering upon the ninth year of the war. Final victory is now secure and dawn of freedom is already

visible. I believe that all of you feel as I feel that achieving national freedom and independence is truly a herculean task.

At this stage of the war, the Government has two obligations to discharge. First, to do its utmost in accelerating the destruction of the enemy. Second, to inaugurate constitutional rule. It is the high mission of this Council to deliberate upon and advance views and plans to hasten the implementation of these all important measures.

Let us consider briefly the international situation as it exists

today. Eight years ago China fought Japan alone. At that time, the enemy plotted and schemed to prevent aid from any country reaching us. Our position then was indeed critical. But our situation altered completely when the United Nations Declaration was announced in Washington on January 1, 1942. From then on the enemy hoped that dissension among the United Nations would occur and his propaganda was consequently devoted to the creation of internal friction among them. Ten days ago his hopes and plots were again dashed to pieces when the fifty United Nations assembled in San Francisco adopted unanimously a charter of freedom.

That the charter comes short of the ideal of some people has been freely admitted. However, to insure peace in the future, it is necessary to have an idealistic international covenant on one hand and a spirit which is capable of animating cooperation on a very high plane on the other hand. At the San Francisco Conference initial differences were resolved in that spirit. This healthy growing animating element, I believe, will insure the success of the charter.

Throughout the Conference the Chinese Delegation was guided by the principle of doing its utmost to promote closer cooperation among the United Nations, particularly among the United States of America, Great Britain, Soviet Russia, France and China. At the same time we have never deviated from our moral standpoints. For it is only by upholding international justice steadfastly that we can contribute

effectively towards international cooperation. This was not merely our policy at the San Francisco Conference; it will be our policy in the future.

I wish here to review the military situation. Following the unconditional surrender of Nazi Germany, our Allies became free to devote everything they have to the defeat of Japan. In fact, they have already begun to divert to the Far East a part of their armed forces in Europe or originally designated for Europe. Americans fighting in the Pacific have cut the enemy supply lines and acquired full control of the air. Japan's homeland has been and will be subjected to continuous and more devastating bombing. The China-India overland roads have been opened as a result of more than ten months of hardest fighting by the Chinese, American, British and Indian troops. Our recapture of Nanning and Liuchow has severed the so-called continental supply line which the enemy fought for more than half a year to establish.

I am now in a position to announce that in the last six months our preparations for counter-offensive proceeded according to schedule. A considerable part of our army units has been reorganized and brought up to strength. Treatment for soldiers and their equipment and training have been improved. Particularly gratifying to us all is the cooperation between Chinese and American military authorities which has become even more intimate.

I can now assert that a final and total victory is no longer in doubt. However, we must fully

realize our position and responsibility. First, the hour at which victory will come will be determined by the extent to which we dedicate ourselves to the war. Second, the main burden of liquidating the enemy in the China Theater must be borne by us. We should on no account shirk our obvious responsibility or leave things to chance.

I will now speak of the present economic situation with which you are deeply concerned. During war, the expansion of national expenditures is unavoidable. The budget for the current year is approximately 190 times larger than that of the year preceding the outbreak of the war. Our actual expenditures will exceed this amount when the counter-offensive gets under way. In the past six months, the Government, to meet the huge national expenditures, has taken vigorous measures to develop new sources of revenue, cut down expenses wherever possible, strengthen the control system, and step up production.

With reference to revenues the responsible quarters have been working to increase tax receipts and encourage donations to the state. Savings have also been encouraged, and gold has been sold with a view to absorbing large idle capital. At the same time, tax collection machinery and procedure have been simplified. To reduce the burden on the people a number of vexatious and uneconomic taxes as well as preventive and inspection offices have been abolished.

To reduce expenditures, a policy of retrenchment has been followed in so far as it does not inter-

fere with the prosecution of the war. A total of two thousand offices under the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of War has either been abolished or amalgamated in recent months.

As regards production, outputs indispensable to the prosecution of the war which could be produced by ourselves with the aid of our Allies have been increased steadily in the same period.

However, the problem of commodity prices remains grave. Notwithstanding the Government's efforts to restrict the expansion of bank credit and adopt other measures the national budget remains unbalanced. I hope you will point out additional ways and means by which the Government could overcome serious economic problems. Responsible officials, I am sure, will consider your views earnestly.

Finally, I come to the Government's determination to inaugurate constitutionalism. Pursuant to the bequeathed teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the Kuomintang has throughout been engaged in national reconstruction. In spite of the war, it boldly came to the decision of concluding the period of political tutelage and introducing constitutional rule. You will recall that during the last few years, public opinion in this country and the Kuomintang members have been in favour of an early termination of political tutelage and inauguration of a constitutional government. But under the war conditions, it has not been possible to hold general elections in the enemy occupied areas. The Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang two years ago

adopted a resolution calling for the convening of the National Assembly within one year after the conclusion of the war to introduce constitutional rule. At that time certain quarters unjustly attacked this resolution, arguing that constitutional government should be adopted immediately, and even before the end of the war.

But, as the termination of the war might be delayed, and as even after the war ends, peace and order in various localities might not be speedily restored with the consequence that popular elections could not be satisfactorily held during that time, I declared in January this year that, as soon as the war situation improved sufficiently, the National Assembly would be convened to adopt and promulgate a constitution, concluding thereby the period of political tutelage. In May the Sixth Kuomintang Congress passed a resolution calling for the convocation of the National Assembly on November 12, this year.*

The Government will not make decisions pending the hearing of your views on various questions connected with the convocation of the National Assembly. While it is proper for the Kuomintang to decide on the date of the National Assembly and of terminating the period of political tutelage and returning the power of the government to the people, the Government holds itself ready to consider opinions from all quarters. Rather unexpectedly we now find that those who were opposed to a postponement of the inaugura-

tion of constitutionalism until after the war, are assailing the Government for its decision to advance the date. I invite you to give your considered views on this vital question. I hope that you will, in the formulation of your views, be guided solely by considerations of national interest.

The Government is energetically proceeding with the preparatory measures which must precede the inauguration of a constitutional government. Those of you who have served on the Commission for the Inauguration of Constitutional Government have made important contributions. They have given valuable assistance in the setting up of provisional assemblies in various districts and municipalities, and in the enhancement of the people's freedom and they have made exhaustive studies of the draft constitution.

In accordance with the resolution of the Sixth Kuomintang Congress the Government is adopting certain measures preparatory to the erection of a constitutional edifice. It has been decided to abolish party branches in army units and in schools. It has also been decided that representative assemblies in the provinces, districts and municipalities should hold popular elections within six months according to the election regulations that have been promulgated. Political organizations other than the Kuomintang may acquire legal status according to law. I request you to give careful thought to these questions so that they and addi-

*On November 11, 1945, the National Government issued a mandate to the effect that the National Assembly will be convoked on May 5, 1946.

tional preparatory measures may be carried out expeditiously.

The People's Political Council now has a seven-year history. Its prestige and responsibility have grown continuously in that period. The size of this Council is almost twice that of the First Council. The members on the present Council have largely been elected by the popular organs in various provinces and municipalities. This is an encouraging sign of China's political development, and gives concrete proof how a popular assembly could gain in stature while a war is on. Your devotion to the duties you own to the people will, I am sure, greatly encourage the members of the Government to give their best and to live up to your expectations and the expectations of those whom you represent.

II. REPORTS BY RESPONSIBLE HIGH OFFICIALS OF VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS OF THE GOVERNMENT

A. Report on Foreign Affairs:—
Dr. K. C. Wu, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs in his report to First Plenary Session of the 4th People's Political Council said that after the war Japan should be completely disarmed, Chinese territories occupied by Japan should be completely restored to China, and Japan should fully and substantially compensate China for her war losses. To quote his own words, "China will cooperate more closely with her Allies in bringing about the unconditional surrender of Japan at an earlier date; she will fully support the United Nation Charter in the hope that the Charter will become a perfect international constitution through

gradual revision. The United Nations Charter is better than the old League Covenant for the following reasons. Firstly, the Charter contains more detailed definitions and provisions than the Covenant; secondly, the Charter is of a more positive nature; thirdly, the United Nations peace organizations are authorized to take quicker and more effective actions than the old League of Nations; fourthly, the power of the new world organization is more centralized; and fifthly, the various setups of the United Nations are better organized than those of the old League.

"The Chinese Government has paid particular attention to the problems confronting overseas Chinese. In signing new treaties with other nations, the Government always takes into consideration the rights and welfare of overseas Chinese living in the countries concerned and has negotiated with various other countries for abolition of those laws which provide for discriminatory treatment of overseas Chinese.

"Regarding the repatriation of overseas Chinese to their overseas homes after their liberation, the Chinese Government has taken, and will take, the following measures: firstly, to assign diplomatic personnel to travel with Allied forces and set up consulates as soon as the district or districts are liberated; secondly, to request the governments concerned to give overseas Chinese the same facilities accorded to them in pre-war days; thirdly, to request the governments concerned to provide overseas Chinese with transportation facilities;

fourthly, to request the governments concerned to give the overseas Chinese the same relief as will be given to the natives living there and fifthly, the execution of overseas Chinese traitors by Allied authorities should be carried out as far as possible in accordance with the suggestions of the Chinese Government."

Reviewing China's foreign relations with other nations, Dr. Wu said that with the conclusion of the new treaty with Holland on May 29, 1945, the abrogation of unequal treaties between China and other nations was nearing its final stage.

Germany and Austria, were the first countries to lose their extraterritorial rights in China, because in 1917 China declared war on them which, according to international law, put an end to all their special rights in China. The signing of a new treaty with Russia in 1924 terminated Russia's extraterritorial rights in China.

On January 11, 1943, new treaties were concluded with the United States and Britain, and these treaties provide for the relinquishment by these two countries of the extraterritorial rights and special privileges they hitherto exercised in China. Sweden signed a new treaty with China on April 5, 1943, with the abrogation of unequal treaties with China.

The unequal treaties with Italy and Japan were abrogated according to international law after China had declared war on them. After Denmark had recognized the puppet regimes in Nanking and the Four Northeastern Provinces,

China severed her diplomatic relations with Denmark. At present, the Chinese Government is considering resuming diplomatic relations with her.

On February 22, 1943, the Vichy Government allowed Japanese armed forces to land at Kwangchowwan and in May of the same year transferred the French concessions in Tientsin, Hankow and Canton to the Japanese. The Chinese Government, therefore, sent a memorandum to the Vichy Government, declaring the abolition of her unequal treaties with China. The newly-established French Government proposed to conclude a new treaty with China, but China was still considering this problem.

Switzerland and Portugal had not yet relinquished their extraterritorial rights in China, but steps were being taken for abrogating their unequal treaties with China.

B. Report on Education :—
In his report to the PPC, Dr. Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education, touched on many aspects of educational reform and the problems confronting the Ministry.

Dr. Chu admitted that the Ministry was responsible for the inadequacy of equipment in many educational institutions. Universities and colleges in the rear which had survived the ravages of a devastating war had little or even no replenishment after eight long years of wear and tear. While sizable quantities of books and apparatus had been ordered from abroad, they were unable to come in on account of the enemy blockade and transport difficulties.

Regarding the Ministry's policy toward sending students abroad for advanced studies in preparation for China's post-war rehabilitation Dr. Chu advocated further improvement and expansion. However, because of war-time transport difficulties and the fact that many of our Allied youths were waging war against the remaining Axis aggressor in the Pacific, large scale sending of students abroad would have to wait until after the war.

Speaking of educational administration work, Dr. Chu said that the Ministry was following a strict retrenchment policy and was striving to heighten administrative efficiency through the abolition or amalgamation of overlapping departments and bureaux. Those educational institutions that had not satisfactorily carried out their functions would be eliminated or merged.

Dr. Chu showed deep concern over the present state of under-nutrition of most students. The Ministry was not relaxing its efforts to improve the living conditions of the students and increase their mess allowances.

The shortage of teachers, especially in middle and primary schools, was about the most pressing problem confronting the Ministry. The situation is further aggravated by the limited number of normal schools which were in need of great expansion. An estimate showed that of the 650,000 teachers only one-tenth had received normal training while about one-third had the equivalent of normal standard. For training more teachers, Dr. Chu advocated the establishment of more independent normal schools and

educational department in every university and the setting up of educational research bureaux and the training of more vocational school teachers.

C. Report on War-Time Communications:—For post-war rehabilitation, the Ministry of Communications had drafted a five-year plan, General Yu Fei-peng, Minister of Communications and concurrently Director of the War Transport Board, revealed in his report on communications to the People's Political Council. General Yu said, "For the realization of the five-year plan, considerable funds will be appropriated by the Government and large quantities of transportation equipment have been ordered from abroad.

"An increase in tonnage on highways and railroads has been recorded and other improvements in communication facilities have been made by the Ministry of Communications recently.

"After the establishment of the War Transport Board, an increase in freight tonnage on highways has been registered. This increase is due to the increase of the number of repaired trucks and the used motor vehicles acquired from three motor regiments of the Chinese Army. A fleet of new trucks, waiting to be driven to China, will further improve China's wartime transportation.

"Although a large number of motor vehicles will pour into China, the Chinese Army will be given priority in using them and the Ministry of Communications will take over those which are not required by the armed forces.

"The Paochi-Tienschui Railway will be completed in September and open to traffic in October this

year, and after its completion, it will be extended to Lanchow and further westward.

"The construction of the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway began on May 1 last and was scheduled to be open to traffic by the end of this month, but due to the urgency of repairing the Kweichow-Kwangsi Highway for recapturing Kingchengkiang, Ishan and Liuchow, it will be formally open to traffic by the end of August.

"After improvements were made on the Szechuen-Yunnan Railway, the monthly tonnage on this line has greatly increased. Its tonnage for last month was three times its former monthly average tonnage and doubled its former maximum monthly tonnage. In the next six months its monthly tonnage will be increased by one-third of its present tonnage.

"Several thousand kilometers of roads will be constructed and a new highway will be built in Sinkiang in the near future.

"As to water transportation, the present total tonnage of shipping around Chungking is only one-eleventh of the total pre-war tonnage in China. The present tonnage will be doubled after the six steamers of the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company and hundreds of other steamers and junks have been repaired. Two of the above-mentioned six steamers, sunk during those days of severe bombings by enemy planes, have been salvaged and are now under repair.

"Air transportation is maintained by the China National Aviation Corporation and the Central Air Transport Company. There is also a round-trip flight between

China and Russia once a week.

"Mail service between Free China and the occupied areas is being maintained by postmen who travel through the enemy lines."

D. Report on Judicial Affairs:— Dr. Hsieh Kwan-sheng, Minister of Justice, in a report on judicial affairs to the People's Political Council declared that to give adequate protection to the freedom of person of the people, the Ministry of Justice had spared no effort in enforcing the Habeas Corpus Act, which was promulgated on July 13 and came into force on August 1 last year.

Illegal arrest, detention and punishment of the people were strictly prohibited and this order had been faithfully observed by all judicial organs. Dr. Hsieh added: "In the year 1944, a total of 76,527 persons had been held in detention throughout Free China but the number has greatly decreased since the enforcement of the Habeas Corpus Act. Only 3,081 persons have been detained in Chungking; since the act came into effect.

"With a view to facilitating the handling of lawsuits, 10 branch high courts and 25 district courts were established between July and December last year and five branch high courts and 25 district courts are under planning.

"The notary public system and the conciliation system are being practised to help settle cases out of the court. Ninety-seven percent of the existing district courts have established offices of notary public and during the past year over 10,000 civil cases have been dismissed through conciliation.

"More detention houses and prisons are being built to ease

the congestion of the prisons. Prisoners are given vocational training so that they may earn a living and not commit illegal acts again after their release. The living conditions of prisoners have also been improved.

"The Ministry of Justice has also taken concrete measures to simplify court procedures, which will greatly facilitate the settlement of disputes among the people. After the abolition of extraterritoriality, civil and criminal cases involving foreigners are also tried by Chinese courts. Therefore foreign lawyers will also be allowed to practise law in China under prescribed conditions.

"Since November 12, 1944, special criminal cases which have hitherto been tried by the military courts have now been put under the jurisdiction of ordinary courts. And beginning last month the courts have also been assigned the work of investigating crimes committed by the Japanese.

"As to the training of the judicial personnel, special departments and classes have been set up in the Central Political Institute and nine other universities and that cooperation with the Central Police Academy has been sought to train the wardens of detention houses."

E. Report on Home Affairs:—

Mr. Chang Li-sheng, Minister of the Interior, in his report on home affairs at the meeting of the PPC said: "the strengthening of the new hsien system through the setting up of more people's representative organs in different districts and the promotion of local self-government in preparation for the inauguration of constitutionalism which are the most im-

portant tasks in internal administration have been carried on with vigor in the past year.

"The organization of people's representative organs going hand in hand with local self-government will pave the way for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's principle of democracy and lay the foundation for national reconstruction. Only when the administration of home affairs is effectively carried out can the task of national rebuilding be successfully consummated.

"So far 50 hsien have organized their hsien People's Political Council, a great number of others have also set up provisional assemblies, town and village meetings and pao meetings in an effort to speed up local self-government. Before November of this year, all hsien assemblies must be in readiness for the general election.

"Despite financial limitations, the overhauling of administrative machinery and the training of administrative personnel to meet mounting requirements in the administration of hsien government have been pushed forward with unrelaxed effort.

"The successful functioning of local self-government will greatly facilitate the successful execution of the government's policy of armed resistance and national reconstruction. It is the task of the Ministry to supervise and guide the people in local self-government."

Minister Chang also laid great emphasis on a sound police system, declaring that the training of competent police officers and constables go a long way toward maintaining social order. He

added that the Ministry had been taking great pains at the rigid enforcement of police education.

F. Report on Food Situation:—Mr. Hsu Kan, Minister of Food in his report at the meeting of the PPC said:

"Since the adoption of the policy of levying land tax in kind and compulsory borrowing of rice from rich land-owners, the Government has been able to meet the enormous needs of armed forces, government employees, teachers and students. During the present "food year" (from October to September), the Government is sure to collect, including voluntary contribution more than 64,000,000 piculs of rice which are quite sufficient to meet the demand.

"Shortage of modern facilities for both storage and transportation has made the food problem rather difficult. Every year 2% loss of rice will be incurred through improper storage and long distance of transportation. However, more modern warehouses and the assistance of the U.S. Army Headquarters and the Wartime Transport Board have been sought to overcome all these difficulties.

"All the provincial and municipal land tax and food control offices have been put under the Ministry of Food. The Ministry has, however, abolished more than 100 of its subordinate organs and cut down over 10,000 persons on its staff for the retrenchment of expenditure. Incompetent officials have been dismissed and corrupt officials severely dealt with."

G. Report on Agricultural Rehabilitation:—Mr. Chien Tien-ho, Vice-Minister of Agricul-

ture and Forestry, reported on agricultural situation. He said: "the improvement of land utilization and farming technique so as to increase agricultural production and the elevation of the standard of education of farmers so as to raise their working efficiency had been the most important tasks in our agricultural reconstruction program.

"Although China is an agricultural country and occupies a foremost position in the production of rice, wheat, cotton, etc., she is still not self-sufficient in food and clothing as the efficiency of Chinese farmers is lower than that of the farmers of other countries. Moreover cultivated land occupies only one-tenth of the total area of this country.

"The industrialization of a country should be carried out on a sound agricultural basis. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the production of raw materials for industry besides giving sufficient food and clothing to the people. Foreign technical cooperation will be sought in our improvement of agriculture and forestry and the export of agricultural products will be encouraged in the future."

Reviewing the work of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry during the past year Mr. Chien revealed that considerable success had been met with in increasing the production of rice, cotton, and silk. Small-scale irrigation projects had been developed in different provinces, which were expected to water a total of 4,000,000 mow of land. Research work on the distribution of seeds and the improvement of

cattle raising was continuing and had had notable results.

The Ministry had also produced fertilizers and medicines for the prevention of pests.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry was now also making plans for post-war agricultural rehabilitation in China. Mr. Chien pointed out that more than 30 percent of the agricultural motive power had been destroyed by the enemy and the relief of farmers after the war would be the most urgent work of the Ministry. Plans were being formulated to make the best use of US\$100,000,000 worth of agricultural materials which UNRRA would send to China.

H. Report on Social Affairs :—

Mr. Ku Cheng-kang, Minister of Social Affairs, stressed at the general meeting of the People's Political Council that the farmers' societies would be the backbone of China's rural enterprises, and the Government's policy toward farmers' societies was to turn them into such organizations as to be governed entirely by the farmers themselves. Mr. Ku further said that the enforcement of voluntary labor had been very successful. Up to the end of March 1945, 342 voluntary labor parties had been formed, and 29,089,988 volunteers had done 134,067,962 units of work saving the Government \$26,000,000,000 if the wage for each unit of labor was estimated at \$200. These volunteers were engaged in the building of highways and rural roads, digging of wells, tree-

planting, cultivation of waste lands, transportation of food-stuffs, construction of aerodromes and other kinds of engineering work.

Mr. Ku said, "There are 1,781 relief organizations in China, staffed by 149,292 persons. Over \$300,000,000 was spent in last year's relief work in west Hunan, Kwangsi and Kweichow.

"As to the welfare for laborers, the Ministry of Social Affairs has stressed the 8-hour system, and the wages of laborers are adjusted in accordance with the variation in price indices. The security and hygienic facilities for workers also receive the attention of the Ministry. The Ministry has recently inspected the security and hygienic facilities in more than 900 factories, and found out that the facilities in government-owned factories are better than private ones. The Government's labor policy is to help labor unions to train laborers to be their own leaders.

"Regarding the care for children, the Ministry provided food, lodging and clothing to unlucky ones. In China there are 703 orphanages, accommodating 219,274 children.

"People's organizations have recently been greatly improved and developed.

"Farmers' societies have 2,921,831 members; labor unions, 890,266 members; industrial and commercial bodies, 333,425 members; professional groups, 171,589 members; and other bodies, such as charity and academic institutions

and non-professional groups, 1,318,718 members.

"The attention of the Ministry of Social Affairs is centered on the popularization and development of professional groups, and the improvement of their organization with a view to coordinating the realization of constitutional government and the enforcement of China's war-time economic policy.

"There are 45,739 Chinese seamen abroad and they are organizing unions. The number of cooperatives has greatly increased. Up to the end of May last, there are 171,698 cooperatives with 16,527,456 members and a total capital of \$925,976,072."

Mr. Ku concluded his report by revealing the Ministry's preparations for the work of post-war demobilization. The post-war demobilization plan would be drawn in accordance with the policy laid down by the Central Government. Post-war social welfare schemes would be coordinated with those of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration and such plans would be carried out in accordance with the resolutions passed at the 6th Kuomintang Committee.

I. REPORT ON ADMINISTRATIVE POLICY

General Hsiung Chih-hui, then Secretary-General of the Central Planning Board, at the general meeting of People's Political Council reported:

"During the year 1945, in which the world war will probably end, the Chinese Government and people must concentrate all their efforts in coordinating with the Allied forces in an all-out counter-

offensive to bring the enemy to unconditional surrender.

"The above principle, contained in Chapter 1, General Provisions, of the Draft of the National Administrative Policy for the Year 1946, is the main theme of the Draft. The Draft contains five chapters, namely, General Provisions, Military Affairs, Political Affairs, Economic Affairs, and Rehabilitation and Reconstruction.

"The most important points in the Chapter on Military Affairs, are the completion of plans for reorganizing the army and the building of a modern army. The treatment of fighting officers and men will be improved, army discipline will be strictly observed, and the modernization of the national army is to be completed as quickly as possible.

"As to political affairs, constitutional government will be realized according to the Constitution, local self-government will be strengthened, and the freedoms of the people protected, so as to lay the foundation for a democratic government. Furthermore, administration will be coordinated with the military development, and the Government will work with the Allies in disposing post-war Japan and cooperate closely with the United Nations.

"The Government's economic policy calls for the increase of the production of important industrial, mineral, and agricultural products, and daily necessities with a view to stabilizing commodity prices and realizing equal distribution. It also aims at increasing the efficiency of government banks and tighten their control over finances,

so as to stabilize remittance rates and the value of the legal tender.

"The plans for post-war relief, rehabilitation and demobilization will be carried out step by step with the progress of the counter offensive and concrete plans for post-war economic reconstruction and the preparations for its realization will be completed at the earliest possible date."

III. IMPORTANT RESOLUTIONS BY THE COUNCIL

A total of 465 proposals relating to national defence, internal administration, foreign policy and other questions which have an important bearing on the nation's administrative work were examined by seven separate examination committees of the P.P.C.

The first group comprising 36 P.P.C. members studied 36 proposals relating to military affairs and national defence.

The second group consisting of 49 P.P.C. members examined 28 proposals concerning diplomatic and international affairs.

The third group, which is composed of 52 P.P.C. members, examined 95 proposals dealing with home affairs.

The fourth group consisting of 63 P.P.C. members studied 114 proposals relating to financial and economic affairs.

The fifth group comprising 51 P.P.C. members discussed in detail 64 proposals concerning educational and cultural work.

The sixth and seventh groups, each with 17 members conducted an examination of some 98 proposals bearing on commodity prices, judicial work, social relief, medicine and health problems.

Government officials concerned attended each of the meetings to answer interpellations.

A. Resolution on Military Affairs:
—The following resolutions relating to military affairs with special emphasis on the betterment of the present conscription system were passed by the P.P.C. to be submitted to the Government for enforcement.

To improve the food and nutrition for the fighting men;

To better the treatment of the soldiers in accordance with the actual requirements and living conditions of the locality in which they are stationed;

To improve the allocation of food subsidies for horses;

To set up sanitarium and receiving centers for honored warriors;

To provide greater facilities for taking care of the families of the fallen warriors and to erect shrines in honor of martyrs in order to boost the morale of the fighting men.

To heighten the quality and elevate the prestige of the gendarmie in order to enforce greater discipline in the army;

To improve the present system of army and civilian cooperation stations;

To demarcate the powers of the local government and the armed forces stationed at or passing through the area under the armors' jurisdiction and to prohibit the armed forces from interfering with the local administration so as to heighten administrative efficiency and safeguard the principle of government by law.

To petition the Government to improve the discipline of the fighting men on the front.

To suppress corruption among the fighting forces on the front.

To petition the Government to improve the equipment of the people's self-defence units in Honan which have contributed much to the war of resistance in cooperation with Chinese regulars.

To transfer some of the troops now under training and reorganization in Kansu to other places and to abolish unnecessary military organs so as to augment our strength of counter-offensive.

B. Resolutions on Foreign Affairs :

—There were a number of resolutions in connection with foreign affairs of which the resolution urging the Government to negotiate for abolition of discriminatory laws against overseas Chinese was most important.

The full text of the resolution reads:

"After listening to the oral report by Dr. K. C. Wu, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, on foreign and overseas affairs, the People's Political Council is deeply gratified with the endeavor of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in abolishing the unequal treaties during the past years. But the Ministry of Foreign Affairs should continue to negotiate with those friendly nations with which new equal treaties have not yet been concluded.

"China's stand in the previous international conferences was quite proper, especially in the Dumbarton Oaks Conference and the United Nations Conference in San Francisco in which China's

policy won a great deal of sympathy and support both at home and abroad. This clearly demonstrates China's traditional policy, which is the attainment of the prosperity of mankind and mutual assistance and cooperation among nations. To attain this aim, the eternal peace of the world must be preserved.

"Although China's suggestions were not fully included in the United Nations Charter, the Charter is more practicable than the old Covenant of the League of Nations. We firmly believe that in due course of time, the Charter will gradually reach the state of perfection. We earnestly hope that the Government will soon ratify the Charter, so as to show our sincerity in creating a system of international collective security and in fully carrying out the United Nations Charter.

"The practical effect of the United Nations Charter will entirely depend on whether there will be whole-hearted cooperation between the various nations. Therefore, China should not only strengthen the mutual assistance between herself and the United States, Britain, Russia and France, but should also conclude long-term mutual assistance treaties with them.

"China should also maintain friendly relations with other members of the United Nations, especially those liberated nations in the Far East, with which ties of friendship should be maintained and the spirit of good-neighborliness should be developed.

"There has been much discrimination by other countries against our overseas Chinese. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs should continue to endeavor to negotiate with such nations, so that unequal and unreasonable treatment of overseas Chinese may be completely abolished within the shortest time possible. This is a problem with which every Chinese citizen is deeply concerned and which all our friendly nations should be able to understand."

C. Resolutions on Interior Affairs:

—Among many resolutions which were passed at the General Meeting of the People's Political Council, the one concerning the Interior affairs was most important. The resolution reads as following:

"The power of the Ministry of the Interior should be increased so that it can actually carry out reforms in internal affairs. To remove corruption among government officials, a system of civil service examinations should be set up and the enforcement of local self-government speeded up.

"Municipal autonomy should be enforced first, as a model for hsien autonomy. The systems for the election of mayor and members of municipal people's council by residents in the municipality should be enforced. The powers of the police and "pao" chiefs should be divided, so that the power of the police will not override that of the people.

"Hsien autonomy should be carried out according to the new hsien system, and the organization of hsien government should be simplified. The hsien government being the foundation of democratic government, should establish

representative organs as quickly as possible, so that the people can exercise their supervising power over the hsien government. No organization should interfere with the affairs of the hsien government except the hsien people's council and the provincial government.

"As to the selection of magistrates, the standard of their qualifications should be raised, their appointment and recall should be handled with great care, the employment of private personnel should be strictly prohibited, and no military officer without a clear understanding of people's affairs should be appointed magistrate. The hsien budget should be strictly regulated. The chiefs of "hsiang," "chen," "pao" and "chia" should be elected by popular vote, and the occupation of basic organs under the hsien by gentry and vagabonds should be carefully prevented.

"As regards the provincial government particular attention should be directed to the following points: (1) The division of the military and civil rule should be gradually carried out, and no military man should be permitted to hold the concurrent post as governor or member of provincial government; (2) The establishment of provincial people's councils, as the people's organ for supervising the provincial government, should be completed as soon as possible; and (3) The provincial government and other organizations should be strictly prohibited from interfering with the affairs of the representative organs or illegally oppressing members of provincial and hsien people's councils.

"Improvement in quality and betterment of treatment should be the first things in improving police administration. Other matters on internal affairs pertaining to preparations for demobilization and reconstruction should also be studied and planned with special attention."

D. Resolution on Land Administration. The following is the summary of the text:—"The training of personnel for land administration should be intensified and carried out on a large scale. The enforcement of land law should be based on the principles of 'land for the tillers' and 'the urban land increment should belong to the public.' The Land Law should be revised and promulgated at an early date.

"As to readjustments in land administration, scientific methods and new methods of aerial surveying should be employed, and place photography should be made, so that accurate land charts may be drawn.

"The Government should allot large funds for buying land and distributing it to the farmers. Loans to farmers should be facilitated, and the measures for such loans should be improved. The objective of loans to farmers is to help farmers who till their own land, especially poor farmers."

E. Resolution on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs. The summary of the text is as follows:—"The existing organizations in Mongolia and Tibet should be strengthened and improved so as to enforce local self-government. Economic setups in Mongolia and Tibet should be developed to increase production and promote the

livelihood of people in border regions. Public health enterprises in Mongolia and Tibet should be developed to improve the health of the nation.

"Talented youth of Mongolia and Tibet should be further cultivated and given actual work to do. Preparations for the demobilization and enlistment of people of the various Mongolian banners in war areas should be made in order to coordinate with the military counter-offensive."

F. Resolutions on Educational and Cultural Work:—A total of 42 resolutions were adopted at the General Meeting of the People's Political Council concerning the promotion of educational and cultural work in China.

Several of the resolutions urged that the treatment of the central primary schools in every district and the people's schools at every "pao" should be so improved that they might devote their whole time and energy to the education of pupils. An ample fund for the promotion of people's education should be designated by the government.

Some of the resolutions urged the Government to promote education and science and to enlist the service of talented scientists. The training of more technicians so as to facilitate industrial reconstruction was also emphasized.

Several other important resolutions lay special emphasis on the promotion of physical education of the people, which is the very foundation of our national rejuvenation.

Five resolutions on the rallying and training of youths from war areas requested the Government

to set aside a large amount of money for the purpose. All the youths, after being trained, should be sent back to their native places to work with the counter-attacking forces.

The government was to be petitioned to improve the treatment for newspapermen and uphold the freedom of press so as to solidify a cultural foundation and enforce democracy. Government assistance would also be sought to maintain the existing private printing enterprise.

The development of education in border areas such as Sinkiang, Tibet and Mongolia was also urged in several resolutions. The Government was requested to send regularly a number of students from border areas to study in Europe and America on government scholarships.

G. Resolutions on Relief work :—
Resolutions on relief work are as follows:

To petition the Government to bring relief, especially food, to famine-stricken Shensi;

To set up a CNRRA branch office in the liberated area in Kwangsi and to rush relief, including medicine, food, clothing to that place;

To petition the Government to appropriate funds for the relief of stricken people in Shansi;

To petition the Government to bring prompt relief to war-ravaged and drought-affected Chekiang;

To petition the Government to improve health facilities, especially in frontier districts and prisons;

To make preparations for the setting up of a CNRRA branch office in Formosa;

To formulate definite plans for rehabilitation work in provinces close to war areas;

To petition the Government to bring relief to the drought-affected Kansu;

To petition the Government to take care of war orphans;

To petition the Government to bring relief to railroad workers along the Lunghai line, now only remaining communication artery in the country.

IV. SUGGESTIONS BY THE PPC

Besides adopting over hundreds of resolutions, the Fourth People's Political Council also made many suggestions on the improvement of the work of the Ministries of Economic Affairs, Finance, Communications, and Agriculture and Forestry.

A Suggestion on the work of the Ministry of Economic Affairs:—

1. The profits of state enterprises and provincial enterprises should be handed over to the national treasury or provincial treasuries and should be listed in the national budget.

2. The Industrial Law, which is the guiding principle of our industrialization, should be immediately drafted.

3. The fixed standards for 18 basic industries which have been promulgated should be immediately put into effect.

4. The final victory being well in sight, the program of economic demobilization and rehabilitation should be mapped out in detail immediately.

5. Efforts should be made to increase the production of coal,

petroleum and steel and to improve the mechanical, chemical and electrical industries.

B. Suggestions on the work of the War Production Board:—

The priority system should be practised in increasing production. Priority should be given to generators and dynamos in air transportation from abroad. Efforts should be made to increase the tonnage in air transportation so that Lend-Lease materials may be continually shipped to China. Effective measures should be taken in mobilizing personnel in state and private enterprises for developing industries when many ports are opened and large quantities of machinery and material may be shipped in. The Government should appropriate a large amount of fund to help increase production so as to combat inflation.

C. Suggestions on the work of the Ministry of Finance:

1. The land tax should be equally borne by land-owners, and the policies of tax in kind and government borrowing of grains should be improved. More reasonable and just taxes should be initiated so as to expand the sources of our national revenue. The procedure of tax levying should be simplified.

2. It is the most urgent task of the Ministry of Finance to further tighten the banking control, to absorb idle capital so as to absorb more banknotes and combat inflation. The Ministry should give positive guidance to various government and private banking corporations concerning their organization and business.

3. The coordination between the national economic and financial policies should be improved.

4. Effective measures should be taken to strengthen local self-government finances:

5. The readjustment of the issuance of banknotes and the stabilization of commodity prices should be strictly effected so as to help balance our national budget.

D. Suggestions on the work of the National Conservancy Board:

1. Construction work on the north section of the Lohui irrigation canal in Shensi should be completed as soon as possible.

2. The irrigation projects in Suiyuan, Ninghsia and Kansu should be mapped out within this year.

3. The dikes along the Yangtse River, the Yellow River and the Pearl River should be immediately repaired.

4. More small-scale irrigation projects should be developed so as to step up agricultural production.

E. Suggestions on the work of the Ministry of Communications:

1. Repair work on the Lunghai, Peiping-Hankow, Canton-Hankow, Hunan-Kwangsi and Kweichow-Kwangsi Railways should be speeded up while construction work on the Tien-shui-Lanchow Railway which will contribute much to the development of the Northwest, should be started as soon as possible.

2. Special attention should be paid to the maintenance and improvement of the Stilwell Road so as to fully utilize its traffic capacity. More new trucks should be imported from abroad to meet the demand of counter-

offensives. Highway and stage transportation administration should be improved.

3. The Ministry of Communications should promptly promulgate the civil aviation policy of our country so as to encourage the development of our civil aviation enterprise after the war and strengthen the structure of the organization in charge of the civil aviation enterprise.

4. The Ministry of Communications should also promulgate the navigation policy of our country and concrete measures should be mapped out to cancel the foreign inland navigation rights and to encourage the civil navigation enterprise. More steam ships and wooden boats should be built so as to strengthen our navigation capacity.

5. Air mail and telegraphic services between southeastern China and the interior should be promptly started or strengthened.

F. Suggestions on the work of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry:

1. In the development of agriculture and forestry in China, the Ministry concerned should first of all formulate a definite policy and a concrete plan which should be formulated on facts and statistical figures.

2. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry should lay special emphasis on the development of irrigation projects, the propagation of improved seeds, and the manufacture and utilization of farming implements and fertilizers, which are the main factors in the development of agriculture and forestry.

3. The Ministry should pay equal attention to the maintenance and increase of agricultural production and therefore help to maintain the production of silk, tung oil, bristles, etc.

4. The Ministry should spare no effort in the prevention of animal epidemics and should set up more preventive stations throughout the pasturage area and more plants to manufacture plasma to meet the demand. The Ministry should also take measures to encourage husbandry.

5. The Ministry should also take effective measures to plant more trees as well as to maintain the existing forests so as to meet the demand of wood in post-war reconstruction.

6. The Ministry should, in cooperation with other organizations concerned, to develop an agricultural banking network throughout the country, increase the agricultural loans and simplify the procedures for granting them.

V. THE QUESTION OF NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

One of the main interests of the Members of the PPC was centered on the question of the National Assembly. Different proposals had been made by Members of different political colors in the Council. Many of them insisted that there must be no further change in the date fixed for convening the Assembly, namely, November 12, while others proposed that some preliminary conference, with leaders from different parties and non-partisan people taking part in it, should be called by the Government to consider all questions in connection with the National Assembly,

before the date should be finally decided upon.

Although all the proposals and opinions relating to this question had been submitted to a special committee, consisting of 30 PPC members, for careful examination, the views expressed by over 40 PPC members could be summed up as follows: The National Assembly should be convoked on November 12 as was decided by the Government, the representatives elected before the war according to law should continue to be such in the forthcoming National Assembly and more representatives should be elected; the National Assembly to be convoked on November 12 should not only enact a constitution but also enforce it.

Messrs. Tso Shun-sheng, and Shao Chung-en, leaders of the Youth Party and Democratic League respectively urged that the convocation of the National Assembly be postponed on the ground that it might further complicate our internal political problems while those in favor of the convocation of the Assembly on November 12 asserted that our internal political problems should be discussed and solved by the people and that the convocation of the National Assembly was therefore the only way to settle our political situation.

Moreover, those in favor of the convocation of the assembly as originally scheduled also expressed the opinion that it was the desire of the people, the promise of the government and the hope of our friendly Allies that the Kuomintang would end the stage of political tutelage and the

Chinese Government would return the political power to the people as soon as possible so as to build up a democratic China, the People's Political Council should not decide to further postpone the convocation of the Assembly for otherwise it would disappoint the people, lower the prestige of the Government and affect the confidence of our Allies in our Government.

As for the election of the representatives in the Assembly the consensus of opinion was that the election held before the war according to law should be considered as valid and those already elected should remain representatives in the forthcoming National Assembly. Those provinces and municipalities which had not held elections before the war should immediately elect their representatives. More representatives should be elected so that those who had made contributions to our war of resistance and our talented youths who were of age should also be elected to the Assembly. Woman members of the PPC urged that the percentage of the women representatives of the National Assembly should be 20%.

Prof. Chow Ping-ling said that before the convocation of the National Assembly, we should first of all make all necessary preparations for the realization of constitutionalism. Prof. Hsu Te-heng advocated that we should favor the convocation of the National Assembly if it could be conducted in such a way as to strengthen our national solidarity, and Prof. Chien Teng-sheng urged that all parties and factions should lay

more emphasis on the benefit of the nation, sincerely and earnestly striving for our internal solidarity which was pre-requisite to the convocation of the National Assembly.

Realizing the magnitude of the issue, members of the special examination committee with the exception of the Communists who did not attend the meeting had taken great pains to avoid friction of personal opinions and reached complete agreement after three hours of careful discussion and examination.

The P.P.C. session finally reached its crescendo when the following four points were passed at the meeting by a vote of 187 out of the 196 P.P.C. members present:—

1. The date for the convocation of the National Assembly is to be left to the discretion of the Government.

2. The membership of the Assembly, with due regard to the legal and practical aspects of the issue and in accord with the opinions of the P.P.C. members, is to have the fullest possible representation of all classes of people in the country.

3. When a constitution is adopted, a constitutional government shall be inaugurated.

4. Prior to the convocation of the Assembly, the Government is to continue to employ all available political means for attaining national unity and solidarity, to insure freedom of opinion, of publication, of assembly, of organizing political societies, to enforce the Habeas Corpus Act, to recognize the legal status of various political parties and to complete the setting up of people's representative organs in all provinces of Free China in order to lay a solid foundation for local self-government.

PART III
THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER XI

THE PRESIDENTIAL AND EXECUTIVE POWERS

I. THE PRESIDENT

The President of the National Government is the Chief of the State. The exact functions of the Presidency, however, have undergone many changes during the past two decades. Like many other living institutions, its functions varied as the occupants of the office varied. It is generally agreed that the British Premiership under Mr. Asquith was not exactly the same thing as that under Mr. Lloyd George, and the American Presidency under the Wilson Administration presented many marked contrasts to that of the late President Roosevelt. The presidential powers of the Chinese Government have waxed and waned, sometimes consciously, at others imperceptibly, but the changes have invariably been dictated by the interests of the state, which always come first in the consideration of any alteration in the governmental machinery.

In July 1925, when the present National Government was first created in Canton, the highest administrative organ was the State Council composed of 16 members, whose Chairman was nominally the President or *Chu-hsi* (主席), of the Government. But as its Organic Law provided that the direction of national affairs must rest with the decisions of

the State Council, which had to be resolved by a majority, the Chairman actually possessed no specific power. He was therefore only the titular chief of the State.

If the Organic Law of 1925 had not been explicit in its definition of the Presidential powers, that promulgated in Nanking in 1928 had been quick to remedy that defect. The latter expressly provided that the President, besides performing such ceremonial functions as devolving upon him as the Chief of State, shall be vested with such powers as belonging to the executive Chief of the Republic.

However, from December 1931 until September 1943 the President of the National Government performed hardly more than ceremonial functions. He was elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang for a period of two years and was eligible for re-election. Legally representing the National Government but having no actual political responsibility, he was merely the Chairman of the State Council.

After the death of the late President Lin Sen on August 1, 1943, and as a result of the unanimous vote in electing Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as the successor at the Eleventh Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in

September 1943, the power of the President was restored and the Organic Law of the National Government was revised accordingly.

The outstanding features of the revised Organic Law of the National Government can be enumerated in the following eight points:

1. The President and the State Councillors shall be elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.
2. The President shall have a tenure of three years of office and is eligible for re-election.
3. In case the President of the National Government being unable to attend his office, the President of the Executive Yuan shall act on his behalf.
4. The President of the National Government shall be concurrently the Commander-in-Chief of the Army, Navy and Air Forces.
5. The Presidents and Vice-Presidents of the five Yuan shall be chosen from among State Councillors by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang at the instance of the President of the National Government.
6. The five Yuan shall wield separately their respective powers.
7. The President of the National Government shall be responsible to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang; whilst the Presidents of the five Yuan shall be responsible to the President

of the National Government.

8. All the Government activities shall be discharged in the name of the President of the National Government with the counter-signature of the President of the Yuan concerned.

Evidently the President of the National Government possesses a much greater power than is provided in the original Organic Law.

II. THE STATE COUNCIL

The State Council (also known as the Council of the State) is nominally the highest governmental body of the Republic. It has thirty-six members, at the head of which stands the Chairman or the President of the National Government. The State Council performs largely ceremonial duties and, nominally at least it stands at the apex of the governmental structure, whence ordinance and mandates bearing highest authorities emanate. Although according to Article 17 of the Organic Law of the National Government of the Republic of China, "all matters which cannot be settled between two or more of the Yuan shall be referred to the meetings of the State Council for decision," the existence of the Central Political Council of the Kuomintang, in pre-war days, with its supreme political power, greatly over-shadowed the State Council. During the war years, the emergence of the Supreme National Defence Council, also seriously curtailed the legitimate activity of the State Council.

The National Government in its narrow sense is synonymous with

The State Council, Under the State Council are the Office of Military and Civil Affairs, Comptroller-General's Office, Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Political Officials, Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Mausoleum Commission, Academia Sinica etc.

III. THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

The Executive Yuan is the highest executive organ and has direct supervision and general direction over the various Ministries, Commissions and Administrations. At present, the Executive Yuan consists of 11 ministries, 2 commissions 3 administrations and one Board. They are (1) 11 Ministries: Ministry of the Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of War, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Communications, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Ministry of Social Affairs, Ministry of Food and Ministry of Justice; (2) 2 Commissions: the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission and the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission; (3) 3 Administrations: The National Health Administration, the Land Administration and the National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration and (4) 1 Board: National Conservancy Board. In addition, there are a number of minor administrative bodies directly under the Yuan such as the Board of the Trustees for the British Portion of the 1901 Indemnity Fund, the National Publications Examination Committee, etc.

In the Executive Yuan itself

there are two separate Departments, namely, the Secretariat and the Department of Political Affairs;* the former is headed by a Secretary-General and the latter by a Director.

During its existence the Department of Political Affairs took charge of all matters relating to the Yuan Meeting. It also took charge of all matters which were to be brought before the Legislative Yuan, or which were referred therefrom. In order that State matters under the contemplation of a certain Ministry or Commission may not become incompatible with the existing laws or the policies of other Ministries or Commissions, it is required that all such matters be submitted to the Secretariat and the Department of Political Affairs of the Executive Yuan for preliminary study before being submitted to the President of the Executive Yuan for approval.

An order or a proposed administrative measure of one of the Ministries or Commissions, which may be in conflict with the existing laws must be submitted to the Department of Political Affairs of the Executive Yuan for reference or to the Yuan Meeting, as the case may be, where it may be approved or amended. Should it be amended it would be returned to the originating body for revision.

IV. THE YUAN MEETING

The Executive Yuan meets once a week, which is generally called the Yuan Meeting, attended by its President, Vice-President and the heads of the various Ministries,

*It was abolished on December 11, 1945 and its functions were taken over by the Secretariat of the Executive Yuan.

Commissions and Administrations. The chief function of the Yuan Meeting is to deliberate on all executive and administrative affairs. Matters of the under-mentioned nature must be brought to the Yuan Meeting for deliberation and decision:—

1. Bills on legislative matters to be introduced in the Legislative Yuan;
2. Budgets to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan;
3. Amnesties to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan;
4. Declaration of war and negotiation for peace to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan;
5. The appointment or dismissal of administrative and judicial officials of the central government as well as local governments of and above the rank of "recommended appointment" and the appointment or dismissal of military officers of the army,

navy and air forces of and above the rank of a major;

6. All matters which cannot be settled between the various Ministries and Commission of the Executive Yuan;
7. All matters which, according to law or in the opinion of the President of the said Yuan, should be decided at the meetings of the said Yuan.

The Executive Yuan, standing at the head of the administrative hierarchy, provides the propelling force and assumed responsibility for the activities of the various ministries, commissions and administrations 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.

CHAPTER XII

THE LEGISLATURE

I. THE ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

The Legislative Yuan is the highest legislative organ of the National Government. It is composed of a President, a Vice-President, and 49-99 Legislative Members. The President and Vice-President are elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang from the State Councillors of the National Government at the instance of the President of the National Government.

The President of the Legislative Yuan has the power:

(A) To nominate to the President of the National Government for the appointment or removal of the Legislative Members in accordance with Law;

(B) To preside over the meeting of the Legislative Yuan;

(C) To direct the work of the Yuan and its subsidiary organizations;

(D) To maintain order in the Yuan meeting as well as to adjust the agenda of the Yuan meeting;

(E) To make proposals for reconsideration in the event of a Bill's failure to pass by a resolution at the Yuan meeting. The President may so request the Central Political Committee's decision prior to the reconsideration, in which case the Yuan

Meeting is bound to follow the decision. During the absence of the President of the Legislative Yuan the Vice-President acts in his place.

Legislative Members may be appointed or removed from office by the National Government at the instance of the President of the Legislative Yuan. They not only have the right to attend all Yuan and various committee meetings but also to introduce Bills for discussion and vote for their adoption.

With a view to facilitating the examination and discussion of Bills etc., the Legislative Yuan created five standing committees, viz: the Law Codification Committee, the Foreign Relations Committee, the Finance Committee, the Economic Committee and the Military Affairs Committee. Members of the various Committees were chosen from among the Legislative Members. The Chairman of each Committee is appointed by the President of the Yuan to direct the work of the Committee and preside over the Committee meeting. Besides, there are seven special committees such as the Civil Law Committee, the Penal Code Committee, the Commercial Law Committee, the Labor Law Committee, the Self-Government Law Committee, and the Land Law Committee to take care of the drafting and discussion of various

laws. Furthermore, there is a Constitution Publicity Committee for the publicity of the constitution. These special committees have no chairman but only a convener appointed by the President of the Yuan. Recently a Research Committee on Alien Legislation has been created to study the legislations relating to aliens, in view of the new agreements and treaties signed between China and U.S.A., and between China and Great Britain.

With respect to the routine work there are the Secretariat and the Bureau of Legislative Research. Under the Secretariat there are four sections such as Meeting Section, Compilation Section, Document Section and General Affairs Section, and three offices: Accounting Office, Statistics Office and Personnel Office.

II. THE INTERRELATIONS BETWEEN THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN AND THE FOUR MAJOR GOVERNMENT POWERS

The relationship between the Legislative Yuan and the four major governmental powers may be stated as follows:

A. The Executive Yuan, Judicial Yuan, Examination Yuan and Control Yuan may introduce Bills concerning matters within their respective competent authority, to the Legislative Yuan for deliberation and decision.

B. Besides the function of making laws, the Legislative Yuan has also the power of interrogation. When the Legislative Yuan finds that any other Yuan, Ministry or Commission has failed to enforce the law, or resolutions it has passed, it

may request the Yuan President, the Minister, or the Commission Chairman concerned to attend a Legislative Yuan Meeting and be interrogated. The request will be made by a resolution of the Legislative Yuan, brought forward by the presiding officer, or one-third of the Members present.

C. Further, it is also noteworthy that interrogation is not only a power, but also a responsibility. No law of any kind, including rules, regulations and organic laws, financial measures increasing the burden on the people, treaties giving rise to obligations affecting national sovereignty and other international agreements within the competence of the Legislative Yuan, will be null and void unless and until decided by the resolution of the Yuan. Should any of the above-mentioned be promulgated or enforced without a previous resolution of the legislature, the Legislative Yuan is charged with the duty of exercising its power of interrogation, and the promulgating or enforcing office will be deemed guilty of having usurped the legislative power. On the other hand, should the Legislative Yuan fail to interrogate the usurping office, it will be considered guilty of dereliction of duty.

III. THE GENERAL PROCEDURE OF LEGISLATION

In accordance with the basic principles stipulated in the general procedures of Legislation, all Bills introduced into the Legislative Yuan may be divided into four groups as follows:

A. Those from the Central Political Council (which was

later known as the Central Political Committee, and is at present functioning under the name of the Supreme National Defence Council).

B. Those from the National Government.

C. Those from the Executive, Judicial, Examination and Control Yuan to be examined and discussed.

D. Those introduced by the Legislative Members of the Legislative Yuan.

Bills of the first group include those introduced by the Central, Provincial and the Local Kuomintang Headquarters, or by Members of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang with the approval of and through the Committee. But the Committee itself does not directly introduce Bills. In the pre-war days, such Bills went through the Central Political Council and might, therefore, also be designated as Central Political Council Bills. Whenever a Bill was introduced by the Central Political Council, its principles were usually laid down. If the Legislative Yuan had a dissenting opinion on the principles of a Bill, such opinion might be submitted to the Central Political Council. Without the approval of the Council, however, the Yuan had no power to alter such principles. Neither could it amend the contents of the Bills to such an extent as to effect a fundamental change of the principle. In a word, the Central Political Council was the supreme authority in laying down legislative principles, and the Legislative Yuan, in this regard, was but a technical and advisory body. Since the Supreme National Defence

Council has taken over all the powers and functions of the Central Political Council the former's relation with the Legislative Yuan can be well understood and needs no elaboration.

A Ministry or Commission under any Yuan, or a provincial, local or municipal government under the Executive Yuan may introduce a law Bill into the Legislative Yuan concerning matters within their respective competence with the approval and in the name of its direct superior Yuan. When an office not under any of the five Yuan but directly under the National Government wishes to introduce a law Bill into the Legislative Yuan, it must submit the Bill to the National Government Council (State Council), which, after deliberation, will bring the Bill before the legislature, provided that the Bill concerns matters within the competence of the originating office.

A Bill must be introduced in writing. When a Bill is introduced to the Legislative Yuan, it is first assigned to a committee or committees for consideration and investigation. These committees may be standing committees, or select committees, or temporary ones appointed by the President of the Yuan. After the committee stage a report on the Bill will be brought before the Yuan meeting for discussion. In case of emergency, the Bill however goes directly to the Yuan meeting. Having gone through the three reading procedure, a Bill thus passed by the Legislative Yuan shall be submitted to the National Government for promulgation and enforcement.

APPENDIX

Bills passed by the Legislative Yuan from January 1944 to the end of August 1945.

During the period from January 1944 to the end of August 1945, the Legislative Yuan passed a total of 208 bills, including 158 law bills, 38 budget and finance bills, 12 treaties and conventions. The following is a complete list of statutes:

I. LAWS:

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mulgation by
the National
Government |
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| (1) Regulations Governing the Conferring of Honorary Rewards on Civilian Contributors of Educational Funds | Feb. 2, 1944 |
| (2) Law of Business Licence Tax | Feb. 11, 1944 |
| (3) Drafts of Legislative Principles Relating to the Financial Enterprises (Foreign Banks) | Feb. 11, 1944 |
| (4) Drafts of Legislative Principles Relating to Aliens Industries in China | Feb. 11, 1944 |
| (5) Drafts of Legislative Principles Relating to Foreign Trade and Custom Tariff .. | Feb. 11, 1944 |
| (6) Drafts of Legislative Principles Relating to Aliens into and Out of China and Travel, Residence, Preaching and Educational Enterprise of Aliens in China | Feb. 11, 1944 |
| (7) Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Communications | Nov. 11, 1944 |
| (8) Revised Postal Law | Feb. 23, 1944 |
| (9) Amending Rules of the Telegraph and Telephone Rates | Feb. 23, 1944 |
| (10) Regulations Governing Army Relief | Mar. 23, 1944 |
| (11) Regulations Governing Navy Relief | Mar. 23, 1944 |
| (12) Amending Tariff Rates of Coarse Linen From 8% to 5% in the Section 4 (b) of the Provisional Table of Domestic Goods Levied Under the Wartime Consumption Tax Scheme and Tariff Rates | Mar. 11, 1944 |
| (13) Law of Primary School | Mar. 15, 1944 |
| (14) Regulations Governing the Inoculation with Small-pox Vaccine | Mar. 13, 1944 |
| (15) Regulations Governing The Organization of the Wartime Freight Transportation Bureau of the Ministry of Finance | Mar. 15, 1944 |
| (16) Regulations Governing the Appointment of the Diplomatic and Personnel in the Consular Service Abroad | Mar. 14, 1944 |
| (17) Regulations Governing the Collection of Land Tax in Wartime .. | Mar. 28, 1944 |
| (18) Regulations Governing the Conferring of Honorary Rewards on Civilian Contributors of Funds for Public Health .. | Apr. 1, 1944 |
| (19) Provisional Table of Domestic and | |

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| <p>Import Goods Levied Under the Wartime Consumption Tax Scheme and Tariff Apr. 11, 1944</p> <p>(20) Revised Copyright Law Apr. 24, 1944</p> <p>(21) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Wartime Bureau Apr. 15, 1944</p> <p>(22) Regulations Governing the Personnel Appointed and Engaged .. Apr. 20, 1944</p> <p>(23) Revised Regulations Governing the National Reconstruction Savings Bonds Apr. 14, 1944</p> <p>(24) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Northwest Branch Bureau of the National Industrial Research Bureau of the Ministry of Economic Affairs Apr. 19, 1944</p> <p>(25) Revised Organic Law of the Provincial Government Apr. 28, 1944</p> <p>(26) Revised Regulations Governing the Rewards to Those Who Are Guarding the Responsible Areas in the War Zones.. May 2, 1944</p> <p>(27) Revised Regulations Governing the Examinations of Special Vocational and Technical Personnel.. May 3, 1944</p> <p>(28) Revised Regulations Governing the Wartime Administration of Import Goods, Supplemented with Tables May 29, 1944</p> <p>(29) Patent Law May 29, 1944</p> <p>(30) Revised Regulations Governing</p> | <p>the Retirement of School Teachers June 20, 1944</p> <p>(31) Revised Regulations Governing the Relief of School Teachers and Faculties .. June 20, 1944</p> <p>(32) Revised Law of Postal Savings.. June 17, 1944</p> <p>(33) Revised Provisional Regulations for Wartime Matches Monopoly . June 15, 1944</p> <p>(34) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Headquarters of Air Defense of Provincial Governments June 16, 1944</p> <p>(35) Regulations for Compulsory Education July 18, 1944</p> <p>(36) Regulations Governing the Establishment of the Provisional Administration of the Provincial Governments in the War Zones.. July 19, 1944</p> <p>(37) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Bureau of Local Administration .. July 19, 1944</p> <p>(38) Regulations for Passport July 22, 1944</p> <p>(39) Organic Law of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.. July 4, 1944</p> <p>(40) Revised Regulations Governing the Bamboo, Timber, Leather Goods, Furs, Porttery, Paper, and Paper Money Taxes July 21, 1944</p> <p>(41) Revised Regulations Governing the Native Tobacco and Wine Taxes July 22, 1944</p> <p>(42) Revised Regulations Governing the Conferring of Medals and Rewards on Navy, Army and Air Force July 17, 1944</p> |
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| <p>(43) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Northwest Hygienic Experimental Station.. July 19, 1944</p> <p>(44) Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Education July 15, 1944</p> <p>(45) Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Publication Examination Committee July 3, 1944</p> <p>(46) Regulations Governing the Collection of Charges on Beneficiary in the Municipal or Hsien Constructions Aug. 19, 1944</p> <p>(47) Revised Organic Law of the Ministry of Personnel Aug. 10, 1944</p> <p>(48) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Northwest Epidemic Prevention Station Aug. 10, 1944</p> <p>(49) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Southwest Ramies Improvement Station of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Aug. 11, 1944</p> <p>(50) Revised Supplemented Regulations Governing the Judicial Procedures of the Hsien Judicial Office Aug. 12, 1944</p> <p>(51) Abrogating the Law of Enforcement of the Regulations for the Agricultural Unions Aug. 12, 1944</p> <p>(52) Abrogating the Regulations Governing the Pension of Judicial Officers Aug. 12, 1944</p> | <p>(53) Revised Regulations for the Disposition of Enemy Properties Aug. 10, 1944</p> <p>(54) Revised Construction Law Sept. 21, 1944</p> <p>(55) Revised Regulations for War-time Control of Export and Import Goods July 14, 1944</p> <p>(56) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of Hsien Judicial Office Sept. 23, 1944</p> <p>(57) Revised Organic Law of the National Relief Commission Sept. 18, 1944</p> <p>(58) Regulations Governing the Consolidated Taxes .. Sept. 20, 1944</p> <p>(59) Regulations Governing the Collection of War-time Land Tax In Kind Sept. 19, 1944</p> <p>(60) Revised Regulations Governing the Election of Hsien Councilors Oct. 4, 1944</p> <p>(61) Revised Regulations for the Continuation School. Oct. 7, 1944</p> <p>(62) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Agricultural Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Oct. 11, 1944</p> <p>(63) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Commission for Promotion of Agricultural Products Oct. 9, 1944</p> <p>(64) Revised Law of Simple Life Insurance Oct. 6, 1944</p> <p>(65) Revised Regulations Governing the Rental Tax.. Oct. 3, 1944</p> <p>(66) Regulations for Salt Monopoly .. Oct. 19, 1944</p> |
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| <p>(67) Regulations Governing the Transference of the Courts Martial officers to those in the Judiciary . . . Oct. 18, 1944</p> <p>(68) Organic Law of the Ministry of Conscription . . . Oct. 25, 1944</p> <p>(69) Revised Regulations for the Educational Associations Oct. 31, 1944</p> <p>(70) Regulations for the Protection of Supplies of The Wartime Communication and Transportation . . Oct. 30, 1944</p> <p>(71) Regulations Governing the Enlistment of the Non-Commissioned Officers in the Army, Navy and Air Force . . Oct. 30, 1944</p> <p>(72) Regulations Governing the Election of Provincial Councillors . Dec. 5, 1944</p> <p>(73) Revised Regulations Governing the Appointment of Naval Officers Nov. 2, 1944</p> <p>(74) Revised Organic Law of the Department of Civil Affairs of the National Government Nov. 13, 1944</p> <p>(75) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Regional Control Reclamation Bureau Under the Reclamation Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Dec. 9, 1944</p> <p>(76) Revised Organic Law of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Dec. 2, 1944</p> <p>(77) Regulations for the Prevention of Epidemic Diseases Dec. 6, 1944</p> | <p>(78) Revised Regulations Governing the Election of Provincial Councillors Dec. 5, 1944</p> <p>(79) Revised Regulations Governing the Army Ceremonies Dec. 21, 1944</p> <p>(80) Organic Law of the Wartime Production Bureau . . Dec. 22, 1944</p> <p>(81) Regulations Governing the Examination of the Merits of Magistrates Dec. 26, 1944</p> <p>(82) Revised Organic Law of the National Relief Commission Dec. 26, 1944</p> <p>(83) Revised Regulations Governing the Examinations of the Special Vocational and Technical Personnel Dec. 27, 1944</p> <p>(84) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Municipal Council Jan. 30, 1945</p> <p>(85) Regulations Governing the Election of Municipal Councillors . . Jan. 30, 1945</p> <p>(86) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Monopoly Enterprises Department of the Ministry of Finance Jan. 19, 1945</p> <p>(87) Regulations Governing the Administration of Nitre Minings and the Like Jan. 23, 1945</p> <p>(88) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Northwest Veterinary Disease Prevention Center . . Jan. 18, 1945</p> <p>(89) Revised Law of Forestry Feb. 6, 1945</p> <p>(90) Regulations Governing the Organization of the United Nations Relief and Re-</p> |
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| | habilitation Association | Jan. 21, 1945 | (100) | Revised Regulations Governing the Collection of Land Tax in Wartime | Mar. 5, 1945 |
| (91) | Revised Provisional Regulations Governing the Inheritance Tax | Feb. 17, 1945 | (101) | Revised Organic Law of the Provincial Government | Mar. 5, 1945 |
| (92) | Revised Provisional Regulations Governing the Application of the Inheritance Tax Law | Feb. 17, 1945 | (102) | Revised Regulations Governing the Rewards to those who are Guarding the Responsible Areas in the War Zones.. | Apr. 30, 1945 |
| (93) | Revised Regulations Governing The Organization of the Bureau of Labor of the Ministry of Social Affairs | Feb. 15, 1945 | (103) | Regulations Governing the Adjustment of the Judicial Police .. | Apr. 10, 1945 |
| (94) | Revised Regulations Governing the Compulsory Education | Feb. 17, 1945 | (104) | Revised Lawyer's Law | Mar. 5, 1945 |
| (95) | Regulations for the Prohibition of the Violators of Ceiling and Fixed Prices | Feb. 17, 1945 | (105) | Revised Organic Law of the Administrative Court | Apr. 16, 1945 |
| (96) | Organic Law of the National Military College, together with its Charts of Organization and Administrative Systems | Apr. 7, 1945 | (106) | Revised Organic Law of the Court | Apr. 17, 1945 |
| (97) | Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Forestry Research Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry | Mar. 20, 1945 | (107) | Amending the Proposals for National Defence .. | Apr. 17, 1945 |
| (98) | Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Animal Husbandry Experimental Bureau | Mar. 20, 1945 | (108) | Legislative Principles Relating to the Land Ownership of Aliens in China | Apr. 17, 1945 |
| (99) | Regulations Governing the Exchange of Officers of National Government to Local Governments and Vice Versa | Mar. 19, 1945 | (109) | Revised Regulations Governing the Tax on Title-deed | Apr. 17, 1945 |
| | | | (110) | Regulations Governing the Organization of the Educational Research Committee of the Ministry of Education | Apr. 14, 1945 |
| | | | (111) | Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Northwest Library .. | Apr. 14, 1945 |
| | | | (112) | Regulations Governing the Organization of the Control Bureau for the Administrative Telegrams of the Executive | |

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| <p>(113) Yuan Apr. 26, 1945</p> <p>(114) Revised Regulations Governing the Appointment of Police Officers Apr. 27, 1945</p> <p>(115) Revised Regulations for the Preferential Treatment of the Families of the Officers and Men at the Front Apr. 26, 1945</p> <p>(116) Revised Organic Law of the Commission of Civil Service Examination Apr. 27, 1945</p> <p>(117) Principles of the Adjustment of the Public Functionaries Apr. 27, 1945</p> <p>(118) Revised Law of the Payment of the Civil Procedure Charges .. May 16, 1945</p> <p>(119) Revised Law of Compulsory Enforcement May 16, 1945</p> <p>(120) Revised Regulations of the Organization of the Research Institute of Medical Jurisprudence of the Ministry of Justice May 16, 1945</p> <p>(121) Revised Regulations Governing the Conferring of Honorary Rewards on Civilian Contributors of Educational Funds May 10, 1945</p> <p>(122) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Anti - epidemic Corps of the National Health Administration May 10, 1945</p> <p>(123) Revised Organic Law of the War-time Production Bureau May 12, 1945</p> <p>(124) Bill of Increasing The Existing Alimentary Salt Tax to \$50 per catty May 11, 1945</p> <p>(125) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Branch Office of the Cotton, Yarn and Cloth Control Bureau May 11, 1945</p> <p>(126) Law of the Issuance Tax of Business License May 11, 1945</p> <p>(127) Regulations Governing the Rewards of Medals to the Air Force May 11, 1945</p> <p>(128) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Land Tax Administration of the Ministry of Food May 11, 1945</p> <p>(129) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Physical Education Committee of the Ministry of Education .. May 11, 1945</p> <p>(130) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Committee for Promotion of National Spoken Language Movement of the Ministry of Education May 11, 1945</p> <p>(131) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Northwest Veterinary Disease Prevention Center May 11, 1945</p> <p>(132) Regulations Governing the Increasing of the Standard of Penal Fines and Pecuniary Penalties June 13, 1945</p> <p>(133) Regulations Governing the Provincial Banks .. July 30, 1945</p> <p>(134) Regulations Governing the War-time Leased Lands for Construction July 30, 1945</p> <p>(135) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Southwest Regional Controlling Office of the</p> | <p>ganization of the</p> <p>Branch Office of</p> <p>the Cotton, Yarn</p> <p>and Cloth Con-</p> <p>trol Bureau</p> <p>May 11, 1945</p> <p>Law of the Is-</p> <p>suance Tax of</p> <p>Business License</p> <p>May 11, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the Re-</p> <p>wards of Medals</p> <p>to the Air Force</p> <p>May 11, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the Or-</p> <p>ganization of the</p> <p>Land Tax Admin-</p> <p>istration of the</p> <p>Ministry of Food</p> <p>May 11, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the Or-</p> <p>ganization of the</p> <p>Physical Educa-</p> <p>tion Committee</p> <p>of the Ministry</p> <p>of Education ..</p> <p>May 11, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the Or-</p> <p>ganization of the</p> <p>Committee for</p> <p>Promotion of Na-</p> <p>tional Spoken</p> <p>Language Move-</p> <p>ment of the</p> <p>Ministry of Edu-</p> <p>cation May 11, 1945</p> <p>Revised Regula-</p> <p>tions Governing</p> <p>the Organization</p> <p>of the Northwest</p> <p>Veterinary Dis-</p> <p>ease Prevention</p> <p>Center May 11, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the In-</p> <p>creasing of the</p> <p>Standard of Penal</p> <p>Fines and Pecuni-</p> <p>ary Penalties June 13, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the Pro-</p> <p>vincial Banks .. July 30, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the War-</p> <p>time Leased Lands</p> <p>for Construction July 30, 1945</p> <p>Regulations Gov-</p> <p>erning the Or-</p> <p>ganization of the</p> <p>Southwest Re-</p> <p>gional Controll-</p> <p>ing Office of the</p> |
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| <p>Ministry of Food for the Wartime Military Foodstuff Adjustment and Distribution June 30, 1945</p> <p>(135) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Office of the Special Commission for Mongol Banners in Chahar... June 30, 1945</p> <p>(136) Accountant's Law June 30, 1945</p> <p>(137) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Financial Research Committee of the Ministry of Finance June 30, 1945</p> <p>(138) Regulations Governing the Organization of the National Kansu Science Institute June 30, 1945</p> <p>(139) Organic Law of the National Conservancy Board... June 30, 1945</p> <p>(140) Regulations Governing the Organization of the Committee on Technical Standard for Communication June 30, 1945</p> <p>(141) Regulations Governing the Preferential Pension for Retirement or Relief of Civil Service Men Wounded or Killed in the Defence of their Responsible Areas During War June 30, 1945</p> <p>(142) Revised Regulations for the Disposition of Enemy Property June 30, 1945</p> <p>(143) Revised Regulations of the Air Force Relief ... June 30, 1945</p> <p>(144) Proposals for the Abrogation of Government Monopolistic Purchasing and Selling, by Chow Mou Chih etc., of Chungking</p> | <p>Chamber of Commerce June 30, 1945</p> <p>(145) Regulations Governing the Organization of Chinghai Veterinary Disease Prevention Centre June 30, 1945</p> <p>(146) Revised Regulations Governing the Protection of Supplies for Wartime Communication and Transportation June 30, 1945</p> <p>(147) Abrogating the Bills for Supervising Charitable Organizations .. June 30, 1945</p> <p>(148) Regulations for the Control of Mining Products of the Ministry of Economic Affairs June 30, 1945</p> <p>(149) Rules of Increasing the Existing Telegram Rates to Fourfold June 30, 1945</p> <p>(150) Organic Law of the Ministry of Information June 30, 1945</p> <p>(151) Regulations Governing the Election of Municipal Assembly June 30, 1945</p> <p>(152) The Principals of the Local Primary Schools or Public Schools may or may not be concurrently representatives of the People's Political Council of the Hsien. The Law Governing its Election is provided in Article 2 of the Law of Election of the Representatives of the People of the Towns and Villages June 30, 1945</p> <p>(153) Revised Postal Law June 30, 1945</p> <p>(154) Regulations Governing the China Branch of the United Nations</p> |
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- Relief and Rehabilitation Association June 30, 1945
- (155) Revised Regulations Governing Rewards of Medals June 30, 1945
- (156) Revised Regulations Governing the Organization of the Office of the Special Commissions of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs June 30, 1945
- (157) Abrogating the Provisional Regulations Governing the War-time Consumption Tax June 30, 1945

II. BUDGET STATUTES

1. The 33rd Fiscal Year National General Budget June 8, 1944
2. The 32nd Fiscal Year Ordinary National Expenditure for Sikang and Shansi Mar 25, 1945
3. The 32nd Fiscal Year Supplementary National Expenditure Increase for Szechuen, Sikang, Hupeh, Chekiang, Fukien, Kansu, Honan, Shantung, Shansi, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Hunan, Chinghai, Kweichow, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Chahar, and Chungking Municipality Mar. 31, 1945
4. Supplemented 31st Fiscal Year Yunnan Provincial Budget Mar. 31, 1945
5. Revised Regulations Governing the 24th and 25th Fiscal Year Szechuen Provincial Debts Readjustment Bonds Apr. 14, 1944
6. Revised 32nd Fiscal Year Ordinary National Expenditure for Shantung May 3, 1944
7. The 31st Fiscal Year Fourth Supplementary National Budget (Increase and Decrease) May 18, 1944
8. The 32nd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Sikang, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Anhwei, Honan, Hopei, Shensi, Suiyuan, and Chungking Municipality June 24, 1944
9. The 32nd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Honan, Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai, Suiyuan, Chahar, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol, and Chungking and 32nd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Decrease) for Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Szechuen, Chekiang and Shansi June 29, 1944
10. Regulations Governing the 33rd Fiscal Year Allied Victory Bonds together with the Table of Capital Redeemed and Interest Paid July .5, 1944
11. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangtung and Kiangsu July 26, 1944
12. The 33rd Fiscal Year 2nd Supplementary Honan and Kiangsu Provincial

- Budgets (Increase) July 26, 1944
13. The 33rd Fiscal Ordinary National Expenditure for Szechuen, Shensi, Kansu, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Yunnan, Kweichow, Sikang, Shantung, Hopei, Honan, Anhwei, Kiangsu, Ninghsia, Chinghai, Chahar, Suiyuan, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Chungking Municipality... Aug. 29, 1944
 14. Amended 33rd Fiscal Year Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kwangtung Sept. 26, 1944
 15. The 32nd Fiscal Year 3rd Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Shansi and 4th supplementary National Expenditure (Increase) for Fukien changed to the 33rd Fiscal Year National Expenditure for these two Provinces Sept. 21, 1944
 16. The 32nd Fiscal Year 3rd Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kweichow, Fukien, Honan changed to the 33rd Fiscal Year National Expenditure for those three Provinces Sept. 21, 1944
 17. The 32nd Fiscal Year Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Hunan, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Szechuen, Kansu, Fukien and Chungking Municipality .. Sept. 21, 1944
 18. The 33rd Fiscal Year Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Szechuen, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kiangsi, Shensi, Fukien, Chekiang, Hupeh, Honan, Anhwei, Shansi, Kweichow, Sikang, Kansu, Kiangsu, Suiyuan, Chinghai, Ninghsia, Hopei, Chahar, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol and Chungking Municipality Sept. 20, 1944
 19. The 33rd Fiscal Year First Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Decrease) for Hupeh, Kansu and Honan Oct. 9, 1944
 20. The 33rd Fiscal Year Second Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kiangsi Oct. 9, 1944
 21. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kansu, Hopei, Shansi, Anhwei, Honan and Chungking Municipality Oct. 9, 1944
 22. The 33rd Fiscal Year Fourth Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Chungking Municipality... Nov. 15, 1944
 23. The 33rd Fiscal Year Fourth Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure for Hupeh Nov. 15, 1944
 24. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Revenue and Expenditure (Increase) for Chekiang and Chahar, and the 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure

- (Increase) for Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Chahar and Hopei Jan. 3, 1945
25. The 33rd Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kwangtung, Honan, Shantung, Kansu, Szechuen, Sikang, Shensi, Hunan, Kiangsi, Chinghai, Hopei, Kwangsi, Chekiang, Kweichow, Anhwei, Hupeh, Shansi, Yunnan, and Chungking Municipality, and the 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kweichow, Honan, Hopei, Sikang, Szechuen, Anhwei, Suiyuan, Ninghsia, Kansu, Chinghai, Shensi, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Hunan, Chekiang, Yunnan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Fukien, Shensi, Kiangsu and Chungking Municipality.. Feb. 3, 1945
 26. The 34th Fiscal Year of National General Budget .. Feb. 3, 1945
 27. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Hunan, Fukien, Sikang, Suiyuan, Kwangtung, Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Decrease) for Chekiang, Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase and Decrease) for Hupeh, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Shensi, Szechuen, Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai Kiangsi, Anhwei, and Honan, and 33rd Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hupeh, Honan, Kiangsu, Suiyuan, Chekiang and Chungking Municipality... Feb. 22, 1945
 28. Revised Regulations Governing the 31st Fiscal Year Allied Victory Bonds Mar 15, 1945
 29. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kwangsi, Anhwei, Shantung, Honan and Chungking Municipality Apr. 5, 1945
 30. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Chekiang, Honan, Shantung and Chungking Municipality Apr. 4, 1945
 31. The 33rd Fiscal Year Budget of the Subordinate Units Under the Business Fund of All Public Organizations, and 33rd Fiscal Year Budget of the Subordinate Units Under the Non-business Circulating Fund of All Public Organizations .. Apr. 30, 1945
 32. The 32nd Fiscal Year Supplementary Budget of National Expenditure for the Use of 2nd Reserve and Its 1st and 2nd Supplementary Budgets (Increase and Decrease) May 12, 1945
 33. The 33rd Fiscal Year 6th Supple-

- mentary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Shangtung June 9, 1945
34. The 33rd Fiscal Year 6th Supplementary Hunan, Kwangsi, and Hopei Provincial Budget (Increase) in the National General Budget July 3, 1945
35. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kiangsi, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Hupeh, Kansu, and the Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Decrease) for Kansu July 3, 1945
36. The 34th Fiscal Year First Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Liaoning, Jehol, Kirin and Heilungkiang and Chungking Municipality, the Second Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Kweichow, Hunan, Honan, and Fukien, the Third Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Hopei, and Adjusted Second Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Chekiang and Hupeh July 3, 1945
37. The 33rd Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Hunan, Fukien, Szechuen, Chekiang, Kwangsi, Honan, Kiangsi, Shensi, Suiyuan, Kwangtung, Hupeh, Sikang, Anhwei, Ninghsia, Chinghai, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Kansu, Chahar, Kiangsu, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol and Chungking Municipality, Supplementary Provincial and Municipal Budget of Szechuen and Chungking Municipality July 3, 1945
38. The 34th Fiscal Year Supplementary Ordinary National Expenditure (Increase) for Szechuen, Sikang, Kweichow, Shensi, Kansu, Honan, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Kiangsu, Shantung, Chinghai, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Anhwei and Shansi July 3, 1945

III. TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS

- (1) Sino - Norwegian Treaty of Amity... Feb. 22, 1944
- (2) Treaty of Amity Between the Republic of China and the Kingdom of Afghanistan June 8, 1944
- (3) Sino - Canadian Treaty Aug. 10, 1944
- (4) Treaty of Amity Between the Republic of China and the Republic of Brazil Oct. 6, 1945
- (5) Treaty of Amity Between The Republic of China and the Republic of Costa Rica Oct. 30, 1945
- (6) Regulations Governing the Organization of the United Nations Interim Commission On Food and Agriculture Dec. 16, 1945

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| <p>(7) Treaty of Amity
Between the Re-
public of China and
the United Mexi-
can States July 11, 1944</p> <p>(8) Sino - Swedish
Treaty July 11, 1944</p> <p>(9) Charter of the Un-
ited Nations Aug. 27, 1944</p> <p>(10) Agreement of In-
ternational Mone-
tary Stabilization
Fund and Agree-
ment of Interna-</p> | <p>tional Bank for Re-
construction and
Development Aug. 25, 1944</p> <p>(11) Treaty of Amity
and Alliance Be-
tween the Republic
of China and
U.S.S.R. Aug. 25, 1944</p> <p>(12) The Additional Ar-
ticles to the Treaty
of Amity Between
the Republic of
China and the Do-
minican Republic Sept. 11, 1944</p> |
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CHAPTER XIII

THE JUDICIARY

I. THE JUDICIAL YUAN

A. Organization—The Judicial Yuan is the highest judicial organ of the country and it is, according to the Revised Organic Law of the Judicial Yuan of February 13, 1943, composed of the following branches: (1) the Supreme Court, (2) the Administrative Court and (3) the Commission for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The Yuan itself is headed by an elective President who supervises the administration of the entire Yuan and an elective Vice-President, who is to act on behalf of the president whenever the latter is unable to perform his duties. They are assisted by a secretariat and a board of counsellors. The secretariat consists of a secretary-general of the rank of "special appointment" who manages the daily business of the Yuan, six secretaries of the rank of "selected appointment," four secretaries of the rank of "recommended appointment" and twenty-eight clerks. The board of counsellors consists of six counsellors of the rank of "selected appointment" who are responsible for the drafting and examination of laws and ordinances. In addition, there is a Bureau of Compilation and Translation for editing legal publications as well as translating the laws of other countries and a Commission

on the Studies of Law in charge of the study of civil, criminal and other laws. Finally, there is a Bureau of Accounts, a Bureau of Statistics and a Personnel Office which are under the direct control of the Directorate-General of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics and the Ministry of Personnel Administration respectively in the discharge of their duties.

B. Administrative Affairs

1. Publication of Interpretations of Laws and Ordinances—According to the provisions of the Regulations Governing the Uniform Interpretation of Laws and Ordinances and the Alternation of Precedents, any government office, public functionary or public legal person recognized by law may apply for an interpretation of points in doubt as to the meaning of the text of a law or ordinance, which have been encountered in connection with the performance of duties. Such interpretations reached a total of 2,818 cases up to the end of May 1945. As the relationship between the existing laws and ordinances has been greatly complicated in recent years by the continuous promulgation of new laws and ordinances, difficulties in their application have become a frequent occurrence. The Judicial Yuan, being aware of the magnitude of the problem which

demands careful as well as prompt solutions has always endeavored to handle applications for interpretation with great care and interpretations are published as soon as they have been passed by the Meeting on Uniform Interpretation of Laws and Ordinances.

Between August 1944 and the end of May 1945, 194 cases of interpretations were published of which 57 were related to civil laws or ordinances, 98 related to criminal laws or ordinances and 39 related to administrative and other laws or ordinances.

GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS APPLYING FOR INTERPRETATIONS OF LAWS
AND ORDINANCES (AUGUST 1944 TO MAY 1945)

<i>Applicant organization</i>	<i>Civil law, ordinances</i>	<i>Criminal laws, ordinances</i>	<i>Administra- tive and other laws</i>
Kuomintang Headquarters . .	—	—	1
Administrative organizations .	19	19	15
Military organizations . . .	4	33	5
Courts of Law	34	46	18
Total	57	98	39

2. **Cases of Recommendations for Pardon**—As the purpose of criminal punishment is to lead the convicts to repentance and to eradicate their evil dispositions largely due to undesirable social environment, it is only fitting that special relief should be provided by the grant of pardons, especially to those who rendered useful service to the country while still serving their sentences. During the period from October 1942 to the end of September 1943, ten convicts who had, according to information furnished by appropriate authorities in charge thereof, distinguished themselves by special contributions, while being placed in military or labor service in accordance with the provisions of the Regulations Governing Use of Convicts for Military Service during the Extraordinary Period and the Provisional Regulations Govern-

ing Use of Military Convicts for Labor Service, were released from the execution of their sentences by mandates of the National Government on the recommendation of the Judicial Yuan. In addition, another convict was specially pardoned by the National Government, also on the recommendation of the Judicial Yuan. During the period from October 1943 to the end of May 1945 eighteen convicts were released under similar conditions.

3. **Cases of Recommendations for Reduction of Punishment**—To grant reduction of punishment to convicts who are serving their sentences is to encourage good behavior. From September 1942 to September 1943, the Judicial Yuan, upon request for reduction of punishment by appropriate authorities, made sixteen recommendations to the National Government to reduce the punishment of 54 convicts of the various provinces

who had refused to escape with other convicts or had assisted in keeping order when prison houses were destroyed during enemy air raids or when riots took place in the prisons. During the period from October 1943 to May 1945 the punishment of 44 convicts was reduced under similar conditions.

4. Supervision of Law Schools—

By a resolution passed by the second Plenary Session of the third Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in 1929, the supervision of the curriculum as well as the direction of legal research of the departments of law of national and private universities were entrusted to the Judicial Yuan. The National Government subsequently promulgated the Regulations Governing Supervision of Curriculum of Departments of Law of National and Private Universities by the Judicial Yuan which not only specified the courses to be taught and the methods of supervision but also provided that the annual and graduation examinations in such universities were to be supervised by specially appointed officers from the Judicial Yuan. These regulations were made applicable to provincial, municipal and private universities as well as independent colleges. This work has been carried on by the Judicial Yuan since then without interruption. From October 1942 to the end of September 1944 the number of graduates of various law schools under the supervision of the Judicial Yuan was as follows: 15 from National Central University, 46 from Wuhan University, 56 from Sun Yat-sen Uni-

versity, 29 from Szechuen University, 5 from Yunnan University, 41 from Kwangsi University, 48 from Northwest University, 16 from Fuh Tan University, 103 from Chaoyang College, 16 from Shanghai-Soochow Joint College, 4 from Shanghai Law School, 3 from Amoy University and 3 from Fukien Academy.

5. Training of Judicial Officers

—Realizing the immense importance of the administration of justice by judges to the life and property of the people and for the purpose of careful selection of judicial officers, an Institute for the Training of Judicial Officers was established by the Judicial Yuan as provided for by the former organic law of the Yuan. The number of judicial officers who had received such training up to the end of 1941 reached a total of 1522. The eighth session of the training class for judicial officers began on January 19, 1942, with an enrollment of 131 students, including those who had passed the 1941 higher civil service examination and the justices of the judicial sections of the district governments of Szechuen and Hupeh, and 129 of the group were graduated on July 5 of the same year. The ninth session of the training class for judicial officers began on September 14, 1942, with 69 students drawn from those who had passed the higher civil service examination of 1941, 77 from the justices of the judicial sections of the district governments of Szechuen, Kweichow, Hunan, Shensi, Kansu and Honan, and 144 of the group were graduated on March 4, 1943. The

training of judicial officers who had qualified themselves at the higher civil service examination was taken over by the Central Political Institute following the transfer of the Ministry of Justice to the Executive Yuan in 1943. The Institute for the Training of Judicial Officers thus came to an end in June 1943 and also its organic law was then abrogated.

6. Editing of Legal Publications

—The multiplicity of government laws and ordinances, usually produced by the promulgation of new laws and the abrogation of old ones, has been increasingly magnified by the issuance of war-time laws and regulations to meet the need of radically different social and economic conditions which have been brought about by this war against aggression. With such a multitude of laws and ordinances and the complexity of their inter-relationship, it seems almost impossible to subject difficulties arising therefrom to ready solution without a compilation of the uniform interpretations of such laws and ordinances. For the convenience of the legal profession, the Judicial Yuan previously published two books, known respectively as *Laws and Regulations Related to the Administration of Justice* and *Compendium of Interpretations*. These publications have been rearranged by modification of style and addition of new materials. The *Laws and Regulations Related to the Administration of Justice* contains practically all the laws and regulations related to the administration of justice now in force, with timely

corrections made for those laws or regulations which have been abrogated, made ineffective or revised. It was published in October 1940 in four volumes amounting to more than 2600 pages. The **Compendium of Interpretations** contains cases of interpretations from No. 1 to No. 2200 classified in order and, for the convenience of the reader, the cases are accompanied by relevant articles of the law. It was published in October 1944. Owing to the ever-changing nature of these publications, supplements are to be published from time to time in order to bring them up to date.

C. The Supreme Court

1. **Increase of Civil Divisions of the Supreme Court**—The number of divisions of the Supreme Court, as provided by the Organic Law of Courts, may vary according to the demand of cases handled. In 1942, there were four civil divisions and five criminal divisions. Toward November of the same year, a fifth civil division was added owing to the increase of civil cases. In September 1943, due to the pressure of pending cases, a sixth civil divisions was again formed by the drafting of one judge from each of the five criminal divisions. From March to May 1944, two criminal divisions were transformed into civil divisions; thus up to September 1944 there were eight civil divisions and three criminal divisions in the Supreme Court.

2. **The Evacuation of the Shanghai Branch High Court and the Formation of the Branch High**

Court for Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien Area — Following the occupation of the International Settlement by the Japanese on December 8, 1941, the Shanghai Branch High Court ceased to function and was ordered by the Judicial Yuan to evacuate to Yungan, Fukien, to become the Branch High Court for the Chekiang, Kiangsi and Fukien Area with jurisdiction over the third trial of all civil as well as criminal cases in the provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsi and Fukien. This court was formally inaugurated on September 1, 1942.

3. Formation of the Hunan-Kwangtung Branch High Court—

The removal of the Supreme Court to Chungking not only rendered the realization of the cherished aim of speedy settlement of litigation cases almost impossible, especially in the investigation of facts and service of documents in distant provinces, but also increased difficulties for the parties concerned. Consequently, a

branch high court was established on September 1, 1943, in the Hunan-Kwangtung area where litigations had become more numerous. The court is now situated in Kweiyang, Hunan, with jurisdiction over the third trial of both civil and criminal cases in those two provinces.

4. The Number of Civil and Criminal Cases Handled—

The function of the Supreme Court is to try all civil and criminal cases on appeal for the third trial. By the end of July 1944, the Court still had on hand 6,976 pending cases of which 5,779 were civil cases and 1,197 criminal cases. From August of the same year to May, 1945 the Court stationed in Chungking received in addition thereto a total of 7,698 cases of which 5,830 were civil cases and 1,868 criminal cases. By the end of this period, 10,270 cases were decided, including 7,205 civil cases and 3,065 criminal cases, leaving a total of 5,436 cases pending, including 4,404 civil cases and 1,032 criminal cases.

TABLE I. CASES RECEIVED AND SETTLED BY THE CIVIL DIVISION OF
THE SUPREME COURT IN CHUNGKING
(August 1944 to May 1945)

Month	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Total
Number of cases											
Old Cases . . .	5779	5701	5691	5556	5453	5164	5050	4929	4595	4355	5779
New Cases . . .	557	716	650	685	610	544	449	474	586	559	5830
Total	6336	6417	6341	6241	6063	5708	5499	5403	5181	4914	1609
Number of cases decided . . .	635	726	785	788	899	658	570	808	826	870	7205
Number of cases pending . . .	5701	5691	5556	5453	5164	5050	4929	4595	4355	4044	4404

TABLE II. CASES RECEIVED AND SETTLED BY THE CRIMINAL DIVISION
OF THE SUPREME COURT IN CHUNGKING
August 1944 to May 1945

Month	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Total
Number of cases received											
Old Cases . .	1197	1237	1257	1229	1238	1063	1100	1062	1061	1017	1197
New Cases . .	216	214	163	234	175	190	112	253	152	159	1868
Total	1413	1451	1420	1463	1413	1253	1212	1315	1213	1176	3065
Number of cases decided . . .	176	194	191	225	350	153	150	254	196	144	2033
Number of cases pending . . .	1237	1257	1229	1238	1063	1100	1062	1061	1017	1032	1032

From its inauguration on September 1, 1942 to May 1944 the Chekiang, Kiangsi and Fukien Branch Supreme Court received 1,155 cases of which 511 were civil cases and 644 criminal cases. By the end of May 1944, 883 cases had been decided, including 423 civil cases and 460 criminal cases, leaving a total of 444 cases pending of which 110 were civil cases and 334 criminal cases.

From its inauguration on September 1943 to May 1944, the Hunan-Kwangtung Branch Supreme Court received 2,213 cases of which 1,586 were civil cases and 627 were criminal cases. By the end of May 1944, 1,011 cases had been decided, of which 676 were civil cases and 335 were criminal cases, leaving a total of 1,202 cases pending of which 910 were civil cases and 292 were criminal cases.

5. Re-Examination of Cases of Disciplinary Punishment of Lawyers—According to the provisions

of the Law Governing Lawyers, the re-examination of cases of disciplinary punishment of lawyers are to be handled by the Commission on Re-examination of Disciplinary Punishment of Lawyers attached to the Supreme Court. From October 1943 to September 1944, five cases of such nature were decided, with two cases pending.

D. The Administrative Court

The Administrative Court was established in June, 1933, when the Judges of the Court were appointed. The Court possesses the highest authority in administrative jurisdiction; there are no inferior courts to it. Whatever injury to the rights and interests of the individual, or a group of individuals, caused by the unlawful decision or illegal administrative act on the part of a government organization, the injured party may proceed to this Court for final trial and claim compensation for damage. In China the various grades of administrative authorities are empowered by

statutes, notably the Code of Administrative Procedure and Code of Administrative Appeal, to adjudge cases lodged by the injured parties, and arrive at decisions of a quasi-judicial nature. For instance, those who are not satisfied with the decision of a hsien (district) government, or a municipal government, may file a complaint with the provincial government. If the injured party is still not satisfied with the decision of the provincial government, he may file a further complaint with a Ministry or Commission of the Executive Yuan, directly superior in the hierarchy within whose jurisdiction the dispute comes, to vary the decision.

The decisions made by various government bodies must be in a form of judicial document (which may be called a finding or judgment) embodying the following items:—

- (a) The name and address of the party, or his authorised representative, who lodges the complaint;
- (b) A brief resume of the case;
- (c) The decision which may be cancellation or alteration of the previous decision by a government body inferior in the hierarchy, a rejection, or a favorable redress, of the grievance;
- (d) The finding of the real facts;
- (e) The reason or reasons why the decision is made, such decision is necessarily based on the facts found, and the application of the law of the land or regulations to the facts so found;

(f) The signature of the officer who made the decision;

(g) The date when the decision is made.

According to the established system in China, complaints are classified into two kinds: (a) wrongful decision, (b) unlawful decision or illegal execution. If it concerns wrongful decision on the part of a government body, the decision on the second complaint by a higher government body will be final. The administrative Court has no jurisdiction over cases of such a nature. Its jurisdiction only covers administrative acts in connection with unlawful decision or illegal execution. If the injured party is not satisfied with the decision on his second complaint, and the charge made by him is unlawful decision or illegal execution, he is entitled to bring the case before the Administrative Court. He is also entitled to bring the case to the Administrative Court if the competent authority who hears his further appeal fails to settle the complaint within a fixed period of time, say, 30 days.

As the result of a revision made in the Code of Administrative Procedure and the Code of Administrative Appeal in January, 1937, important amendments, inter alia, were as follows:

- (a) Those who are not satisfied with the administration of any of the five Yuan of the National Government or any other Departments directly under its control may file their complaint with the Yuan or the Department concerned, and if not satisfied with the decision may

institute administrative proceedings.

- (b) The parties that may be made defendants in administrative proceeding are those governmental bodies who reject the appeal, and those who either cancel or modify the first decision.
- (c) The administrative Court may order any third party whose interests are involved to participate in the proceedings. Thus, those who take part are considered to be a party to the litigation.

The Administrative Court handles cases, as a rule, by conducting trials by brief. It may hear the cases by summoning all parties to the litigation when necessary, or if such is demanded by the party concerned. Cases are tried before a bench of five judges.

The decision of the administrative Court is final. No further appeal is permitted, but for reasons allowed by the civil procedure appeal may be made to the Court for a re-trial.

As a result of unlawful decision or illegal execution, the injured party may sustain some damage to his material interests. If the administrative act has already been effected, the Administrative Court may arrive at a decision in favor of the injured party to suspend further execution of the administrative order. If the injured party has already sustained damage, compensation must be paid.

Decisions rendered by the Court are binding upon the administra-

tive offices concerned. Execution of these decisions is affected by orders issued by the National Government upon the recommendation of the Court through the Judicial Yuan.

E. Disciplinary Punishment

1. The Central Commission for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries:

(a) Disposition of cases of Disciplinary Punishment.

The jurisdiction over disciplinary punishment exercised by the Central Commission for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries is limited to cases transmitted to the Commission for consideration by the Control Yuan, the heads of the various Yuan, Ministries or Commissions or by the highest administrative authorities of the various local governments. In any such case, accused person should be directed to answer the accusations within a specified period of time or to appear before the Commission for questioning. The Commission may either investigate the case itself or authorize some other organization to investigate for it, and it may also summon witnesses and experts. But all such steps must be handled in the name of the Commission by its president upon suggestions made by the justice who has been assigned to handle the case. Any case which complies with all the procedural requirements is usually settled promptly in accordance with rules prescribed for the disposition of cases of disciplinary punishment. Whenever a measure of punishment has been decided, the Commission must draw up a

report of the decision to be transmitted to the National Government or the appropriate administrative authority for execution. Then the Ministry of Personnel Administration must be notified.

(b) Statistics of Cases of Disciplinary Punishment:

From October 1943 to October 1944 the Commission received 85 new cases and settled 70 cases including a number of old ones. Except for cases of criminal suspicion which were transferred either to courts of law or to military courts, there were, during this period, 25 persons removed from office, 12 penalized by degradation of rank, 13 by reduction of salaries, 5 punished by demerits, 6 were not penalized and 11 were not tried or their cases were not accepted. Of the accused officials there were one of the rank of "selected appointment," 28 of the rank of "recommended appointment" and 37 of the rank of "delegated appointment." As to the nature of offences committed, 41 of the accused were punished for violations of law, 21 for negligence of duties and 4 on other grounds of malfeasance of office.

2. The Local Commission for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries:

Local Commissions for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries located in the various provinces are under the direct control of the Judicial Yuan. Each of these commissions is composed of a president, who is concurrently the president of

the High Court therein, and 7 to 9 commissioners who are in charge of the disciplinary punishment of the provincial public officials of the rank of "delegated appointment." Three to five of the aforesaid commissioners are selected from among the officials of the rank of "recommended appointment" who are connected with various bureaux or departments of the provincial government concerned. Local Commissions for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries are also usually established in municipalities under direct control of the Executive Yuan where the presidents of the Branch High Courts or District Court therein are concurrently the presidents of the Commissions and the judges of such courts are invariably selected to serve concurrently as commissioners. In case the aforesaid municipality happens to be the national capital, no Local Commission for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries is to be established, and the functions of such commission shall be exercised concurrently by the Central Commission for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The number of Local Commissions for Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries established in the various provinces and municipalities used to be quite large. However, owing to changes brought about by the war against aggression, the Commissions located in war areas, such as Hopei, Charhar, Peiping, Tsingtao and Shanghai, practically ceased to function. On the other hand,

Commissions located in Chekiang, Honan, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Kiangsu, Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechuen, Sikang, Shensi, Ninghsia and Chinghai still continue to receive cases in connection with disciplinary punishment.

II. THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE

A. Organization—The Ministry of Justice was originally a component part of the Judicial Yuan. A change took place in 1943 when it was placed under the jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. As defined in the Organic Law of the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry is vested with the following specific powers:

- (1) To exercise general control over the entire judicial administration of the nation (Art. 1).
- (2) To supervise and direct the judicial administration of local executive authorities (Art. 2).
- (3) To rescind or stay, upon approval by the Executive Yuan, the judgment passed by the highest local executive authorities (Art. 3).

The Ministry of Justice comprises a Secretariat (4 to 6 secretaries), a Councillor's Office (2 to 4 Counsellors), four Divisions and a number of auxiliary Committees, which function under the direction of a Minister and two Vice-Ministers. The respective competence of the four Divisions, namely, the Division of General Affairs, the Division of Civil Affairs, the Division of Criminal Affairs, and the Division of Prison

Administration, is, in substance, as follows:

- (1) The Division of General Affairs takes charge over matters relating mainly to the issuance of ministerial orders; appointment, dismissal and disciplinary punishment of official in judicial institutions under the control of the Ministry; statistics and publications; establishment and abolition of courts as well as readjustment in their jurisdictions; training and education of judicial officers; registration of lawyers, etc.
- (2) The Division of Civil Affairs takes charge over matters relating to judicial administration concerning trial of civil cases, public notary non-contentious matters, and judicial registration.
- (3) The Division of Criminal Affairs takes charge over matters relating to judicial administration concerning trial of criminal cases and the prosecution of crimes; special pardons and remission of sentences; restoration of civil rights and execution of punishment and probation; extraditions and appeals extraordinary.
- (4) The Division of Prison Administration takes charge over matters relating to the establishment, abolition and supervision of prisons and detention houses; supervision over prison authorities; prisoners' education and sanitation; prisoners' work;

parole; protection of discharged prisoners and training officials for prison administration.

B. Judicial Courts.—Judicial procedure in China consists of three grades of courts and three trials.

(1) The District Court, with its branch courts, established in the hsien (district) or municipality: It is a court of first instance in all civil and criminal cases, except those cases otherwise provided by law, and it has also the jurisdiction to try non-contentious matters. Cases are tried before one judge; only in serious cases is a bench of three judges required. The Organic Law of Chinese Courts provides that there shall be a court in each hsien and municipality. several small hsien may share one court, while an unusually large hsien may have one court and a number of branch courts.

(2) The High Court, established in the capital city of each province: Branch High Courts may be established in other cities of the province if conditions so warrant. The High Court has the first instance to hear criminal cases involving offences against the security of the State. It has the power to hear appeals against the judgments in civil and criminal cases rendered by District Courts or Branch District Courts. It also attends to motions for setting

aside rulings or orders of District Courts, or Branch District Courts. Cases are tried before a bench of three judges.

(3) The Supreme Court, established in the capital city of the Republic: Its jurisdiction embraces:

(a) Appeals against judgments in criminal cases rendered by High Courts or Branch High Courts as Courts of First Instance.

(b) Appeals against judgments in civil and criminal cases rendered by High Courts or Branch High Courts as Courts of Second Instance.

(c) Motions for setting aside rulings or orders of High Courts or Branch High Courts.

(d) Appeals extraordinary.

As China adopts the continental system in judicial procedure, cases are not tried by a jury. In every grade of court there is a Procurator, whose functions are to investigate crimes, institute public prosecutions, assist private prosecutions, direct execution of judgment in criminal cases, and perform other duties as prescribed by law.

In the District Court or its Branch Courts, the Procurator may be assisted by expectant procurators.

In the High Court, or its Branch High Court, the Chief Procurator may be assisted by procurators or expectant procurators.

In the Supreme Court the Procurator-General is empowered to supervise prosecutions conducted

in that Court. Under him there are seven to nine procurators.

The Supreme Court is the nation's highest court of justice. Prior to the Lukouchiao Incident, it had five Civil Affairs Divisions and eleven Criminal Affairs Divisions. Following the removal of the National Government to Chungking, the number of Divisions was reduced to eight. A Criminal Affairs Division and a Civil Affairs Division were added in 1938 and 1941 respectively, making a total of eight Civil Affairs Divisions and three Criminal Affairs Divisions. The Supreme Court may revise the number of Divisions to be established whenever it deems necessary.

In 1944, the number of cases handled by the High Courts and the District Courts (together with their respective Branch High Courts and Branch District Courts) totalled 512,924 (318,876 civil cases and 194,048 criminal cases). Of these 456,145 cases had been decided, (283,115 civil cases and 173,030 criminal cases).

C. Judicial Administrative Policies.—With a view to simplifying judicial procedure as well as to lessening the cost and labor of the litigants, the Ministry of Justice has undertaken to promote the following measures:

- (1) Promotion of the Public Notary System: The public notary system is devised to safeguard the private rights of the people and to facilitate litigation. It was instituted first in the Nanking District Court in

April, 1935. Up to July, 1937, it had been extended to 27 other courts. By the end of 1941, 104 more courts had public notary offices. In 1942 the Ministry of Justice started a program to establish a public notary office in all district courts in China. By the end of 1945, already 328 public notary offices had been set up in the various courts. From January 1945 to June 1945, the various public notary offices handled a total of 9,467 cases.

- (2) Measures for Conciliation: The purpose of the public notary system is to prevent controversy, while conciliation is to solve the controversy without resort to litigation. In recent years, the Ministry of Justice has repeatedly instructed the courts to encourage the conciliation practices. In 1942, cases of conciliation amounted to 16.4 percent of the total cases handled, while the percentage for 1943 was further augmented to 25.7. The Regulations Governing the Organization of Conciliating Committees in Hsiang (鄉) and Chen (鎮) promulgated in 1943 were specially designed for the furtherance of this scheme in local administrative units.
- (3) Simplification of Procedures: The Ministry has long been aware of the defects of the present judicial system and has undertaken to simplify

its complicated procedure. New measures have been adopted for the establishment of experimental courts. The District Court at Pishan (near Chungking) was reorganized into an experimental court in 1942 and in 1944 another experimental district court was established in Chungking. In order to facilitate the smooth working of the new judicial procedure, the Ministry has formulated a set of Supplementary Regulations governing Civil and Criminal Procedures in the Experimental Courts. In both cases the experiment has met with distinct success. In the case of the Pishan Experimental District Court, 70% of the cases handled were decided within 15 days, 13% within 5 days and 5% were resolved almost on the spot, while only 12% extended to more than one month. Benefiting from these experiences, the Ministry is at present contemplating an over-all revision of the whole judicial procedure.

- (4) Adoption of the Circuit Court System: The adoption of circuit court system was a wartime measure. Since the outbreak of the war, judicial administration in occupied areas has met with tremendous difficulties. However, as long as circumstances permit, the courts are required to continue their

duties. In areas where the district courts had been evacuated, the hsien magistrates were empowered to deal with lawsuits pending the re-establishment of the courts. In the absence of a high court or a branch high court, appeals were heard by a specially designated district court in the same judicial area, or referred to a designated high court or district court in an adjacent juridical area.

The Circuit Court was designed to straighten out judicial matters in areas where even these make-shift measures were unavailable. Touring in the war regions, the Circuit Courts, manned by high court judges, were competent to hear appeals and handle lawsuits. Their marked success in the provinces of Kiangsi, Honan, Shantung, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Anhwei, and Shansi has convinced the Ministry of the advisability of carrying the system into other provinces where difficulties of communication are pronounced.

(5) Free legal Counsel: This may be mentioned under three headings.

- (a) The assignment of a special attorney for the defence of poor defendant facing criminal charges liable to more than five years of imprisonment: This was first started in the Chungking District Court in July, 1940. In 1941, the system was extended to Chengtu and Kweilin, and toward the end of 1944, 20 district

courts had adopted the system. The attorneys thus assigned receive their fees from the Government.

- (b) The Lawyers' Association: The Lawyers' Association, in accordance with the Regulations governing the Provision of Legal Assistance, has been requested to give free advice concerning civil or criminal cases, or non-contentious cases and to answer questions on legal matters submitted by poor litigants.

- (c) The establishment of Inquiry Offices on legal procedures in the district courts: By the end of 1944, there were 359 inquiry offices set up for that purpose.

D. Important Judicial Measures.

—Aside from the procedural improvements summarized above, the following three undertakings deserve our attention:

1. Important judicial measures regarding the status of foreign litigants after the abolition of consular jurisdiction:

- (a) If a foreigner is a defendant in a civil or criminal case and such case is not handled by a district court, the foreigner may before the hearing of the case petition the superior court to assign the case for trial to a nearby district court.
- (b) Cases involving the violation of the Special Criminal Law by a foreigner shall be

heard in judicial courts in accordance with the ordinary legal procedure.

- (c) Foreign lawyers may practise in China after having passed a lawyers' examination and been given a lawyer's certificate, provided the same treatment is accorded to Chinese lawyers in their respective home countries.

2. The institution of the Special Criminal Law: The Institution of the Special Criminal Law in November, 1944 has superseded the three judicial regulations* which were enacted to meet emergency conditions. All cases within the pale of the said Law are now tried by the ordinary courts instead of by military courts as was formerly done, except in cases where military personnel is the defendant.

3. Law Protecting the Personal Liberty of the People: The Law for the Protection of the Personal Liberty of the people is the equivalent of the Habeas Corpus Act. Briefly speaking, the said law provides that when a citizen is arrested on suspicion of having committed a criminal act, the authority responsible for such action shall immediately inform the citizen himself and his relative of the cause for his arrest or detention, and shall, within a period of twenty-four hours, send him to a competent court for trial. The citizen so arrested or detained, or any one else, may also petition the court to demand from

* The Regulations Governing the Punishment of Robbers and Bandits. The Regulations Governing the Punishment of Traitors. The Regulations Governing the Punishment of Corrupt Officials.

the authority responsible for such action the surrender, within twenty-four hours, of his person to the court for trial. The Ministry is bending all its efforts to the proper execution of the law.

E. Prison Reforms—Prison reforms were started as early as 1928, when the Ministry initiated an over-all program for the betterment of prison management and sanitation. New prisons were erected and old prisons improved. The war, however, interfered with the program. Prisons in several provinces were abandoned and the plan for building new ones was suspended. In order to accomodate convicts evacuated from the war zones, temporary prisons were erected in the interior provinces. By the end of June, 1945 there were 273 prisons, branch prisons, detention houses and juvenile prisons.

Besides the building and repairing of prisons and enlistment of convicts for military service, the Ministry has taken two more steps to better the lot of the convicts. Firstly, it undertakes to increase their provisions and also to better their living conditions. Secondly, it undertakes to promote the reclamation of convicts, and to establish reformatory schools in which the convicts are given a practical education and technical training.

F. Qualifications of Judicial Officers.—It is an established practice that no judge or higher clerk may be appointed without (1) having passed the higher civil

service examination conducted by the Examination Yuan, and (2) having received a prescribed period of training given by the Ministry of Justice. Similarly the lower clerks and prison officers have to pass the ordinary civil service examination before they may be appointed to the different grades of courts. The bulk of judicial officers in China are largely law college graduates. 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 issuance of scholastic record certificates to law graduates. At present ten National Universities were designated to establish judicial section for the training of judicial staff. The graduation examination is arranged and supervised by the Examination Yuan and those who pass the examination are considered to have passed the preliminary test of the higher civil service examination for judicial officers. The first examination for judicial officers took place in 1926, when 50 were chosen. In 1924, 184 were admitted into the Judicial Officers' Training Institute. In 1932, 132 were chosen in the Preliminary Examination for judicial officers. In 1933, 32 were chosen in Higher Examination. In 1935, 126 were chosen in the examination held for Party members interested in judicial administration. The same year, 60 were chosen through the Higher Examination and 18 through Temporary Examination, and in 1936, 33 more were

chosen through the Extraordinary Higher Examination. Since the outbreak of the war, candidates passed the various examinations for judicial officers are as follows: 41 passed the Temporary Examination for Judicial Officers in Szechuen - Yunnan - Kweichow Area in 1937; 127 well-qualified Party members were sent to the Judicial Officers' Training Institute; 47 passed the Higher Examination in 1939; 22 passed the Higher Examination in 1940;

23 passed the Higher Examination in 1941, and 205 passed the Temporary Examination for Judicial Officers held in the same year; 20 passed the High Examination in 1942; 40 passed the Higher Examination in 1943; 18 in the High Examination in 1944 and 70 passed the Higher Examination for Judicial Officers in 1945. From 1926 up to the end of June 1945, a total of 1,248 persons have passed the various examinations for judicial officers.

NUMBER OF CANDIDATES PASSING THE VARIOUS EXAMINATIONS FOR JUDICIAL OFFICERS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Kinds of Examinations</i>	<i>Number of Candidates Passing</i>
1925	First Examination for Judicial Officers	50
1929	Entrance Examination of the Judicial Officers' Training School	184
1932	Preliminary Examination on the Judicial Officers	132
1933	Higher Examination	32
1935	Examination for Party Members Interested in Judicial Administration	128
1935	Temporary Examination for Judicial Officers . .	15
1935	Higher Examination	60
1930	Extraordinary Higher Examination for Judicial Officers	33
1937	Temporary Examination for Judicial Officers in Szechuen-Yunnan-Kweichow Area	41
1938	Party Members sent to the Judicial Officers' Training School	127
1939	Higher Examination	47
1940	Higher Examination	22
1941	Higher Examination	23
1941	Temporary Examination for Judicial Officers . .	205
1942	Higher Examination	20
1943	Higher Examination	40
1944	Higher Examination	18
1945	Higher Examination for Judicial Officers	70
	Total	1248

As regard the training of the judicial officers, since the abolition of the Judicial Officers' Training Institute, the Central Political Institute was assigned in 1943 for

the training of judicial officers. Up to the end of 1945 two batches of judicial officers comprising 126 and 83 persons respectively have undergone the training.

APPENDIX I.

LIST OF HIGH COURTS, BRANCH HIGH COURTS AND DISTRICT COURTS IN CHINA.
(June 1945)

<i>Province</i>	<i>Courts</i>	<i>Location</i>
Szechuen ..	High Court	Chengtu
	1st Branch	Chungking
	2nd Branch	Wanh sien
	3rd Branch	Luh sien
	4th Branch	Langchung
	5th Branch	Mienyang
	6th Branch	Loshan
	7th Branch	Tah sien
	8th Branch	Yuyang
	9th Branch	Ipin
	District Courts	Chengtu
		Wanh sien
		Langchung
		Loshan
		Tzeliutsing
		Kiangtsin
		Hochuan
		Neikiang
		Changshou
		Fushun
		Tungliang
		Hokiang
		Fengtu
		Tatsu
		Hsuanhan
		Kikiang
		Lungchang
		Fengkieh
		Shuihung
		Nanpo
		Meishan
		Nanchuen
		Kwangyuan
		Kienko
		Kwanhsien
		Kwanghan
		Yuyang
		Chungking
		Luh sien
		Mienyang
		Kiangpei
		Fowling
		Yungchuan
		Tzechung
		Ipin
		Kienyang
		Pishan
		Santai
		Tsungking
		Kwangan
		Penghsien
		Suining
		Tah sien
		Jenshou
		Tungnan
		Suyung
		Mientsu
		Kienwei
		Yungyang
		Nanchung
		Tseyang
		Yunchang
		Omei
Kweichow ..	High Court	Kweiyang
	1st Branch	Chenyuan
	2nd Branch	Kwanling
	3rd Branch	Tsunyi
	4th Branch	Tuhshan
	5th Branch	Pichieh
	District Courts	Kweiyang
		Tsunyi
		Anshun
		Hsinyi
		Panh sien
		Kiens i
		Tungjen
		Tsinchen
		Kwanling
		Langtai

			Tuyun Hsinjen Chenyuan Tuhshan Pichieh	Tating Tungtze Huishui Chiehking
Yunnan	..	High Court	Kunming	
		1st Branch	Tali	
		2nd Branch	Chaotung	
		3rd Branch	Ningerh	
		4th Branch	Lekiang	
		5th Branch	Wenshan	
		District Courts	Kunming Chaotung Wenshan Tsuyung	Ningerh Kochiu Tali Lekiang
Kwangsi		High Court	Kweilin	
		1st Branch	Nanning	
		2nd Branch	Wuchow	
		3rd Branch	Liuchow	
		4th Branch	Lungchow	
		5th Branch	Yuehlin	
		6th Branch	Ishan	
		7th Branch	Pinglo	
		8th Branch	Poseh	
		District Courts	Ishan Nanning Lungtsin Kweih sien Pingnam Huaihsien Hohsien Pinglo Wuchow	Yuehlin Junghsien Poseh Kweilin Liukiang Henghsien Kweiping Pokpak Pingyang
Shensi	..	High Court	Sian	
		1st Branch	Nancheng	
		2nd Branch	Yulin	
		3rd Branch	Ankang	
		4th Branch	Tali	
		District Courts	Sian Ankang Chengku Weinan Shanghsien Ponsien Nancheng Lintung	Sanyuan Fufeng Pinghsien Yulin Paoki Yienyang Fenghsiang Tali
Kansu	..	High Court	Lanchow	
		1st Branch	Pingliang	
		2nd Branch	Tienshui	
		3rd Branch	Wuwei	
		4th Branch	Kiuchuan	
		5th Branch	Wutu	

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Kansu ..	District Courts	Lanchow Kiuchuan Minhsien Lintao Pingliang Wutu Tsingning	Lungsi Tienshui Linsia Changye'n Wuwei Yungteng Huihsien
Ninghsia ..	High Court	Ninghsia	
	District Courts	Holan Chungwei	Pinglo Wuchungpao
Chinghai ..	High Court	Sining	
	District Courts	Sining Lotu Hwangyuan	Ninho Hualung
Sikang ..	High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch	Yaan Kangting Sichang	
	District Courts	Kangting Sichang Yaan	Hweili Lihting
Sinkiang ..	High Court	Tihwa	
	District Courts	Ti'awa Hotien Shche Yehchen Kashgar Hami Yenki	Sulai Kuche Ining Turfan Chenhwa Tarchen Aksu
Kiangsu ..	High Court	Sihsien (in Anhwei)	
	District Courts	Taihsien Tungtai Hsinnua Hsin Liyang	
Chekiang ..	High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch 4th Branch	Tsingtien Yungkia Chuhsien Lishui Linhai	
	District Courts	Yungkia Kinhwa Linhai Lishui Chuki Tungyang Yungkang Iwu	Sienchu Chuhsien Kienteh Wenlin Kwangyen Lanchi Kiangshan Sinchang

Chekiang	...	District Courts	Chenghsien Ninghai Juian Pingyang Tsingtien	Lungohuan Pukiang Yotsing Tientai
Anhwei		High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch 4th Branch	Lihwang Lukiang Sih sien Chinh sien Fewyang	
		District Courts	Fowyang Sih sien Shuning	Tungcheng Lihwang
Kiangsi	High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch 4th Branch 5th Branch	Hingkwō Kanh sien Kingchi Taiho Hokou Yitsun	
		District Courts	Kanh sien Fuliang Yitsun Nankang Hokou Pinsiang Poyang	Kian Kinch Hingkwō Taiho Linchwan Tayu Ningtu
Hunan	..	High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch 4th Branch 5th Branch	Arhwa Yuanling Kweiyang Changteh Shaoyang Changning	(not Kweiyang of Kweichow)
		District Courts	Ningsiang Hwangtokong Siansiang Yuanling Wucni	Lingling Kweiyang Hengyang Hengshan
Hupei		High Court 1st Branch 2nd Branch 3rd Branch 4th Branch 5th Branch	Suanen Fatung Nanchang Enshih Chihkiang Yunhsien	
		District Courts	Tsekwei Yunhsien Kingmen Chunhsien Kienshih Siangyang Suihsien Chihkiang	Nanchang Lichuan Enshih Icheng Kocheng Kwanghwa Patung

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Fukien	..	High Court	Yungan	
		1st Branch	Lungyen	
		2nd Branch	Kienow	
		3rd Branch	Tsinkiang	
		4th Branch	Foocnow	
		5th Branch	Fuan	
		District Courts	Foocnow	Putien
			Kienow	Changtin
			Nanping	Tsinkiang
			Lungsi	Yungan
Kwangtung	High Court	Linhsien	
		1st Branch	Fungshun	
		2nd Branch	Lingshan	
		4th Branch	Yanfa	
		5th Branch	Lungchun	
		6th Branch	Yuehnam	
		7th Branch	Mowming	
		8th Branch	Meih sien	
		District Courts	Tsungfa	Yongkong
			Sunwui	Tsoshan
			Hoiping	Chaoyang
			Chaoan	Kityang
			Fungshun	Lofung
			Yomhsien	Fangcheng
			Hoihong	Kukong
			Yanfa	Yingtak
			Linhsien	Waiyeung
			Tzekam	Linpung
			Hoping	Lungmoon
			Kwangning	Sunbing
			Fungchun	Loting
			Wanfow	Sunyi
			Fahsien	Wuchun
			Taipu	Hingning
			Ngwa	Linshan
			Samsnui	Yangchun
			Hokshan	Yanping
			Tsingyun	Wailai
			Jaoping	Puning
			Hoifung	Hoppo
			Famhsien	Lingshan
			Hsuwen	Namyung
			Lokchong	Chihing
			Yangshan	Hoyuan
			Yungyun	Lungchun
			Sunfung	Koyin
			Szewe	Tekhing
			Hokin	Watnam
			Mowming	Tinpak
			Limkong	Meichien
			Chiuling	Pingyun
			Szehwi	Juyuan
Honan	..	High Court	Shangnan	
		1st Branch	Sintsui	
		3rd Branch	Hiangcheng	
		5th Branch	Neisiang	

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Honan	6th Branch District Courts	Kwangchow Lushih Chenghsien Hsuchang Nanyang	Juan Kwangchow Nanshao
Hopei	High Court	Siang (Shensi)	
Shantung	High Court	Fewyang (Anhwei)	
Shansi		Chiulincheng (Shensi)	
Suiyuan	High Court	Shenpa	
Chahar	High Court	Sian (Shensi)	

APPENDIX II.
LISTS OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS
A. CIVIL LAWS

<i>Name of Law</i>	<i>Organ of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Enforcement</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Civil Code of the Republic of China				
General Provisions	Nat'l Gov't.	May 23, 1929	Oct. 10, 1929	
Obligations	ditto	Nov. 22, 1929	May 5, 1930	
Rights over Things	ditto	Nov. 30, 1929	May 5, 1930	
Family	ditto	Dec. 26, 1930	May 5, 1931	
Succession	ditto	Dec. 26, 1930	May 5, 1931	
Law for the Application of the General Provisions of the Civil Code	ditto	Sept. 24, 1929	Oct. 10, 1929	
Law for the Application of the Obligations of the Civil Code	ditto	Feb. 10, 1930	May 5, 1930	
Law for the Application of the Rights over Things of the Civil Code	ditto	Feb. 10, 1930	May 5, 1930	
Law for the Application of the Family of the Civil Code	ditto	Jan. 24, 1931	May 5, 1931	
Law for the Application of the Succession of the Civil Code	ditto	Jan. 24, 1931	May 5, 1931	
Company Law	ditto	Dec. 26, 1929	July 1, 1931	
Law for the Application of the Company Law	ditto	Feb. 21, 1931	July 1, 1931	
Rules Governing Companies Limited with Special Shares	ditto	Mar. 21, 1940	Mar. 21, 1940	
Banking Law	ditto	Mar. 28, 1931		Not enforced
Hsien Banking Law	ditto	Jan. 20, 1934	Jan. 20, 1940	
Savings Bank Law	ditto	July 4, 1934	July 4, 1934	
Revised Law of Stock Exchange	ditto	Apr. 27, 1935	Apr. 27, 1935	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Stock Exchange	Ministry of Industry and Labor			
Law of Negotiable Instruments	Nat'l Gov't.	Mar. 1, 1930	June 1, 1930	
Law for the Application of the Law of Negotiable Instruments		Oct. 30, 1929	Oct. 30, 1929	
Maritime Law	ditto	July 1, 1930	July 1, 1930	
	ditto	Dec. 30, 1929	Jan. 1, 1931	

Law for the Application of the Maritime Law	ditto	Nov. 25, 1930	Jan. 1, 1931	
Insurance Law (Revised)	ditto	Jan. 11, 1937		Not enforced
Law of Insurance Business (Revised)	ditto	Jan. 11, 1937		Not enforced
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of the Insurance Business	ditto	Jan. 11, 1937		Not enforced
Law of Simplified Life Insurance (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	Oct. 6, 1944	Oct. 6, 1944	
Rules of Simplified Life Insurance (Revised)	Executive Yuan	Aug. 10, 1935	Dec. 1, 1935	Revision was made on Dec. 17, 1942
Regulations Governing the Registration of Legal Per- sons (Revised)	Ministry of Justice	Aug. 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1944	
Regulations Governing the Registration of Immovables	Peking Gov't.	May 21, 1922	Aug. 24, 1922	Adopted by Nat'l. Gov't. on Aug. 12, 1927
Rules for the Application of Regulation Governing the Registration of Immovables	Ministry of Justice, Peking Gov't.	Aug. 14, 1922	Aug. 14, 1922	
Regulations Governing the Liquidation of Mortgages on Immovables	ditto	Oct. 6, 1915	Oct. 6, 1915	Adopted by Nat'l. Gov't. on Aug. 12, 1927
Law of Merchants	Peking Gov't.	Mar. 2, 1914	Sept. 1, 1914	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Merchants	ditto	July 19, 1914	Sept. 1, 1914	
Regulations Governing the Registration of Companies	Ministry of Industry	June 30, 1931	July 1, 1931	
Law of Copyright (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	Apr. 27, 1944	Apr. 27, 1944	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Copyright (Revised)	ditto	Sept. 5, 1944	Sept. 5, 1944	
Law of Forestry (Revised)	ditto	Feb. 6, 1945	Mar. 12, 1935	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Forestry	Ministry of Industry	Feb. 4, 1935	Mar. 12, 1935	
Law of Mining (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	June 8, 1942	June 8, 1942	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Mining (Revised)	Ministry of Economic Affairs	Sept. 30, 1938	Sept. 30, 1938	
Law of Fishery (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	Aug. 5, 1932	Aug. 5, 1932	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Fishery	Ministry of Industry	Nov. 1, 1932	Nov. 1, 1932	

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS

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<i>Name of Law</i>	<i>Organ of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Enforcement</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Law of Trade Mark (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	Nov. 23, 1935	Jan. 1, 1931	Registered with Supreme National Defence Council.
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Trade Mark (Revised)	Ministry of Industry	Dec. 30, 1937	Jan. 1, 1931	
Law of Business Registration	Nat'l Gov't.	June 28, 1937	June 28, 1937	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Law of Business Registration	Ministry of Economic Affairs	May 19, 1938	May 19, 1938	
Law of Ship Registration	Nat'l Gov't.	Dec. 5, 1930	July 1, 1931	
Land Law	ditto	June 30, 1930	Mar. 1, 1936	
Law for the Application of the Land Law	ditto	Apr. 5, 1935	Mar. 1, 1936	
Code of Civil Procedure	ditto	Feb. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Law for the Application of the Code of Civil Procedure	ditto	May 10, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Regulations Supplementary to the Code of Civil Procedure in Wartime	ditto	July 1, 1941	July 1, 1941	
Supplementary Regulations Concerning Litigation before Hsien Judicial Section (Revised)	ditto	Aug. 12, 1944	Aug. 12, 1944	Adopted by Nat'l. Gov't. on Aug. 12, 1927
Supplementary Regulations Concerning Handling of Civil and Criminal Cases in the Experimental Court	Ministry of Justice	Apr. 28, 1942	May 1, 1942	
Provisional Regulations Concerning Handling of Civil and Criminal Cases by Circuit Court in War Areas	Judicial Yuan	Aug. 18, 1939	Aug. 18, 1939	
Provisional Regulations Concerning the Trial of Cases by Hsien Magistrates	Peking Gov't.	Mar. 29, 1923	Mar. 29, 1923	
Bankruptcy Law (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	May 1, 1937	May 1, 1937	
Law for the Application of the Bankruptcy Law	ditto	July 18, 1935	Oct. 1, 1935	
Sinking Fund Law	ditto	Jan. 7, 1937	Jan. 7, 1937	
Regulations Governing the Application of the Sinking Fund Law	ditto	June 5, 1937	June 5, 1937	

Law of Compulsory Enforcement	ditto	Jan. 19, 1940	Jan. 19, 1940
Custody Regulations	ditto	Aug. 12, 1940	Aug. 12, 1940
Law of Public Notary System	ditto	Mar. 31, 1943	Jan. 1, 1944
Rules for the Application of the Law of the Public Notary System	Ministry of Justice	Dec. 25, 1943	Jan. 1, 1944
Law of Litigation Fee in Civil Cases	Nat'l Gov't.	Apr. 8, 1941	Apr. 18, 1941
Provisional Regulations Governing Fee in Non-Litigation Cases (Revised)	Ministry of Justice	Aug. 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1944
Law of Public Notary Service Fee	Nat'l Gov't.	July 1, 1943	Jan., 1944
Law of Nationality	ditto	Feb. 5, 1929	Feb. 5, 1929
Regulations Governing Law of Nationality	ditto	Feb. 5, 1929	Feb. 5, 1929
Regulations Governing the Applications of Laws and Regulations	Peking Gov't.	Aug. 5, 1918	Aug. 5, 1918
Rules Governing the Lease of House During Wartime	Nat'l Gov't.	Dec. 13, 1943	Dec. 13, 1943
Rules Governing the Lease of Land for Building Purposes during Wartime	ditto	June 29, 1945	June 29, 1945
Organic Regulations of Conciliation Committee of Counties or Towns	Ministry of the Interior	Oct. 9, 1943	Oct. 9, 1943
	Ministry of Justice		

Adopted by
Nat'l. Gov't.
on Aug. 12,
1927

B. CRIMINAL LAWS

<i>Name of Law</i>	<i>Organ of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Enforcement</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Criminal Code of the Republic of China	Nat'l Gov't.	Jan. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Law for the Application of Criminal Code	ditto	Apr. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Wartime Military Law of the Republic of China (Revised)	ditto	May 14, 1943	May 14, 1943	
Penal Code Governing the Army, Navy and Air Force (Revised)	ditto	July 19, 1937	July 19, 1937	
Military Secret Protection Law	ditto	Dec. 17, 1932	Apr. 1, 1933	
Law of Fortress and Fortified Areas (Revised)	ditto	Sept. 27, 1937	Sept. 27, 1937	
Emergency Law Governing Punishment for Crimes Endangering the Chinese Republic (Revised)	ditto	Sept. 4, 1937	Sept. 4, 1937	
Regulations Governing Punishment of Traitors (Revised)	ditto	Aug. 15, 1938	Sept. 15, 1938	
Regulations Governing the Self-Surrender of Traitors	Nat'l Military Council	Oct. 15, 1937	Oct. 15, 1937	
Regulations Governing the Punishment of Corrupt Officials	Nat'l Gov't.	June 30, 1943	June 30, 1943	
Regulations Governing the Punishment of Robbers and Bandits	ditto	Apr. 8, 1944	Apr. 8, 1944	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Punishment of Violators of Anti-Opium and Anti-Drug Laws	ditto	Feb. 19, 1941	Feb. 19, 1941	
Rules for the Eradiction of Opium and Drug Evil in Re-occupied Areas	Executive Yuan	June 22, 1944	June 22, 1944	
Penal Regulations for Obstructors of the Enforcement of the Conscription Law	Nat'l Gov't.	May 27, 1943	May 27, 1943	
Provisional Penal Regulations for Obstructors of National General Mobilization	ditto	June 29, 1942	Aug. 1, 1942	
Penal Regulations for Offenders Against the National Currency	ditto	Oct. 18, 1943	Oct. 18, 1943	
Provisional Penal Regulations for Violators of Wartime Food Control Regulations	ditto	May 12, 1941	May 12, 1941	

Martial Law	Nat'l Gov't.	Nov. 29, 1934	Nov. 29, 1934	
Wartime Emergency Law for Maintenance of Peace and Order	ditto	July 24, 1940	July 24, 1940	
Criminal Procedure for Army, Navy and Air Force Cases	ditto	Mar. 24, 1930	Mar. 24, 1930	
Regulations Relating to Summary Procedure for Army, Navy and Air Force Cases (Revised)	ditto	Mar. 8, 1943	Mar. 8, 1943	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Handling of Cases of Military Penal Code by Local Administrative Chiefs and Magistrates	Nat'l Military Council	May 15, 1938	May 15, 1938	
Regulations Governing the Mitigation of Punishment	Nat'l Gov't.	June 17, 1944	June 17, 1944	
Regulations for the Protection of Liberty of the Person	ditto	July 15, 1944	Aug. 1, 1944	
Regulations Governing Prevention of Recurring Crimes	Ministry of Justice	July 5, 1932	July 5, 1932	
Rules Relating to the Punishment of Local Oppressors and Corrupt Gentry in Bandit-Suppression Areas	Nat'l Gov't.	May 30, 1935	May 30, 1935	
Rules for Protection of Communication Equipments During Wartime	ditto	Oct. 31, 1944	Oct. 31, 1944	
Rules Safeguarding Matrimonial Rights of Members of Expeditionary Armed Forces	ditto	Aug. 11, 1943	Aug. 11, 1943	
Rules Governing the Commanding of Judicial Police	ditto	Apr. 10, 1945	Apr. 10, 1945	
Rules Governing the Procedure of Special Criminal Cases	ditto	Jan. 12, 1944	Nov. 12, 1944	
Rules Governing Public Defence Counsels	ditto	Mar. 10, 1939	July 1, 1940	
Habeas Corpus Law	ditto	June 21, 1935		
Regulations Governing the Punishment of Run-away Policemen	Nat'l Gov't.	June 28, 1937	June 28, 1937	
Code of Criminal Procedure	ditto	Jan. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Law for the Application of the Code of Criminal Procedure	ditto	Apr. 1, 1935	July 1, 1935	
Wartime Supplementary Regulations to the Code of Criminal Procedure	ditto	July 1, 1941	July 1, 1941	
Supplementary Regulations Concerning Handling of Civil and Criminal Cases in the Experimental Court	Ministry of Justice	Apr. 28, 1942	Apr. 28, 1942	Registered with Supreme National Defence Council.
Supplementary Regulations Concerning the Handling of Cases by the Hsien Judicial Section (Revised)	Nat'l Gov't.	Aug. 12, 1944	Aug. 12, 1944	

LIST OF EXISTING CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS
CRIMINAL LAWS

<i>Name of Law</i>	<i>Organ of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Promulgation</i>	<i>Date of Enforcement</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Provisional Regulations Concerning Trial of Civil and Criminal cases by Magistrate (Revised)	Peking Gov't.	Mar. 29, 1923	Mar. 29, 1923	Adopted by Nat'l. Gov't. on Aug. 12, 1927
Provisional Regulations Concerning Re-trial of Criminal Cases by the Hsien Judicial Section	Nat'l Gov't.	June 27, 1936	June 27, 1936	
Provisional Regulations Governing the Trial of Civil and Criminal Cases by Circuit Courts in War Areas	Judicial Yuan	Aug. 18, 1939	Aug. 18, 1939	
Restrictive Rules on Criminal Procedure (Revised) ..	Ministry of Justice	Sept. 25, 1936	July 1, 1935	
Regulations Governing Things Captured on the Seas ..	Nat'l Gov't.	Dec. 15, 1932	Dec. 15, 1932	
Provisional Regulations Governing Delegated Review of Military Offence Cases by High Provincial Military Authorities	Nat'l Military Council	May 15, 1938	May 15, 1938	
Provisional Regulations Governing Delegated Review of Military Offence Cases During Wartime	ditto	Mar. 13, 1939	Mar. 13, 1939	
Rules Governing Disposal of Cases of Criminal Offences Committed by Members of the U.S. Armed Forces in China	Nat'l Gov't.	Oct. 1, 1943	Oct. 1, 1943	

CHAPTER XIV

THE CONTROL YUAN

I. BRIEF HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE CHINESE CENSORIAL SYSTEM

The censorial power, as an independent authority in China's political history, may be traced back to the Chou Dynasty (1134-256 B.C.). The existence and development of this power in the following dynasties should be surveyed and studied separately. In this article only a brief resume can be presented.

Firstly, it was a governmental power delegated by the Emperor for the supervision of government officials, central and local. As the power was delegated by the Emperor, the latter could, at his pleasure or whim, expand or reduce it. Secondly, censorial officials known as Chien Kwan or Yen Kwan, literally translated as advisory officials, appointed by the Emperor were usually men of high repute, propriety and outstanding attainments in literature and politics. Most of them had a keen sense of their responsibilities, so much so that they were outspoken, even attempting to correct the conduct of the Emperor in the event of the latter's deviation from righteousness, not without the knowledge that they might run the risk of losing their positions. Chinese history abounds in instances where Chien Kwan

adopted a strong attitude against influential officials whose administration called for censure. Chien Kwan actually voiced public opinion, and eventually caused the downfall of those undesirable elements in the Government. Unfortunately, however, history does not lack instances in which influential corrupt elements were strong enough to defy censure, and Chien Kwan themselves were "liquidated." Thirdly, censorial officials can be divided into two classes, viz. the Chien Kwan and the Yu Shih. The former served in the dual capacity of advisers and critics, whilst the latter exercised extensive powers, even including judicial administration. The Yu Shih was authorised to impeach officials, to supervise the enforcement of laws and orders, to sit as judge in the trial of complicated and difficult judicial cases, and to act as keeper of books and documents in the Imperial archives and as superintendent of the district government and of the army. Cases of extravagant or luxurious life and of improper conduct of sacrificial rites or Court ceremonies were likewise subject to his censure.

During the Ming Dynasty (1368-1643) the power of Yu Shih penetrated into administrative, military, police, financial, educational, examination, ceremonial and

ritual matters. In addition, he had the power to interfere with the literary expression of thoughts intended for publication. He had also the power to rectify social customs and conventions which might not be in conformity with the principle which he thought should be upheld. Right through the Ming dynasty there were three separate governmental powers, namely, administrative, military and censorial. During the Manchu dynasty (1644-1911) the censorial organisation of the Government was called the Tu Cha Yuan, which possessed power not less than that exercised during the Ming Dynasty. This power was almost unlimited in matters concerning administration. It was not necessary to justify their impeachment on legal grounds. In many cases a mere rumour which might constitute a ground for impeachment. The Tu Cha Yuan had also judicial power, serving as a court of appellate jurisdiction. It is obvious that the censorial power in old days became too far-reaching, overlapping the administrative as well as the judicial powers. There was no other power to check the censorial except the Emperor himself.

Dr. Sun Yat-sen, in common with Montesquieu's theory of separation of powers, and with a profound knowledge of Chinese political systems pre-existent to any European political system, advocated that, in order to create an ideal government it was essential that the censorial power should be independent. Although in the early history of the Republic, little was achieved in

providing effective constitutional machinery for the control of government officials. Under the patronage of the Kuomintang the revolutionary government at Canton on August 1st, 1925, established the first Control Yuan with five Commissioners, who, collectively formed the highest authority of the Yuan. It had the power to impeach, arrest and punish public officers of all kinds and of all grades, to audit government accounts, to adjudicate all administrative litigations, to investigate into administrative matters when necessary, and to supervise civil service examinations. After the conclusion of the Northern Expedition, which successfully ended the rule of war-lords, the Control Yuan, in the present form, was formally inaugurated on February 16, 1931. Under its jurisdiction there is the Ministry of Audit which performs functions almost independently. The Yuan itself is concerned only with the censorial power.

II. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CONTROL YUAN

The Control Yuan is headed by a President and a Vice-President who, until September, 1943, were elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, to which they were responsible. As a result of the revision of the Organic Law of the National Government in September, 1943, they are chosen from among the State Councillors by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang at the instance of the President of the State, to whom they shall be responsible. Besides the President and the Vice-Pre-

sident, the Yuan is composed of a number of members (originally the number ranged from 29 to 49) who exercise independently the power of impeachment. There are also a Secretary-General, a Secretariat and a Councillor's Office in charge of the routine business of the Yuan. The Secretariat is divided into sections taking charge of documents, regulations, archives, investigation, general affairs, welfare, personnel, statistics and miscellaneous matters. In addition, there are ten investigation officers responsible for the investigation of cases. Directly under the Yuan is the Ministry of Audit with the power of auditing. 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.

For the convenience of supervision, the country is divided into 16 supervisory districts, each having a supervisory commissioner. Up to the present, the first nine of the 16 districts stated below have had their commissioners. The 16 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) Sinkiang, (15) Sikang and Tibet, and (16) Mongolia. Besides the above-mentioned 16 districts, two inspection commissions were

created to make circumstantial inspection of the war areas.

III. THE FUNCTIONS OF THE CONTROL YUAN

A. Impeachment.—According to the Organic Law of the National Government, the Control Yuan is the highest supervisory organ. It possesses the power to impeach any official who, failed to carry out his duties or commits any act in violation of law. According to the Law of Impeachment, the Control Yuan may divide the whole country into supervisory districts, each having a Supervisory Commissioner as mentioned above. Any supervisory member or a commissioner may, individually (or collectively), initiate an impeachment against any public official for breach of law or negligence of duty. He must base the impeachment on verified facts brought to his notice in one of the following three ways. Firstly, complaints may be directly lodged by the injured party, or the people generally. According to Article 13 of the Law of Impeachment, any person or organization may send to the Control Yuan a written complaint duly signed by the person or the legal representatives of the organization concerned against any public official. On receiving the complaint, three supervisory members will be appointed by the President of the Yuan to proceed with the investigation of the case. The investigation may be conducted by the supervisory members themselves, or by some other competent Government organisations. The decision as to whether or not an impeachment should be

instituted is made by the three members conducting the investigation. Secondly, complaints may be lodged by any government office against any public official. The President of the Yuan will likewise appoint three supervisory members to conduct the investigation. To drop a case of this nature a unanimous vote of the three members is required. If any one of the three members holds that the accused should be impeached, impeachment will be instituted. Thirdly, supervisory members, or supervisory commissioners, may individually or collectively file a written statement with the President of the Yuan setting forth the charges against any public servant. On receiving the statement the President will designate three members of the Yuan other than those who initiated the accusation. If endorsed by a majority of the three, the impeachment will stand, and the case will be submitted to the disciplinary authority. If the three members, or a majority of the members examining the case, arrive at a negative decision, while the member or members initiating the impeachment still maintain the accusation, then the case will be referred by the President of the Yuan to another five members for re-consideration and their decision is final. It must be noted that the President of the Yuan, who is only responsible for the administrative work of the Yuan, cannot exercise his power to interfere with the independent discharge of the duties of the individual members of the Yuan.

The power of the Control Yuan penetrates into almost every branch of government organizations, central, provincial and district. With the existence of this power all officials, particularly those holding responsible positions, must be on their guard that they should be alive to their political or administrative responsibilities. Failing this, they are liable to impeachment. But it must be noted, that although the Control Yuan has power to impeach any public functionaries, it does not possess judicial power. When impeachment is instituted, the impeached must either be amenable to disciplinary or judicial authority as the case may be. If the impeached is a high responsible official elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang or is a supervisory member of the Party, the competent authority to arrive at a decision of such a case is the Central Supervisory Committee of the Kuomintang. Other political officials are amenable to the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Political Officials under the National Government. Public functionaries in the Central Government and in the local Governments above the rank of recommended appointment are amenable to the Central Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries under the Judicial Yuan. Military officers of and above the rank of major-general are amenable to the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Military Officers under the National Military Council. Officers of and below the rank of colonel are amenable

to the Ministry of War. Officials of and below the delegated rank in a local government are amenable to the local Commissions for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The outbreak of the war necessitated some changes in the procedure of impeachment. According to the Provisional Regulations for the Exercise of Censorial Power During Wartime, the Control Yuan was entrusted with the duties of "censure" and "proposition." By "censure" it is meant that when an official's illegal action or negligence of duty has been discovered by or brought to the notice of the Control Yuan, a written notice of censure may be submitted to the officer directly superior to the accused. It is required that the superior officer, on receiving the notice of censure, will reply in due course, whether or not the accusation is justified. If he replies in the affirmative, or if he fails to reply, or replies

groundlessly, the notice of censure will become a formal impeachment, and the impeached will face the consequences. If he replies in the negative, and if after investigation it is found that the accusation is really not justified, the case will be dropped. By "proposition" it is meant that when the Control Yuan finds that some legally specified obligations of office are administered feebly or inadequately, it may make a proposal, or express its views, to the officer concerned or to the officer immediately superior. The office which receives the proposal is expected to take adequate measures in due course to remedy the situation. The proposition aims at the correction of maladministration, and may achieve prevention.

The following three tables, show the statistical records of the number of cases in connection with impeachment, censure and proposition by the Control Yuan.

TABLE I. IMPEACHMENTS INSTITUTED AND SUBMITTED BY THE CONTROL YUAN TO AUTHORITIES FOR DISCIPLINARY PUNISHMENT.

<i>Classification of impeached officials</i>	<i>1937 July-Dec.</i>	<i>1938</i>	<i>1939</i>	<i>1940</i>	<i>1941</i>	<i>1942</i>	<i>1943</i>	<i>1944</i>	<i>Total</i>
Civil Administration	43	24	31	75	43	47	46	57	366
Judicial	13	8	41	17	2	10	5	5	101
Financial	10	3	14	8	12	10	3	7	67
Military	4	5	2	5	3	10	10	6	45
Police	1	7	2	1	2	3	3	1	20
Communications	—	—	—	—	5	5	1	1	12
Public Health	—	—	—	—	2	3	1	—	6
Food Administration	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	4
Reconstruction	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	2
Education	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	2
Audit	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	2
Opium Suppression	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	2
Miscellaneous	—	—	—	1	—	13	7	11	32
Total	71	48	92	110	69	107	76	88	661

THE CONTROL YUAN

TABLE II. OFFICIALS CENSURED BY THE CONTROL YUAN

<i>Classifications of censured officials</i>	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	<i>Total</i>
Civil Administration	23	45	58	62	64	117	66	429
Financial	23	20	22	5	19	47	35	174
Military	7	9	18	10	11	29	18	102
Judicial	4	8	9	6	12	22	3	64
Police	—	4	3	16	6	16	—	45
Communications . .	5	6	3	4	8	8	9	43
Food Administration	—	—	—	—	8	8	18	34
Education	2	2	1	1	3	8	—	17
Opium Suppression	—	2	7	—	—	—	—	9
Relief	—	—	3	1	—	—	—	4
Public Health . . .	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	2
Miscellaneous . . .	—	21	—	—	40	18	17	96
Total	64	118	124	106	171	273	163	1019

TABLE III. PROPOSITIONS MADE BY THE CONTROL YUAN.

<i>Classification</i>	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	<i>Total</i>
Financial	19	39	16	20	59	32	37	222
Relief	2	16	15	7	28	27	40	135
Judicial	1	6	18	10	15	20	5	75
Civil Administration	6	7	5	11	18	22	2	71
Food Administration	5	9	9	5	6	18	5	57
Communications . .	9	13	2	1	6	9	6	46
Education	2	2	5	5	6	8	6	34
Opium Suppression .	—	5	13	1	4	4	7	34
Police	—	4	7	1	3	8	7	30
Public Health . . .	—	2	2	1	11	—	3	24
Reconstruction . .	—	1	10	4	4	—	—	19
Taxation	—	3	4	11	—	—	—	18
Price Control . . .	—	2	1	1	—	6	1	11
Examination	—	2	2	—	1	3	—	8
Miscellaneous . . .	—	7	3	—	10	5	1	26
Total	54	145	129	90	252	170	130	920

Another power of the Control Yuan is the power to inquire into matters which are of special importance. Its power of enquiry is of two kinds: first, enquiries of a general nature and secondly, enquiries of a special nature. With regard to the former, according to Article 6 of the Organic Law of the Control Yuan, the Yuan may

frequently despatch its members to provinces to make an inspection of the local administration, famine conditions, prison reform, river conservancy work, famine relief work, the suffering of the people, etc. During time of war, the Control Yuan ordered its Supervisory Commissioners to tour their respective districts with a

view to conducting enquiries pertaining to the various activities of the administration of the provincial and district governments. From time to time committees were created by the Yuan to be sent to different places to inspect general administration, national spiritual mobilization, conscription, the organisation and training of the people, hoarding and reserves of supplies, communication and transportation, public support of the war, public security, air raid precautions, the management of wounded soldiers and of refugees, taxation and other imposts on the people, production, construction, education and all other matters related to war. In short, the Control Yuan possesses the power to conduct any enquiry, if it so desires, into any activities of the administration. As to the special enquiry, it is made when special agents or commissions are selected by the Yuan, to inquire into specific cases.

B. Auditing.—1. Organization and Functions of The Ministry of Audit:—

The Control Yuan exercises its power of auditing through the Ministry of Audit. The Minister of Audit, though under the jurisdiction of the Control Yuan, is an independent official specially appointed by the National Government upon the recommendation of the President of the Yuan. Under him there are two Vice-Ministers and a number of Auditors, Assistant-Auditors and Inspectors. Under the Ministry of Audit there are three divisions: the first division is responsible for budget supervision and the second division for post-audit of the accounts and

statements submitted by all government offices, and the third division for inspection or investigation of financial matters of all government offices throughout the country. Under the jurisdiction of the Ministry, Audit Bureaus may be established in various provinces and special municipalities, to be charged with the duty of auditing and inspecting the accounts of local government offices therein. At present 15 Audit Bureaus have been established respectively in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Hupeh, Shensi Honan, Kwangtung, Hunan, Kweichow, Szechuen, Fukien, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Kansu, Anhwei and Yunnan.

The power and functions of the Ministry of Audit are defined in Article 5 of the Organic Law of the Control Yuan, as follows:

- (1) To see that all Government organizations make budgetary estimates of their respective revenues and expenditures;
- (2) To supervise, beforehand, the budgetary estimates and audit accounts submitted by all the government organizations;
- (3) To examine and approve warrants or orders (the required forms) for revenue collection and the warrants or orders for disbursement, and
- (4) To watch and check illegal or dishonest practices committed by any government organization in connection with financial matters.

2. The Public Treasury System and Auditing:—The Public Treasury system in China was created as a result of the promulgation by

the National Government of the Public Treasury Law on June 9, 1938, and of its Procedure on June 27, the following year. Not until October 1, 1939, did the Law and its Procedure actually come into force.

It must be confessed that prior to the practice of this Law and its Procedure, there existed in China inexcusable irregularities in regard to public moneys, which were due to three major causes:

- (1) No budget system was established and, in fact, no balanced budget was ever adopted.
- (2) The issue of public money was not strictly governed by law. There was no authority to supervise and check the spending of public moneys.
- (3) Public money was allocated to various government organizations, which had full power of disbursement within the allotted sum. There was never any effort on the part of various governmental organizations to check extravagance, and at the end of each fiscal year to hand back to the Treasury what was not spent.

The promulgation of the Public Treasury Law and its Procedure was great remedy for such irregularities. According to the Law and its Procedure, the Public Treasury is divided into three categories, namely; in the Central Government it is called National Treasury, the controlling authority of which is the Ministry of Finance; in the provinces, it is

called the Provincial Treasury, the Commission of Finance of the provincial government being the controlling authority; in the district, or municipality, it is called District or Municipal Treasury respectively, each with its Finance Bureau as controlling authority. It is further provided by the Law that banks should be authorised to take charge of public money, bonds and any other public property. Where no bank is established, the Post Office should perform the same function as the bank.

The most distinctive feature of the Law and its Procedure is the strict practice governing the issue of public money. This practice applies to the central, and the provincial as well as municipal and district governments. A general description of the practice in regard to the Central Government implies the same practice in the various grades of local governments. As a starting point, it must be made clear that all public moneys collected from all sources are known as Consolidated Revenue, and are deposited in an account, known as the Consolidated Revenue Fund Account, at the Central Bank of China. There is also a Special Trust Account in which public money collected for specific purposes are deposited in the same Bank. No money can be drawn from the Consolidated Revenue Fund Account unless it is appropriated according to the Budget and the required procedure. This procedure is a complicated one. Brief description will suffice. The controlling authority of the National Treasury (the Ministry of Finance), at the re-

quest of the Department making the requisition may, in accordance with, and within the limit of, the sum appropriated as shown in the Budget, grant the requisition by filling in two forms or warrants for disbursement to be submitted to the controlling authority of Audit (the Ministry of Audit) for counter-signature. Of these two forms, or warrants, one is an order from the Ministry of Finance to the Central Bank of China for the release of the money which will be credited to the account of the Department making the requisition. The other is a formal notification to the Department concerned that the money has been released. It is obvious that the required endorsement by the Ministry of Audit for any disbursement is a preventive measure against any unauthorized expenditure.

It is also noteworthy that the Department making the requisition must sign a form bearing the private seals and signatures of the Accounting Officer and the Paymaster respectively, together with those of the responsible Head of the Department. The Accounting Officer is not responsible to the Head of the Department, but is directly responsible to the Directorate-General of Budget, Account and Statistics. As the Accounting Officer is responsible for the form of requisition, he must be sure that the money required is, first of all, in strict accordance with the Budget and, secondly, for the specific and proper purpose.

It is further provided in the Law that at the end of every fiscal year any balance remaining in various Departments shall be returned to the Consolidated Revenue Fund Account, thus eliminating the old irregularity of retaining such balances as might exist.

The Ministry of Audit exercises its power of auditing not only after but also before public money is spent. The Ministry, with the assistance of Audit Bureaus in various provinces and municipalities and visiting audit officers, may select any government offices to supervise and audit. They possess the power to demand at any moment the surrender of books, vouchers, and documents. By constant exercise of their supervisory power, every government office must be on its guard to eliminate any irregularity which may exist lest they should be censured. It must be borne in mind that, although the Ministry of Audit functions as an independent body, it is under the jurisdiction of the Control Yuan. If the Ministry discovers any breach of law, negligence of duty or any irregularities in financial matters, it is its duty to bring the matter to the Control Yuan, then the government organization or the officer responsible will be impeached, and disciplinary punishment may follow. If the officer responsible is found guilty of a crime he has to face justice in an ordinary court.

CHAPTER XV

EXAMINATION YUAN

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Chinese historical records, competitive examination as a means of recruiting government officials was first adopted as far back as 132 A.D. during the reign of Emperor Shun of the Han Dynasty. Although the method of examination varied from one dynasty to another, the examination itself as a system was firmly established regardless of the changes of dynasties. Especially during the Ming and the Ching Dynasties, the examination system greatly flourished far excelling their preceeding dynasties both in form and in substance.

However, the examination system was not without its faults, of which one is worth mentioning. The examination could only recruit men of letters because it concentrated on subjects of literature or philosophy. Confucian canons were considered as textbooks by scholars who participated in the examination. Old classic books were studied and poems, written by reputed authors, had to be memorized. The examination, at its best, could only test the talent for literature and the power of memory. Towards the end of last century, as a result of the impact between Western

Powers and China, the Chinese began to realise that literary achievements of a person did not have any bearing on administration. The trend of the time convinced the Chinese that the employment of scientific knowledge in western countries was the main cause of material advancement. The wealth and the power of the nation did not depend upon literature, but on the application of scientific methods. With this realisation in mind, towards the end of the Manchu Regime, the competitive examination system, which was continuously in existence for many centuries, was abolished.

Dr. Sun Yat-sen saw the wisdom of the restoration of this system, and advocated that the power of taking charge of examination should be independent of the executive power. In pursuance of Dr. Sun's teachings, a Five-Power Constitutional System was adopted in 1928 and on January 6, 1930, the Examination Yuan was established with a veteran Kuomintang leader, Tai Chi-tao, as the President of the Yuan. It must be admitted that, though from the historical point of view, China, was the first country to introduce competitive examination, yet the

establishment of a permanent and independent government, under the patronage of the Kuomintang, was an innovation.

II. THE ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE EXAMINATION YUAN

The Examination Yuan is headed by a President and a Vice-President. Until September, 1943 they were elected by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, to which they were made responsible. As a result of the latest revision of the Organic Law of the National Government in September, 1943 they shall be elected from among State Councillors by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang at the instance of the President of the National Government, to whom they shall be responsible.

In the Yuan itself there is a Secretariat and a Counsellors' office. The former is headed by a Secretary-General, taking charge of general affairs and administrative details of the Yuan, and the latter's duties are to draft and deliberate upon laws and ordinances concerning examinations and matters relating to the personnel of the Government. In addition there is also a Committee of Laws and Regulations with the Secretary-General as Chairman and senior officers of the Yuan, the Commission of Civil Service Examination and Ministry of Personnel as Committee members *ex officio*. The duty of the Committee, as its name suggests, is to formulate laws and regulations within the competent authority of

the Yuan to be submitted to the Legislative Yuan.

Also under the Yuan there are two separate departments, namely, the Commission of Civil Service Examinations and the Ministry of Personnel. The details of which will be dealt with in the following sections.

The examination Yuan, as one of the five independent governmental departments, is entrusted with the power to conduct civil service examinations, and to review appointments and of removals of administrative officials of the central and local governments.

It has also the power to determine, by examination and registration, the qualifications for practice in specialised professions and technical experts. As those who are engaged in professional and technical works, such as doctors, pharmacists, lawyers, accountants, architects, engineers, persons engaged in maritime profession, etc., are directly or indirectly concerned with public interest and welfare, the Examination Yuan must see that those people in practising their respective professions have acquired adequate knowledge and ability in order that they may best render their respective functions to the community. The licence for practice is issued only after one's qualifications have been properly examined and recorded.

The most striking feature in regard to the functions of the Yuan is its power to determine, by examination and registration,

qualifications for candidacy to public office, which is elective in nature.

III. THE COMMISSION OF CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATION

The Commission of Civil Service Examination consists of a Chairman, a Vice-Chairman, and from eleven to seventeen members, all appointed by the National Government upon the recommendation of the President of the Yuan. The most important function of the Commission is to plan and conduct various civil service examinations for recruiting capable and qualified candidates for governmental posts, central and local.

According to the Examination Law, promulgated by the National Government in 1933, examinations for civil servants are divided into three categories, namely, Ordinary Examinations, Higher Examinations and Special Examinations. Examinations in the first two categories take place regularly, as a rule, bi-annually, but should occasions arise necessitating extra examinations, those may be held. As to the classification of examinations in each of these two categories, there are examinations for general executives, financial officers, statisticians, educational administrators, diplomatic and consular services, judicial officers, health officers, police officers, auditors and also for administrators in construction work. Special Examinations are occasionally held to meet the demand of certain specific services under Central or local governments. Successful candidates are referred

to the Ministry of Personnel for registration and appointment.

The difference between the Ordinary and Higher Examination lies in the fact that the former is for those civil servants who belong to the grade of delegated appointments, usually lower positions in the government pertaining to clerical work, while the latter is for those who belong to a higher grade—the so-called “recommended appointment” — usually chiefs of sections under a division of a ministry. In the local government, those who receive a “recommended appointment” would hold a responsible position.

Of special interest in regard to civil service examinations is the method of recruiting. Any citizen who is in good physical condition (usually certified by a medical man), has not been deprived of his civil rights, has not fraudulently misappropriated public funds, is not involved in litigation on account of corruption, and is not addicted to opium or other narcotics, is entitled to sit for examination. However, special qualifications are required for specific examinations. For instance, candidates for the ordinary Examination must besides general qualifications above-mentioned satisfy the examination authority with one of the following qualifications:—

- (a) Having graduated from a middle school approved by the Ministry of Education;
- (b) Having received an education equivalent to that of the above-mentioned middle school;

- (c) Having worked as a hired clerk in the Government for a period of not less than three years.

In regard to Higher Examinations, one of the following specific qualifications will suffice:—

- (a) Having graduated from a college or technical school of university standing (either in China or abroad) approved by the Ministry of Education.
- (b) Having received an education equivalent to that stated in the preceeding qualification;
- (c) Being possessed of sufficient technical knowledge or writing, which has been approved by the Commission of Civil Service Examination; and
- (d) Having passed an Ordinary Examination for a period of four years, or held a position of delegated appointment, or simiar post, for not less than three years.

It seems that school education is the discriminating factor. Nevertheless, there is a remedy for this shortcoming: the so-called "being possessed of an education equivalent. . . ." can be verified by passing a preliminary qualifying test. For instance, if the candidate is confident that he, or she, possesses an education equivalent to university standing (but not being an graduate) he, or she, may sit for the prelimary qualifying test. If successful, the candidate would be considered as having an

equivalent education as a university graduate and is qualified to sit for the Higher Examination, so that talents and ability will not, as a result of lack of university training, be handicapped.

Until 1939 all examinations were divided into three sections: the first two were written tests, the last oral. Only those who passed the first were allowed to participate in the second, and those who were successful in the second were allowed to participate in the third. The First Higher Civil Service Examination, held in 1931, is an exception, for the two written tests were then taken at the same time. Those who were successful in the first section, and who failed in the second, were allowed to participate in the second section of the next examination held two years later. The same condition applied to those who were successful in the second section but failed in the oral test.

In August, 1939 the practice of Higher Examinations was altered. It was required that successful candidates of the preliminary test should undergo proper training at the Central Political Institute for a prescribed period, after which a final test would be held. Successful candidates of the final test were allocated to governmental positions. In April, 1940, as a result of revision of regulations formulated by the Commission for Civil Service Examinations and approved by the Supreme National Defence Council, the Ordinary Examination, following the precedent of the Higher Examina-

tion, was set for two tests. Successful candidates of the preliminary test were also to be trained at the Central Political Institute. This Institute is reputed for its strictness in its selection of students, its discipline and its high educational standard. In collaboration with the Examination Yuan, two special courses have been provided by the Institute, viz. the Civil Service Training Corps for successful candidates of the preliminary test of the Ordinary Examination, and the Advanced Civil Service Training Corps for successful candidates of the preliminary test of the Higher Examination. After received preliminary training, the candidates will be benefited by an actual appointment. In this connection, the Ministry of Personnel is responsible.

IV. THE MINISTRY OF PERSONNEL

The Ministry of Personnel takes charge of the review and registration of appointments, transfers, promotions, demotions, and the removal of all civil servants. It also performs its duties of allocating successful candidates, keeping service records, awarding of honours, pensions and compensations, and the educational training and general welfare of all civil servants. It is headed by a Minister, a Political Vice-Minister, and an Administrative Vice-Minister, all appointed by the National government on the recommendation of the President of the Examination Yuan.

In China, appointments to government posts are classified into four grades:—

First grade—Special appointments, such as Ministers of various Ministries, Chairman of various Commissions, Ambassadors, etc.;

Second grade—Selected appointments, such as Vice-Ministers (political as well as administrative), Councillors, Directors of Divisions and Senior Secretaries of various Ministries, Vice-Chairmen of various Commissions, etc.;

Third grade—Recommended appointments, such as junior secretaries and chiefs of Sections, of various Ministries and Commissions in the Central Government and Magistrates of the district governments.

Fourth grade—Delegated appointments, such as the clerical staff.

Special appointments are not included in the civil service and are not subject to the protection and regulations governing the service. Salaries and remunerations of various officials are prescribed according to regulations. Every grade, with the exception of the first, carries a minimum and maximum salary, and the public servant who enters the service at the minimum pay, by virtue of longevity and meritorious service, rise to the maximum salary.

Successful candidates are allocated to various offices in accordance with the classification of

the examination from which they were successful. In conformity with the Regulations Governing the Allocation of Successful Candidates at various examinations, the Ministry of Personnel has to prepare a list indicating the examinations taken by the successful candidates and the government bodies to which they are allocated, and submit it to the Examination Yuan which, in turn, forwards it to the National Government.

The most important power of the Ministry of Personnel is that of review of appointments. Prior to 1933, when the Law of Appointments was made and promulgated, administrative officials were appointed to office at the discretion of a responsible high executive chief of various Government organizations. Since 1933, however, any person who is to be appointed to office is obliged to fill in an appointment form and submit it to the Ministry of Personnel together with credentials, certificates and other supporting documents for review. If, after review, the Ministry is satisfied with the credentials and documents, formal appointment to the office will be made. Those who have not submitted themselves for review after temporary appointment by the Chief of a government organization, or those who have failed in the review, are not permitted to draw salaries beyond the limit of three months, any salaries drawn beyond that limit must be repaid to the government, or be recouped by the responsible chief who made the temporary appointment.

Examination is only a means of recruiting the most qualified men for the service. However, it will

not ensure a satisfactory civil service if Government officials are not under examination of merits. Consequently, the Law of Examination of Merits, and Regulations of Reward and Punishment, were drafted by the Ministry of Personnel and promulgated by the National Government in 1935. According to the Law and Regulations, officials, are to be examined on their work, knowledge and general conduct. For each of these elements a definite number of marks is assigned. For instance, work counts 50 per cent, and the other two 25 per cent each. An examination of merits is usually held annually and under every government department there is a committee which is responsible for such examination and grades the marks. Those officials who rate above 80 will be ranked in the first group; those above 70 in the second group; those above 60 in the third group; those above 50 in the fourth group; those below 50 in the fifth group and those below 40 in the sixth group. The first group officials will be promoted; the second group will be recorded with honour; those in the third will not be affected; those in the fourth group will be recorded with demerits; those in the fifth group will be demoted, and those in the sixth group will be discharged from office. Under the same law, the number of officials to be discharged each year shall not be less than 2 per cent of the total number of the officials of any Government organization. The vacancies thus created will be filled by successful candidates of the state examination.

TABLE I. SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES IN THE VARIOUS KINDS OF EXAMINATIONS—Held from 1931 to 1944.

Classification of Examinations	Year from which the Examination began	Number of Successful Candidates in 1944	Aggregated Number of Successful Candidates													
			1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944
Examination for Candidacy for Public offices	1941	201495	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1195	41160	86705	288200
Class A	1941	22474	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	997	12001	23473	45947
Class B	1941	179021	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	198	29159	63237	242253
Examination for Civil Service .	1931	4625	101	101	652	1000	1562	2939	4004	4713	8840	15663	22024	27984	38160	42785
Higher Examination	1931	403	101	101	200	200	448	561	596	596	802	1112	1455	1719	2088	2491
Ordinary Exam.	1933	479	—	—	409	653	918	1209	1244	1244	1300	1445	1596	1725	2774	3153
Special Exam.	1933	3843	—	—	43	147	196	1169	2164	2873	6738	13106	18973	24540	33298	37141
For Magistrates	1936	61	—	—	—	—	—	9	56	56	56	66	74	117	156	217
For Senior Postal Officials .	1935	—	—	—	—	—	22	22	22	22	40	40	111	176	232	232
Other Special Exam.	1933	3782	—	—	43	147	174	1138	2086	2795	6642	13000	18788	24247	32910	36692
Examination for Professional & Technical Persons	1942	2334	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	618	1886	4220
Higher Exam. by Written Test	1943	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	13
Higher Exam. on Credentials .	1942	1287	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	618	1712	2999
Ordinary Exam. by Written Test	1943	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	18
Ordinary Exam. on Credentials	1943	296	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	157	453
Exam. on Credentials for native doctors	1944	737	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	737
Exam. for Candidates to be sent Abroad for training in Engineering, Farming, Mining & in other fields . . .	1944	287	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	287
Preliminary Exam.	1931	174	156	156	367	367	853	864	1241	1241	1296	1388	1489	1603	1779	1953
Higher Preliminary Exam. . .	1931	104	85	85	237	237	601	607	793	793	840	901	964	1054	1168	1272
Ordinary Preliminary Exam. .	1931	70	71	71	130	130	252	257	448	446	456	487	525	549	611	681
Total		208915	257	257	1019	1367	2415	3803	5245	5954	10136	17051	24708	71365	128530	337445

TABLE II. NUMBER OF CIVIL SERVANTS AWARDED WITH PENSIONS AND
COMPENSATIONS (1937-MARCH 1945).

Years	Number of Persons who have been Awarded Pensions and Compensations.					
	Total	Annuity for Civil Servants	Single Payment for Civil Servants	Annuity for Relatives	Single Payment for Relatives	Annuity and Single Payment for Relatives
1937	812	143	4	115	366	184
1938	574	79	2	55	207	231
1939	635	48	15	38	211	323
1940	625	43	5	54	252	271
1941	608	25	2	65	227	289
1942	625	29	—	68	223	305
1943	651	22	—	63	216	350
1944	359	4	—	59	137	159
1945						
Jan. to Mar.	74	—	—	18	23	33
Total	4963	393	28	535	1862	2145

TABLE III. NUMBER OF APPOINTMENTS REVIEWED
(1933—March 1945)

Classification of Appointments	Total	Qualified	Appoint-ment Approved	Probation Approved	Temporary Appoint-ment	Practice	Disquali-fied	Re/usals
Selected Appointment	1,906	1,559	116	61	—	—	170	—
Recommended Appointment	20,575	15,518	1,750	1,111	75	—	2,121	—
Delegated Appointment	50,987	39,769	674	3,901	614	382	5,636	11
Total	73,468	56,846	2,540	5,073	689	382	7,927	11

TABLE IV. EXAMINATION ON MERITS

Years	Total	Number of Civil Servants Re- corded with Merits				Number of Civil Servants Re- corded with Demerits				Number of Civil Servants Re- served for future Review			
		Total	Selected Appoint- ment	Recom- mended Appoint- ment	Delega- ted Ap- point- ment	Total	Selected Appoint- ment	Recom- mended appoint- ment	Delegated Appoint- ment	Total	Selected Appoint- ment	Recom- mended Appoint- ment	Delegated Appoint- ment
1936	10407	10101	275	1348	8478	306	—	18	288	—	—	—	—
1937	8892	8609	361	1641	6607	283	—	18	265	—	—	—	—
1938	3290	3268	176	786	2306	15	1	5	9	7	—	3	4
1939	4012	3981	248	1069	2664	26	—	8	18	5	—	2	3
1940	4054	4020	274	1172	2574	34	—	11	23	—	—	—	—
1941	4539	4467	314	1408	2745	68	—	23	45	4	—	3	1
1942	5927	5851	342	1904	3605	76	1	34	41	—	—	—	—
1943	7788	7703	424	2954	4325	83	—	33	50	2	—	1	1
1944	4785	4737	408	1159	3170	43	—	2	46	—	—	—	—
Total	53694	52737	2822	13441	36474	939	2	152	785	18		9	9

CHAPTER XVI

HOME AFFAIRS

I. ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR

The Organic Law of the Ministry of the Interior was first promulgated on April 2, 1928. Since then it has been revised ten times. The last revision was effected on June 8, 1942. Under the existing organic law, the Ministry takes charge of the administration of home affairs of the whole nation. It, thus, directs and supervises the highest local administrators in the administration of home affairs, and may recommend to the Executive Yuan Meeting for the suspension or annulment of orders of decisions made by the highest local administrators in relation to affairs within the jurisdiction of the Ministry, which are considered as contravening laws or decrees of the central government or exceeding the sphere of authority.

The Ministry of the 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 Personnel Office, the Bureau of Statistics, the Opium Suppression Commission, the Election Office for the

Delegates of the National Assembly, etc. The functions of the different departments are as follows:

The Department of General Affairs takes charge of promulgation of ministerial orders; custody of seals; receiving, dispatching, distribution and drafting of documents; adjustment and custody of files; editing and publication of regulations, 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 areas and local self-government areas; determination of the seats 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; matters relating to election; examination of local administration projects and reports;

examination of local financial estimates; establishments 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 formulation of the census administration, planning, supervision and direction of matters relating to census administration; appointment, removals, training, grading, awarding and punishment of census administrative personnel; designing and examination of census administrative diagrams, forms and books; matters relating to change of surnames and names, matters relating to identification cards for citizens; assistance in conscription and requisition; matters relating to citizens' labor 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 formulation of the police system; appointment, removal, grading, awarding and punishment of police officers; matters relating to police appropriations; police education and police intelligence tests; matters relating to administrative police; local self-defence; and matters pertaining to frontier police.

The Department of Customs and Ceremonies takes charge of the administration of rituals and musical codes, standardization of dress and uniforms; matters relating to commemorative rites; improve-

ment and regulation of social customs; commending, awarding and pensioning of, and conferring honors on, citizens, state and public funerals and cemeteries; standardization of the 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 and memorial halls of ancient sages and martyrs; and investigation, registration and preservation of scenic spots and historical ruins.

The Department of Construction takes charge of the 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 waterworks and other municipal engineering works; and supervision of private-owned public utilities which do not come under other ministries and commissions.

In accordance with the Organic Law of the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry shall have one minister, two vice-ministers, four to six counsellors, six to eight secretaries, six directors etc. The following table shows the number and duties of the staff of the Ministry of the Interior.

<i>Officials</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Duties</i>
Minister (Special appointment)	1	Administering ministerial affairs and supervising subordinate staff and office.
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, orders and projects.
Secretaries (two of Selected appointment, the rest of recommended appointment)	6-8	Handling important documents and affairs entrusted by superiors.
Directors of Departments (Selected appointment) . . .	6	Administering affairs of different departments.
Technical Experts (four of selected appointment, the rest of recommended appointment)	8	Administering technical affairs according to superiors' orders.
Compilers (recommended appointment)	8	Editing books on home affairs and examining publications according to superiors' orders.
Technical Assistants (delegated appointment)	12	Administering technical affairs according to superiors' orders.
Inspectors (two of selected appointment, the rest of recommended appointment)	10-16	Inspecting and directing home affairs in different provinces, municipalities and hsien according to superiors' orders.
Chief Statiscian (selected appointment)	1	Compiling statistics.
Chief Accountant (recommended appointment)	1	Accounting.
Section Chiefs (recommended appointment)	22-28	Administering affairs of different sections according to superiors' orders.
Clerks (delegated appointment)	100-130	Administering affairs of different sections according to superiors' orders.

Note—There may also be a number of employees.

II. LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

A. Completing the Organization of Various Local Units of the Hsien or District:—Hsien (district) is the fundamental local

self-government unit and to complete the organization of the various local units within hsien is the first step towards the realization of local self-govern-

ment. The promulgation of the Outline Governing the Organization of the Various Local Units of the Hsien by the National Government on September 18, 1939 not only lays down the principles of the new hsien system but also marks the beginning of a new page on the Chinese local administration. After the enforcement of this Outline, such provinces in the rear as Szechuen, Yunnan, Honan, Anhwei, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu, Chekiang and Chinghai all took steps to complete the work of reorganizing their district government at the prescribed date before the end of 1943. Up to August 1945, in free China there were 1,102 hsien which had already adopted and practiced the new hsien system. It was also reported that 1,237 *chu*, 29,497 *hsiang* (or *chen*), and 342,301 *pao* had established their respective offices.

B. Training of the Essential

Personnel of the Provinces and Hsiens:—Since the essential personnel of the provincial and hsien governments are responsible for the realization of the new hsien system, it has long been the policy of the Ministry of the Interior to have such personnel well trained. During the past years, various training institutes have, in accordance with the Outline Governing the Training of the Essential Personnel of the Various Local Units of the Hsien, been successively established in the provinces, hsien and municipalities. It was estimated in the early part of 1944 that those who had been trained in Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Hopeh, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Fukien, Honan, Anhwei, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu,

Chinghai, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shantung, Shansi, Hopeh, Suiyuan and Ninghsia had already reached the number of 975,000.

C. Formation of Representative Bodies:—Before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, arrangements had already been made for the formation of the National Assembly to be the highest representative organ in the country. Delegates to this Assembly had also been chosen by most of the provinces. It was the outbreak of the war that caused this matter to come to a standstill. However, it was soon found out that popular representation was essential to effective prosecution of the war and consequently in 1937 the People's Political Council was duly formed. The provincial councils were also widely established in all provinces. The New Hsien System also required that representative organs be established in the hsien, *hsiang* (or *chen*), *pao* and *chia* respectively. For this reason, the National Government successively promulgated Provisional Organic Regulations of the Hsien Council, Regulations Governing the Election of Hsien Councillors and Regulations Governing the Election of *Hsiang* (Village) or *Chen* (Town) Representatives—all came into effect from May 5, 1943. As being defined in law or regulations, the *Pao* General Council after having been called together for six times (once every month) may elect delegates to form the *Hsiang* (or *chen*) Council, which, in like manner, may after its fourth meeting (to be held every three months) elect delegates to form the Hsien Council. Provisional Hsien council may also be established first before the coming into existence of

the permanent hsien council. Thus, before long, both the hsien councils and *hsiang* (or *chen*) representative councils will take shape throughout the country. The Kuomintang Central Executive Committee at its 11th plenary session had adopted the resolution that the National Assembly should within one year after the conclusion of the war be opened to adopt and promulgate a permanent constitution. Now, as the war has been victoriously concluded, the Ministry of the Interior is more eager than ever before to see to the early establishment of the various grades of the representative organs in the hsien, thus paving the way for constitutionalism.

D. Minimum Requirements of Local Self-Government—With a view to expediting the work of local self-government throughout the country, the Ministry of the Interior has followed closely the minimum requirements for the hsien or municipality as decided by the Administrative Conference held in the later part of 1945. Such minimum requirements are as follows:

1. The census throughout the hsien must be completed; registration of households and of deaths, births and marriage within the hsien must be made continually.

2. The survey of land of the hsien and the municipalities must be completed.

3. All citizens of the hsien or municipality must take oath. There must be a sufficient number of qualified candidates for all elective posts in the hsien and in the municipality.

4. There must have established police forces in every hsien, and militia in the *hsiang*, *chen* and *pao* must be well organized and trained.

5. The main roads in the hsien, *hsiang* and *chen* must be repaired and constructed to provide for communication.

6. There must be a middle school for every *hsiang* or *chen* and two primary schools for every three *pao*.

7. There must be a clinic for every hsien or municipality.

8. All hsien, municipal governments, *chu*, *hsiang* and *chen* offices must be organized according to law and regulations and all the personnel thereof must be trained as to be commensurate with their respective duties.

9. All vocational organizations throughout the hsien must be organized according to law.

The above-mentioned minimum requirements as approved by the Executive Yuan, were required to be fulfilled by all provincial governments before the end of 1945. It was reported that up to August 1945, such provinces in the rear as Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuen, Sikkang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia and Chinghai had all made considerable achievement in that direction. In these seventeen provinces 729 hsien and municipalities had completed the work of census; 160 hsiens and municipalities had completed the work of land surveying; 153 hsien and municipalities had completed the registration of land; 44 hsien and municipalities had begun to levy land

tax; 2,798,260 mow of waste land had been reclaimed; 920 hsien had begun the work of assessment and registration of public property in the *hsiang* and *chen*; 15,182,509 militia men had been trained; 25,341 kilometers of *hsien* road and 4,457 kilometers of *hsiang* road had been repaired and constructed; 24,430 *hsiang* or *chen* schools and 175,168 *pao* primary schools, 12,423 cooperatives, 3,352 clinics had been established. In addition, 484 hsien had established hsien police bureaus and 325 hsien had established police out-posts.

III. CENSUS ADMINISTRATION

A. Strengthening of Machinery:

—Census machinery in the different provinces has in the past years been gradually strengthened under the planning and direction of the Ministry of the Interior. Provinces like Shensi, Anhwei, Kwangtung, Chekiang, Yunnan, Shansi, Honan, Sikang, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Fukien, Szechuen, Hunan, Kwangsi and Ningshia have sections in charge of census administration under the department of civil affairs. In some important municipalities, there are sections in charge of census administration attached to their police bureaus. In the hsien and municipalities under the control of the provincial government, there is invariably a branch of census administration under the division of civil affairs. In the *hsiang* (village) or *chen* (town), there is generally a census officer. In populous villages or towns, he is assisted by one or more assistants. Thus, census machinery which has now been constituted even in the lower grades of government has greatly helped in

carrying out the census work with remarkable success.

B. Training of Census Administrative Personnel.—In view of the importance of training census officers, the Ministry of the Interior inaugurated the first training class for ranking census officers in August, 1941. Meanwhile, the Ministry made provisional measures for the training of ranking census officers of different provinces and municipalities. Since then, all matters relative to this training have to be handled by the provincial training institutes which will open, if necessary, special class to provide courses of study. The trainees who have completed their training are either given administrative posts or appointed as instructors in census training in the different hsien and municipalities. Up to the end of 1945 the census machinery in the provinces and hsien is in the main completed. The persons who had finished their training in the provinces of Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Honan, Fukien, Shansi, Chekiang, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Sikang and Anhwei and the Chungking Municipality to the year of 1943 (August) already reached the number of 4,304. Those who are now being trained in these provinces are even in a greater number.

C. Attending to Census-taking and Registration Work.—Besides Census Law and the Amended Detailed Regulations for the Enforcement of the Census Law, the Ministry of the Interior also drafted "Practical Measures in Relation to Census-taking," which was approved by the Executive Yuan and

promulgated by the National Government. From July, 1943 all work in relation to census began. The Executive Yuan, in view of the circumstances, ordered the provinces of Szechuen, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kansu, Chinghai and Ningshia and the Chungking Municipality to be the territories where a general application of the Census Law and Regulations had to be effected and provinces of Yunan, Hunan, Hupeh, Honan, Shensi, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kwangtung, Sikang and Chekiang in which periods for the application had to be divided. It was ordered that every person must be censused and all population must be registered, so that census administration would be soon in a healthy state. The Ministry of the Interior, for the purpose of facilitating supervision and direction, again divided the provinces

into regions, viz. the Region of Szechuen, Yunan and Sikang, the Region of Shensi, Honan and Hupeh, and the Region of Kweichow, Hunan, Kwangsi and Kwangtung, for each of which a director was appointed to take charge of all matters in relation to supervision and assistance.

IV. POLICE ADMINISTRATION

A. Strengthening of Police Organization.—The Ministry of the Interior laid down long ago a comprehensive plan for the strengthening of police organizations and the formation of a nation-wide police net. However, it was due to military operation during the war of resistance that the plan was not carried out as designed. Up to April 1945, besides territories under enemy occupation, police organizations throughout free China were numbered as follows:

Name of Police Organizations	Number
Police Corp under the direct control of the Ministry of the Interior	1
Municipal Police Bureau under the control of the Executive Yuan	8
Municipal Police Bureau under the control of the Provincial Governments	7
Provincial Police Corps	35
Provincial Water Police Bureau	4
Police Bureau under direct control of Provincial Governments	31
Hsien Police Bureau	964
Hsien Police Outpost	355
Hsien Police Corps	226
Police Station	1188
Branch Police Station	908
Outpost Police Station	2875

B. Police Education.—Police education is classified into two kinds, namely, police officer's

education and policemen's education. The latter as designed is to be handled by various provincial

and municipal governments and the Ministry of the Interior is responsible for the appointment of instructors. However, on account of military operations in most of the provinces and municipalities, only a few provinces and municipalities such as Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Shensi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Chungking have been able to carry out the program. The police officers' education is mainly handled by the Cen-

tral Police College. Since the year of 1942, special classes have been opened in addition to the regular ones so as to meet the needs of the time. It is reported that the number of cadets in the Central Police College had reached 1,140 during the period from August, 1944 to May, 1945. Besides the Central Police College, there are branch colleges, one in the Northwest, one in the Southeast and one in Sinkiang.

POLICE OFFICERS' EDUCATION CENTRAL POLICE COLLEGE
(August 1944-1945)

<i>Classification of Classes and Batches</i>	<i>Number of Trainees</i>	<i>Date of Opening Courses</i>	<i>Number of Graduates</i>	<i>Date of Graduates</i>
REGULAR CLASSES				
The Twelfth Batch . . .	—	Oct. 1, 1943 May 15, 1944 Oct. 1, 1944	284	Sept. 1, 1944
The Thirteenth Batch . .	—		232	Apr. 20, 1945
The Fourteenth Batch . .	328		—	
The Fifteenth Batch . .	435		—	
The Sixteenth Batch . .	269		—	
Total	1032		516	
SPECIAL CLASSES				
Higher Research Class the Second Batch	—	Jan. 15, 1945	31	Dec. 22, 1944
Police Officers' Training Class the Sixth Batch	—		83	Oct. 1, 1944
Police Officers' Training Class the Seventh Batch	—		91	Dec. 15, 1944
Police Officers' Training Class the Eighth Batch	108		—	
Police Officers' Training Course	—		98	Sept. 1, 1943
Police Officers' Training Class for Taiwan	—		36	Dec. 8, 1944
Police Officers' Training Class in the Southeast the Sixth Batch	—		109	Oct. 1, 1944
Police Officers' Training Class in the Southeast the Seventh Batch	—		49	Jan. 1, 1945
Police Officers' Training Class in the Northeast the Sixth Batch	—		55	Aug. 30, 1944
Police Officers' Training Class in the Northeast the Seventh Batch	—		42	Oct. 30, 1944
Total	108		594	
Grand Total	1140		1140	

C. Adjustment of Peace Preservation Corps.—To adjust the peace preservation corps in the different provinces with a view to transforming them into regular police forces has been one of the tasks of the Ministry of the Interior. In the sphere of police force the administrative plan of the National Government for recent years has been to continue the adjustment of the peace preservation corps in the provinces, or to disband them completely in order to bring in the regular police forces for the maintenance of order and peace. The Ministry of the Interior had for this reason drafted a scheme conjointly with the Ministry of War for the reorganization of the peace preservation corps in the different provinces. In this scheme it was also provided to accelerate the police training of both the officers and the rank and file of the corps so as to prepare the way for their being reorganized into peace preservation police forces. The aim of this adjustment and training was mainly for the purpose of advancing the quality of the force, re-enforcing their efficiency and facilitating the direction and control of them.

V. CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS

A. Prescription of Ceremonies and Rites.—The Ministry of the 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 President Chiang Kai-shek instructed that ceremonies and rites be prescribed. Thereupon the Ministry of the 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. In September, 1943 the Ministry was instructed to hand these drafts to President Tai Chuan-hsien of the Examination Yuan for convening a meeting of Government offices concerned for discussion and examination. Thus a conference on rites was convened in Paipai, Chungking under the chairmanship of President Tai with the chief officials and experts from the Ministry of the Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of War, Ministry of Education and Ministry of Personnel present. After repeated meetings, the original drafts made by the Ministry of the Interior were revised into five chapters of rites for felicitations, funeral, army, entertainment and marriage and a draft bill was also made on the standardization of dress and uniforms.

B. Attending to Commending and Pensioning Matters.—Since the outbreak of the war against aggression, both the soldiers and civilians have been resolute to wreak their vengeance and not to grudge the sacrifice of their lives.

These honest and righteous deeds were successively praised by the Government so as to set a good example to the people. Beside those cases dealt with by the Commission of Pensions, the number of persons commended and pensioned by the Ministry of the Interior in the year of 1945 was as follows:

1. For commendation: There were 12 persons commended by the National Government, 18 persons being given votive tablets by the National Government, 5 persons commended by the Executive Yuan and two by the Ministry of the Interior.

2. For encouragement: There were 10 persons encouraged and praised by the National Government, 10 persons awarded gold medals and 6 awarded silver medals, 22 persons conferred inscribed tablets, 16 persons awarded certificates of honors and 3 persons commended by circular orders.

3. For pensioning: There were 7 persons approved to get special pensions, 319 persons granted pensions for defence of soil and 2,062 persons approved to be enshrined in temples dedicated to patriots and martyrs.

VI. CONSTRUCTION

A. Enforcement of Construction Control.—As a result of the war of resistance against Japanese aggression, many of our public and private buildings suffered heavy damages from enemy air raids. Thus, for the enforcement of city planning so as to keep path with the world tendency of construction works, the Ministry of the Interior has long considered the drawing up of model schemes for the reconstruction of those damaged buildings as a very im-

portant task. During the past years schemes have been drawn up and carried out in connection with hsien offices, *hsiang* or *chen* offices, *pao* offices, combined buildings for *hsiang* or *chen* middle schools and *hsiang* or *chen* citizens' corps headquarters, combined buildings for *Pao* citizens' schools and *Pao* citizens' corps headquarters, *hsiang* or *chen* public markets, vegetables-supply markets, play grounds, public water-closets, urban residences and rural residences.

In accordance with the Revised Regulations Governing the Control of Constructors, the provinces and municipalities have enforced the registration of constructors. Up to 1943 there have already been 213 constructors applying to the Ministry for registration. The Ministry is still looking to a widespread enforcement on this matter.

B. Promotion of Rural Reconstruction:—Rural reconstruction is essential to the facilitation of the people's dwellings and to the stabilization of the people's livelihood. The settled policy of the National Government for the year of 1943 so provided that rural reconstruction should be one of the tasks to be carried out in the hsien or district. With a view to making a coincidence with this policy, the Ministry of the Interior drafted an Outline for the Enforcement of *Hsien*, *Hsiang* or *Chen* Construction. In this Outline, construction works in connection with roads, public health, public safety, correspondence and public meeting places of the *hsiang* or *chen* are provided in detail

which will well serve the purpose for basic national reconstruction. The provinces have ordered the district governments to draw up construction projects and to put them for enforcement accordingly. The projects already submitted to the Ministry for examination have reached the number of 117 by the end of 1943.

VII. CONTROL OF PUBLICATIONS

A. Registration of Newspapers and Periodicals.—In regard to the registration of newspapers and periodicals, it had hitherto been dealt with according to the Revised Publications Law. When the war first broke out, it was for the purpose of having equitable distribution and economy of material that various war measures had been promulgated in connection with the registration of newspapers and news agencies. However, as time went on, it was realized to be inapplicable. The Ministry of the Interior thus in April, 1943 promulgated Provisional Regulations Governing the Registration of Newspapers, Periodicals and News Agencies in Emergency Time, providing that the district or municipal government after receiving the application for registration should within 10 days submit it to the provincial government which in turn should submit it within 15 days to the Ministry of the Interior for registration and issuance of cards. The Ministry for the purpose of giving a close examination on this matter has directed the provincial and municipal governments to give a general investigation of the registration cards within one

month after the coming into force of the Regulations. Those newspapers and Periodicals which have no registration cards or have already stopped their publication should respectively be banned from publication or deprived of their registration. In 1943, there were 434 newspapers and periodicals which had been submitted to the Ministry of the Interior for registration through the various provinces and municipalities. And, in the same year 55 newspapers and periodicals conducted by the army were also registered with the Ministry.

B. Registration of Copyright.—The Ministry of the Interior under the Copyright Law examines all kinds of written work in the country. Whenever there is a publication applied for registration and after it has been found not contrary to law or to the principles of Kuomintang, registration is duly granted without any delay. Those who fail to register their work will not obtain copyright. It is often on account of the author's neglecting this point that questions regarding copyright have often arisen. The Ministry of the Interior on receiving applications for registration of publications has usually performed its duties strictly according to law.

C. Examination of Maps and Atlases.—The Ministry of the Interior, under the Revised Regulations Governing the Examination of Aqueous and Land Maps and Atlases, examines all maps and atlases in the country. Aside from those edited by the General Staff Office, Ministry of Navy or Ministry of the Interior,

maps and atlases, which received no examination and permission will not be permitted for publications. All matters in connection with examination have been dealt with by an Examination Committee on Maps and Atlases of the Ministry of the Interior, which has for its membership those professional men and experts either commissioned by the Ministry of the Interior or chosen from the Board of Military Operations, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Education and National Land Administration. Maps and atlases submitted by the various book companies for examination are all attended to according to law.

VII. OPIUM SUPPRESSIONS

A. International Cooperation on Opium Suppression.—In October, 1943 the British and Netherlands Governments and in July 1944 the American Government proclaimed that after the present war there should be a complete suppression of opium smoking as well as the abrogation of the monopolistic enterprise on opium in the Far Eastern territories. Their embassies in Chungking were also instructed to communicate to the Chinese Government all such statements and declarations. Moreover, The British and Netherlands Governments jointly declared that in order to attain the very aim of opium suppression, there must be close cooperation among all nations for taking positive steps in the restriction of opium production in the various opium-producing countries.

In 1940, a five-point measure for the eradication of opium and narcotic drugs among the over-

seas Chinese was promulgated by the Executive Yuan and the next year the Ministry was ordered by the Government to send memoranda to the British and Netherlands Embassies in Chungking, expecting them to communicate to their respective Government to lend us support and cooperation in this matter. Unfortunately, as a result of the Pacific War, the Far Eastern territories of the two Powers were successively occupied by the enemy, and the measure was suspended. Now, as the war has been victoriously concluded we have good reason to believe that opium suppression in China and in the Far East will enter into a new stage and the drug evil will soon be stamped out.

B. Opium Suppression.—Opium suppression in the country has since 1942 been in the direction to adopt the broadcasting method for infusing knowledge into the people regarding the necessity of suppressing opium and narcotic drugs. In 1945 this measure was continued and a manifesto was also issued to the people in the liberated areas arousing them to take voluntary action against drug evil. Again with a view to making the general public understand the importance of the suppression work, news drafts relating to the suppression campaign at home and abroad and the narcotic policy, enforced by the enemy in the occupied areas were forwarded to the press for publication. As the war has been victoriously concluded, the Government is now adopting a drastic measure for the suppression of opium and narcotic drugs in China.

CHAPTER XVII

MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN AFFAIRS

LO LIANG-CHIEN (羅良鑑)*

I. THE COMMISSION ON MONGOLIAN AND TIBETAN AFFAIRS

A. The Historical Development of the Commission.—Early in the Ch'in dynasty (246 B.C.- 207 B.C.) when feudalism was abolished and a centralized "district system" was instituted, an office called "Tien Ke" (典客) was established which might be translated as "ushership." In the subsequent dynasties of Han, Wei, Chin, a similar functionary called "Ta-Hung-Lu-Tien-Su" (太鴻臚典屬) was appointed. In the Sui and Tang dynasties, the name was changed into "Hung-Lu-Sich-Chin" (鴻臚寺卿). In the Yuan dynasty, it was changed in to "Hsuan-Cheng Yuan" (宣政院). Although the names varied with successive dynasties, the function remained the same. The office is one of hospitality rather than administration, taking charge of receptions and ceremonies when frontier chiefs paid their homage to the court. It was not until the Ching dynasty that the Li Fan Yuan (理藩院) was organized as the first central Government Office for the political administration of all frontier affairs, including those of Mongolia and Tibet. The Yuan attended to reports and appeals of the local chiefs in the border territories and also ex-

ecuted orders of the central authority with regards to border administration. Towards the end of the Ching dynasty, the Li Fan Yuan was changed into Pu after the pattern of the other six Pu or ministries.

With the birth of the Republic in 1912, a Bureau of Tibetan and Mongolian Affairs was created to take the place of the Li Fan Pu. The Bureau was soon found unequal to cope with all the administrative affairs of the frontier. Consequently in 1914 it was dissolved and reorganized under the name of Mong-Tsang Yuan (蒙藏院), subject to the direct control of the President of the Republic. However owing to internal disturbances in the country, no definite plan was laid down concerning the administration of frontier affairs. When the National Government was established in Nanking in 1928, the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs was inaugurated with ministerial status directly under the Executive Yuan.

B. The Organization of the Commission.—The Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs is the highest executive organ in the administration of frontier affairs. It has from 21 to 27 members of whom six are on the standing committee. A Chairman and a vice-chairman are respon-

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sible for the execution of decisions and the control of internal affairs of the Commission. The Commission is subdivided into various departments and offices namely, the Department of General Affairs, the Department of Mongolian Affairs, the Department of Tibetan Affairs, the Counsellors Office, the Secretariat, the Department of Translation and Compilation, the Investigation Office and the Research Office. Besides the two branch bureaus in Peiping and Tibet, a number of research and investigation offices has been established in various localities in the frontier regions.

II. MONGOLIA

A. Politics:—1. The Division of Administrative Districts: In old times the Mongolians led a tribal life. Since the Ching dynasty (1644 A.D.-1911 A.D.). These tribes, however, have been organized into banners and leagues.

As the Hsien is under the provincial government so is the banner under the Mongolian league. The Mongolian league is composed of banners directly under the control of the Executive Yuan.

2. The Organization of Mongolian Leagues and Banners: The head of each banner is a hereditary Jassak who takes charge of the political, military as well as judicial affairs of the banner. Under the Jassak there are 2 to 4 *Pan-Li-Dae-Che* (辦理台吉) and one *May-Lon-Chang-Chin* (梅倫章京). The number of vice *May-Lon-Chang-Chin* varies with the number of Tso (佐). Usually there are two *May-Lon-Chang-Chin* when the banners consist of

more than 10 Tso. Each Tso is responsible for 150 persons of the banner. Further, a counsellor chief is appointed to every 5 to 6 Tso.

Each league has a president, a vice-president, a military Jassak and one to two assistant executives (幫辦盟務).

In October 1931, with a view to finite office for the administration of the league affairs. A plenary league meeting took place once in every three years, at which, the president of the league and his Jassaks discussed and decided such matters concerning the revision of criminal law, the census and military affairs of the league. But in recent years, this tradition has gradually fallen into disuse, for presidents of the various leagues are not so powerful as they used to be.

The 12 banners in Chahar and the banners in Kwei-Hwa and Tu-mo do not belong to any league; nor do they have any Jassak themselves. They have only a director and several chiefs and counsellor chiefs under the direct control of the Chahar and Suiyuan Provincial Governments.

In October 1931, with a view to bringing about consolidation and improvement of the organizations of the Mongolian leagues and banners, regulations to that effect were promulgated. According to the regulations, it was required that officials from the Central Government should be sent to reside in the Mongolian leagues and banners serving as secretaries, the head of the Bureau of General Affairs, the head of the Bureau of Political Affairs and other assistant officials. It was also

required that a Banner Committee should be organized for each banner, and that *May-Lon-Chang-Chin* and vice *May-Lon-Chang-Chin* should abandon their customary titles and become simply committee members. However, owing to the unsettled conditions in the country, the enforcement of the regulations was not an easy task.

3. Mongolian Self-Government:

—In October 1933, the various Inner Mongolian leagues and banners petitioned the National Government to grant them the right of self government. In February 1934 the regulations for the Mongolian self-government were promulgated by the National Government. A Mongolian Self-Government Committee was thus organized in Mongolia directly under the Executive Yuan and supervised by the government officials delegated with the powers of instruction and other competent government authorities concerned. However, on account of the petitions of the Mongolians, the Committee was dissolved and reorganized into the Suiyuan Mongolian Leagues and Banners Local Self-Government Committee and the Chahar Leagues and Banners Local Self-Government Committee respectively. The former organization materialised in 1936 while the latter was nipped in the bud by the advance of the enemy forces.

4. Central Government Offices resident in Mongolia:—In the Ching dynasty, the names of the various resident officers in Mongolian were as follows:

- a. Jehol Tou-Tung, (熱河都統) resided in Jehol.
- b. Charhar Tou-Tung. (察哈爾都統) resided at Shuen Hwa.
- c. Suiyuan Tsiang-chuen (綏遠將軍) resided in Suiyuan.
- d. Kwei Hwa Tsiang-chuen (歸化城將軍) resided at Kwei Hwa.
- e. Tin-Pien-Tsau-Fu-Ta-chien (定遠副大臣) resided at Uliassutai under him were the following subordinates:
 - (1). Tin - Pien - Ts'an-Tsan-Ta-Chen (定遠參贊大臣).
 - (2). Uliassutai Ts'an-Tsan-Ta-Chen (烏里雅蘇台參贊大臣).
 - (3). Kobdo Ts'an-Tsan-Ta-Chen (科布多參贊大臣).
 - (4). Kobdo Fang-Pan-Ta-Chen (科布多幫辦大臣).
 - (5). Sining-Pan - Shih - Ta-Chen (西寧辦事大臣).
 - (6). Ili Tsiang-chuen (伊犁將軍).
 - (7). Urga Pan-shih-Ta-Chen (庫倫辦事大臣).

Since the birth of the Republic, the names of the resident officers in Mongolia have been changed from time to time. In 1915, a commissioner and several assistant commissioners were sent to reside at Urga, Uliassutai, Kiachta and Kobdo. In 1919, the Commission was superseded by the "system of 'Tchow-Bien-Sich' of the Northwest frontier. In October 1926, it was in turn supplanted by the "Tanwuke-Tanchen-Woochen" system.

In Inner Mongolia, the names of various resident officers in 1914 were as follows: the Jehol Tou-Tung, the Chahar Tou-Tung, the Suiyuan Tou-Tung, the Ningshia Hoo-Chuen-Sich and the Kokonor Hoo-Chuen-Sich. Since the est-

abishment of the National Government in Nanking, the Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, Chinghai, and Ningshia Mongolian leagues and banners were ordered to be governed by the respective provincial governments. Later when the Mongolians petitioned the National Government to grant them the right of self-government, the Mongolian Self-government Committee and the Suiyuan Mongolian Self-Government were duly organized under the direction of the Executive Yuan.

B. Religion — 1. Lamaism.

a. Brief History of Lamaism in Mongolia: Lamaism is a form of Buddhism. It came to China during the Yuan dynasty. At first it was popular only among the Outer Mongolians. In the latter part of the Ming dynasty, Yen Ta who was an ardent follower of Lamaism was appointed minister of Inner Mongolia. In spite of his old age, Yen Ta travelled all the way to Tibet wherefrom he invited the third Dalai Lama to visit Chinghai. Owing to his efforts Lamaism gained its popularity among the Inner Mongolians. The Manchu government, in the hope of winning allegiance from the Mongolians, invited the Dalai Lama to reside at Tai-ke and Peiping, and specially built for him the See-Wang Temple. By the time when he returned to the West, the Emperor bestowed upon him a gold medal and a gold seal, and also conferred upon him the honorable title of "See-Tien-Da-Sian-Tze-Tsai-Fu" (The all-good and serene wiseman of the West). In addition, the Emperor conferred upon the Changcha Hutukhtu the title

of "Kuo-Shih" (The teacher or master of the nation) and ordered him to superintend the 10 Lama temples in Peiping. Since then, Lamaism became the exclusive religious sect in Mongolia.

b. Castes in Lamaism:

(1) *Fu-Yeh Lama*—Fu-yeh (Buddha Father) Lama is the head of all the Lama monasteries. He is generally known as "Huo-Fu" or living Buddha and given different appellations in different places such as the Panchen Lama in Tibet, the Chi-Pu-Chuen-Danpa in Outer Mongolia and the Changcha Hutukutu in Inner Mongolia.

(2) *Jassak Lama*—Most Jassak Lamas come from aristocratic families. Their power is similar to that of the Jassaks. Each Jassak Lama is the religious as well as the political head of his own district.

(3) *Da Lama*—Da Lama is the head of a Lama temple.

(4) *Miu Lama*—Miu Lama is an ordinary Lama in the Lama monasteries.

(5) *Hae Lama*—Most of the Hae Lama were widows and widowers before they became lama. Hae Lama is not allowed to wear "Cha-sa," the Buddhist flowing robe.

c. Relations between Lamaism and Politics in Mongolia.—As most of the Mongolians are followers of Lamaism, the words of Da Lama "Huo-Fu" are generally obeyed. Religion in Mongolia is, therefore, impossible to be divorced from politics.

d. Lama Monasteries in Mongolia—All Lama temples in Mongolia are well built. They look

grand and magnificent. They are the economic and cultural centres in Mongolia. There are at least 10 monasteries in each banner. As all Lama monasteries are independent and not subject to any central power, they rarely co-operate with one another.

e. Effects of Lamaism in Mongolia—All Lama priests are celibates. The birth rate of Mongolian population has greatly declined in recent years. Moreover as the Lamas are not supposed to participate in productive work, the Mongolian industries can hardly be expected to flourish.

2. Christianity in Mongolia: Both Roman Catholic and Protestant missionaries have gone to Mongolia. The Roman Catholic missionaries are mostly Belgians and Dutch while the Protestant missionaries are mostly French. Roman Catholicism is very influential in Inner Mongolia; its churches are in the various leagues and banners in Inner Mongolia, such as the Che, the Tsao, the Chow, the Shi, the Wu-I. the Tu-me-Te and the Ah-La-San.

C. MONGOLIAN SOCIETY

1. Excessive Reverence for Lamaism

a. It is regarded as a special honor to be a Lama in Mongolia. Every Mongolian family is eager to send its sons to the monasteries.

b. In each banner, the number of Lama varies from one hundred to a few thousand and at least ten monasteries in every banner. The well-built and spacious monasteries form poignant and significant contrast to the shabby Mongolian tents.

c. The "Huo-Fu" is deified and highly respected by all Mongolians.

d. Lamaism is closely interwoven with Mongolian daily life. Lamas are invited to supervise all wedding and funeral ceremonies. They are also regarded as physicians. Idols are kept and worshipped in every Mongolian house.

e. On the "day of worship," all Mongolians are eager to express their religious faith. Some wealthy Mongolians even go on pilgrimage and travel thousands of miles to Lhasa in Tibet, Darsich in Chinghai, and Wu-tai-shan in Shansi to show their reverence.

2. Aristocratic Government in Mongolia: In order to win allegiance from the Mongolians, the Emperors of the Ching dynasty conferred upon the Jassaks six classes of titles namely, the Ching-Wang, the Chuen-Wang, the Paeli, the Paetze, the Chin-Kuo-Kung and the Pu-kuo-kung. Besides, there are still four classes of Tai-Chi. Only descendants of the aristocratic families could hold an official post higher than the rank of Tai-Chi. The common people could only fill official post lower has the rank of May-Lon-Chia-Chin.

Since the establishment of the National Government in Nanking, these titles were officially abolished. The lower officials of the Inner Mongolia banners are now appointed by the provincial governments, but the Jassaks are still hereditary in nature.

3. Mongolian Social Classes:

a. *Aristocrats*—The Mongolian aristocratic class is the hereditary ruling class. They are subclassed into the above mentioned order, namely, the Ching-Wang, the Chuen-Wang, the Paeli, the Paetze, the Chin-Kuo-Kung and the Pu-Kuo-Kung.

b. *Tai-Chi*—Tai-Chi is pure Mongolian. They enjoy special judicial privileges, and are exempted from taxes. Most of them hold high official posts.

c. *Lamas*—Most of the Mongolian families have sent their sons to the Lama monasteries. Lamas form, therefore, the biggest and the most influential social class.

d. *Common people*—Common people are the laborers. They enjoy no privilege and have to pay rents and taxes.

e. *Slaves*—The Mongolian slaves are the hereditary servants of the aristocrats and the Tai-Chi.

4. *The sparseness of Mongolian Population*: Mongolia boasts of a vast area of 14,841,700 sq. Li, of which Outer Mongolia occupies 4,861,000 sq. Li. According to reports received, Mongolian population numbers only 6,160,000 (some reports state 2,133,438), of which 760,000 are Outer Mongolians. Although efforts have been made to emigrate 10,000,000 Chinese to this region, the number of population is still much out of proportion to the vastness of the area.

D. Economic Conditions:

1. *Animal Husbandary in Mongolia*: Mongolians live a nomadic life by rearing sheep, cattle, horses and camels. Their daily life is closely connected with their animals. Their foodstuffs are meat, milk, sour-milk, milk-nut etc. Their clothes are mostly made of animal skin and fur.

2. *Trade and handicraft in Mongolia*: Most of the Mongolian daily necessities depend upon the supplies from Chinese interior. They trade by barter system as well as with money. The only handicraft worth mentioning is the manufacture of druggets.

3. *Agriculture in Mongolia*: Agriculture is not developed in Outer Mongolia where only one tenth of the land is cultivated. In Inner Mongolia, since the establishment of the Farming Bureau in the later part of Emperor Kwang-shu of the Ching dynasty, agriculture was much promoted. Thousands of Chinese inland pioneers went to Mongolia to make their fortune when the decree forbidding the cultivation of the land was annulled in the second year of Emperor Shuen-tung. At present except the Shi league and the northern part of the Chow league, almost all the land in Inner Mongolia are farmed. The lands of the Tu-mo-te banner and the four Chahar Mongolian banners are especially well cultivated.

III. TIBET

A Politics

1. *The Evolution of Tibetan political System*: Since time immemorial, the Chieftains of various tribes were the supreme rulers in Tibet. It was only until the 15th year of Emperor Chinkwang of the Tang dynasty, when Princess Wen-chen married the Tibetan king, Sung-tsan-gan-pu, that Chinese civilization was introduced to Tibet. The Tibetan rulers were at once fascinated by the tenets of Buddhism. In the Yuan dynasty when Emperor Sich-chu conferred upon Pai-sich-pa, the ecclesiastic head, the title of Da-pao-fa-wang and authorised him to govern Tibet, Pai-sich-pa became the supreme arbiter in both religious and political affairs. In the Ming dynasty, the power of the Tibetan ecclesiastic heads reached its prime. Of subsequent religious leaders, 8 were honored

with the title of "Fa-wang," 2 with that of "Sich-tien-fu-tze," 9 with that of "Kaun-din-da-kan-sich," and 10 with that of "Kaun-din-da-sich." It was not until the accession of Emperor Kan-si of the Ching dynasty, when Di-pa-san-che came to power that politics became separated from religion. Di-pa-san-che was entitled Tu-pa-te-wang. During his reign, the power of the 5th Panchan Lama was only restricted to religious affairs. After the quelling of the rebellion led by Chun-ke-el, the Ching government conferred upon Per-lo-din the title of Chun-wang, and empowered him to govern Tibet. The Ching government also sent two high officials to reside there. In the 11th year of Emperor Chien-lung of the Ching dynasty, Dailai Lama was again given the supreme authority in both religious and political affairs, but four ke-lon were provided to cooperate with him. In the 58th year of Emperor Chien-Lung the power of the resident officials was immensely increased. They acquired the right to appoint all high officials including Ke-lou, had the power of final decision for all governmental issues, and their consent was of primary importance in the selection of Kan-pu of the important monasteries. The power of Dalia Lama was limited to the appointment of Kan-pu Lama of monasteries of minor importance and other trifles only. In the 33rd year of Emperor Kwang-shu (1906), Chang Yin Tang, a Chinese plenipotentiary sent to Tibet by the Imperial Court suggested to the Emperor to expand the resident office and increase the number of departments and officials. The suggestion was accepted with the

result that efficiency was greatly enhanced in administration.

After the revolution of 1911, the friendly relation between the Central Government and Tibet was severed. In 1929, the 13th Dalai Lama Shu-che-chung-we sent to Nanking to show allegiance to the Central Government and the contact between the Central Government and Tibet has since become more frequent and close.

2. *The Organization of the Tibetan Government:* Since the 17th century, the choice of Dalai Lama has ever been incumbent on the representatives of the Central Government. In 1940, the National Government appointed Mr. Wu-Chung-hsin, then chairman of the Commission of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, to supervise the solemn ceremony of the accession of the 14th Dalai Lama. The appointment was a great success. The Tibetans were keenly appreciative of the honor and sent a thanksgiving telegram to the Central Government.

As tradition goes in Tibet, before the new Dalai Lama comes of age and is fit to rule, a "King" is chosen by the people's Congress from among the Retiring Hutukhtu to assume the responsibility of Government. The government consists of two ministries: Ke-sha in charge of temporal affairs and E-chang of ecclesiastical affairs. Ke-sha is composed of 4 members called "Ke-Lung," of whom the head is a priest. The Ke-lung forms the nerve center of the Tibetan Government controlling some 20 organs, judicial, executive, etc. The King decides on all vital matters while the Ke-lung sees to less important things.

E-chang is composed of 4 Da-

chung-ye, 11 of whom are priests. Formerly all religious affairs were directly reported to the Dalai Lama by the Da-chung-ye. Since the death of the 13th Dalai Lama, their position has much declined in importance. The Da-chung-ye reports everything to the Ke-sha, who will submit the reports to the King. Ke-sha is, therefore, in both religious and political affairs.

The so-called People's Congress is composed of (1) the officials and the priests of Lhasa, (2) the Kanpu Lamas of the 3 state monasteries and (3) the representatives of the four Retiring Hutukhtus and (4) the representatives of labor guilds. On the chairman's committee sit 4 Da-chung-ye. They act as spokesmen of the Dalai Lama, the King, and the Ke-sha. The members of the Congress have little or no voice in the matters pending decision and can only vote "yeas" or "nays."

Tibet is divided into two parts, the rear and the front, and governed by the Panshan Lama and the Dalai Lama separately. In 1929 when the Panshan Lama was forced to leave Tibet, the rear was also taken over by the Dalai Lama. The 13th Dalai Lama has appointed a Jassak Lama as overseer of the religious affairs in the rear Tibet with the help of a number of Chung-yes and Tzal-nes.

The Tibetan local administrative organ is called Chung. There are altogether 90 Chungs of which 66 are big and 24 small. In each Chung there is one or two Chung-pun responsible for the administration and jurisdiction of the Chung.

3. *Central Government Offices Resident in Tibet:* In the Ching dynasty, high commissioners were

sent to reside in Tibet with the title of Pan-se-da-se-da-chen (Minister resident for the execution of important state affairs in Tibet). They were more or less liaison officers between the Central Government and Tibet. All affairs concerning the appointment of officials and important issues in Tibet were forwarded by them to the Imperial Court for fiat. They were of equal official status with the Dalai Lama.

In the early years of the Republic, no national commissioner was sent. In 1934, when General Huang Mu-sung, special envoy to attend the funeral of the Dalai Lama, came back from Tibet, he left two of his staff, Liu Pan-chen and Chiang-Tze-yu there to wind up affairs. Since then functionaries were frequently sent by the Central Government to Tibet, though no formal office was established. After the death of Liu and the departure of Chiang, Chang Pai, head of the Lhasa radio station of the Ministry of Communications, was made a counsellor of the Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan affairs. In 1940 when Wu Chung-hsin, Then chairman of the Commission went to Tibet to superintend the accession of the 14th Dalai Lama, a resident office was formally established by order of the Executive Yuan. Kung Chih-sung and Chang chen were nominated as the director and assistant director respectively. In 1945, when Kung and Chang were recalled inland, Shen Soong-lieu was appointed in their stead. The relation between the Central Government and Tibet has thus been consolidated.

B. Religion.—1. *Different sects of Buddhism:* According to Chinese

chronicles, Buddhism was introduced into Tibet in the seventh century in the reign of the second Emperor of the Tang dynasty. It soon became popular throughout the land and branched into various sects, which are known by the blanket name Lamaism.

a. The Red Sect—The Red Sect, called Ning-ma-pa in Tibet derived its name from its fetish of the red color. It was founded by the famous Indian priest, Lien-hwa-da-sich, or Master Lotus, who came to preach in Tibet in the Tang Dynasty. He has a large following, and thanks to his efforts, the Red Sect became the most influential variety of Buddhism in Tibet. In the Yuan dynasty, the head of the Red Sect, Pai-tzu-pa, was honored by the Mongol Emperor with the title of Ta-Pao-Fa-Wan (King of great precious wisdom), and empowered to govern Tibet. The sect, however, gradually deteriorated; its priests were corrupt and led a sinful and voluptuous life which is totally at variance with the ascetic tenets of Buddhism. It now keeps something of its old prestige only in Sikang.

b. The Yellow Sect—As the Red Sect declined, a religious reformation was effectuated by Chung-ke-pa, who made yellow the sacred color. Though all above with the red sect as regards basic doctrines, the Yellow Sect is distinguished by its strict discipline and austere mode of life. It is now the state religion of Tibet. Chung-ke-pa named his two disciples, the Dalai Lama and the Panshan Lama to continue his mission after his death. The doctrine of re-incarnation of the "Living

Buddha" is believed as a matter of fact by the followers of this sect. Tibetans called the yellow sect "Kei-loo-pa."

c. The White sect—The white sect or Pun-ke was also an attempt to reform the red sect, but it was completely eclipsed by the yellow sect. There are few monasteries of this sect now in Tibet.

d. The Black Sect—The black sect or Pun-na is the primitive religion among the Tibetans. It has neither formulated theology nor written sacred books. It inculcates a sort of polytheistic nature-worship and practices magic and sorcery. It is almost moribund now, but traces of it can be found in the "Ke-lo" of the 39th tribe in Sikang.

2. Monasteries in Tibet: According to reports received in the second year of Emperor Chien-Lung of the Ching dynasty (1737), there were 302,500 lamas in the front Tibet and 13,700 in the rear Tibet, bringing the total to 316,200. Though no accurate statistics are available as to the actual number of Lamas in Tibet, it is roughly estimated to be between 200,000 and 300,000. The influence of Lamaism in Tibet is on the decline and the number of Lamas decreased accordingly. There are 4 sources of income for the Tibetan monasteries: (a) interests on the real estate and gains from the various forms of business, owned by the monasteries (b) contributions and donations by the people and the officialdom, (c) rewards for religious services and rituals performed by the Lamas and (d) government subsidies.

As Lamas are exempt from taxes and granted various privileges, they are in a very advant-

ageous position in commercial transactions. Besides the fact that the priestly caste is the only educated class and the illiterate Tibetans also account for their influence.

The position of the Tibetan priests is, however, on the decline. The causes are as follows:

a. Since the establishment of National Government, Tibet has to be financially self-supporting and raise government funds from the people. Heavy taxes are levied. Local wars also proved a great waste. After such heavy drains on their purse the Tibetans find it very difficult to supply the needful money to the monasteries.

b. Tibet borders on India which has for a century been under the British rule. Western civilization and ideals naturally percolate into Tibet and support more or less the old tradition.

c. The Tibetan Government is said to take steps to abolish all the privileges of the priests. They would thus be no longer exempt from taxes and other civil duties.

3. The Three Great Monasteries in Lhasa: The three great monasteries are the Che-pun monastery, the Sa-La monastery, and the Ke-Dou monastery, having 7,700, 5,500 and 3,300 Lamas respectively. They are the oldest and biggest of all monasteries in Tibet and enjoy an international fame. To them have been granted the following special privileges:

a. The Kan-pus of the 3 monasteries are members of the People's Congress, and have also the right to participate in various Tibetan political and military councils.

b. According to an old tradition,

the Lamas of the three monasteries have to assemble at a mass prayer meeting held at Da-chow monastery in Lhasa from the 5th to 26th of every month of the Tibetan calendar. This tradition is known as mou-lan-ching-pao. On these occasions, the Te-pou Lama of the Che-pun monastery became virtually the head of the civil administration in charge of judiciary, sanitary and traffic control, while the Te-pou Lamas of the other two monasteries cooperate with him. This system originated with the 5th Dalai Lama.

3. A Lama who has studied one year in any of the 3 state monasteries can participate in the competitive examination of that monastery. Having passed this preliminary examination, he will be recommended by the Kan-pu to the Dalai Lama as one of the candidates for the Ke-se examination. None of the candidates is ever plucked in the Ke-se examination. The Ke-se degree is a very honorific one; only a Lama with this degree can expect to be a Kan-pu, or hold other high ecclesiastical positions.

C. Tibetan Society.—1. Lamas are extremely influential and enjoy special economic, political and educational privileges. Consequently all Tibetan families are eager to bring up their sons as Lamas. The Kan-pus of the monasteries are appointed by the Dalai Lama and exercise a power almost superior to that of the district magistrate.

Most Tibetans are superstitious. They are idolatrous and believe in omens and witchcraft. The Lamas are often asked to heal disease, to preach for vain, etc. Each year, thousands of Tibetans travel from

different places to Lhasa where they expect to receive the favor of "Mow-Tin" or gracious touch of the crown of the head by the

holy hands of the Dalai Lama.

2. Tibetan Social Classes: The Tibetans are divided into the following classes:

The Upper Class

The 1st grade

Dalai Lama

King of Tibet

The 2nd grade

Ke-lungs

"Living Buddha's officiating Lamas"

The 3rd grade

Dei Pan Yin Kwan Lamas

The Middle Class

The 1st grade

Landlords, wealthy people

The 2nd grade

Officials of low rank

The 3rd grade

Soldiers, common people

The Lower Class

The 1st grade

Servants and maids.

Bachelors without property.

The 2nd grade

Old maids or widows who have to work for livelihood, beggars

The 3rd grade

Sextons, scavengers, blacksmiths, etc.

Class distinctions are rigid in Tibet. No inter-class marriage is allowed. The upper class lives in comfort and luxury while the lower class in destitution and privation. But such is the fatalism of the Tibetans that the poor accept their lot with great resignation.

3. Aristocracy in Tibet: Formerly there were 175 noble families in Tibet, which have now increased to 200. They are the descendants of (a) the local officers or Tu-zu who rendered signal services to the Government, (b) the kinsmen of the Dalai Lama of successive generations, (c) the officials who held a rank higher than Ke-lung and (d) wealthy persons who were *persona grata* with the Government.

The members of the aristocratic families, after having been trained for 2 or 3 years, are qualified

to be Chung-ke, candidates for civil services, and Tze-chung, candidates for priesthood. All Tibetan civil servants and Dalai Lamas are chosen from these families.

4. The Sparseness of Tibetan Populations: Since most of the Tibetans are Lamas and hence celibates the birth rate among Tibetans has steadily fallen. On the other hand, the lack of adequate knowledge of hygiene and sanitation makes the death rate high. According to the statistics in the 2nd year of Emperor Chien-lung of the Ching dynasty (1737), the number of Tibetan population was 952,150 of whom 316,200 were Lamas. No present data is available and one can only make an approximate estimate of the size of Tibetan population by the amount of tea consumed in Tibet. Tea is a daily necessity in Tibet.

The total amount of tea imported to Tibet from Szechuen and Yunnan each year is estimated at 70,000 Tou or 3,460,000 bricks. Assuming that each Tibetan consumes half a brick a month or 6 bricks a year, there would be a population of 576,700 in Tibet. Deductions, however, must be made of one third of the total populations who are too poor to afford tea-drinking. The resultant number would be then 768,933. Tibet has an area of 900,000 sq. kilo-meters. In this vast expanse of land, there is less than one person in each sq. kilometer.

D. Economic Conditions. —

1. The main agricultural products in Tibet are wheat, peas, olives, beans and oats. The annual output of agricultural products amounts to 11,000,000 piculs, of which 70% olives, 20% peas and 10% other agricultural products.

One has no definite knowledge of the cultivated land in Tibet. The farm unit is called Kau. Each Kau can yield 40 Ke or 80 catties of agricultural products annually. As each Kan can be farmed by a cattle per day, it cannot be much larger than one mow in size. The total area of land cultivated in Tibet is therefore estimated to be 5,000,000 mows.

2. Animal Husbandary in Tibet: Animal husbandary is of primary importance to Tibetan economic life. According to the statement of the Indian Year Book, the annual import of fur and hide from Tibet to India is worth 1,200,000 rupees.

3. Handicraft in Tibet: Handicraft is not well developed in Tibet. The following arts and crafts are worth mentioning:

(a) Drugget Manufacture—the manufacture of drugget from animal fur and hide is the principal handicraft in Tibet. There are two kinds of drugget made in Tibet, the Poo-loo drugget and Tsai-yun drugget. Tsai-yun drugget is fine in texture and can serve as bed blanket.

(b) Paper Manufacture—The quality of the Tibetan paper is similar to that of the tough and rough "Malberry tree-bark" paper produced inland. It is used by the Tibetans for publishing and epistolary purposes.

(c) Incense—Incense making is often an avocation of the priests. The incense-sticks are imported into China proper in large quantities.

(d) Smithery—Most of the smiths in Tibet are Chinese and Nepalese. They make gold idols, gold ornaments, iron or steel teapots, etc.

4. Trade in Tibet: The commodities exported from Tibet are mostly fur, hide and herbal *materia medica*. The annual export of fur and hide to India is worth 1,200,000 rupees. The commodities imported to Tibet from Chinese Interior are mostly tea, silk and cloth of \$30,000,000's worth per annum. The annual import from India is worth 100,000 rupees.

5. Finance in Tibet: There are four kinds of legal tenders in Tibet: the Tibetan currency, the Sikang currency, the Chinese National currency and the Nepalese currency. The Tibetan money is largely used by the priests, the wealthy export and import merchants and money-lenders who make loans to farmers. The Pountai-chang Co. deals in the Sikang

currency. The firm holds the first position in Tibet financial world. It does business in export and import, remittance of money, savings, trust and other branches of banking. The Chinese currency is used in Peiping and Yunnan commercial firms engaged in silk and tea trades. Most of the Nepalese merchants run their business on the credits of their own government. They sell imported goods from Europe, India and America and are very influential.

As modern banking is unknown in Tibet. Money-lending at exorbitant interest is an usual practice. The merchants form into cliques with very little cooperation among themselves. The financial conditions in Tibet are chaotic and stagnant.

IV. THE POLICY OF THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT TOWARDS THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE FRONTIER REGION

The National Government follows the principles laid down by Dr. Sun Yat-sen for the reconstruction of a new China, with the avowed aim of establishing a government of the people, for the people and by the people. The policy for the reconstruction of Mongolia and Tibet may be described as follows:

A. 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 reads in part as follows: ". . . irrespective of sex, race or religion, Chinese citizens are equal in the eye of law." Owing to the geographical factor, the Mongolians and Tibetans have been separated from and denied close contact with the Central Government, with the result that they have developed in the course of history, a different type of culture and showed difference in the degree of social, economic and political development. It is, therefore, the urgent task of the National Government to assist them in their various developments and to raise their standard of living. A resolution was passed in the Third National Kuomintang Congress which reads: "The Kuomintang solemnly declared as its duty to change the deception and indifference characteristic of the policies of the Manchu Government towards the administration of Mongolia and Tibet and to make utmost efforts to sincerely help in their economic, political and educational development, aiming at the general progress of civilization and the reconstruction of a free and unified China."

The various peoples of the Chinese nation are one in origin. Although the Mongolian and Tibetans still show differences in many respects, these differences have been much harmonized in the course of history. No race can ever expect to be highly developed unless she can draw lessons from the experiences of other races. It had been, therefore, the long conceived idea of Dr. Sun Yat-sen to place the five peoples, Chinese, Mongolians, Manchurians, Muslims and Tibetans

on an equal standing and to remove invidious discriminations. As legal equality is necessary before each people can enjoy the maximum happiness, the government explicitly indicated that the ultimate aim of the principle of nationalism of the San Min Chu I is for a closer union of the five peoples on an equal footing.

It was further explained by President Chiang Kai-shek in his address to the joint Defence Council and the Central Executive Committee on August 24, 1945 as follows:

"... If frontier racial groups situated in regions outside the provinces have the capacity for self-government and a strong determination to attain independence, and are politically and economically ready for both, our government should in a friendly spirit, voluntarily help them to realize their wish and treat them as brotherly nations and as equals of China. We should entertain no ill will or prejudice against them because of their choice to leave the mother country.

Our frontier racial groups should, in a friendly spirit and through legal channels, make known their wishes to the government of their mother-country. In this way they may be able to realise their aspirations. They should not defy the mother-country and stir up mutual hatred."

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. A decree was thus stipulated in the fourth National Kuomintang Congress as follows:

"All statements concerning the customs and habits of the different peoples should be respectfully and sincerely made, no ill-feeling should be created by false statements."

In the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, an act was passed 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."

From the passages quoted above, it is evident that the National Government has paid a scrupulous regard to their religious customs and beliefs. In order to indicate the consideration of the Government towards the protection of buddhism and the priestly caste in Mongolia and Tibet, the government has conferred honorable titles upon their religious heads, has invited them to preach and has, above all, amid wartime allocated them large sum of money for the repair of old monasteries and the building of new ones.

B. Political Rights — The ultimate political ideal of Kuomintang is to give all citizens equal political rights. But before this ideal could be realised, every individual must possess a clear conception of the National Constitution and must be able to exercise their rights. Dr. Sun Yat-sen has provided three political periods for the realisation of this end: namely the period of militarism, the period of political tutelage and the period of constitution. As the people in the frontier regions are politically

backward and the need for political tutelage is more urgent, Dr. Sun Yat-sen has specially emphasized the training of the minor peoples in order to develop their capacity for self-government. In the Third National Kuomintang Congress, an act was passed to establish the Political Institute on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs in Nanking for the training of the civil servants of the frontier government. Orders were also given to the Mongolian and Tibetan banners and leagues, the Sikang Tibetan regional government beseeching them to establish schools, compile text books and issue pamphlets and monthly publications for the political education of their people. It was expected that the people may be given a clear idea of San Min Chu I and the practice of constitutional government. This program was more concretely revealed in the resolution passed in the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee concerning the promotion of social education of frontier regions.

C. Livelihood of the People—

1. 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 backward economic development of the frontier regions, their standard of living is low. In order to promote their economic development, 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 liveli-

hood 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." It was further stated in the program for the economic reconstruction of the frontier regions as follows: "In developing the frontier regions, the various economic measures aim at the improvement of the well-being of all nationals, and should not be executed at the expense of the tribe people."

2. The only way to improve the living standard of the tribe people is to increase their production. As it is always easier to promote and develop their own industries, this principle has been clearly pointed out in the manifesto of the Fifth National Kuomintang Congress as follows: "The primary task for the Economic Reconstruction of Mongolia and Tibet is to promote and improve the industries already existing in these regions." It was also concretely indicated in the decree concerning the solidarity of the unification of the various races passed in the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee as follows: "The government has to assist the frontier industries in the respects of both capitals and technicians."

3. In order to promote the livelihood of the frontier districts, the government must not only promote the existing frontier industries but also to establish national economic centers in these regions. It is only from well established economic centers, close relationship between the frontier districts and the central government, can be expected to result.

In order to carry out these measures an act was passed in the Eighth Plenary Session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. It reads as follows: "In suitable localities, the Central Government should establish large scale projects in farming, animal husbandry, fur and woollen manufacture and leather production. Local enterprises should be encouraged. Additional banking units should also be established to offer financial facili-

ties to the various industries."

In view of the difficulties of transportation between frontier regions and interior provinces, Dr. Sun Yat-sen emphasized the importance of railway construction in the Northwest. It was manifested in decision of the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee as follows: "It is of urgent importance to build the railways and highways in frontier regions."

CHAPTER XVIII

OVERSEAS CHINESE AFFAIRS

CHEN SHU-JEN (陳樹人)*

During the eight years of war of resistance, the administration of the overseas Chinese affairs entrusted to the Overseas Affairs Commission under the Executive Yuan of the Chinese National Government became increasingly complicated and difficult. Normally the Commission was interested in the welfare and education of the overseas Chinese. But during the period of our national struggle side by side with our Allies against aggression, two additional functions were placed on the shoulders of the Commission; namely, the mobilization of both human and material contributions by overseas Chinese on the one hand, and on the other hand, the relief of overseas Chinese following the enemy occupation of South Sea territories. Now with the termination of hostilities, the Commission contemplates reverting to its original plan, always cherishing the hope that approximately eight million of the loyal sons of China and their descendants will live peacefully, prosperously, and happily wherever they may establish themselves.

I. RETURNED OVERSEAS CHINESE REHABILITA- TION PROGRAM

For redeployment of overseas Chinese immediately after the war, regulations were enacted in May, 1942. In March, 1943, the Overseas Chinese Rehabilitation Board (戰後僑務籌劃會議) was organized. In May of the following year, it was reorganized into the Post-war Overseas Affairs Committee (戰後僑務籌劃委員會) with 35 to 45 committee members, composed of senior officers, appointed by the Chairman of the Overseas Affairs Commission, experts on overseas affairs, returned overseas leaders and representatives of the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Communications, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the Hailu, the South Sea Overseas Association and other overseas academic and cultural organizations. The Committee is to study and solve the problems in connection with returned overseas Chinese and to formulate

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post-war rehabilitation plans in the interest of Chinese citizens abroad. The Vice-Chairman of the Overseas Affairs Commission is concurrently the Chairman of the Committee and the Committee's secretarial work is carried out by the secretariat of the Commission. The Committee meets once every month, and special meetings may be called whenever necessary.

Since June 1944, the Committee has held seven plenary sessions and twelve group discussions. The decisions reached have been published in two pamphlets entitled "Post-war Overseas Chinese Rehabilitation and Development Program" and "Important Decisions on Post-war Overseas Affairs, 1944," which have been circulated to the various relevant organizations for discussion. The decisions are:

1. To firmly establish policies regarding overseas affairs;
2. To strengthen the various administrative organs of overseas affairs and to readjust the powers and function of other related organs;
3. To improve emigration and to further the training and organization of the overseas Chinese;
4. To establish financial centers abroad to facilitate the circulation of capital in favour of overseas Chinese;
5. To form an Overseas Economic Affairs Bureau;
6. To divide overseas school districts;
7. To further overseas teachers' training classes and to com-

pile text books for overseas schools;

8. To provide communication facilities for those overseas Chinese who desire to return to the South Seas;
9. To carry out a complete registration of the returned overseas Chinese;
10. To schedule the overseas Chinese relief program with the assistance of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration;
11. To restore overseas Chinese properties occupied by the enemy during the war to the rightful owners;
12. To work out loans to the overseas Chinese;
13. To sign new treaties with the governments of those territories wherein most overseas Chinese reside for the protection of their interests;
14. To investigate wartime losses sustained by the overseas Chinese;
- 15.—To formulate plans for administering post-war emigration, as well as for supervising matters regarding those who are desirous of going abroad;
16. To maintain and protect the pre-war rights and interests of the overseas Chinese abroad;
17. To send officials to direct and guide the South Seas Chinese in regard to demobilization and rehabilitation as soon as South Seas territories are liberated by Allied troops;
18. To plan for the reconversion and promotion of post-war overseas economic, educational and cultural undertakings.

Further, the Committee has adopted the following preparatory measures:—

1. To assemble different opinions in connection with overseas rehabilitation problems.
2. To solve the various organizational problems relating to the rehabilitation of overseas Chinese;
3. To lay the fundamental principle of the rehabilitation program; and
4. To register all the returned overseas Chinese.

II. OVERSEAS CHINESE RELIEF AND REHABILITATION

After the liberation of Burma and the Philippines, the returned overseas Chinese from these territories were anxious to get back and meanwhile the resident overseas Chinese therein were looking forward to government relief. The Overseas Affairs Commission had already made consultations with other relevant organizations in regard to the undertaking of the above-mentioned measures. Plans, which were worked out before the liberation of Burma and the Philippines, had to be carried out. Further, as relief and rehabilitation work of the overseas Chinese in Burma and the Philippines was a matter of urgent nature the Commission had to raise fund for the immediate purpose.

However, the question was raised whether the work was to be discharged by the Overseas Affairs Commission itself or with the co-operation of other competent authorities or by a new organiza-

tion set up in charge of the work. The Overseas Affairs Commission and the Haiwaipu jointly proposed to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to form an Overseas Chinese Relief and Rehabilitation Committee working together with the Commission, Haiwaipu, United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration and the seven overseas Chinese leaders in Chungking. However, the scheme was abandoned and according to the instruction from Generalissimo Chiang the work should be performed by the Overseas Affairs Commission with the coordination of other competent authorities and overseas Chinese leaders in Chungking whenever necessary.

After receiving the instruction in February, 1945, the Commission began its preparatory work by strengthening the organization and increasing its administrative personnel. Besides, it petitioned to the Executive Yuan for the appropriation of US\$500,000 for the relief of overseas Chinese in the Philippines and Rs. 3,000,000 for the same purpose in Burma. The sum was duly granted. Communications with the Philippines being disrupted, the Commission could send no agent to the Philippines but to remit the fund to the overseas Chinese leaders in the Philippines to undertake the work of relief. According to the "Relief Measures for Overseas Chinese in Burma and returned overseas Chinese from Burma," nine-tenth of the allotment was used for the relief of the resident overseas Chinese, while one-tenth was provided for the overseas Chinese returned from Burma.

III. RELIEF FOR RETURNED OVERSEAS CHINESE

According to the reports received from the various Emergency Overseas Chinese Assistance Committees (緊急救僑委員會) of Fukien, Kwangtung, Yunnan, Kweichow and Kwangsi, a total of 1,159,687 returned overseas Chinese had been relieved during the period from the outbreak of the Pacific War to December, 1943. After the dissolution of the Emergency Overseas Chinese Assistance Committees in 1944, the Overseas Affairs Commission jointly with the National Relief Commission resumed the former's duties. According to reports received from the provincial Overseas Affairs Department of Kwangtung, Fukien and other provinces, 13,352 returned overseas Chinese were benefited by the relief work. In the early part of 1945, a sum of \$10,000,000 was appropriated for the purpose.

The relief of the returned overseas Chinese students has during the recent years become one of the major functions of the Commission. The Commission attempted by every conceivable means to solve the problems concerning the daily life of the returned overseas students. Measures adopted by the Commission were as follows:

1. Reception of Overseas students.—In order to avoid unnecessary difficulties and expenditure in housing and other matters encountered by the overseas students returned to China for higher education, an Overseas Chinese Students Hostel (僑生招待所) was established in Chungking. In 1944, a total sum of

\$2,739,546 was provided for the running of the hostel and towards the end of March, 1945, another sum of \$170,011 was added. As the number of overseas students returning to China decreased with the disruption of communications with foreign countries, the reception work was later entrusted to the Reception and Training Committee for Unemployed Youths and Out-of-School Students in the War Area (戰地失學失業青年招致訓練委員會).

2. Advance of Government loans:—As a result of the outbreak of the Pacific war the returned overseas students were not able to receive remittance from their homes abroad for the maintenance of their education. The Commission and the Ministry of Education, in accordance with the program for the relief of students in war areas, advanced loans to them for their boarding as well as other necessities.

3. The Distribution of Relief Funds:—Included in the list of relief funds distributed to the returned overseas students were special funds, winter clothing funds, medical funds, travelling expenses and temporary relief funds. On receiving the sum of \$2,000,000 for overseas educational relief in the spring of 1942, the Commission decided to distribute the fund among the overseas students for buying books and other necessary implements. Until now, six issues of special funds have been advanced and the seventh is ready for distribution. The table below shows the amount of the various funds distributed among the overseas students in the years of 1944 and part of 1945.

Allowance	1944		1945		Total Amount allowed since 1942
	No. of overseas students	Amount allowed	No. of overseas students	Amount allowed	
Special Fund	3,248	\$1,824,800			\$4,360,100
Winter Clothing Fund	159	\$ 79,500	118	\$354,000 (until Mar.)	
Medical Fund	25	\$ 78,080	14	\$ 83,980 (until May)	
Travelling expenses	33	\$ 36,300	2	\$ 1,100 (until May)	\$1,198,520
		\$ 665,000*		\$ 20,000† (until May)	
		\$ 100,000*			
Allowance for incidental losses		\$ 170,000‡	6	\$ 11,000 (until May)	\$ 687,000
	27	\$ 32,300			
	1§	\$ 10,000			

IV. REGISTRATION OF RETURNED OVERSEAS CHINESE

To investigate the number and the condition of the returned overseas Chinese and their families abroad, the Overseas Commission has formulated a number of regulations for their registration. According to one of these regulations overseas Chinese who went abroad before the Lukouchiao Incident and returned after the outbreak of the Pacific War from the South Seas Islands, Europe, the United States, Africa, Australia, Hongkong and Macao must be registered. This registration is to serve as the basis of post-war rehabilitation program. The number of such overseas Chinese is expected to reach 200,000 and

the expenditure is estimated at \$600,000 which is to be distributed according to the number registered in the various districts. The Commission has already instructed the various Overseas Affairs Bureaus to the effect that the registration must be completed within a period of four months and that the provincial government and district administrations should notify the overseas Chinese in their districts for early registration. According to reports received so far, the number registered by the overseas affairs bureaus in Fukien is 1,161, in Yunnan 3,185, in Chungking 650 at the Chungking Office of the Commission, and 117 at the Commission itself, 65,536 at the Amoy Overseas Affairs Bureau, and 2,120 at

* These amounts were entrusted to the Committee for the Assistance and Guidance of Overseas Chinese (華僑輔導委員會) and the Bureau of Education of Kwangtung provincial government to provide travelling expenses for those overseas students coming to Free China.

† The fund was appropriated to the Committee for the Assistance and Guidance of Overseas Chinese to assist overseas students enlisted in the army.

‡ The fund was entrusted to the Bureau of Education of the said government to compensate the personal losses of the returned overseas students.

§ The student was dead.

Canton bureau, thus totalling 72,769.

V. OVERSEAS CHINESE REMITTANCE

During the Kwangtung and Kwangsi campaigns in 1944, the various banks in these districts had been evacuated to the interior, thus liquidating the accounts of considerable sum deposited by overseas Chinese and cutting off the financial support received in China by the families of overseas Chinese. Further, the official exchange rate was rather unfavorable with only CN\$200 to US\$5. The amounts remitted by overseas Chinese for family sustenance were insufficient, forcing them to live a precarious life. In view of the importance of the matter, the Commission in conjunction with the Bank of China, made a close study and discovered that the obstacle to relief work was the lack of exchange facilities in the war zones. To solve the problem, the Commission requested the Bank of China to reopen the Enping and Kaiping branches, and negotiated with the Aviation Committee to send by air remittance applications and bank notes to Fukien and Kiangsi. As a result of the proposal made by the Commission the exchange rate for the overseas Chinese was readjusted and fixed at US\$1 to CN\$500.

VI. OVERSEAS CHINESE EDUCATION

In regard to the wartime overseas Chinese education, the Commission, besides continuing its former work, has in the last two years accomplished the following:—

A. The demarcation of the power of control of overseas education:— During the 12th Plenary Session of the Central

Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, held in 1944, a system for the demarcation of power to facilitate the work for the well being of overseas Chinese was proposed. On July 6 of the same year, a Conference attended by representatives of the Overseas Affairs Commission, the Haiwaipu, and the ministries of education, foreign affairs, economic and social affairs was convened by the Executive Yuan to discuss the proposal.

After the conference the Commission in February, 1945 formulated regulations concerning the administration of overseas education and forwarded them to the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for their approval. The regulations formulated are as follows:—

1. The Ministry of Education is to undertake, with the Overseas Affairs Commission as an auxiliary organ, the control of all overseas educational and cultural institutions in China, the appropriation of their expenditures, the examination of their record, the dispatch of supervisory officers and other matters related to overseas education.

2. The Overseas Affairs Commission is to undertake, with the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as auxiliary organ, the control of all overseas educational institutions abroad, the appropriation of their expenditures, the examination of their record, the dispatch of supervisory officers and other related matters.

3. Measures adopted by the auxiliary organs for execution must be approved by the responsible organs while the responsible organ must inform its auxiliary

organs at an early date of its decision.

B. Registration of Educational Personnel sent abroad: To provide personnel for the post-war overseas educational reconversion, the Commission besides establishing two Overseas Teachers' Training Schools, undertook in 1944 the registration of educationists and cultural workers interested in overseas education. All applicants must be duly examined before they are recommended to work abroad.

VII. ENLISTED OVERSEAS STUDENTS

Following the urge by Generalissimo Chiang calling upon Chinese youths to enlist in the army, the Overseas Affairs Commission appealed to the overseas Chinese students to answer the call and encouraged them to join the military service for the defence of their fatherland. The total number of overseas Chinese students enlisted during the period from December, 1944, to March, 1945, was 245.

VIII. NEWS COMMUNICATIONS FOR OVERSEAS CHINESE AT HOME AND ABROAD

After the outbreak of the Pacific War news communications between the overseas Chinese at home and abroad were disrupted, thus adding mental worry to their financial difficulties. For the consolation of the overseas Chinese at home and abroad, the Commission undertakes to translate and broadcast letters from the returned overseas Chinese to their families abroad.

A. Translation and delivery of letters: In April, 1944, the Overseas Affairs Commission approached the International Red Cross Society for the delivery of letters

to the enemy occupied areas abroad. Translation fees and postages were paid by the Commission. Up to December, 1944, a total of 8,263 letters were received by the Commission for delivery. Except those rendered impossible to deliver due to incorrect addresses or some other reasons, a total of 2,161 letters had been delivered, 1,623 to the Philippines, 311 to Malaya and Burma, 218 to Dutch East Indies and 9 to French Indo-China.

B. Broadcast of letters: The Commission also undertakes to broadcast short domestic letters to the recently liberated areas, such as the Philippines and Burma.

IX. CONCLUSION

The Overseas Affairs Commission has long cherished the pride of serving in the interest of the overseas Chinese and despite of its material difficulties it has done its very best with all means available. Nevertheless, the main function of the Commission in this war of national resistance is to direct the efforts of the overseas Chinese for national salvation. When victory is won the Commission hopes that the Overseas Chinese will continue to contribute their share to bring a new and prosperous China into being.

It is the firm policy of the National Government of China to provide ways and means for the wellbeing of overseas Chinese and to render whatever assistance necessary for the development of their enterprises abroad. Now with the abrogation of unequal treaties and the conclusion of new reciprocal treaties of amity and commerce the prospect of overseas Chinese in the future will be decidedly much brighter.

PART IV
MILITARY AFFAIRS

CHAPTER XIX

MINISTRY OF WAR

CHEN CHENG (陳誠)*

I. GENERAL REVIEW

A.—Number of Men in the Army.—Since the war of resistance against Japanese aggression started in July, 1937, the Chinese people had shown great enthusiasm in enlisting with the army. Although there were considerable casualties each year, the Army was amply replenished by new recruitments. Up to the end of 1944 the number of army corps had been increased to 1,022 with men numbering 4,443,612, that of various specialized army units and technical schools increased to 92 with men numbering 281,430, and that of military organs increased to 4,300 with men numbering 1,189,882. In consequence of the adjustments, reductions and fresh recruitments introduced in 1945, at present (end of November, 1945) the number of army corps is 711 with men numbering 3,960,621, that of specialized army units and technical schools is 43 with men numbering 145,971 that of military organs is 2,796 with men numbering 727,765.

*Minister of War.

B.—Total Army Casualties in Eight Years.—In this war of resistance soldiers and people alike throughout the country rose in arms; guerilla units organized by the people themselves numbered more than one million and it is practically impossible to estimate the losses suffered by them. We shall now give only the figures for the total casualties of the regular army from July, 1937 to August 1945 as follows: Total casualties numbering 3,195,666, of which 1,319,358 were dead, 1,759,715 wounded and 116,593 missing.

C.—War Expenditures in Eight Years.—The war of resistance being waged for the very existence of the Chinese nation, the whole population had done their utmost to reduce their food and clothing to a minimum in order that more contributions might be made to the war chest. The soldiers on their part never flagged in their spirit of struggle under the pressure of rapidly deteriorating material conditions and deserve our highest admiration. Here are the figures for war expenditures in eight years:

MINISTRY OF WAR

<i>Year</i>	<i>Actual Amount Paid Out in National Currency</i>	<i>Percentage Ratio</i>
1937	1,386,003,024.94	100%
1938	375,128,511.25	54%
1939	628,170,646.90	45%
1940	1,690,998,485.44	122%
1941	2,746,467,071.18	198%
1942	5,433,683,309.40	395%
1943	12,185,106,789.65	879%
1944	69,153,461,827.43	4989%
1945	363,266,853,208.38	26609%

- Note:* 1. The year 1938 covers only six months but is taken as a year in the calculation of its percentage ratio.
 2. The expenditures for air forces, ordnance, relief and pension were paid directly out of the national treasury and are not included in the above table.
 3. The Year 1940 covers only the months from January to October inclusive.

II.—THE EFFECTS OF NEW ARMY ADMINISTRATION

A.—Rearrangements in the Organization of the Ministry of War.—Gen. Chen Cheng on being appointed Minister of War on December 1, 1944, lost no time in rearranging China's war organizations in such a way as to fall in line with the Allied operations against the Japanese. At the same time the Ministry itself was also remoulded. The Division of Military Affairs was elevated to the Directorate of Military Affairs; the Personnel Bureau was separated from the Bureau of General Affairs; the Bureau of Wounded Soldiers Administration was re-organized into the Division of Wounded Soldiers Affairs and subordinated to the Directorate of Medical Service; the Executive Superintendent General of Military Law was dismissed and put under to the Division of Military Law; and the Board of Conscription was changed to the Directorate of Conscription and

subordinated to the Ministry. The Ministry of War has at present the following subordinate organs:

Ministry of War

Bureau of General Affairs
 Division of Military Law
 Personnel Bureau
 Supply Bureau

Directorate of Military Affairs.

Department of General Affairs
 Staff Office
 Division of Infantry
 Division of Cavalry and Artillery
 Division of Engineer
 Division of Transport
 Division of Armoured Forces
 Division of Signal Corps
 Division of Remounts

Directorate of Military

Supplies

Department of General Affairs
 Financial Division
 Food and Forage Division
 Storage and Provision Division
 Construction Division

Directorate of Medical Service

Department of General Affairs
 Planning Committee

Division of Medical Administration

Sanitary Division

Pharmacy Division

Division of Wounded Soldiers Affairs

Account and Audit Office

Directorate of Ordnance

Department of General Affairs

Secretary

Guard Department

Industrial Division

Armament Division

Technical Division

Directorate of Conscription

Division of Regular Army

Division of National Army

Planning Division

Bureau of Accounts And Audit

Registration Bureau for Graduates of Central Training Establishments.

B.—The Reorganization of The Forces.—Since the war of resistance started on July 7, 1937, there had been established, as a result of practical necessities, quite a number of additional army corps, military organs and schools, which, being complicated in system and confused in their proper functions and responsibilities, not only caused a waste of manpower and material but lowered the efficiency of administration. With a view to strengthening the fighting power and increasing the working efficiency, the High Command decided to rearrange the nation's army corps, military organs and schools on the following principles:

1.—Amalgamation of similar organizations.

2.—Temporary suspension of the less urgent undertakings.

3.—Retrenchment of the oversized organizations.

4.—Dismissal of the inefficient personnel.

With the appointment of Gen. Chen to the Ministry rearrangements had been actively carried out in accordance with the foregoing principles. Up to the end of November, 1945, the number of army corps was reduced to 422 with 1,334,986 men, that of schools to 70 with 196,714 men and that of military organs to 1,759 with 533,191 men. However, in the process of rearrangement, owing to military necessities, new units were also added which had been either reorganized or amalgamated numbering 12 army corps with 901,995 men, 21 schools with 61,255 men and 255 military organs with 71,074 men.

C.—Reforms in the System of Replenishment of Military Supplies.—In order to bring about a closer link between the production, storage and replenishment of military supplies, it had been decided to reorganize the former Board of Rear Service of the National Military Council into the Headquarters of Rear Service subordinated to the Ministry of War. Meanwhile, the system of replenishment of military supplies was likewise reformed.

1. *The Establishment of a Replenishment System.*

"An Outline for the Replenishment of Army Supplies" based upon practical conditions was worked out, which definitely separated the system of army command from that of replenish-

ment of military supplies. All that pertains to the command of fighting and training goes under the system of army command and is in the charge of the chief officer of each grade concerned; whereas the replenishment of military supplies belongs to the replenishment system and is to be thoroughly executed by different grades of replenishment organs under the supervision of the chief officer of each grade concerned. At the same time it was provided that:

- a. All directives under the Ministry of War were held responsible for the production, purchase, storage and distribution of military supplies.
- b. The headquarters of Rear Service was held responsible for the transportation of military supplies.
- c. The chief officers of different army corps, military organs and schools were held responsible for the supervision of the replenishment organs under their command and for the execution of the job of replenishment.

In accordance with the foregoing principles, the various organs charged with the production, storage and replenishment of military supplies under the Board of Rear Service of the Ministry

of War were rearranged in order that their organizations may be simplified and their proper functions and responsibilities distinctly assigned.

2.—Changes in the Method of Replenishment.

(a) *Money Substitute is changed to Replenishment in Goods*—In the past the replenishment of military supplies in the Chinese army had been mostly effected by means of money substitutes. That is money was furnished to the different army corps, military organs and schools for them to make their own purchases. However, during the war with the concentration of vast forces coupled with rapid fluctuations of commodity prices it became almost impossible to provide a living for the soldiers on a fixed money basis. Realizing the plight of the army, the Supreme Commander decided to replace money substitute by replenishment in goods. Thus, supplies needed by the army were replenished in goods in definite quantities so that the living of the soldiers might not be affected by the fluctuations of commodity prices. The following is a brief description of the change made in the method of replenishment.

(i) *Provision and Forage* — provisions per capita were supplied on the basis of nourishment in the following quantities:

Kind of Food	Daily Allotment	Kind of Food	Daily Allotment
Rice or	25 ounce	Soya bean or other	
Flour	26 ounce	kind of bean	2 mace
Peanut	1 ounce	Vegetable oil	9 mace
Meat	1 ounce	Vegetables	10 ounce
Salt	5 mace	Fuel	21.3 ounce

With regard to forage, it was provided that each horse was to be allotted 3 catties of wheat husks, 3 catties of provender, and 1 ounce of salt, which were all issued by depots in goods.

(ii) *Covers and Clothing* — Clothing for the army was without exception issued in goods. Accessories such as bamboo rain-hats, water pots, saddles etc. were also produced and issued in goods.

(iii) *Sanitary Materials* — From 1944 onward sanitary materials were gradually issued in goods. Before the Japanese surrender all forces not cut off by communication lines were supplied in goods so far as possible. However, in the case of forces operating in the south-eastern provinces and in other areas cut off by communication lines, besides supplies replenished in goods by air to the great extent possible, money substitute was temporarily issued where it was practically impossible to replenish in goods.

(b) *Central Replenishment Plan Changed to Regional Replenishment Plan.*—For years it had been the rule for units applying for replenishment of supplies to apply indirectly to the supreme organ in charge for approval and then to take delivery of the goods at specified warehouses, involving complicated procedures and unnecessary delays. In order to facilitate the operations of the fighting forces it was decided to abolish the Central Replenishment Plan and adopt instead the Regional Replenishment Plan. Thus, under the Headquarters of Rear Service were established the Southeast, Southwest, and North-

west Regional Replenishment Headquarters and other depots to take charge of the replenishment of military supplies. Besides, warehouses were also set up in all important areas where they were needed. All supplies to be replenished to the forces were transported to the fronts and stored in the different regional warehouses to be drawn upon whenever needed by the different replenishment organs at their own discretion. Although it had not been long since the change in the replenishment plan was made, the effectiveness of the plan was amply borne out by the campaigns in northern Hupeh and southern Honan in the Spring and summer of 1945.

(c) *The Supply of Important Army Necessaries.* — Diminished production and the disruption of international communication lines by the Japanese had made it extremely difficult for China to maintain the supply of all army necessities. In the latter phase of the war, China received some help from the United States but only in limited quantities so that she still had to step up her production in order to be self-sufficient. After years' planning she could produce and supply without fail such important army necessities as provisions, forage, covers, clothing, ordnance materials, sanitary materials, etc. Now we shall describe briefly how these were worked out:

(i) *The Allocation of Covers and Clothing.*—The collection and allocation of provisions and forage needed by the army used to be the charge of the Ministry of Food,

which issued them without exception in goods. With the government taking upon itself to supply the principal provisions for the army, the total quantities needed by the forces each year on the average were 10,000,000 bags (200 catties each) or more of rice, 7,000,000 to 8,000,000 bags of wheat. In 1945 provisions needed by the army totalled 11,076,500 bags of rice, and 7,869,500 bags of wheat. As regards the supply of covers and clothing, during the course of the war 5,000,000 suits of summer clothing, 3,500,000 to 4,000,000 suits of padded clothing, over 10,000,000 suits of summer and winter undergarments and 1,000,000 pieces of army blankets were produced each year on an average by the Ministry of War itself. As to the sources of raw materials, cotton, yarn and cloth for years had been partly produced by the Ministry of War itself, the rest being made up by the Cotton, Yarn and Cloth Control Bureau which supplied 85% of Cotton (200,000 piculs) and 78% of cloth (2,500,000 pieces) and by purchases by the Ministry itself. From February, 1943 to the end of April, 1945, army uniforms, piece goods and dyes transported from India into this country totalled 1,979 tons.

(ii) *The Replenishment of Ordnance Materials.*—Owing to the disruption of international communication lines ammunitions had to be produced within the country. In the eight years the replenishment of ammunitions on all fronts had never been interrupted and China was almost self-sufficient in light armaments and in other ordnance materials such

as steel and chemicals. Moreover, she also made great strides in the invention and technical improvements in munitions making. Marked results were achieved in the standardization of the make and calibre of infantry machine guns, and in the designing and making of various cannons, cannon balls and optical instruments.

(iii) *The Replenishment of Sanitary Materials.*—Sanitary materials for the army since 1945 have been supplied in goods so far as possible. They are largely outputs of factories under the direct control of the Ministry of War and three others with which contracts were made for the production of these materials. On the other hand, agreements were concluded with the Wartime Production Bureau which was to mobilize all pharmaceutical establishments for their production. All the sanitary materials and equipments replenished from January, 1938 to the end of March, 1945 totalled 10,589 tons, valuing \$813,250,000.

III. OUTLINE OF THE DEMOBILIZATION PROGRAM

With the successful conclusion of the war of resistance the demobilization of millions of servicemen calls for immediate attention. It is provided in the program that most of the high ranking officers will be retained for the standing national army, and the rest will be sent abroad on an observation tour or given chances of advanced education and training. The average demobilized servicemen will, in pursuance of the instructions of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, be employed to implement the policy of soldier-labor, thereby turning them into the

channels of production and construction. They will be employed in the construction of roads, dredging of rivers and the cultivation of lands, etc. according to their capacities and interest so that while a living is provided for the demobilized servicemen, the man-power needed for the nation's construction works is also furnished. The concerted measures are as follows:

A.—The Regimentation of Discharged Servicemen for Training.

—Up to the end of November, 1945, there were formed 14 officers' regiments and 3 subordinate corps composed of discharged officers who were to be given training. Those who had reported themselves numbered 26,688. In the period of training, officers with the rank of general would be all appointed councillors of the Military Council; those with the rank of colonel or lieutenant would be all appointed attaché officer of the Military Council. After the period of training is completed they would be either assigned to different military posts or employed in other capacities.

B.—The Program for Civil Employment for the Military Forces.

—The program is divided into two sections, the individual and the collective. The number of men to be included in the collective section is estimated at 1,000,000, who will be employed in the following capacities: construction of railways, construction of highways, water conservancy, land cultivation, railways policing, peace-preservation police, factory policing, collective farming, and service corps for construction works. In the individual section the men

to be included total 200,000, who, with their original army organization retained, will be employed in the following capacities: police officers, communication administration, factory administration, civil service, finance, local sanitation, and school teachers. The mentally deficient and the aged numbering 130,000 officers and 400,000 to 800,000 men will be paid off.

C.—The Plan for 1946.—However, as the above-mentioned program cannot be accomplished at one stroke, but must be carried out step by step, a plan for the disposal of demobilized servicemen in 1946 has been outlined as follows:

1. *Construction of roads.*—The policy of soldier-labor is to be implemented in the main with the construction of roads. The following measures have been agreed upon between the Ministry of War and the Ministry of Communication providing for:

a.—*Railway*—The construction of the five lines: from Chengtu to Chungking, from Kweiyang to Tsuchun (Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway), from Tienshui to Lanchow, from Tienshui to Kwangyuan and from Chanyi to Hsufu (Hsufu-Kumming Railroad) is planned to commence in 1946 and will employ 220,000 demobilized servicemen.

b.—*Highways*—The construction of the five sections: from Wanchuan to Wuyuan, from Kaifeng to Nanchang, from Lientang to Hai'an, from Ansi to Jochiang, and from Sining to Ke-erh-mu is scheduled to commence in 1946 and will employ 210,000 demobilized servicemen.

2. *Emigrant Cultivation of Land*.—As China's soldiers are mostly peasants, it is planned that beginning in 1946 demobilized servicemen will be gradually emigrated for the cultivation of lands to the northeastern and northwestern provinces. It is estimated that in the first stage 27,000,000 *mow* of land will be cultivated in west Suiyuan, Ninghsia, the areas to the west of the Yellow River and the areas to the south of the Huai River, employing some 100,000 demobilized servicemen. In the northeastern provinces after the repatriation of the 1,200,000 Japanese emigrants, the lands cultivated by them will be taken over, investigations into which are now being conducted. In Fukien province the newly formed beach extending over 1,000,000 *mow* can be turned into good arable lands which will give employment to 50,000 to 100,000 demobilized servicemen.

3. *Water Conservancy*.—It is estimated that dyke-repairing and other conservancy projects will

absorb about 160,000 men in 1946. A large number of soldier-laborers will also be needed in conservancy work in the northwestern provinces.

4. *School Teachers*.—The country needs today 100,000 middle school teachers and 400,000 primary school teachers. For the year of 1946 it is planned that 100,000 to 150,000 men chosen from the demobilized servicemen will be turned into the channels of educational work.

5. *Police*.—In the opinion of the Ministry of the Interior, for the year of 1946 the police force can take on 20,000 to 30,000 officers below the rank of colonel. They will be chosen through examination and trained by the Central Police Officers' Academy before they are assigned to work.

6. *Sundry*.—Measures for giving jobs to discharged officers for the year of 1946 in civil administration, finance, and business administration are being discussed by the Ministry of War and the various authorities in charge.

CHAPTER XX

THE CHINESE AIR FORCE*

CHOW CHIH-JOU (周至柔)**

As compared with the army and the navy, the Chinese Air Force is a quite young organization. The existence in China of a modern air force dates back to 1931, when the first modern organization for the training of flying officers, the Central Aviation School (called at present the Chinese Air Force Cadet Officer Training School) was formally created by Government mandate. Three years later, the Commission on Aeronautical Affairs, the first regular administrative organization of the Chinese Air Force, was established. Since 1937, however, other minor organizations in charge of the various branches of aeronautical affairs had been created, which functioned more or less under or within the framework of the Commission and the School.

The reasons for the comparatively late growth of the Chinese Air Force are not far to seek. To begin with, China has never had a modern armament industry. Under these circumstances, the construction of a national air force, which requires highly technical

equipments, becomes well-nigh impossible. Whatever crafts China had, she had to buy from other more industrially advanced countries, notably the United States. In its early stage, the training of flying cadets had to rely mainly upon foreign officers. At the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War, the Central Aviation School had turned out only six classes of air cadets, numbering 512. But meagre as this force would seem, it was then confidentially expected that with these graduates as a basic training corps, the Chinese Air Force might very soon be adequately manned. Moreover, plans were being devised for the construction of an aviation industry, which would start to manufacture planes on Chinese soil and for Chinese use. But these hopes were shattered by the war.

During the eight years of war, the Chinese Air Force has suffered heavy losses. There were, indeed, frustrating setbacks, but this is really beside the point. What must be noted here, and what has won

*This article was written in June, 1945.

**Chairman, Commission on Aeronautical Affairs.

the admiration of the whole civilized world, is the amazing bravery with which the Chinese Air Force has fought, overwhelmed as it was by the tremendous enemy superiority. On four occasions it lost nearly all its planes, but it fought on. The blows from the enemy had been crushing, but they had been resisted. If Chinese casualties had been heavy—it was estimated that at one time over 50 percent of the air-pilots were killed or wounded in action—those on the enemy side had been no less so.

The infirmity resulting from the above mentioned internal causes would have been satisfactorily cured if given a sufficient period of convalescence in a good sanitarium. Unfortunately, before the Chinese Air Force could do so, it was involved in war and further difficulties which may be classified as external.

2. External causes: During eight years of war, the Chinese Air Force is believed to have suffered the heaviest losses and the most frustrating setbacks. Four times it lost all its airplanes and made good the loss. The young combatants fought desperately throughout the war. Records show that over 50% of them were killed and wounded. In addition to material losses there were many factors which greatly obstructed the reconstruction program and the growth of the Chinese Air Force, such as difficulty in obtaining supplies, uncertainty of the national political situation, etc. We wish to make

known generally the fact that, while the Chinese Air Force has spared no effort during the years of war in the performance of its duties to the Chinese Nation, it has so far accomplished very little in its own reconstruction. The only thing the Chinese Air Force could do was:

1. To fight as hard as it could.
2. To make preparations for reconstruction.

I. HOW THE CHINESE AIR FORCE FOUGHT

Except for the last year or two in the last stage of the war, the Chinese Air Force has always been outnumbered by the enemy. In most important strategic principles are as follows:

1. Reduce losses and casualties and maintain fighting force to the greatest possible extent.
2. Launch surprising attacks on the superior enemy.
3. In every theater and in every campaign, use the limited units available for attack and protection.

Commencing from 3 p.m. August 14, 1937, when the Chinese Air Force completely defeated, with a ratio of 6 to 0, the Japanese Heavy Bomber Groups (Kisarazi and Kanoya), the CAF had always followed the above-mentioned strategy in fighting Japan. The CAF was inferior in number, but was superior in operational results. To illustrate the strategic accomplishment of CAF, tables are given below, contrasting both the fighting force and the losses of CAF with those of Japan.

TABLE I. NUMBER AND RESULTS OF AIR COMBATS OF CAF IN 1944

Missions	Planes		Results	Remarks
	Types	Sorties		
Attack . 1182	Beechcraft .	14	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 135 enemy aircraft shot down, 54 aircraft probably shot down, and 156 aircraft destroyed on ground. 184 enemy positions, 44 artillery positions, and 6 AA gun positions destroyed. 9 enemy headquarters destroyed. 2136 junks and 101 steamers destroyed. 2576 trucks, tractors, and tanks destroyed, 138 damaged; 98 carts destroyed. 184 depots, 21 storehouses and 35 villages destroyed. 849 houses and 5 radio stations destroyed. 148 buildings destroyed, 46 cities and 5 motorpools bombed. 67 barracks, 18 factories, 4 ammunitions depots and 23 oil dumps destroyed. 71 bridges, 14 pontoon bridges and 9 wharfs destroyed or damaged. 39 bus and railway stations, 24 locomotives and 246 railway cars destroyed or damaged. 14102 enemy officers and men and 1860 horses killed. 1320 cavalrymen killed. 24 communication bags, bank notes amounting to NC\$700,000 and 8 packages of maps dropped. 	
Air Cover . 28	N. American .	1		
Recon. . 108	YT-"2" . . .	27		
Air Defence . 17	E-15	48		
Dropping . 42	J.B.	3		
	P-51	30		
	P-40	659		
	P-43	414		
	P-66	480		
Total . 1377	A-29	8		
	B-25	616		
	Total . . .	8236		

TABLE II. NUMBER AND RESULTS OF AIR COMBATS OF CAF SINCE THE BEGINNING OF THE SINO-JAPANESE WAR

Item Year	Missions						Planes			Remarks
	Attack	Reconnai- ssance	Air Defence	Air Cover	Dropping	Total	Types	Sorties	Total	
1937	36	—	22	—	—	58	Fighter Bomber	200 196	396	
1938	39	—	20	—	—	59	Fighter Bomber	427 218	645	
1939	9	—	13	—	—	22	Fighter Bomber	267 55	322	
1940	9	—	14	—	—	23	Fighter Bomber	209 90	299	
1941	3	3	45	—	—	51	Fighter Bomber	306 42	348	
1942	17	4	4	—	—	25	Fighter Bomber	18 221	239	
1943	114	34	8	—	—	156	Fighter Bomber	205 678	883	
1944	1182	108	17	28	42	1377	Fighter Bomber	7519 624	8143	
1945	1928	61	8	129	—	2126	Fighter Bomber	6241 859	7100	
Grand Total	3337	210	151	157	42	3897	Fighter Bomber	15392 2983	18375	

RESULTS:

1. On the ground, 544 enemy aircraft destroyed, 5 probably destroyed, 120 damaged.
2. In the air, 586 enemy aircraft destroyed, 60 probably destroyed, 35 damaged.
3. 7034 enemy ships of all sizes, 41 warships, 144 steamers, 5 ferry steamers, 10 tanks and 16 wharfs destroyed; 543 ships, 5 warships, 68 steamers, 4 ferry steamers, 1 tanker, and 1 pontoon damaged.

(Continued on next Page)

4. 530 locomotives destroyed, 98 damaged; 1649 R/R cars destroyed 228 damaged; 40 oil trucks destroyed, 5 damaged; 5012 trucks, carts, tractors, and tanks destroyed, 929 damaged.
5. 237 bridges, 119 machine gun positions, 84 A/A gun positions, 116 artillery positions, 4 artilleries, 184 enemy positions destroyed. 62 bridges, 39 machine gun positions, 21 A/A gun positions, one artillery position, and 2 enemy positions damaged.
6. 276 barracks, 20 manufactories, 4562 houses, 619 depots, 77 oil and ammunition depots, 493 buildings, 22 enemy headquarters, 30 castles, destroyed; 40 barracks, one manufactory, 303 houses, 39 depots, 4 oil and ammunition depots, 111 buildings, and 11 enemy headquarters damaged.
7. 31466 enemy officers and soldiers killed; one Division Commander injured, and 5581 horses killed.
8. Cities bombed 188 times, 136 villages destroyed, 73 damaged.
9. 19 radio stations destroyed; 80 railway stations and automobile stations destroyed, 16 damaged; 54 motor pools destroyed, 4 damaged; 16 repair workshops destroyed; 91 stores destroyed, 13 damaged; 1199 drums of gasoline burnt: one water tank and one anti-aircraft tower damaged.
10. 24 communications bags, banknotes amounting \$700,000 NC, and 8 packages of maps dropped.

From the above tables, it is obvious that the fighting strength of the CAF was greatly increased, that combats became more violent, and that results of such combats improved day by day. According to statistical figures, the operational sorties in 1944 amounted to 8236 but the total sorties of the past seven years prior to 1944 amounted to 3232, less than half of the figure for 1944. It can, therefore, be taken for granted that the operational sorties in 1945 will be greatly increased.

The above-mentioned operational results of the CAF, in comparison with those of the United States are poor. However, if we take one aircraft, one personnel, or one unit of equipment as the basis of comparison with the United States we shall realise that the accomplishments of the CAF during the past years are by no means unsatisfactory. Of course, all of these achievements should be attributed to the able leadership of the supreme commander and, further, to the bravery and sacrifice of CAF personnel.

Regarding the loss and sacrifices of CAF in combats during the past few years, Table III provides the requisite data.

The training and expansion of the CAF in the past few years has been extremely difficult with heavy losses sustained. Nearly half of the CAF personnel were either injured or killed, having bravely dedicated themselves to the salvation of China.

Let us now examine the present state of the CAF. It consists of:

1. One Bomber Group and two Fighter Groups. (First Line Strength)
2. One Bomber Group and two Fighter Groups under command of CACW. (80 percent of the said Wing are CAF personnel)
3. One Heavy Bomber Group.
4. One Reconnaissance Squadron.
5. One Training Unit.
6. One Air Transport Squadron.

Needless to say, the total strength of all CAF units lags far behind

TABLE III. STATISTICS AND PERCENTAGES OF YEARLY CASUALTIES IN OPERATIONS OF CAF OFFICERS

<i>Item</i> <i>Year</i>	<i>Original Personnel</i>	<i>Increased Personnel</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Wounded</i>	<i>Killed</i>	<i>Percentage of Wound</i>	<i>Percentage of Killed</i>	<i>Actual No. of Personnel at end of year</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
1937 (Aug.-Dec.)	933	420	1353	122	111	13.07%	11.89%	1242	
1938	1242	151	1393	214	111	17.23%	8.94%	1282	
1939	1282	191	1473	142	60	11.07%	4.68%	1413	
1940	1413	307	1720	136	78	9.62%	5.52%	1642	
1941	1642	223	1865	90	68	5.48%	4.14%	1797	
1942	1797	86	1883	49	75	2.27%	4.17%	1808	
1943	1808	165	1973	20	81	1.11%	4.48%	1892	
1944	1892	430	2322	55	104	2.91%	5.49%	2218	
1945 (Jan.-May)	2218	143	2361	56	41	2.52%	1.85%	2320	
GRAND TOTAL	Original Personnel	New Per- sonnel added 1937-May 1945	Total	Wounded	Killed	Actual No. of Personnel ending May 1945	Percentage of Wounded	Percentage of killed	
	933	2116	3049	884	729	2320	27.05%	23.9%	

those of the U.S. 8th, 20th, and 21st Air Forces, which consist of thousands of aircrafts with which they have made themselves known in the global war. It cannot even keep pace with the U.S. 14th Air Force which has been stationed for years in China. From another point of view, however, the Chinese Air Force has been well equipped with new and efficient aircraft, such as P-51, B-24 and F-5, and the majority of CAF personnel are well trained in the United States. They possess excellent technique and a strong fighting spirit. It is, therefore, within the power of the CAF to crush an enemy, who is hardly able to defend himself.

II. TRAINING OF THE CHINESE AIR FORCE

Training and replacement of personnel is always essential to military reconstruction as well as for a war of resistance. Air force duties are exceedingly complex. Besides flying and technical duties, other items such as staff and ad-

ministrative work, communications, weather, and station management, etc. all require special training. Here is set forth a table showing the number of training schools already established and the number of cadet-officers and cadet NCO's at present: (See Table IV).

After our communication lines with the outside world were cut, the question of keeping our air force in full strength became very difficult, because of the transport problems relating to replacement supplies, especially of oils. It was therefore impossible for us to have a large scale training program, and we had to arrive at special agreements with our allies, whereby a large part of our cadet officers and men were sent to the U.S.A. for training, and the other part to India for further schooling. Training within China was mostly limited to ground schools on theoretical and practical courses. Here is set forth a table showing the training conditions abroad for the last 4-5 years: (See Table V)

TABLE IV. NUMBER OF CAF PERSONNEL TRAINED IN U.S.A.
October 1941—June 1946

Item	Air Service	Ground Service	Total	Mechanics	Grand Total
Personnel with training completed in U.S.A.	785	12	797	6	803
Personnel under training in U.S.A.	1520	237	1757	162	1919
Personnel en route to USA for training	984	700	1684	28	1712
Personnel under negotiation with U.S. Army Forces for training	3000	142	3142	250	3392
Total	6289	1091	7380	446	7826

Remarks:—In addition, 24 mechanics are en route to Great Britain for training.

TABLE V. CONDITION OF CAF TRAINING

Training Institutions		Number of Personnel Graduated			Remarks
		Number of Persons		Percentage under different categories	
The CAF Cadet Officers School	Bomber pilots ..	Cadet Officers	808	33.6%	1. From 1931 to May, 1945. 2. School first located at Kienkiao, Hangchow, moved to Kunming in 1937. The primary class moved to Lahore, India, in 1942 due to difficulty in obtaining supplies of oils and equipment. School HQ. moved to India at beginning of 1945. 3. Those who graduated from the primary class at Lahore, India, were 616 in number, but are not counted as graduates to avoid repetition, because they were given further training in higher classes.
	Fighter pilots	Cadet Officers	822	34.2%	
	Reconnaissance pilots .. .	Cadet Officers	161	6.69%	
	Attack pilots	Cadet Officers	17	0.77%	
	Recon.-Bombardier Class .. .	Cadet Officers	475	19.7%	
	Photography Officer Class .. .	Cadet Officers	55	2.29%	121
	Photography mechanics Class ..	Cadet NC Officers	66	2.75%	
CAF NCO School	Bomber Class	Cadet NC Officers	169	43.5%	390
	Fighter Class	Cadet NC Officers	221	56.5%	

Glider Training Class ..		Instructors	24	29%	82	1. From 1939 to May 1945. 2. Training suspended for the time being.
		Cadet Officers	58 217	71%		
Air Cadet School Tech. Section ..		Cadet Officers	—	100%	217	From 1931 to 1936.
		Cadet NC Officers				
CAF Technical School ..		Cadet Officers	1250	24.5%	5108	From the establishment on 16 March, 1936 to May, 1945.
		Cadet NC Officers	3858	75.5%		
CAF Communication School ..		Cadet Officers	650	46%	1414	From the establishment of the Communication Officers Training Class in 1937 to May 1945.
		Cadet NC Officers	764	54%		
Weather Training Class ..		Cadet Officers	140	22%	637	From 1940 to May 1945.
		Cadet NC Officers	497	78%		
CAF Staff Officers School	Staff Class	Cadet Officers	173	40.7%	425	From the establishment in 1940 to June, 1945.
	Sta. Train. Class	Cadet Officers	252	59.3%		
CAF Youngsters School ..		Students	202	100%	202	Attendants, at Graduation examination July, 1945.
Grand Total ..		Cadet Officers	5304	48.76%	10879	
		Cadet NC Officers	5575	51.24%		
Induction Training Center ..		Cadet Officers	2225	33%	6767	These personnel are not included in the grand total to avoid repetition, as they were given further training in the Technical School, Communications School, or Cadet Officers School after completion of their induction training.
		Cadet NC Officers	4542	67%		

TABLE VI. NUMBER OF CAF CADETS, CADET-OFFICERS AND N.C. OFFICERS UNDER TRAINING AT PRESENT
July 1945

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THE CHINESE AIR FORCE

Training Institutions		Number of personnel under training			Remarks
		Number of persons	Percentage under different categories	Total	
The C.A.F. Cadet Officers' School	Bomber pilots	Cadet Officers			Training in U.S.A.
	Fighter pilots	Cadet Officers			
	Reconnaissance pilots .. .	Cadet Officers			
	Primary Class	Cadet Officers	191	73.8%	
	Recon.-Bombardier Class ..	Cadet Officers	27	10.4%	
	Photography Officers Class ..	Cadet Officers	20	7.7%	
	Photography Mechanic Class ..	Cadet NC Officers	21	8.1%	
CAF Staff Officers School	Staff Officers Class	Cadet Officers	50	62.5%	The 9th of the Station Training Class already graduated; the specified number of cadet-officers for the 10th class is 30
	Station Training Class ..	Cadet Officers	30	37.5%	
CAF Technical School	Cadet Officers	798	40%	2000	See report of the school dated 17 June 1945
	Cadet NC Officers	1202	60%		
CAF Communications School .. .	Cadet Officers	215	45.8%	470	See report of the school dated 16 June 1945
	Cadet NC Officers	255	54.2%		
Weather Training Class	Cadet Officers	85	36.3%	234	
	Cadet NC Officers	149	63.7%		
CAF Youngsters School	Students	1649	100%	1649	
Induction Training Center .. .	Cadet Officers	1039	69.5%	1495	
	Cadet NC Officers	456	30.5%		
Grand Total	Cadet Officers	4104	66.33%	6187	
	Cadet NC Officers	2083	33.67%		

III. EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES OF THE AIR FORCE

Owing to reasons mentioned in the preceding sections, eighty or ninety per cent of our aviation equipments has to be procured from friendly nations. However, our existing factories have had some achievements (for example, the twin-engine transport designed by the Second Aeroplane factory has made experimental flights successfully and its characteristics are found good. A Cyclone 1100 H.P. Star type engine constructed by our own Engine Factory founded in September 1945 has had good test runnings, and more engines

are being manufactured), but their productive capacity is limited. Other enterprises for the production of oxygen, parachutes, dropping chutes, belly tanks, plywood, fabric coverings, electrical equipments and instruments and spare parts have also been undertaken although basic problems of production are still left unsolved. So under the present conditions, the replacement of our air force supplies depends largely on lend-lease.

Since 1937, the aeroplanes which we have procured from the U.S.S.R. through purchases and from the U.S.A. on Lend-Lease are listed in the following tables:

TABLE VII. (A) AEROPLANES PROCURED FROM THE U.S.S.R.

Classi- fication	Aeroplanes Taken Over		Remarks
	Type	Quantity	
Pursuit	E-15	272	Eight of them belong to Ining Training Squadron and twelve belonged to Russian Volunteer Groups
	E-15 III	75	
	E-16	142	Eight of them belong to Ining Training Squadron
	E-16 III	74	
Bomber	S.B.	192	Ten of them belong to Ining Training Squadron
	S.B. III	100	
	D.B. III	24	
	T.B. III	6	
TOTAL		885	

TABLE VII. (B) COMBAT AEROPLANES PROCURED FROM U.S.A. ON LEND-LEASE

Year	Classification	Leased Quantity		Total	Actually Taken Over		Total	Remarks
1941	Pursuits	P-43	125	269	P-43	51	130	
"	"	P-66	144		P-66	79		
"	Light Bombers	A-29	33	33	A-29	19	19	
	TOTAL ..			302		149		
1942	Pursuits	P-40E	600	600	P-40E	25	25	
"	Transports	AT-7	8	20	AT-7	5	16	
"	"	C-43	10		C-43	9		
"	"	C-53	2		C-53	2		
	TOTAL ..			620		41		
1943	Pursuits	P-40N	300	300	P-40N	252	267	22 P-40N's for O.T.U. Training, 11 withheld by USAF
"	"				P-40N	15		
"	Medium Bombers	B-25	48	48	B-25	58	58	11 additional including one crash- ed en route were released by U.S.
"	Transports	C-47	7	7	C-47	7	7	
	TOTAL ..			355		332		

(Continued on next page)

1944	Pursuits	P-40N	326	326	P-40N	25	25	11 withheld by USAF
"	Medium Bombers	B-25	134	218				Part of the planes arrived in India but all were withheld by USAF
"	Heavy Bombers	B-24	84					
"	Reconnaissance	F-5	37	37				
"	Transports	C-47	9	9	C-47	2	2	
	TOTAL			590			27	
1945	Pursuits	P-51	624	624	P-51 P-40N	48 13	61	
"	Medium Bombers	B-25	307	361	B-25	15	52	all the thirty seven B-24 planes are in India
"	Heavy Bombers	B-24	54		B-24	37		
"	Reconnaissance	F-5	22	22	F-5	14	14	
"	Transports	C-47	25	25	C-47	9	9	Another one presented to the Generalissimo
	TOTAL			1032			136	
TOTAL	Pursuits			2119			548	
	Light Bombers			33			19	
	Medium Bombers			489			73	
	Heavy Bombers			138			37	
	Reconnaissance			59			14	
	Transports			61			34	
	GRAND TOTAL			2899			685	

1. Replacements for CACW were furnished by U.S.A. so omitted.
2. The column "Actually Taken Over" shows planes ferried over into China which could be used for combat operations. Trainers are not included.
3. Figures for 1945 are for the period ending 30 June, 1945.

The method of supplying American-made airplanes as well as other supplies to China (including oils, communication facilities, ammunition, vehicles and medical supplies, etc) is outlined in the "Agreement on Aeronautical Supplies and Equipment". They are generally transported, stored and delivered by the United States Army Air Force; such procedure has been of great assistance to us. From September 1944 to 10 June 1945, supplies from the United States totalled US\$2,832,951.96.

The main problem is transportation. Besides ill-developed internal transportation system, we are further beset by the problem of having to obtain our supplies from abroad. The CNAC (China National Aviation Corporation) has a fixed air tonnage (June and July) of 2500 tons per month, of which the air force shares 45 tons, about 1.8% of the total. An extra tonnage has also been fixed of 300 tons a month, and the Air Force may share 30 tons of it or 10% of the total. To the CNAC, these two items make a total tonnage of 2800 tons a month and of this total, 75 tons is allotted to the Air Force, about 2.68%. Now supplies for the CAF stockpiled in India amount to 4,500 odd tons. A monthly tonnage of 200 tons is required in order to meet replacement requirements. It is, therefore, apparent that the transportation facilities from India to China, even if employed for Air Force supplies alone, are hardly adequate. For instance, the total imports of gasoline for the month of May was 4,920,000 gallons while the ATC transports consumed 4,050,000 gallons.

Supplies having been replaced,

the next thing to do is maintaining and repairing. Maintenance and repair work are of a negative nature but are important tasks and need a certain amount of equipment and a sound plan. Repair work undertaken by the CAF since the outbreak of the War may be summarized in the following table: (Table VIII).

AEROPLANES REPAIRED BY THE
FACTORIES OF THE COAA
DURING RECENT YEAR

Year	Number of Aeroplanes repaired	Remarks
1937	272	From August 1937 to 30 June 1945
1938	1729	
1939	816	
1940	1141	
1941	1033	
1942	1188	
1943	949	
1944	1074	
1945	539	
TOTAL	8741	

The Chinese Air Force now possess eight aeroplane repair factories, and six workshops. We are planning to set up a number of units among the ground service groups.

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE POLICY

A. Staff Work

1. **The Replacement of Aircraft Parts.**—As we are behind other countries in the field of industry, the new type planes cannot be produced by ourselves without assistance from others. We therefore can only procure them through business channels from other countries during this transition period. There are three ways to obtain them:

- a. Mainly from the U.S.A. on a new lend lease agreement.

- b. Purchase or lease from Great Britain whatever the United States does not have.
- c. If both the United States and Great Britain have certain new types of planes and the former refuse to loan or lend them to us, we should obtain them from Great Britain through purchase or lend-lease.

2. The CAF Expansion Program.

—Acting upon the tentative plan of General C. L. Chennault, Chief of Air Staff, as a nucleus for the expansion of the CAF, the number of aircraft in the Chinese Air Force will be increased to 343 in 1945. In 1946, in addition to what we have in 1945, the CAF will have three fighter groups with 144 planes, two medium bomber groups with 96 planes, three recon. squadrons with 33 planes and three air transport squadrons with 54 planes. By the end of 1946, it is estimated that the CAF will have 670 first line planes (i.e. the second period of plan for expansion of the Chinese Air Force will have been attained.)

3. System of Control, Equipment, Supply, Training and Maintenance.—Because the air force of our country is still in its infancy, this system has naturally to be improved from every angle. As a result of the close coordination of the different components of the American air force, it has, as far as we have found, indeed achieved the greatest efficacy. Now that the Americans are fighting shoulder to shoulder with us, and in order to defeat our common foe

and complete the construction of our air force, we ought to adopt all their good systems; our defects have to be corrected, and harmonious cooperation attained, in the same way as the China Combat Command.

4. The Separation of Combat Areas between the Chinese and U.S. Air Forces.—For the sake of establishing a smooth command centre and an orderly supply system in such a vast area as China, the bases of the Chinese Air Force are mostly situated north of the Yangtze River, and those of the U.S. air force are mostly situated south of the Yangtze River. Combat responsibility is accordingly separated.

5. Strengthening of Air Transportation.—The Chinese Air Force has only one air transport squadron (9 C-54's) now at its disposal. In order to strengthen the air transportation of the CAF and to pave the way for the post-war development of civil aviation, we should spare no efforts in expanding our air transportation system. According to the "Chinese Air Force Expansion Program for 1946," the end of that year should see our air transport squadron expanded to an air transport group, consisting of four transport squadrons with 46 planes.

B. Training

I. Planning to lay the foundation of the Chinese Air Force by the use of the United States Air Force supplies, equipment, technicians, and personnel available after the War.

Proposal I: Consolidation of the Chinese Air Force with the full

assistance from the United States.

a. **Chief Aim:**—Taking the training systems of the USAAF schools as our standard, we shall have to establish the following new schools:

(1) Three Primary Flying Schools.

(2) Two Basic Training Schools.

(3) One Advanced Pursuit Training School.

(4) Two Advanced Bombardment Training Schools.

(5) One Tactical Research School.

(6) One Glider Transport Training School.

(7) O.T.U. Units (including one each of day pursuit, night pursuit, medium bomber, heavy bomber, air transport, photography reconnaissance, glider transport etc.)

(8) One Navigation Training School.

(9) One Bombardier Training School.

(10) One Gunnery School.

(11) One Observers Training School.

(12) One Technical School.

(13) One Signal School.

b. **Sources of Supply and Order of Establishment:**—

(1) **Source of Supply:** We shall carry out all the training plans and provide ourselves with instructors and technicians through the Sino-American Lend-Lease Agreement or through loans from USA. Before doing so, we shall first submit our requests to the U.S.

Government. This plan will begin when our sea ports are opened and when both internal and external transportation and facilities are available for aviation supplies.

(2) **Order of Establishment:** All the schools mentioned above will be established in the following order:

(a) Flying schools of different grades.

(b) O.T.U. Organization, Navigation, Bombardier and Gunnery Schools.

(c) The Signal School.

(d) The Technical School.

(e) The Tactical School.

(f) The Glider Training School.

(g) The Observers Training School.

Proposal II: Should the first proposal be vetoed by the U.S. Government, we shall have to purchase through ordinary commercial channels all the materials and equipments relative to the reconstruction of the air force. We shall then have to employ American crews and technicians, who have retired from the U.S.A.A.F., in which case the plan will be carried out in the following manner:

a. **Chief Aim:**—We shall have to depend on our own ability and available assets for the purchase of needed materials and equipments from the USA, so as to re-establish the Primary, Basic, and Advanced Flying Schools (with the objective of turning out 300 trained pilots for different types of aircraft every year). Bomb-

ardier, Navigation and Gunnery Schools shall then be successively established according to circumstances.

b. Sources of Supply and order of Establishment:

(1) Sources of Supply. Apart from making use of the equipment and materials left in the China Theater by USAAF after the cessation of hostilities, we should purchase from the U.S. Government and airplane manufacturers all types of training planes and other aviation equipment. Furthermore, the services of technical experts must necessarily be obtained.

(2) Order of Establishment:

(a) Strengthening the Primary, Basic, and Advanced Flying Schools with 892 trainers and all the necessary training equipments.

(b) Pursuit, Bombardment, Photography and Reconnaissance OTU training organizations, to be organized in the following way:

1.—Purchasing a number of B-24's, B-25's, F-51's, F-5's and C-47's (sufficient for one squadron each) which are left by USAAF in the China Theater (including accessories and ground facilities and equipment).

2.—Re-organizing the B-24's, B-25's, P-51's, F-5's, C-47's we have at present into one squadron each for use of OTU training.

(3) Advanced or refresher training on new techniques and tactics to be given to the present experienced air and ground crews.

(a) **Air Service:** 160 pilots were assigned to B-24 refresher training of whom 66 have already completed the course. 158 pilots were assigned to B-25 refresher training; 80 assigned to P-51 refresher training and 180 to non-pilot crew members training. It has been decided that all of them shall complete their courses next year, i.e. 1946.

(b) **Group Service:** Apart from having sent 250 technical, signal, weather and photography personnel to the United States for training, we are continuing to send 849 more. They will have finished their courses next year, i.e. 1946.

(4) Re-organization of the Air Force Training System—During the period of China's Air Force rehabilitation after the war, the Staff, Flying Officers, Technical, Signal and CAF Preparatory Schools and Recruit Training Center, Glider Training Class, Recon-Bombardier Training Class, are all subject to readjustments and thorough improvements.

(a) **The Air Force Staff Academy:** An Air Force College will be established instead of the Air Force Staff Academy upon which the future of the Chinese Air Force will be built. The training period will be two years and the courses will be expanded and materially improved.

(b) **Flying Officer School:**

1. To remove the Primary Class and the School Headquarters to China.

2. To establish basic and advanced flying training classes.

3 To establish OTU organization.

4 To make preparations for establishing the first and the second primary flying training schools and the second, and the third basic and advanced flying schools.

(c) The Air Force Technical School:

(1) In addition to the various kinds of training mentioned, refresher training for the technical classes will be put into effect with a view to obtaining adequate instructors for all classes.

(2) Establishment of branch schools: Plans to coincide with that of the Air Force Technical School.

(d) CAF Preparatory School:

(1) This School is ready to move to the new site of Government and construct new school buildings.

(2) To renew the "Three-Three" System for the junior and senior departments and to extend the number of school years so as to improve the standard of education.

(3) To increase the enrolment of new pupils to 1,000 for each term.

(e) Air Force Recruits Training Center.

(1) The Recruits Centre at Tungliang at present is to remove to North China after the war.

(2) The Air Force Recruit Camp will be formed instead, and expanded to two Groups. Officer cadets and NCO cadets will be given training separately.

(3) While in the camp various military courses pertaining to the Air Force will be given.

(f) The Glider Training Class:

(1) To establish at Kweilin or Liuchow Glider Instructors Training Classes.

(2) To establish primary, basic and advanced classes and improve the training facilities.

(3) To organize Glider Units and give Gliders OTU training.

(g) The Navigation and Bombardier Schools:

(1) To establish Air Navigation-Bombardier Schools.

(2) To train instructors and assistant instructors.

d. Before the end of the World War II, new air and ground crews should be continuously trained in order to supplement and expand our combat strength.

(a) In connection with the air service, it is contemplated to continue to send the following personnel to the United States for training:

(1) 512 airmen and 720 non-pilot crew members to supplement casualties.

(2) 1333 crew members will be needed for additional units in 1946. A total number of 2565 trainee personnel (including 1109 airmen and 1456 non-pilot crew members) will be required for the air service.

(b) In connection with the ground service, the number of instructors to be trained is fixed as follows:

(1) We have sent 250 technical, signal, weather, and photography personnel.

for training in the U.S.A. Besides, 849 more are being sent.

- (2) In China, 3234 personnel are undergoing refresher training.
- (3) According to the plan, there will be 1712 graduates in 1946 from the Technical School.
- (4) From the Signal School, 1628 personnel will graduate in 1946.

The above-mentioned ground service personnel add up to a grand total of 7613.

C. Mechanical Work:

I. AERONAUTICAL INDUSTRY PLAN

The Chinese Air Force has outlined an Aeronautical Industry Plan with the purpose of building up independence of supply, maintenance and replacement of equipment and material. The general outline is as follows:

Year, 1944:

Year of planning

Work in Progress:

Planning and making preparations.

Main items:

- a. Work out the plan and determine its direction and extent.
- b. Select types of aircraft for future manufacture, and negotiate for patents.
- c. Send personnel, chosen by competitive examinations, to America for apprenticeship.
- d. Prepare the foreman's training at home.

Explanations to:

- a. Take the manufacture of one thousand aircraft as unit planned. Aircraft engine and air technical accessories and materials etc. to be built by this Commission; common and non-technical materials to be supplied by other subsidiary organizations.

Year, 1945:

First year of Preparation.

Work in Progress:

Preparations and training.

Main Items:

- a. Purchase patents from the United States and Great Britain.
- b. Design factory, purchase the plant, and build a simple factory.
- c. Continue to send apprentices abroad.
- d. Start the training of foremen and designers at home.
- e. Make preparations regarding non-technical material with organizations concerned.

Explanations to:

- a. Patents of Merlin engine and Mosquito aircraft should be bought from Great Britain; that of P-51 pursuits, DC-3 transports and medium bombers from the United States.
- b. Designing of factories is proceeding in America. Instrument and plastics factory of primary model have started.
- c. 172 personnel have already been sent to America ending last year and 200 more will be sent over this year; 24 personnel have gone to Great Britain this year and another 36 will be sent over.

d. The 2nd and 3rd Factories expect to train 1000 foremen each and the engine Factory will train 500. The 2nd and 3rd have begun to train 250 each and are continuing the enrolment of the remainder. Both the 1st and the 2nd Factories have just started training of 35 designers each. The engine factory has already begun the training of 500 personnel.

e. Negotiations on aluminium, duralumin and alloy steel etc. are proceeding with the National Resources Commission. The questions of electrical equipment and arms are being discussed with the organizations concerned.

Year, 1946:

Second year of Preparation.

Work in Progress:

Training and Construction.

Main Items:

a. Foreign Trained designers will design new type Aircraft suitable for conditions in China.

b. Continue negotiations with American and British factories for purchase of patents.

c. Continue the design and begin the construction of factories.

d. Purchase factory machines and plants to be imported to China from time to time.

e. Continue negotiations with organizations concerned regarding non-technical materials.

f. Continue the training of foremen and designers at home.

Explanations to:

c. Locations of self-operated factories of COAA have been

settled; sites will be selected and constructions commenced next year.

Year, 1947:

Third year of Preparation.

Work in Progress:

Training and Construction

Main Items:

a. Foreign trained designers to complete designing of new types of aircraft.

b. To establish factories at home and equip them with machinery.

c. To complete training of personnel in foreign countries and foreman training at home.

d. Conserve and contract for raw material for manufacture of factory equipment.

Year, 1948:

Year of Production.

Work in Progress:

Primary Production.

Main Items:

a. It is contemplated to produce 150 standard aircraft, equivalent to 1950 tons. As it is the first year of production, the quantity is only half of the normal producing quantity that corresponds to the following numbers of aircraft. (total 500 aircraft) on different types:

(1) Pursuits	175
(2) Medium Bombers ..	75
(3) Transports	50
(4) Basic Trainers	50
(5) Primary Trainers ..	125
(6) T/E Trainers	25
(7) Experimental Aircraft	

Explanations to:

(2) For convenience of estimation, the twin engine Medium Bombers are taken as standard

aircraft and are so called temporarily.

(4) No patents for the manufacture of trainers will be purchased but shall be copied.

Year, 1949:

Year of Production.

Work in Progress:

Normal Production.

Main Items:

a. It is contemplated to produce 300 standard aircraft equivalent to 3700 tons, that corresponds to 1000 aircraft of the above types.

b. Prepare to increase the yearly production up to 600 of the above standard aircraft (corresponding to 2000 aircraft of various types).

2. REPLACEMENT, MAINTENANCE AND REPAIR OF EQUIPMENT

a.—Replacements of Aviation

Supplies: According to the Plan for the Expansion of the Chinese Air Force in 1946, the Second Period, three Pursuit Groups, two Medium Bomber Groups, three Reconnaissance Squadrons and three Air Transport Squadrons will be added. Consequently, the following replacements are scheduled.

(1) **Spare Parts for Aircraft and Engines:** As it is impossible to ascertain the types of aircraft that may be obtained on loan best year, requests for supplies can only be made to the U.S. Army Forces on the following principles:

(a) All the spares and supplies that are required for the first and second echelon maintenance.

(b) All the spares and sup-

plies that are required for repairing aircraft engines for the third and fourth echelon maintenance.

(2) **Unit Equipment:** For the aforesaid additional air force units requisitions according to U.S. Army standard have already been submitted.

(3) **Equipment for Aircraft Repair:** According to the Plan of Expansion for 1946, the repairing organizations of this Commission will be converted into five Air Depots and two Service Groups. Requisitions for the necessary equipment for these units have already been submitted to the U.S.A.A.F.

(4) **Supplies for Aircraft Repair:** Requisitions according to the rate of consumption, and under the U.S. Army classification and serial number have already been submitted.

(5) **Lists of general hand tools** have already been requisitioned.

(6) **Machinery of Factories Replacements** for the first and second airplane factories have been listed for requisition as required.

b. Changes in the Supply and Maintenance System:

(1) **Supply system:** Of the eight supply depots at present, only the Union Depot has adopted the American System. The system of the other seven will be changed next year on the following plans:

(a) Changing into the U.S. Army system of supplies will necessitate two steps. The first is to change our system of grouping, numbering and registering of the materials and equipment in the depots, while the second is to adopt an auto-

matic system with respect to releases of materials and equipment in each Depot.

(b) The new system will be carried out in different stages: All depots are not able to carry out the new system simultaneously owing to the fact that training of personnel is still incomplete. The Second General Depot has commenced operations on the new system in April 1945 and this change is expected to be completed at the end of September. The Third Route Depot expects to start the new system in September and to complete it in March 1946. The rest will adopt the new system gradually with the increase in the number of trained personnel and it is expected to complete the change in June next year.

(2) **Maintenance System** At present, there are eight repair factories and five work shops. The work shops will first be converted into two Service Groups

by the end of 1945, partly on the American system, (each group will be responsible for two Air Force Groups). The rest will be converted entirely by next year in accordance with the following plans:

(a) Convert the present repair factories and work shops into five Air Depots and two Service Groups. The former will be responsible for the air base repair work while the latter will be responsible for mobile work.

(b) Carry out the new system in different stages. It is difficult to carry it out simultaneously within a specified time when training of personnel is still incomplete and enough equipment has not been obtained on loan. The existing repair factories will first be gradually converted in January 1946 into Air Depots according to the American system, and later, between April and November 1946 they will be adjusted as two air depots and two service groups.

CHAPTER XXI

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

LIU FEI (劉斐)*

INTRODUCTION

For five years since the Loukou-chiao incident, the Chinese armed forces engaged the enemy in a war of attrition according to a pre-conceived strategic plan, thus subjecting the enemy to huge losses in men and materials, besides tying up more than 1,000,000 enemy troops on our soil. As the struggle against aggression entered its sixth year, Japan, to implement her policy of dominating the Pacific, began her drive in the South Pacific and launched a surprise attack on our Allies in concerted action with Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy. To facilitate the operations of the Allies, we on our part harassed the enemy's enormous military forces on our land, while redoubling our effort in reorganizing and training new armies preparatory to a general counter-offensive.

After 1943 we incessantly dealt the enemy severe blows, thus shattering Japan's dream of completing a communication line through the Asiatic continent and preventing her from her march on Chungking.

In the spring of 1944, the Chinese expeditionary forces, combined with the Chinese troops stationed

in India, launched a counter-attack in North Burma and opened up the India-China highway. This made it possible for U.S. war supplies to be transported to China both by land and by air.

In the early summer of 1945, the Chinese troops part of which were equipped with U.S. armament started their counter-offensive on the southern front. Everywhere enemy troops suffered defeat, and the Chinese recovered successively Liuchow and Kweilin in Kwangsi.

All of a sudden, when the Chinese were on the point of dealing a *coup de grace* to enemy troops in Kwangtung and Kwangsi and were ready to push to the north, Japan surrendered unconditionally to the Allies on August 9, 1945, thus ending World War II.

To summarize, since 1943 the Chinese have fought 2,300 battles and skirmishes and the enemy has suffered 569,000 casualties at our hands. The following pages will treat of the important engagements only.

I. THE NORTH WAR ZONE

A. The Battle in North Kiangsu and the East of the Hui River (February 14 to March 17, 1943).

For the purpose of seizing the Chinese guerrilla bases and safe-

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guarding the occupied areas with their puppet regimes, the Japanese gathered about 30,000 men, including the main force of their 12-BS unit, part of their 17-D unit and four puppet army divisions, to the east of Huian and Paoying for an offensive at the beginning of February, 1943. Action commenced on February 14, when the enemy attacked the Chinese bases in North Kiangsu and to the east of the Hui River.

The enemy used their main force to attack Fenku and Chuchiao while part of their troops fell upon Gingkao, where they engaged in severe fighting with the main force of the Chinese 89-A unit. On February 16, another column of Japanese forces infiltrated into the vicinity of the Chinese bases for outflanking action. As fighting thus proceeded, the Chinese forces were falling deep into encirclement by the enemy. On the evening of February 17, with a part of the troops clinging to several strongholds, the main force of the Chinese 89-A unit broke through the siege to the northeast of Liensui. Meanwhile, the 112-D unit also broke through the encirclement, heading for a point to the northwest. Repeatedly attacked by enemy and puppet troops on the way and ambushed by non-government Chinese troops and bandits here and there, the retreating Chinese troops suffered heavy casualties. On March 8 the 112-D unit had passed through the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and was heading for Fuyang for the replenishment of supplies, while the main force of the 89-A unit was fortunate enough to join the 6-BS unit at the moment when

both munitions and food were exhausted after the hard battles in the Hui Shih basin. After more than a month's hard fighting the troops were no longer in trim. Nevertheless, in order to get reinforcements and to make up for their losses, they made their way westward with the 89-A unit as the vanguard. Unfortunately, on March 17 they encountered the Chinese N-4-A unit on the way and severe fighting for a whole day ensued. Meanwhile, more than 3,000 Japanese in Ch'unshingchi composed of cavalry, artillery and infantry units again assailed our Hui Shih basin. It was not until after the misunderstanding between the N-4-A unit and the other Chinese troops was finally removed that the various units of the troops got their connections and succeeded in building up a new defense line.

During this battle the Chinese troops suffered over 4,000 casualties, including two brigadier generals, while the Japanese and the puppet armies recorded 5,000 casualties.

B. The Battle of the Tai Hing Mountain.

In the mid-summer of 1943 the Chinese troops under General Ma Fa-wu were ordered to cross the Yellow River to the south to obtain food supplies. The Japanese, getting this information, mustered more than 6,000 troops to attack the Tai Hing Mountain areas for the purpose of hammering a mid-way surprise blow upon General Ma Fa-wu's army. A severe battle ensued at Laokweishu, Tahuchen and Mawuchai when the Japanese met General Liu's unit, whose

duty was to cover the rear of the whole army of General Ma. The fight caused heavy casualties on both sides. However, General Liu's unit completed its mission to safeguard the whole army's crossing of the Yellow River and the enemy withdrew to their original positions without any gain.

On July 9 the Japanese again launched a great attack concentrating 10,000 men from their 35-D and 36-D units and several thousand puppet troops under the protection of 2,000 airplanes. General Liu's men, after a series of severe battles, were exhausted and confronted with a shortage of food and munitions. The Japanese, with a superior military force, launched attacks in a number of directions, disrupting the ranks of the Chinese army in the Tai Hing Mountain and causing them to fight in separate groups. On July 10 General Liu led his men to break through the encirclement and, reaching Kaochen, Yangchen, Kinchen and Hukwang, General Liu once more gathered his scattered men to continue the guerilla fighting behind the enemy. On the other hand, the Chinese 8-RD unit in the vicinity of Linchuan and Peipingshun suffered heavy losses as they were sandwiched by the Japanese and the Communist troops. General Cheng, Army Commander, was wounded and taken prisoner by the Communists. The losses sustained by this 8-RD unit was very heavy, and consequently it was ordered to withdraw to the north bank of the Yellow River to recuperate. When, on August 1, the Japanese withdrew to their original positions, General Liu's men

again went southward on August 3, only to be attacked all the way by the Communist troops under the command of Tong Chi-ming. On August 19 they reached the area south of Tseyuan, where they succeeded in crossing the Yellow River with the help of reinforcements. But one corps of the rear-guard was forced by the Communist troops to turn eastward. Finally they crossed the river via Wenh sien on September 8. After the crossing General Liu's army still numbered over 10,000, but they had lost most of their armament.

II. THE CENTRAL WAR ZONE

A. The Battle of the Ta Pieh Mountain (December 19, 1942 to January 13, 1943)

On December 18, 1942, a Japanese plane carrying General Tsukata Kazoku, Commander of the Japanese Forces in Central China, from Nanking to Hankow, was shot down by Chinese troops over Taihu Lake. In an attempt to search for the lost Japanese plane and, at the same time, to destroy the Chinese military bases in the Ta Pieh Mountain area, the Japanese mustered over 20,000 men on December 19, 1942 and launched a punitive offensive upon the Chinese military bases in the mountain area.

The Japanese 3-D unit, numbering some 15,000 men, stationed at Luichi, Sinchow and Chungpu, started to move in several directions. They captured Lotien and Yingsan on December 25 and Macheng on December 29. On January 1, 1943, the Japanese who had occupied Lotien and Yingsan made a surprise advance and succeeded in capturing Lihuang. After

reaching Yehchiachi on the 5th of the same month, they sent the main force to the southwest to occupy Shanchen in conjunction with the other branch of the Japanese troops heading northward from Machen. The remaining Japanese captured Kuoshi on January 6.

To maintain their stronghold in the Ta Pieh Mountain area, the Chinese thoroughly destroyed communication lines which might be used against themselves. Besides employing some troops to badger the enemy from the rear, they gathered the 84-A and the 39-A units to counter-attack the advancing Japanese. They staged a counter-offensive on January 3, after they had completed preparations for a favorable outer fighting zone.

On January 7 the 172-D and the 173-D units recaptured Lihuang while the main forces—the 39-A and the 84-A units—besieged Shanchen. When the enemy fled to Kwangsan and Huangchuan, the Chinese troops followed, in hot pursuit. On January 8 the Chinese recaptured Kuoshi and, on the 11th of the same month they recaptured Kwangchuan and Kwangsan. On the same day, over 1,000 Japanese troops in Sinyang moved eastward to Losan in an attempt to give aid to the Japanese troops retreating southward. On January 12 the Chinese occupied Losan, while the Japanese fled to Sinyang.

As for the Yangtze River area, some 3,000 men of the Japanese 68-D unit started their drive from Chichun and Wenkiang, occupying Wangmei, Kwangchi and Sohsoong

on December 24. They captured Taihu on December 25, and Chisan on the following day. The Chinese, however, having concentrated the 178-D and the 176-D units, launched a counter-attack on December 27 which resulted in the recapture of Taihu and Chisan. The Japanese made a southward advance on the same day. They reoccupied Yingsan and, on the following day, continued their northward drive.

There was also fighting around Tungchen as the Chinese recaptured the city on January 6, after it had fallen into the hands of the Japanese 116-D unit on December 26. On January 11 the Chinese main force—the 46-A, recovered Taihu, pressing the enemy back to Anching and Sohsoong. The pre-war situation along this front was resumed when the Chinese late in December, recaptured in succession such cities as Sohsoong, Wangmei and Kwangchi.

B. Battle in West Hupeh (May 5 to June 21, 1943).

To open navigation in the upper reaches of the Yangtze River, to crush the Chinese ground forces in the Six War Zone, and to open the way to China's wartime capital for further advance to the west, Japan massed seven divisions, numbering about 100,000 men, at Ich'ang, Mitusze and Ouchikou at the end of April, 1943, for a general drive upon west Hupeh. Action commenced on May 5, 1943.

A part of the Japanese troops, after breaking through the defense line of the Chinese 29-AD unit, pushed to the south, while the main force of the enemy closed

in for a pivot assault on the Chinese strongholds at Shupeï, together with its neighboring areas. On May 7, 1943, both Nanhsien and Anhsiang fell into the hands of the Japanese. Nevertheless, the Chinese main force—the 10-AG unit—and the Chinese river defense forces did their best to check the advance of the enemy and inflicted heavy losses upon them.

From May 13 to May 26 the enemy occupied successively Kungan, Chikiang, It'u and Chang-yuan. When the Japanese who were pressing westward met another column of their own men in the vicinity of Shupeï and Yuyangkwan, the latter was also making a drive on Singan from Wongchiachang. Seeing that the moment had come for the carrying out of a preconceived plan to annihilate the enemy in the mountainous areas, the Chinese sent the main strength of the river defense forces, the entire 10-AG unit and the 79-A unit to attack Yuyangkwan from Shumon, with the 74-A heading for Wongchiachang from Shumon. The date for a decisive battle had been fixed at June 1, 1943.

Assaulted by the various units of the Chinese troops, the Japanese suffered heavy casualties. On June 2 the whole defense line of the Japanese began to collapse. The next day the Chinese troops gave full chase to the enemy, capturing within the narrow outskirts of the city of It'u part of the Japanese 13-D unit and the 17-BS unit. In addition, the Chinese encircled part of the enemy 13-D unit in Moshih. Meanwhile, the

Chinese 74-A and 29-AG units, having recaptured Anhsiang and Singan, also pushed to Kungan.

Remnants of the Japanese 45-D unit fled to Ouchikou and Shih-shu, while remnants of the Japanese 3-D, 6-D, 34-D and 39-D units, in fear of their lives, hurriedly crossed the Yangtze River via Ich'ang and Hunghwatao. On June 5 the Chinese killed most of the Japanese in Moshih and tightened the ring of encirclement in It'u. On June 8 the Japanese on the north bank of the Yangtze River crossed to the south bank to attack the flank of the Chinese troops who were then besieging It'u, thus freeing the encircled Japanese, who escaped to the east. That same day the Chinese recaptured It'u, however, and on June 9 liberated Chikiang, on June 11, Yangchi and Soongchi, and on June 14, Kungan. Then they hurled their strength against Ouchikou and Mitusze, and ended the campaign against the enemy's westward drive by returning to their original positions.

C. Battle In Changteh, Hunan

(Nov. 2 to Dec. 17, 1943)

On November 2, 1943, the Japanese massed a military force of seven divisions, numbering 100,000 men, from other fields to rally at such areas as Hwayung, Soongtze and Kianglin in an attempt to cut off connection between Hunan and Hupeh Provinces. At a time when the Allies were preparing a counter-offensive in the southeast Pacific and when Generalissimo Chiang was conferring with Premier Churchill and President Roosevelt in Cairo, the Japanese took this step with a view to achieving a re-

gional success to distract the world's attention from their woeful failure in western Hupeh in June, 1943.

Breaking the defense of the Chinese 29-AG unit, the Japanese occupied Nansien on November 3, Kungan on November 4 and Soongtze on November 5. After crossing the Soongtze River, they pressed westward in several directions. However, as their main force turned southward from Kungan and entered the neighborhood of Nuanshuichieh and Wangchia-chang on November 8, they met with strong resistance on the part of the Chinese 79-A unit. Meanwhile, the Chinese main force—the 10-AG unit—moved to Nuanshuichieh to join the Chinese 29-AG unit in hammering at the enemy in areas north of the Li River. Their efforts to wipe out the enemy were handicapped, however, by a heavy rain which lasted a whole day.

On November 10 the Japanese occupied Anhsiang and menaced Lihsien while their 39-D and 58-D units began defensive action at Hoping and the Chihchi River, where they were employed to safeguard the communication lines at the rear.

The main force of the enemy continued to drive south, although the Chinese main force—the 10-AG unit—followed close at their heels. Feeling the threat behind them, the Japanese ordered the troops, which had reached a point north of Shumen, to turn back to the north. The Chinese at Shumen and Lihsien, however, arrived in the north ahead of the enemy. Nevertheless, Japanese reinforcements arrived on November 11 to

help take over Shumen and Chinglin from the Chinese. It was at this time that the Central Government troops turned their attention to Changteh in Hunan Province.

The Chinese 74-A and 100-A units were ordered to rally near Changteh to deal the enemy severe blows. The 10-A unit was also ordered to Changteh, while the 18-A unit proceeded from Santuping to Chingli.

On November 21 Japanese paratroopers made a surprise entry into Taoyuan, and on November 24 Japanese forces reached the suburbs of Changteh. On the same day the Chinese 73-A unit recaptured Chili. By November 26 the Chinese troops had organized their outer war zones and tightened rings of encirclement around the Japanese. On November 26, the Japanese who had occupied Taoyuan joined their comrades in fighting for the city of Changteh. Not making any headway, they moved back their heavy weapons.

On November 30 the Chinese 16-A unit occupied Tehsan and the south railway station in Changteh. Although they mopped up some of the Japanese troops, others, with the combined weapons of poison gas and artillery, captured Changteh for the first time on December 3. On the same day the Chinese regained Taoyuan.

As Chinese military headquarters reiterated a determination to defeat the Japanese at Changteh, the Chinese troops outside that city rapidly launched an attack and re-entered Changteh on November 8. Then, on the heels of

the enemy, they recaptured Nansien and Anhsien on December 22, Soongtze on the 23rd, and Kungm on the 25th.

In the Changteh battles the Japanese suffered over 40,000 casualties, including two division commanders—General Aka Shikatsuo of the 13-D unit and General Shita Yorishiro of the 39-D unit—and lost six airplanes. The Chinese also suffered 40,000 casualties, including three division commanders.

D. The Battle in Central Honan

(April 18 to June 17, 1944)

In order to open up the Peiping-Hankow Railway as a connecting link between the war zones in north and central China, the Japanese started repair work on the Yellow River Bridge in March and April, 1944, and mobilized from the battlefields of north-east China a total of seven divisions, a regiment of armored trucks, and over 100 airplanes, with a personnel of about 100,000 men. Thus enforced, they made an onslaught on central Honan in the middle of April, 1944.

The Japanese 37-D and 7-BS troops in Chungmao, divided into three branches, launched an attack on April 18 upon the Chinese river defense troops. Forcing their way across the Yellow River on April 19, they broke the Chinese river defense line and entered the areas north of Yenling and the neighborhood of Sincheng and Mihsien. With reinforcements of 10,000 men, they occupied Mihsien on April 21.

The Japanese 110-D troops in Monsantao, after bombarding the defense line of the Chinese 85-A

troops on April 19, succeeded in breaking through it on the 21st and entered Chanchow. After being reinforced by over 10,000 men, the enemy occupied Hsiyang.

In the meantime, while one branch moved southward to assail Mihsien, the main Japanese force proceeded west to meet the Chinese 4-AG troops along the battle line of the Szu River, Hoolookwan and Machutsen.

The Japanese who were heading for Mihsien were intercepted during their westward movement by Chinese 85-A troops. The counter-offensive, however, was staged by the Chinese main force—General Tong's division which pressed upon Mihsien. In the meantime the Chinese 38-A unit recovered Machutsen, and General Cheng Yulin's men swooped down upon Weisz. Thereupon the Japanese took to the defensive in the Soong Mountain chain and the areas to the northwest of Mihsien. Later Japanese reserves and mechanized units drove south from Kwangwu, entering Hsuchang, Yuhhsien and Shangchen. On April 30 they occupied Hsuchang, but both Yuhhsien and Shangchen had witnessed bitter fighting.

On May 3 the Japanese, with the help of mechanized units and under the protection of air force, infiltrated into Hsiahsien from Shangchen, whence they headed for Linyu. This maneuver isolated General Tong's division and threatened Lungmon. On May 5 both Shangchen and Yuhhsien were taken by the enemy, and in Yehhsien the latter also made an appearance. On the same day the cities of Paofeng and Dunfeng were also occupied by the Japanese.

Although the Chinese 4-AG and 9-A troops had repeatedly out-fought the Japanese, they were compelled to withdraw to Yen-shih and Loyang. Here their right wing was safe from attack by the enemy, but they were threatened from the rear.

On May 5 the Japanese troops in Lingan crossed the Yi River to attack Lungmon, while their comrades in Hsuchang took Luho and Yencheng. At the same time their compatriots in Sinyang drove northward and took Suiping and Chuehsan, thereby effecting a conjunction with the Japanese moving south from Hsuchang. The enemy finally succeeded in making connections along the entire Peiping-Hankow Railway.

To crush the Japanese in Lungmon and to safeguard the Chinese positions in Loyang, General Liu Szu's division was ordered to hold a line along Lungmon, Yichuan and Soonghsien to wait for an opportunity to counter-attack. The Chinese 15-A troops were to hold Loyang. Meanwhile, the 13-A and 85-A units of General Tong's division from Linglu gave chase to the enemy. On May 9 the Japanese made a surprise entry into the city of Lungmon and proceeded north. Without a mechanized force the troops of General Tong's division, who were moving westward, could not hem in the Japanese. When General Liu's division was engaged in hard fighting with the enemy, the Japanese in Yuanchu crossed the Yellow River. Breaking the defense line of the Chinese N-8-A troops, they pressed to Shengchi.

Feeling deeply the enemy menace from the rear, the Chinese troops in Loyang, Yen-shih and in areas

north of these two places altered their original plan to annihilate the Japanese in the vicinity of Lungmon and began to rearrange their defense line. The Chinese 4-AG troops were immediately ordered to proceed to Iyang as reinforcements. In addition, General Liu's men assembled in areas southeast of Shekling, ready to outflank the Japanese proceeding to Loyang or Loning from Shengchi.

On May 13 the Japanese gave up Yen-shih, while those in Shengchi, Lungmon and Yen-shih concentrated upon areas around Chiching. General Liu's division fought hard but had to retreat gradually to the south, where they were attacked from both sides. The Chinese troops near Shengchi also withdrew westward to Shenshek. The Chinese army in Loyang, having been isolated, fought at bay.

Chinese civilians and soldiers in the barren mountainous area of west Honan were demoralized by starvation. Taking advantage of the unpreparedness of the Chinese troops, the Japanese on May 13 launched their lightning attacks through three channels: the Lung-hai Railway, and the Lolu and Soonglu highways. Pushing on like a herd of wild beasts, the Japanese took Shenyang on the 14th, Hengchang on the 16th, Lonan on the 17th, Shenhsien on the 18th, and approaching Taying, they captured Loshih on the 20th.

By that time the Chinese 55A and 68A troops in the 5th and 10th war zones, fighting in coordination with General Tong's division had recaptured in succession Lushan, Soonghsien, Siping, Suiping and Chuehsan, proceeding to Paofeng. The Chinese 31AG unit entered

Luhø, dealing the enemy heavy blows again and again. Besides, the Chinese succeeded in cutting off the Peiping-Hankow Railway and the communication line behind the Japanese. Meanwhile the Chinese were still fighting stiffly to hold Loyang. The Japanese, at the end of their tether, ordered their main force back to the east and sent strong reinforcements to Luhø. Loyang fell to the hands of the Japanese on May 25. And the Japanese again occupied Soonglu on June 1, Yehhsien on the 3rd, Wu-yang on the 8th, and various strategic points on the Peiping-Hankow Railway on the 10th. Nevertheless the Chinese 31AG, 55A and 68A units repulsed the Japanese who assaulted Chowchia-kou, Fengcheng and Biyang, thus frustrating enemy's attempt to descend upon Chiehshou and caused both sides to be on the defensive.

In early June, the Chinese 1WA troops, reenforced by Chinese fresh units from the 8th war zone, made preparations for a counter-offensive. The Chinese troops at all points, after the counter-offensive was launched, on June 3 made great progress. On the same day the Japanese, with a strong force containing 60 tanks, over 100 army trucks and over 6,000 infantrymen, attacked Hankukwan. On the 6th the Japanese occupied Lingpao and entered Chuyangchen. The Chinese 55D and 109D troops checked them and recaptured Chuyangchen. On the 15th the Chinese 39D and R3D units retook Lingpao, and on the 16th they chasing the enemy pressed to Fengtaokou. The battle came to a stop when the military

situation prior to June 4 was finally restored.

E. Battles in Changsha and Hengyang

(May 26 to August 8, 1944)

In May, 1944, Japan drew from North China and the coastal region a military force of ten divisions for a drive upon North Hunan, the purpose of which was to exploit the communication line on the Continent and to get an access into the South Seas.

Seven Japanese divisions formed the first fighting line which proceeded in three routes. On May 29 the Japanese left wing made a surprise entry into Tungcheng and advanced to Chaching and Pingkiang. The vanguard of the Japanese, occupying Sinchiang, pushed to the north bank of the Milo River. Their right wing drove south of the Tungting Lake to Yuanyi. Thus a vast fighting front was gradually in the making. The Chinese 72A troops in the mountainous area of Tungcheng, the Chinese 20A on the north bank of the Milo River, the Chinese 37A on the south bank of the Milo River, and those in the region of Yuan-yi comprising of part of the 99A, the 73A and part of the 37A units—all inflicted losses on the Japanese. On June 6 the Japanese reached the Chinese positions at Hui River, the Laotao River and the Yuan River. Pushing onward, the Japanese attacked Lulingtan and occupied Hsiangyin, thus opening the water way of the Hsiang River to keep the line of replenishment for their advancing troops. Meanwhile two wings of Japanese attacked Kukong and Yiyang respectively to form a pincer offensive. But the Chinese with

a view to defeating the Japanese in separate groups concentrated strong forces at two flanks to wait for a counter-offensive.

On June 7 the Japanese reached Kukong. Having made the preparations for besieging and counter-attacking the Japanese the Chinese 72A, 58A, 44A, and 20A units launched the counter-attack and repulsed the Japanese at Kukong and Tungmenshi. Many Japanese were either killed or taken prisoners by the Chinese at the point near Yungho. But the Japanese assembled their force to attack the Chinese 58A troops in an attempt to break the encirclement. Finally when General Yu, Division Commander of the Chinese 58A unit, was wounded, the Japanese broke the Chinese defence line along Shihwan and did their best to advance southward where the Chinese 72A unit and the 58A unit chased at their heels. The Chinese in pursuing the enemy also checked the Japanese at the Yuan River. On the 6th the Japanese crossed the Chi River by two columns: the first, moving along the south bank of the Wei River, pressed forward to Ninghsiang; the second, passing through Lungsha, stormed Yiyang where strong resistance was offered by the Chinese 99A troops. On the 12th the Japanese drove circuitously to the south to join forces with the Japanese who pressed west along the Wei River in attacking Ninghsiang. On the 14th the Chinese 19D troops in coordination with the 77D troops after liquidating the remnants of the Japanese with the city of Yiyang followed the Japanese in hot pursuit to the south. By that time

the Chinese 24AG unit having completed their preparations for encircling the enemy in Ninghsiang launched a counter-attack and for four days lasted the bloody fighting during which a great number of stubborn Japanese were killed by the Chinese. The Japanese were to escape the encirclement of the Chinese until on the 19th following the fall of Changsha they got the reinforcements from Peiyupu. They then proceeded to the south.

The Japanese vanguard which was their main force, however, with the help of superior military equipment assaulted Liuyang and Changsha. After defending the two cities for nine days, the Chinese 44A troops greatly thinned in its ranks retreated to the southern outskirts of Liuyang. Meanwhile on the 9th the Japanese on the north bank of the Laotao River made a successful crossing. On the 12th when they had reached the south bank of the Liuyang River, they advanced in prongs to Changsha and Lusui. On the 17th two strategic points—Wangtochen and Hungshangtao — outside Changsha fell to the hands of the Japanese while the Chinese main defence line at the Yuehlu Mountain was crashed by the Japanese. On the 18th the Chinese 4A troops breaking out of the encirclement proceeded to Yungeng to be recruited again.

Seeing that the Japanese for this campaign were a very strong military force with their reserve units still not employed in the engagement but controlling the second war line, the Chinese did not fight a decisive battle with the enemy at Changsha and Liuyang. Preparations then were

made to fight the Japanese at Hengyang instead when they would be exhausted through a long and arduous journey. Thereupon General Ouchen's division was ordered to check the Japanese on both banks of the Lu River while two Chinese armies from the 4th and 7th war zones were ordered to get ready to fight the outskirts of Hengyang. On June 20 the Chinese lost in succession Liling, Chuchow, Lusui and Shangtan in east Hunan. They engaged the enemy on the south bank of the Lu River to interrupt their advance. But the Japanese, by the lightning strategy of advance and infiltration, marched along the east bank of the Shang River like wild beasts, and penetrated the outskirts of Hengyang on June 23 where they came into clash with the Chinese 10A troops. They also advanced north to attack Yuhsien and advanced west to occupy Hsiangshang.

On June 24 when the Japanese on the east bank of the Shang River who advanced south along the Shang River via Liling occupied Yunsien and moved to Anyen, the Chinese immediately mustered the 26A, 20A, 37A, and 40A units to areas both north and south of Chaling to engage the Japanese. On July 2, with the completion of the preparations for a counter-attack, the Chinese began to storm at the enemy, and on July 8 they recaptured Yunsien and Pingtien and laid siege to the Japanese 58A unit at Leiyang. Meanwhile the Chinese troops after retaking Liling dashed to the Shang River. The Japanese were on the verge of collapsing, but when they hurried their reserve units and the

fresh 27D troops to join the engagement they turned back and captured Liling again. Chaling was threatened; Leiyang again fell to enemy hands. On July 29 the Japanese recaptured Pinghsiang and moved south to Lienhwa. But the Chinese renewed their attack, and Pinghsiang again changed hands while Liling, Lienhwa, Chaling and Anyen were reapproached by the Chinese. At the same time the Chinese strengthened the besieging force in the vicinity of Leiyang. Part of the Chinese troops crossed the Lei River in conjunction with the fighting outside Hengyang.

On the west bank of the Shang River the Chinese 24AG unit gave chase to the Japanese from Ninghsiang while the 79A troops were ordered beforehand to check the enemy at Yenpauchiao via Yengfung. On July 1, when the Chinese 37A troops were ready to defend the Ninghsiang-Yiyang Area, the Chinese assembled the 100A troops at Yengfung to fight the westward advancing Japanese and ordered the 62A troops to hold the positions in Wenmingpu—a manœuvre in support of the fighting at Hengyang. On July 2 the Chinese 100A troops engaged in a seesaw battle with the Japanese at Yengfung and the severe battle lasted until July 10 when the Chinese drove the Japanese out of the city of Yengfung and put them on the defensive to the southeast of Yengfung. Thereupon the main force of the Chinese 100A unit proceeded south to participate in the battle of Hengyang. Meanwhile the Chinese 79A troops also began to storm at the Japanese at Kinlienshih and Yenpauchiao while the 62A troops at Peihopu

acted on the offensive. On the 15th the 62A unit made a surprise entry into the southeast of Lutang and on the 19th penetrated into the outskirts of Hengyang. But the Chinese 79A troops were too slow in movement to give support to the 62A troops; for when the former crossed the Chen River, the latter had already suffered heavy casualties through being attacked on both sides and on the 22nd were compelled to retreat to the area south of Tehkwanpoo for replenishments. The Japanese massed superior forces to reattack the Chinese positions shortly after the arrival of the Chinese 79A unit at the northwest outskirts of Hengyang. On the 29th the Chinese 79A troops retreated to the region west of Shanchaio.

On August 2 the Chinese renewed their counter-attacks in all directions when the reinforcements arrived on an armament train from the 4th war zone, as a result of which the Chinese made considerable progress on all fronts. On August 7 with the participation of the Chinese main reserves—the 46A unit—in the fighting squads the Chinese began to storm at the Japanese in order to break the encirclement of Hengyang and to annihilate the enemy at the Shang River. But the Chinese advancing force was repulsed on the 8th when it reached a point called Wulipai. Hengyang fell into enemy hands on the 8th when the defenders of the city after 48 days of besieged struggle for the defending of the city all sacrificed themselves with all the defence lines demolished by the Japanese. Nevertheless the Chinese after a short recuperation continued to fight the enemy.

F. The Battle in West Hunan

(April 9 to May 16, 1945)

In early April of 1945 the Japanese launched a drive at west Hunan with a view to nipping the Chinese general counter-offensive in the bud by crushing the Chinese field corps in West Hunan and destroying the Chinese air base at Chinkiang. Preparations for this campaign were made in late March in 1944 when the Japanese mobilized over 80,000 men comprising such main forces as the 116D, 47D, 34D, 64D, and 68D units centered around such places as Chuenhsien, Tungan, Shaoyang, Shangtan, etc.

The Chinese, in order to safeguard the Chihkiang air base for the purpose of counter-attacking the enemy, decided to use the military units under the Fourth Direction Army as the main forces to fight the decisive battle in Wukiang-Sinhwa Area while the Third Direction Army and the strong units in the 6th war zone were made to fight in support of the Fourth Direction Army.

On April 9 when the Japanese 47D and 116D units at Shaoyang, the 68D unit at Tungan, and the 34D unit at Chuenhsien simultaneously assailed the Chinese positions in several directions, the Chinese troops on the first defence line offered resistance and wasted the enemy strength. The Chinese enticed the Japanese to the defence lines along Yangchichiao, Fangtung, Pingkiang, and Maikau where the decisive battle was going to be fought according to the preconceived plan. The Chinese frontal units—the 73A, 74A, 100A and 26A units—

were assigned their defence lines to take part in the battle and thwarted the enemy. In the meantime the Chinese 18A troops marched south from Changtao, the 94A troops swiftly pushed on along the border of Hunan and Kweichow toward Wukang and Wuyang, and the main force of the Chinese N6A gathered around Chihkiang ready to lay siege to the advancing enemy. On May 1 when the Chinese were ready on all lines for an eastward offensive the Chinese 94A troops recaptured Wukang and the Chinese 58A and 26A untills repulsed the vanguard of the Japanese. On the 8th the Chinese after retaking in succession Sinning and Wukang moved to the area north of Wukang in pursuit of the enemy, which was done to give support the fighting of the main force of the Fourth Direction Army. The Fourth Direction Army, however, after eight days of fighting, sent part of the army to forward to retake Shaishih and Lungtanpao, thus cutting off the communication line behind the enemy. On May 11 the Chinese all-out counter-attack put the enemy to flight and caused many enemy casualties by close chasing. By June 2 the situation prior to the battle was restored. The rank and file of the Japanese 109R troops encircled by the Chinese 100A troops at Fan-tung died at post.

On April 14 the Japanese 64D troops at Yiyang and Ninghsiang attacked Taohwakiang and Tachengchaio in the 6th war zone, but when interrupted by the Chinese 18D troops they retreated to their original positions on April 21.

III. THE SOUTH WAR ZONE

A. Kweilin-Liuchow Battle

(Sept. 10 to Dec. 14, 1944)

Following the occupation of Hengyang on August 8, 1944, the Japanese mobilized upwards of 120,000 men for a drive upon Kweilin and Liuchow in Kwangsi province. They assembled five divisions on the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, two and half divisions at the West River Area, and one brigade at Laichow Peninsula. The motive of this campaign was to open a communication line through the Asiatic mainland and to destroy the Allied aerial bases in Southwest China.

While the enemy attempt at the said campaign gradually took shape, the Chinese had only two armies garrisoned at Kwangsi. However, realizing the importance of the vast plain lying before Kweilin and Liuchow, the Chinese sped up their military preparations along the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway with an eye to the safeguarding of the city of Kweilin. On September 3, to facilitate the defending of Kweilin and Liuchow, the Chinese ordered the 93A troops to take their post at Chuanchow. Meanwhile General Young Sen's corps entered Kweilin from Hunan via Linling ready to participate in the decisive battle at Kweilin and Liuchow. General Lee Ju-tang's corps stationed on the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway retarded the movement of the Japanese and after decoying the enemy to the vicinity of Chuanchow made a northward turning into the hilly area in West Hunan where they outflanked the Japanese to divert

the enemy's attention upon Chuanchow. On the other wing the Chinese main force comprising the 31A and 46A units centered around Kweilin while part of the Chinese 46A unit gathered around Liuchow ready for action.

After a surprise break-through of the defence line held by the Chinese field troops in the outer war zone of Hengyang in the earlier part of September, the Japanese on September 8 reached Wangshaho which was the gate to Kweilin and Liuchow. Meanwhile the Japanese 19BS troops in Kwangtung entered Weishi by surprise. By that time a large-scale encircling battle was gradually in the making.

On September 11-12 the Chinese 93A troops lost successively two strategic points—Wangshaho and Chuanchow—while the enemy who had just overrun Weichi further occupied Sintu. And the Japanese 104D troops at Shanshui steamed up the river; the Japanese 27BS troops at Laiwan attacked Yunhsien through the border of Kwangtung and Kwangsi in an attempt to occupy Pingnan and Wuchow. Consequently the Chinese, to meet the enemy onslaught, ordered the 35AG troops in the West River to join the fourth war zone with their main force to stem the enemy moving up stream. Part of the 35AG troops—the 62A unit—was ordered to hold Liuchow.

In late September various Chinese troops from the seventh and ninth war zones took different routes to march into Kwangsi through Hunan and Kwangtung. But what with the poor communi-

cation and exhaustion with months of hard fighting they did not arrive on time at the outer war zones of Kweilin and Liuchow to check the enemy who thus advanced rapidly without meeting much resistance. On November 1 the Japanese 58D troops made their appearance in the neighborhood of Hsingan at the frontal line of the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway; the Japanese 3D and 13D units occupied Lungfukwan; in the West River Area the Japanese 104D and 22D troops, linking with the 19BS troops in Weichi and with the 23BS troops in Laiwan, pushed toward Pingnan and Danchu to form a pincer attack on Liuchow and Kweilin. The Chinese Headquarters ordered General Low-huo, Army Commander in Yuling Area, to take the command of the first and second columns of the Kwangsi Garrison Forces and the 135D and 155D units to check the westward advance of the enemy in the vicinity of Pingnan and Kweiping. The Chinese 93A troops were to check the movement of the enemy along the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway, and General Young's corps together with the 46A troops gathered around Pinglo and Youngshu to wait for a chance to annihilate the enemy who had deeply penetrated into Lungfukwan.

In the middle of October although along the Hunan-Kwangsi Railway the Chinese 93A troops held their position firmly and the Chinese assault on the enemy at Lungfukwan was making much headway, the Japanese in the West River Area with their superior military force continued to press onward after

capturing Pingnan and Kweiping. To safeguard Liuchow and the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway the Chinese tried the tactics bringing pressure on the enemy at Lung-fukwan and immediately ordered the 37A and 46A troops to proceed south to coordinate with the 62A troops in attacking the enemy at the West River. On October 21 following the preparation for a counter-attack the Chinese engaged in a severe battle with the enemy for eight days which resulted in the recapturing of many strategic points in the outer war zone of Kweiping. But at the time when the Chinese were successfully engaging the Japanese, the Japanese to the north of Kweilin after being reenforced made a sudden break-through of the Chinese defence line in the eastern outskirts of Kweilin and made their appearance in the eastern outskirts of Kweilin and in the Pinglu-Youngshu Area. Meanwhile in the West River Area the left wing of the Chinese troops who had been on the defensive was broken through by the Japanese, thus facilitating the Japanese attack upon Kweiping and making the military situation unfavorable for the Chinese defenders. Thereupon the various Chinese troops were compelled to take up their new positions in the outskirts of Kweilin and Liuchow.

When Chinese troops were making new arrangements, the activity of the Allied planes was made impossible by heavy rains and the great flood in the hilly area. The Japanese in the Kweilin Area laid great pressure on General Hsia's troops while the 20A unit

of General Young's division stationed at Shiujen had a hard time to escape the enemy attack. When both Generals' troops were tied by the enemy, the Japanese penetrated into the Chinese position with great rapidity. They captured Yungfu on October 14 while one portion of the Japanese troops passed through Chungtu toward Liucheng, threatening the left flank of Liuchow. In the West River Area when General Tung's men were retreating to the Liu River and Hungshui River Area to take their new positions, the enemy gave pursuit. On the other hand, the Japanese made their successful river crossing to the east of Liuchow and in the vicinity of Shianhsien. On October 11 the Japanese made a surprise entry into Liuchow where a portion of the Chinese 26A troops encircled by the enemy, suffered great losses. On the same day the Japanese in the Liuchen area marched westward from Tapoo. The Chinese, with a view to protecting Yishan and to safeguarding the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway, began to new arrangements. Meanwhile the Chinese troops were ordered to fight their way out of Kweilin on November 10 as all their positions had been utterly destroyed by Japanese poison gas and bombardment.

On November 12 the Japanese troops in Liucheng and Tapoo made a speedy advance to the west and were given resistance by the Chinese 20A unit in the area north of Yishan. But Yishan fell to enemy hands when the Chinese 46A troops at the frontal line of the Railway being threatened by the enemy on the left flank

were forced to withdraw to the southeast into the hilly area. On November 16 the Japanese descended upon Huiyuan while another portion of the enemy offended Peiyah where the Chinese 26A troops together with the Chinese Wartime Training Corps held out firmly and made the enemy impossible have a frontal advance. Nevertheless the Japanese, shifting their main force to Peiyah, made a round-about push to Kinchengkiang where the Chinese 37A defenders failed to repulse the enemy because of the heavy odds they had to fight against. The enemy, however, after capturing Huiyuan, continued to advance west.

Meanwhile the Japanese at Chienkiang started another offensive, heading for Nanning and Wuming which fell to their hands on November 22.

To consolidate the fighting front on the border of Kweichow and to cover the movement of the Chinese reserve units, on November 18 the Chinese 97A troops were ordered to set up a defense line between Tachang and Cheho in the Nantan-Taichon Area. Both General Hsia and General Young's men were detailed to defend the two wings while two armies taken from the sixth war zone were ordered to gather at Wangping and Tsenyuan, ready to outflank the Japanese advancing from South Kweichow. Furthermore, in support of the decisive battle, five armies taken from the first and eight war zones were ordered to gather around Kweichow, Manchangping and Tuyuan areas, expecting to prevent the enemy from penetrating into South

Kweichow and safeguard Kweichow, which was the gate to Chungking. All the above mentioned Chinese troops were under the command of General Tang En-po.

On November 21 the enemy troops having occupied Hochih began to assault the Chinese 97A unit's position, and on November 27 the invaders, breaking through the line between Cheho and Tsichen entered Nantan in spite of the resistance given by the Chinese on the way. Exhausted and weakened after long days of hard fighting, General Young's troops retreated to the north. The enemy reached Sanhoo on November 30 and occupied Tushan on December 3. Nevertheless, when the Chinese troops were reinforced by fresh units, on December 8 the Chinese 91D troops retook Tushan and the 169D troops retook Sanhoo. Chasing the enemy to the south, they recaptured Nantan on the 12th and Cheho on the 14th. Furthermore they coordinated with the Chinese 46A troops in attacking the enemy at Hochih where a severe battle followed when the enemy also brought in reinforcements. But both sides suffered heavy casualties.

B. Chengchow-Kukang Battle

(Jan. 11, 1945 to Feb. 14, 1945)

In early January of 1945, the Japanese moved the Headquarters of their 26A troops from Hankow to Hengyang from where they directed their 68D troops at Chaling, the 40D troops at Laiyang, the 104D troops in North Kwangtung, and the 27D and 3D troops at Hengyang besides repairing the

communication lines at the above mentioned points; preparatory to a gigantic campaign the object of which was to open the southern section of the Canton-Hankow Railway, to strengthen the defence of the coastal line in South China against the landing of the Allied troops and to destroy the Chinese air bases at Suichwan and Kanchow.

The Chinese, with a view to maintaining the control over the communication line and to protecting the air bases which would later facilitate the general counter-offensive, adopted the strategy of waging a large-scale battle of attrition with the enemy. Besides they put up firm war bases beforehand for guerilla warfare. General Ku Tso-tung, Commanding General, was appointed concurrently Director of Kanchow Headquarters to achieve the unification of direction for operations in the 3rd, 7th and 9th war zones.

Along the Railway, the Japanese at Yungming and Taohsien after occupying Laitien, and Linwu on January 13, penetrated into the area west of Pingshek and Luchong where the Chinese 4A and 65A units engaged them in severe fighting. Meanwhile the Japanese troops in North Kwangtung broke the defence line of the Chinese 9BS troops. On January 19 the Japanese troops who took Chinyung and Laiyung, effected a crossing of the Lai River, and on the 22rd they joined forces with their main force the 40D troops in attacking Chenghsien and Liangtien where the Chinese 99A troops and 72A troops offered stubborn resistance. By that time with the loss of Luchong, Ping-

shek and Yingteh into enemy hands, there were several fightings along the Railway line. On the 24th the Japanese at Peikiang reached Chukiang; on the 26th the 99A troops gave up Chenghsien; and on the 27th the enemy occupied Chukiang.

On the 29th the Chinese troops in Hunan liquidated the enemy troops at Singtien, Linwu and Yungmin and obtained full control over such places. Meanwhile the Chinese troops in the 9th war zone having completed the preparation for attacking the Railway from both sides launched the attack on February 2, and the Chinese 4A troops recaptured Liangtien and reached Chenghsien. The next day they after retaking I'chang laid siege to Pingshek, and the strategic points on the Railway fell into hands of the Chinese. But the Chinese 99A troops met with the stubborn resistance of the enemy at Chengchow. On the 9th when the enemy brought in reinforcements to assault Yunghsien the Chinese Y2A troops retreated to the eastern outskirts of the city. On the 10th when the enemy made a full-dress offensive to the south, Liangtien, I'chang, and Pingshek fell to enemy hands in succession. Moreover the enemy got full control of the Railway line. The Chinese, nevertheless, offered frequent resistance from the neighborhood.

In the Suichwan-Kanchow Area the enemy at Chaling, penetrating into the east on January 11, occupied Lienhwa on the 7th where part of the Chinese 58A troops checked the enemy advance while their main force moved to the

area north of Ningkan. On the 22rd the Japanese employed their main force to advance to Suichwan, while the Chinese ordered the 72A main force at Liling to proceed to the northeast of Yungsin and the 58D main force to proceed from Lupu to the east in an attempt to close in the enemy. The enemy heedless of their loss persisted in advancing south, capturing Suichwan on the 31st. In the meantime the Japanese 40D troops at Chulu in conjunction with a portion of the 104D troops pressed east along the Chun River, and took Shuhsien on February 3 and Nanyung on the next day. Thus the enemy's attempt of closing in from both the south and north gradually materialized. The Chinese 63A unit checked the enemy at the Tayu-Meikwan Area, thus covering the movement of the Chinese 7th war zone main force into the war base to continue the counter-attack against the enemy.

On February 4 the enemy 27D unit after breaking through the Chinese defence line entered the northwest of Kanchow. On the following day the Japanese 40D troops occupied Tayu and made their appearance in Singcheng. On the 6th the Japanese who had occupied Kanchow proceeded south to Nankang. On the 8th the enemy troops moving from south and north met at Singcheng. On the 10th the Chinese 90D troops took and lost again the city of Tayu. Meanwhile another branch of the Japanese 27D troops proceeded east from Yungsin and Suichwan, heading for Taihoo but they were repulsed by the Chinese 72A troops. On the 5th

the Chinese 63A troops retook Shuhsien which was reoccupied by the Japanese 40D troops on the 13th.

On January 13 a portion of the Japanese 22BS troops advanced east and captured Polu on the 15th and Weiyang on the 16th, while the Chinese 20BS troops after offering resistance withdrew to the defense line along the Wangliping Mountain Area. On January 23 the Japanese 19BS troops together with part of their bluejackets made their landing at Pinghai and Soocheng from where they advanced west. On the 24th they took Haifeng and Chiyang. On the 25th they took Lufeng. On the 26th the enemy entered Tongkang. But the Chinese in a counter-attack retook Tongkang on the 27th and reached Chiyang.

C. Counter-Offensive in North Burma

(October, 1943 to March, 1944)

To attack the Japanese-occupied Burma and to open the China-Indo Highway, the Chinese troops stationed in India advanced into Burma via the Ledo Railway and the Chinese expeditionary forces entered Burma via Yunnan.

The Chinese forces sent to India in May 1942 for military training were fully equipped and well trained in the fall of 1943. They gathered at Ledo to wait for the opportune moment for a campaign. And the Chinese engineering corps with the help of the Allies had in ten months' time opened a highway through the wild, inhabited hilly area which reached as far as Nanyang.

At the end of October, which, the rainy season being past, was

a favorable time for the Chinese counter-offensive, the Chinese ordered a division of the Chinese N38D troops to proceed to the Hukwang Valley, expecting to take the defence line between Talung and the Tanai River which would cover the movement of the Chinese reserved divisions.

In the beginning of November the Chinese advancing units occupied in succession such points as Lakasee, Shingbuiyang, Ningbien, etc. In the later part of November, another division of the Chinese N38D troops arrived as reinforcements to help liquidate the enemy troops west of the Talung River. By that time the China-India Highway had reached Shingbuiyang. So with the arrival of the whole body of the Chinese N38D troops, a portion of them was ordered to attack Talo which was taken by them on January 31, 1944. On February 1 the main force of the Chinese army took Tapihchia. In a pincer attack against the enemy 18D troops in the marshy area around the Tanai River, the Chinese N22D troops formed the right wing and the N38D troops formed the left wing. On March 5 the Chinese troops after reaching Kumonkwang gave chase to the enemy to the south by two routes. They took Hwalapon on March 9 and Tingkao and Sakan on the 15th. Thus the whole Hukwang Valley was liberated by the Chinese.

Seeing that the Hukwang Valley was in hands of the Chinese, the Japanese, in order to stem the advance of the Chinese troops, massed the entire 561R unit on the narrow path at Gienpu which was ten miles in length and was not

susceptible to invasion from the front. The Chinese, however, with the main strength the N22D unit striking from the front, sent a portion of the N38D unit to make a detour to storm at the enemy from the back by taking the mountainous path to the east of the Highway. On March 28 the Chinese after reaching Lapan immediately made a turning to the north. Meanwhile the Chinese main strength the N22D troops having broken through the Gienpu Mountain and Lukaoyang swept to the south in an attempt to sandwich the enemy from both south and north. Eventually on March 29 the Chinese occupied Satutcha where the Chinese took a heavy toll from the Japanese. Thus all the hilly strategic points in North Burma fell to Chinese hands.

Following the occupation of the Gienpu Mountain, the Chinese began operations in the Maingkwang Valley which was approximately 75 miles in length and less than 7 miles in width. The enemy troops after being reinforced by their 1961R troops of the 50D unit had their fighting strength strengthened and by means of the geographical superiority offered strong resistance to the Chinese troops.

The Chinese, however, made gradual advance and up to the end of April the Chinese N22D and N38D troops along the Highway and to the southwest of the Highway occupied such strategic points as Kaolakas, Kaoli, Manping, etc. On May 3 the Chinese N22D troops together with the first regiment of the tank corps under the cover of the Allied airplanes made a surprise breakthrough of the enemy line at

Yingakantao and put the enemy to flight to the south. From May 1, with the advent of the rainy season, the military operation was greatly handicapped. Nevertheless, the Chinese, in order to open the China-India Highway in the shortest possible time, entered into the campaign at Kamaun. On May 27 the Chinese main strength, divided into two wings, made their detour by the untrodden paths to effect the crossing of the Nankao River and cut off the Kamaun Road. Meanwhile part of the Chinese 56D and N38D troops formed the vanguard. On June 1 Kamaun was encircled by the Chinese troops, and taken by surprise, the Japanese fell back upon the Chinese with a collection of their 18D unit and a portion of their 16D and 2D units, but they were repulsed by the Chinese. On June 15 the enemy Commander of their 18D division which had once occupied Kamaun led the remnants of his division, numbering 1,500 men, to climb the Shupan Mountain in fleeing to the south with the rest of the division killed by the Chinese.

Prior to the occupation of Kamaun, the Chinese with an eye to occupying Mainkwan by surprise ordered their 114R troops of their N38D unit to make a detour secretly to the south along the hilly region of Mainkwan while the Chinese 113R troops of the N38D unit struck the southwest region of Mainkwan in supporting the former, who reached the northeast region of Mainkwan on the June 18 and occupied it on the 25th. And the 113R troops of the Chinese N38D unit also annihilated the enemy reinforcements. During this battle the enemy force comprising the 18D,

2D and 53D units stationed at Mainkwan were superior in strength to the Chinese force. In spite of the superior enemy force at Mainkwan which consisted of parts of their 18D, 2D and 53D units, the Chinese defeated them at the lowest cost.

While the Chinese main force was fighting the Japanese in the Mainkwan Valley, the Chinese, with a view to storming Myitkina by surprise, formed a fighting corps with the N30D and 50D regiments, one column of artillery and two battalions of the U.S. troops, which marched from the Hukwang Valley in early April and passed through rivers and mountains on the way to Myitkina. Meanwhile the Chinese troops at Mainkwan and Kamaun had penetrated into the neighborhood of Myitkina through 100 miles. Taking the enemy by surprise, they occupied the airdrome at Myitkina at one stroke. Soon afterwards the Chinese main force the N36D unit, part of the 14D unit, and N22D mountain artillery company were transported to Myitkina by air. And a portion of the British troops at Sunpulapan also drove south to give aid to the Chinese. The communication lines outside Myitkina were cut off by the Chinese and the strategic points outside the city were taken by them. But the Japanese 114D troops and gendarmerie held out stubbornly within Myitkina. It was not until August 3 when part of the Chinese 50D unit arrived to take part in the battle following the occupation of Kamaun and Mainkwan that the remaining Japanese at Myitkina were entirely wiped out.

Following the occupation of Myitkina the Chinese troops at India began to advance south by two routes. Meanwhile the Chinese N1A unit including the second artillery company drove south along the Bengal-Assam Road, and the N22D troops of the N6A unit proceeded to Shuikou via Huping with the main strength of the N6A unit as the reserves.

On November 21 the first battle-line corps of the Chinese N1A unit together with the main force the N38D troops drove south along the Bengal-Assam Road while part of the N38D troops drove south from the east of the Road. On November 29 the spearhead of the Chinese main force took Miaoti and liquidated the enemy on both banks of the Taping River. On November 3 the Chinese force from the east of the Road moving along the hilly regions effected a crossing of the Taping River of the S/3432 iron bridge at its upper flows following which they occupied Bhakan. On the same day the Chinese main force on the north bank in the neighborhood of Tali made a secret turning to the southeast and also passed through the iron bridge. On November 6 after occupying Lungkaba they made a sudden turning to the right and occupied the enemy bases north of Moomak, thus making the situation quite in favor of the Chinese. In the meantime Chinese units on the north bank of the Taping River after crossing the River also moved toward Bhamo which was reached on the 16th.

When the Chinese were storming Moomak, they, with a view to cutting off the communication line behind Bhamo, sent part of their troops to capture Sahwankatang

besides ordering a forceful corps to attack Mainshi which fell to Chinese hands on December 3. Thus the enemy at Bhamo became isolated and lost their freedom of action. On the 14th the Chinese after liquidating the enemy at Moomak tightened the cord of seige at Bhamo where the Japanese attempt to raise the encirclement failed several times. On the 15th the Chinese occupied Bhamo and killed all the Japanese including the Commander except 70 who saved their lives by crossing the river in the darkness of the night.

On October 19 the N22D troops of the Chinese 6A unit proceeded from Huping to the southwest hilly regions to mop up the remnants of the enemy scattered on the way. They reached the north bank of the I'lowati River on November 3 which they crossed after they got the river crossing materials sent by the Allies by air. They defeated a portion of the Japanese 2D unit and a battalion of the Burmese puppet troops, and occupied Suikuo from whence the enemy fled to Bhamo. On November 12 the N22D troops took Mainta while another branch of the N22D troops captured Sikowsiyu and still another branch of them fell upon Bhamo. They effected a conjunction with the Chinese N38D unit on November 17 in the outskirts of Bhamo.

While the battles at Bhamo and Mainshi were going on, the Chinese lost no time in ordering the main force, the N30D troops, of the second battleline to drive south to attack Nankan by three routes. On December 3 in the Kangmahnaslu region the Chinese troops came into clash with the Japanese troops including the 18D,

49D and 56D units and artillery, mechanized troops and engineering corps, who were coming to the rescue of the Japanese troops in Bhamo. But the Chinese having in their hands the strategic points west of the Bhamo Road had the advantage of fighting the enemy from a higher position. As the enemy were anxious to occupy these higher places in Chinese hands, the fighting became more and more violent. By the 15th the Chinese had taken a heavy toll from the enemy and the fierceness of the enemy's onslaught abated. The Chinese, in order to get the initiative of the battle by annihilating the frontal enemy, ordered a portion of the N30D reserve unit to close in the enemy left flank and at the same time also ordered the N38D troops at Bhamo to form the left wing in making a detour to deep penetrate into Nankan. On the 17th the N30D troops after occupying Matze drove to both the east and west of the Bhamo-Nankan Road. On the 19th the Chinese frontal troops occupied enemy bases—Kateek and Kaung—and annihilated the enemy main strength. On the 21st they following the occupation of Pancha drove south by two routes in pursuit of the enemy. On the 27th the Chinese independent column on the left flank took Laowun and further occupied Pankan on the 28th, thus making the situation in the Nankan Valley favorable to the Chinese. On January 9 the Chinese frontal force occupied in succession those strategic points on the northwest bank of the Suili River. And the Chinese, seeing that the enemy had put up strong defence works in the hilly regions to the south-

east of Nankan, adopted the tactics of surprise attacking the enemy and fighting the enemy by detour instead of striking the enemy from the front, thus saving the unnecessary loss in time and men. When the Chinese ordered a portion of the N30D troops to continue attacking the enemy from the front, the N30D and 38D corps were ordered to make a detour by the desolate path in the Kuotang Mountain Range, effecting the crossing of the Suili River via Silong on January 11 and penetrating into the hilly region on the left flank of Nankan. On the same day another portion of the Chinese N30D troops secretly crossed the River near the 50456 bridge and closed in the enemy at Nankan from the northeast. By the 14th of January all Chinese units arrived at the southwest of Nankan and took the east bank of the Suili River. And the enemy troops in the hilly points on the east of Nankan being pressed by the Chinese from both south and north by surprise were finally all annihilated by the Chinese except a few who fled for their lives. After occupying Mainta the Chinese N22D troops marched from Tatung which was a point between Mainta and Tangkwa and occupied Tangkwa on the 21st. On January 29 part of the N22D unit after secretly crossing the Suili River took Iashi. Then when the N22D and 14D units were ordered back to China by air to be grouped under the command of the general headquarters of the Army, the U.S. troops and the Chinese 50D troops replaced them. On January 1, 1944, the Chinese main force the 50D unit drove south from Yushi to fall on Wanho which fell

to Chinese hands on the 14th when the Chinese had from the 8th to 14th crashed the stubborn resistance of the enemy 18D and 56D units. The remnants of the Japanese troops fled to Mowlo. By that time the enemy on the north bank of the Sui River were completed liquidated by the Chinese.

When the Chinese N30D unit occupied Nankan the enemy withdrew to the strategic points beside the Nankung Road and took up the already established defence works in the Laolung Mountain Area of the south of Nankan. In January, 1944 the Chinese main force the N38D unit fought along the Nanmain Road while the N30D unit proceeded south to close in the enemy in the Laolung Mountain Area. On the 17th the Chinese N38D troops started the mopping along the Road and by the 21st they not only had occupied the strategic points outside Mainyu but also got the connection with the Chinese 116D expeditionary force. The enemy hurriedly massed their main force to fall back upon the Lashi Highland but were repulsed by the Chinese who following the defeat of the enemy took Tangbar Mountain and reached the Mainwei Road. Meanwhile the Chinese N30D troops tightened the encirclement of the enemy in the Laolung Mountain and forced them to the last stand. On the other hand the Chinese N30D force sent a forceful column to strike at Nanbarka. Having cut off the Weimain Road on the 26th, they came into clash with the Japanese 2D troops. On the 27th the Chinese force stationed at India together with the Chinese Yunnan expeditionary army joined forces

to occupy Mainyu, thus completing the opening of the China-India Highway. The entire Japanese 56D division were killed except the division commander. On February 8 the Chinese captured Nanbarka.

On the fifth day following the occupation of Mainyu by the Chinese, the enemy troops in the center of the Laolung Mountain Area were also liquidated by the Chinese. Meanwhile the Chinese troops who had taken Nanbarka marched to Weihsing by three routes. By February 14 all the strategic points outside Weihsing fell into Chinese hands while the Chinese troops on both sides of the Road entered the suburbs of the city of Weihsing. On the 19th the Chinese frontal troops on the Road made a surprise breakthrough of the enemy main battleline. On the following day Weihsing and other strategic districts north of Ishsu fell in Chinese hands. On March 6 the Chinese reached the city quarter of Lahsu and laid siege to the enemy in Lahsu. On the 8th the enemy troops in Lahsu were all annihilated. By that time the Chinese had full control of all important points on the Yunnan-Burma Road and on the borders of Siam and Indo-China.

Meanwhile the Chinese 50D troops after taking Lashi and Wanhao, launched a two-prong drive to Nantu which was subsequently occupied on February 23. Following the occupation of Nantu the Chinese marched to Shepao which was occupied on March 16. On March 27 the Chinese captured Maintu. Thus the mission of the Chinese force to defeat the enemy was triumphantly fulfilled.

CHAPTER XXII

JAPANESE AGGRESSION AND THE PACIFIC THEATRE OF WAR

The history of Sino-Japanese relations in the past seventy odd years is the relation of almost uninterrupted attacks and encroachments on Chinese sovereignty by Japan. Japanese militarism, the adoption of territorial aggrandizement by force as a national policy, has caused frequently recurring international crimes that stain the civilization of mankind. Since the Meiji Restoration in 1868, Japan has followed this national policy, regarding China as its prospective prey. It is a matter of world-wide knowledge that Japan's ultimate aim has been and most probably will be not only the domination and subjugation of China, but also the conquest of the Pacific, and eventually of the whole world.

Owing to its geographical nearness, China was made the victim of Japanese aggression in three successive wars, namely, the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895, the Russian-Japanese War of 1904-1905, and the World War of 1914-1918. In fact, Japan would never be satisfied until the full realization of her military ambitions. The Mukden Incident of the 18th September, 1931, which preceded the invasion of Manchuria, and the Lukouchiao Incident of the 7th July, 1937 which led to

the war in the Far East generally regarded as the very beginning of the Second World War, are shameless examples of Japan's unbridled lust of power.

The Sino-Japanese war was premeditated by Japan. The amazing progress which China had made in her political and economic programmes must have caused alarm to Japanese militarists. In 1935, the two rich Chinese provinces of Kwangsi and Kwangtung were brought within the fold of the National Government, and after the Sian Affair in December, 1936, all factions were gradually dissolved, thereby resulting in the achievement of complete national unity. The Japanese militarists feared a strong China. By launching a sudden, undeclared war, these militarists hoped to beat China to her knees before the Chinese people could consolidate their national strength and unity. Thus, from 1935 to the date of the outbreak of hostilities in July, 1937, the Japanese continually manufactured 'incidents' culminating in the Lukouchiao Incident and the Shanghai Hungjao Aerodrome Incident, as baseless excuses for attacking and weakening China.

On the evening of the 7th July, 1937, Japanese troops held illegal

manoeuvres at Lukouchiao, a railway junction of strategic importance in the vicinity of Peiping. Their presence there could not be defended under any existing treaty or agreement. Alleging that one Japanese soldier was missing, Japanese troops after midnight demanded entry to the adjacent city of Wanping to conduct a search. When permission was refused by the Chinese authorities, the Japanese suddenly opened an attack on Wanping with infantry and artillery forces. Thus the Chinese garrison was compelled to offer resistance. If there was any sincerity on the part of Japan, such an incident would have been localized and settled amicably through diplomatic channels. However, Japan used it as the pretext, transparent as it was, for military adventure.

While North China was in immediate danger of war, Japan deliberately threatened the safety of Shanghai, the financial and economic centre of China. On August 9, one Japanese naval officer, one Japanese seaman, and a member of the Chinese Peace Preservation Corps, were killed in a clash which rose from the Japanese naval officer's attempt to approach the Chinese military aerodrome near Shanghai, in utter disregard of Chinese warnings. This incident was also used as a *casus belli* which set aflame the whole of China.

China's reaction to Japan's militant aggressiveness was clarified in the speech made by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on July 17, 1937, from which the following lines are worth quoting:

"For the past few years, we

have put forward our utmost efforts with patient endeavours for peace in the face of grave difficulties and grievous pain having the ultimate object of achieving national reconstruction. . . . While there is the slightest hope of peace, we will not abandon it; so long as we have not reached the limit of endurance we will not talk lightly of sacrifice But although a weak country, if, unfortunately, we should have reached that last limit, then there is only one thing to do. This is to throw the last ounce of energy of our nation into a struggle for national existence. And when that is done, neither time nor circumstance will permit our stopping midway to seek peace. We should realize that to seek peace after war has once begun means that the terms would be such that subjugation of our nation and complete annihilation of our race would have to be faced. Let our people realize to the full extent the meaning of the limit of endurance and the extent of sacrifice thereby involved. For once that stage is reached we have to sacrifice and fight to the bitter end, but always with the expectancy of eventual victory. Should we hesitate, however, and vainly hope for temporary safety, we shall perish forever."

Thus China was pushed on to a total war—a war of defence—to maintain her national existence against a ruthless and unscrupulous invader.

As the war was forced upon China by Japan at a time selected to suit her nefarious plans, China's military preparations were not ready to meet the emergency. . . .

By December of 1937 the Japanese had landed at Hangchow Bay, marched overland to outflank Shanghai, and seized the capital of Nanking. There was written one of the most gruesome, bloody and infamous pages in the history of aggression.

Against unarmed civilians, women, babes-in-arms and children, Japanese soldiers committed the most horrible atrocities. They shot, ravaged, despoiled everything in their path. Those who were killed outright were deemed lucky.

Despite this bloody episode, the Chinese succeeded in luring the invaders into spreading the war throughout the entire Yangtze Valley, pursuing their policy of trading space for time, or defense in depth, that was to be copied so successfully five years later by the Russians against other invaders, the Germans.

Occasionally, the poorly-equipped and badly-supplied Chinese troops gathered their forces and made a heroic stand, as at Taierchuang, but such resistance was only momentary. The odds were too great. They continued to fall back, and by the end of 1938 the key town of Hankow had fallen and the Chinese National Government was forced to evacuate to Chungking.

Completing their seizure of the main Chinese coastal ports in 1939, the Japanese cut off Free China from the outside world, except for the dribble of supplies which could be trucked over the tortuous Burma Road. Despite this, however, the Japanese drive in that year was bogged down, with Chinese guerrillas effectively harassing enemy positions through-

out the occupied areas. The overland route from Tokyo to Singapore, long an objective of the Japanese strategy in China, remained unfulfilled.

As they had in Manchuria, the Japanese continued the pattern of setting up puppets to give a pretence of autonomy in newly-occupied territories. In Nanking, once the seat of the Chinese National Government, they set up as a figurehead, the traitor Wang Ching-wei, to rule as "premier" of the Japanese-controlled "Chinese National Government".

By this time the German war machine was rolling in Europe. Following the pattern of aggression set for them in China by their partners in crime, the Nazi hordes had devastated Poland, and in the west rolled through the Low Countries and France, forcing that country in June, 1940 to turn over to Japan military control of French Indo-China. By September Japan had become a full-fledged member in the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo axis, and early the following year Thailand had come under her domination.

Throughout 1939, 1940 and 1941 the war in Asia went into slow gear, with the Japanese tightening their lines of communications, consolidating their gains and preparing for further aggression. They pushed gradually into South China, down to Changsha and up the Yangtze to Ichang.

In the United States, meanwhile, public opinion was beginning to mobilize against aggression. The democracies, at first slow to realize the full implications of this new method of warfare being practiced

in both the East and the West, came to recognize that intrusion anywhere in the world meant invasion everywhere. They realized that isolation from the world's realities was impossible, that the weak must be protected from the strong if civilization was to survive. They demanded that steps be taken to halt this aggression.

Japan, too, began to recognize this growing feeling among the democracies, which she saw as a threat to her dream of world conquest, now well on the way to realization. Therefore, on a quiet Sunday morning—December 7, 1941—to prevent the growing threat of interference, she struck at Pearl Harbor.

Just while American naval servicemen were returning from church, preparing to spend a leisurely Sunday or on their way to their daily tasks, the Japanese bombers roared in over the horizon and launched an attack designed to cripple and immobilize the U.S. Fleet based there.

With the consolidation of her stolen gains in Asia steadily nearing completion, Japan was itching for further growth, but the presence of the U.S. Fleet was a continuous menace. The attack on Pearl Harbor was an attempt to eliminate that menace, and at the same time open the way for further expansion.

That attack resulted in severe damage to U.S. naval and air forces. The United States, like most peace-loving nations, was unprepared for war and had nothing capable of stopping the enemy.

American strategy at first consisted of fighting delaying actions.

It was strategy dictated by necessity—five battleships had been sunk and 19 other warships damaged at Pearl Harbor. And thus, by the middle of April 19, 1942, the Japanese were established in the Philippines, the Netherlands East Indies, Malaya, Burma, Thailand, the Solomons and the Bismarck Archipelago. They were directly threatening Australia.

But the Japanese drive on Australia was halted abruptly on May 19, 1942, at the battle of the Coral Sea. In this engagement, fought off the southeast tip of New Guinea, the Japanese lost 15 ships, including two aircraft carriers sunk, at least 20 ships damaged and more than 100 planes destroyed. American losses were the aircraft carrier Lexington, one destroyer and one tanker, and 66 planes.

The Japanese also threatened Australia from the mountainous jungle island of New Guinea, just north of eastern Australia. In August, 1942, crack Japanese units launched a drive on vital Port Moresby on the Allied-held south coast of New Guinea. Japanese forces landed at Milne Bay on the island's extremely narrow eastern tip, but were wiped out before they could establish a base for the push down the south coast toward Port Moresby. In September, American and Australian troops under General MacArthur stopped the enemy 32 miles from Port Moresby in the mountains in the island's interior and began a campaign against Japanese positions on the island's north coast.

One month later, the Japanese thrust towards Hawaii and the United States was challenged in the Battle of Midway in which 16 Japanese ships, including four carriers and 275 enemy planes were destroyed. U.S. losses were one carrier, one destroyer and about 150 planes.

Meanwhile, in the far north the Japanese had succeeded in establishing bases in the Aleutian chain on the Alaskan approaches to the United States. It was more than a year before the invaders were killed or finally driven out.

In July 19, 1942, the Japanese landed forces on Guadalcanal Island in the Solomons. The plan of the enemy was to build a base there from which Japanese planes could threaten the Allied control of the New Hebrides and New Caledonia areas, flanking the lifeline to Australia. Seizing the offensive, the Allies sent U.S. Marines ashore on Guadalcanal in the next month. In a bitter six-month battle, the Japanese were beaten and the Allies turned the tide of the war.

Having regained the strategic initiative, the Allies fashioned two great drives against the enemy: one north from the Solomons and New Guinea; the other, west from the Central Pacific.

In the first, led by General Douglas MacArthur, United States, Australian and Dutch troops hopped along the coast of New Guinea and into the Haluaheras, within 400 miles of the Philippines. In the second, led by Fleet Admiral Chester W. Nimitz, U.S. Marines and infantrymen struck through the Gilberts, Marshalls,

Marianas and into the Palaus, within 600 miles of the Philippines.

The advance into the Marianas netted Americans three important bases—Guam, Saipan and Tinian—about 1,500 miles south of Tokyo. The potential value of those bases had been recognized by the enemy and shortly after the Marianas campaign began in June, 1944, the Japanese Fleet forces, which had been in hiding for many months, reappeared. The enemy attempted to halt the Marianas operations, but the result was disastrous.

Four hundred and two Japanese planes were destroyed and 14 Japanese ships, including five carriers and one battleship, were sunk or damaged.

For four months the Japanese Fleet licked its wounds. It did not come out to fight again until two Allied forces had converged on the Philippines. On October 20, General MacArthur's triphibious forces effected landings on Leyte Island in the Central Philippines. Japanese naval forces in a great three way assault attempted to wreck the Allies' plans for the liberation of the archipelago by scoring a decisive victory over Pacific Fleet forces off the Philippines and thereby snapping supply lines to MacArthur's ground troops.

But in running sea-air battles from October 23 to 26, U.S. Third and Seventh Fleet units and an Australian naval squadron inflicted the most crushing defeat of the war on the enemy. A total of at least 58 Japanese warships were sunk or damaged. Among the enemy ships sunk were three battleships and four carriers. U.S. losses numbered six warships.

American ground troops and Philippine guerrillas proceeded with their campaign and by July 5, 1945 all organized Japanese resistance in the Philippines had ended and the archipelago of some 7,000 islands had been liberated.

While the Philippines campaign was progressing, U.S. forces struck closer to the Japanese homeland and captured two more vital bases—Iwo Jima, 750 miles south of Tokyo, and Okinawa Island in the Ryukus, 375 miles southwest of southern Japan.

The month long struggle for tiny Iwo gave the Americans bases from which fighter planes could attack the enemy homeland and escort Marianas-based Superfortresses in their steadily increasing attacks against Japanese industrial targets.

Okinawa, where the fighting started April 1 and lasted for 82 days, provided the Superfortresses with still another base, from

which bombers and fighters continued to hammer the enemy's homeland, his warships and planes.

The powerful U.S. Third Fleet, part of which lay ignominiously in the mud at Pearl Harbor that fateful December day, blasted Japan for 22 continuous days. Its carrier planes, which also remembered that day, sent to the bottom of the Inland Sea whatever remained of the once proud Imperial Fleet, and with it whatever last faint ray of hope the Japanese militarists might have retained.

On July 26, 1945 the day of reckoning arrived at last. Japan, which for 14 years had ranged over vast areas of the earth's land and sea surfaces, looting, killing and stealing, was called to account for her crimes. The United States, Great Britain and China, acting in conjunction with Soviet Russia, demanded immediate surrender. The alternative, would be "utter destruction."

CHAPTER XXIII

THE UNCONDITIONAL SURRENDER OF JAPAN

I. POTSDAM PROCLAMATION

As the unconditional surrender of Germany brought the European theatre of war into a victorious conclusion, the final collapse of the remaining leg of the Axis tripod was only a matter of time. Japan was not unaware that she was fighting a losing battle. However, she kept on fighting in the hope that she might prolong the war until a negotiated peace could be made. As far as the leaders of United Nations were concerned, they deemed it proper that Japan should be given an opportunity to surrender in order that the war might be shortened and further sacrifices of men and materials be avoided. For this reason, on July 26, 1945, Japan was given the last warning, in the form of a joint proclamation by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, President Truman and Prime Minister Churchill, to choose either "unconditional surrender" or "prompt and utter destruction." This proclamation was released from Potsdam not without the knowledge and concurrence of Marshall Stalin, who was then attending the Big Three Conference.

The following is the full text of the Proclamation by the United States, the United Kingdom and the Republic of China calling upon Japan to surrender uncondition-

ally or suffer prompt and utter destruction:

1. We, the President of the United States, the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and the Prime Minister of Great Britain, representing the hundreds of millions of our countrymen, have conferred and agreed that Japan shall be given an opportunity to end this war.

2. The prodigious land, sea and air forces of the United States, the British Empire and of China are many times reinforced. Their armies and air fleets from the west, are poised to strike the final blows upon Japan. Their military power is sustained and inspired by the determination of all the Allied Nations to prosecute the war against Japan until she ceases to resist.

3. The result of the futile and senseless German resistance to the might of the aroused free people of the world stands forth in awful clarity as an example to the people of Japan. The might that now converges on Japan is immeasurably greater than that which, when applied to the resisting Nazis, necessarily laid waste the lands, the industry and the method of life of the whole German people. The full application of our military

power, backed by our resolve, will win the inevitable and complete destruction of the Japanese armed forces and just as inevitably the utter destruction of the Japanese homeland.

4. The time has come for Japan to decide whether she will continue to be controlled by those self-willed militaristic advisers whose unintelligent calculations have brought the Empire of Japan to the threshold of annihilation, or whether she will follow the path of reason.

5. Following are our terms. We will not deviate from them. There are no alternatives. We shall brook no delay.

6. There must be eliminated for all time the authority and influence of those who have deceived and misled the people of Japan into embarking on world conquest, for we insist that a new order of peace, security and justice will be impossible until responsible militarism is driven from the world.

7. Until such a new order is established and until there is convincing proof that Japan's war-making power is destroyed, Japanese territory to be designated by the Allies shall be occupied to secure the achievement of the basic objectives we are here setting forth.

8. The terms of the Cairo Declaration shall be carried out and Japanese sovereignty shall be limited to the Islands of Honshu, Hokkaido, Kyushu, Shikoku and such minor islands as we determine.

9. The Japanese military forces, after being completely

disarmed, shall be permitted to return to their homes with the opportunity to lead peaceful and productive lives.

10. We do not intend that the Japanese shall be enslaved as a race or destroyed as a nation, but stern justice shall be meted out to all war criminals, including those who have visited cruelties upon our prisoners. The Japanese Government shall remove all obstacles to the revival and strengthening of democratic tendencies among the Japanese people. Freedom of speech, of religion, and of thought, as well as respect for the human rights shall be established.

11. Japan shall be permitted to maintain such industries as will sustain her economy and permit the exaction of just reparations in kind, but not those which would enable her to rearm for war. To this end, access to, as distinguished from control of, raw materials shall be permitted. Eventual Japanese participation in world trade relations shall be permitted.

12. The occupying forces of the Allies shall be withdrawn from Japan as soon as the objectives have been accomplished and there has been established in accordance with the freely expressed will of the Japanese people a peacefully inclined and responsible government.

13. We call upon the Government of Japan to proclaim now the unconditional surrender of all Japanese armed forces, and to provide proper and adequate assurance of their good faith in such action. The alternative

for Japan is prompt and utter destruction.

The above quoted proclamation, however, did not bring the Japanese Government to sense. On July 27 the Japanese Cabinet held a three-hour meeting, and was addressed by the Foreign Minister, Shigenori Togo, who said that the Japanese would ignore the proclamation, and would prosecute the war in "Great East Asia" to the "bitter end."

Two days later Premier Suzuki declared at a press conference that Japan had ignored the Allied call to surrender and would continue unswervingly the prosecution of the war.

II. U.S.S.R. DECLARED WAR ON JAPAN

Two weeks after the Big Three Potsdam Proclamation, Soviet Russia declared war on Japan. On August 8, 1945 Foreign Commissar Molotov received Mr. Sato, the Japanese Ambassador to Moscow, and made the following declaration:

Taking into consideration Japan's refusal to capitulate, the Allies have addressed to the Soviet Government an invitation to join in the war against Japanese aggression, thereby shortening the duration of the war, reducing the number of casualties and assisting in the speediest restoration of general peace. True to its duty to the Allies, the Soviet Government has accepted the offer of the Allies and has associated itself to the Allied Declaration of July 26 this year.

The Soviet Government considers that such a policy on its part is the only means capable

of bringing peace nearer, freeing the people from further sacrifices and sufferings and giving the Japanese people an opportunity to avoid those dangers and destructions which were suffered by Germany. . . .

In view of the foregoing, the Soviet Government declares that with effect from tomorrow the 9th of August, the Soviet Union will consider itself in a state of war with Japan.

On the same day M. Molotov received British Ambassador, Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, United States Ambassador Harriman, Chinese Ambassador Foo Ping-sheung and informed them of the decision of the Soviet Government to declare war on Japan on August 9th.

The news of Russia's entry into the war against Japan, though not altogether unexpected, was received with enthusiasm and satisfaction by the Chinese Government and people. On August 9, 1945 a statement was issued by the Chinese Government spokesman as follows:

With the Soviet Union's declaration of war against Japan on August 9, the only gap left in the Asiatic Theatre in the last stages of the global war against aggression now ceases to exist. It goes without saying that this action of the Soviet Union will make the Japanese aggressors share the fate of their Axis partner — Hitlerite Germany — by bringing about their collapse at an early date, and thereby shorten the duration of the war and hasten the restoration of peace and order throughout the world.

We have always been aware of the fact that the Japanese aggressors are the common enemies of civilized humanity and are especially a great menace to the security and peaceful reconstruction of the Chinese and Soviet nations. It has long been known to the Chinese Government and people that the Japanese militarists were secretly planning for the establishment of their hegemony in East Asia and for the conquest of the whole world. Hence in July 1937, when the Japanese invaders embarked upon their large-scale aggression against China, the entire Chinese army and people resolutely took up arms under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to resist the enemy single-handed regardless of the sacrifices it entailed, and in spite of their inferior equipment they have been able to fight the invaders to a standstill by waging a war of attrition and annihilation and have thus helped to reduce the capacity of Japan to take aggressive actions in other directions. China's war of resistance, therefore, is a potent factor which has had a decisive influence on the development of the entire situation of the present worldwide anti-aggression struggle.

During the initial stages of China's war of resistance to Japanese aggression a great deal of encouragement and assistance was extended to China by the Soviet Government and people, which was truly symbolic of the spirit of sharing each other's joys and sorrows displayed by the two nations in the war against aggression. Aside from the

enormous credits extended to China by the Soviet Union in exchange for war materials, great contributions were made to China's war of resistance by the Soviet military advisers, technicians and volunteer airmen sent to this country to help China in her struggle with the enemy. This friendship which was forged at a time when China was in great difficulty is most precious and cherished by us.

China and the Soviet Union are the two largest countries in Asia. They have the longest continuous boundary line and numerous special interests in common. If there is to be permanent security in East Asia, the close cooperation of China and the Soviet Union must be regarded as the first prerequisite. In the course of her resistance to Japanese aggression and her joint struggle with her American and British allies, China's consistent policy has always been to seek the friendship of the Soviet Union. When the Soviet Union was suffering from the barbarous and ruthless attacks of Hitlerite Germany, the Chinese people had unbounded sympathy for the Soviet people. And for the brilliant successes achieved by the Soviet forces under the inspiring leadership of Generalissimo Stalin we have nothing but the profoundest admiration. The most cordial welcome accorded to Dr. T. V. Soong during his first visit to Moscow and the friendly attitude of Generalissimo Stalin and M. Molotov at the Sino-Soviet talks have been a source of deep gratification to us. Now at the

very moment while Dr. Soong is paying his second visit to Moscow together with the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, the Soviet Union has already become our ally in the joint struggle with Japan. We strongly believe that this will not only lead to Japan's immediate collapse but will help to lay the foundation of a lasting peace in East Asia.

In the statement announcing her declaration of war against Japan the Soviet Union formally declared her adherence to the demand for Japan's unconditional surrender issued by the heads of the Governments of China, the United States and Great Britain on July 26, 1945, in which there were explicit provisions for the treatment of Japan after the war and the effective implementation of the decisions of the Cairo Conference. This is most gratifying indeed as it clearly shows the unanimity of views and the spirit of perfect harmony existing among the chief Allied nations.

As for Japan, she has long realized the impossibility of winning the war, and her only hope has been that dissensions might arise among the Allied nations and thereby give her a breathing spell. Facts, however, have already proved that there can be no such possibility. Immediately following the experimental attack on Hiroshima with an atomic bomb by the American air force, the Soviet Union has announced her declaration of war against Japan, which cannot but have an overwhelming and crushing effect on the enemy. If there is still an

iota of wisdom left in the Japanese people, they ought to realize that the only way to avert Japan's utter destruction is to comply with the joint demand of China, the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union and unconditionally surrender to the Allied nations.

III. ATOMIC WARFARE

Following the refusal of the Japanese Government to accept the Potsdam Proclamation, the atomic bomb, which President Truman described as the most terrifying weapon ever conceived by mankind, was first used in a B-29 attack, on August 6, 1945, on Hiroshima, an important Japanese army base, 150 miles west of Kobe on Honshu, with a population of 318,000.

Meanwhile the existence of the Allies' atomic bomb, more powerful than 2,000 tons of TNT (trinitrotoluol) and having more than 22,000 times the blast power of the British 22,000 lb. "Grand Slam",—was first disclosed by President Truman in a statement from Washington. In the statement the President revealed that Mr. Churchill and the late President Roosevelt had agreed on the wisdom of carrying on atomic bomb manufacture in the U.S.A. which was to outreach the German attack.

The statement, in its abridged form, is as follows:

With this bomb we have now added a new and revolutionary increase in destruction to supplement the growing power of our armed forces. In their present form, these bombs are now in production, and even more

powerful forms are in development.

We are now prepared to obliterate more rapidly and completely every productive enterprise the Japanese have above ground in any city. We shall destroy their docks, their factories and their communications. Let there be no mistake, we shall completely destroy Japan's power to make war.

It was to spare the Japanese people from utter destruction that the ultimatum of July 26 was issued from Potsdam. Their leaders promptly rejected that ultimatum. If they do not now accept our terms they may expect a rain of ruin from the air the like of which has never been seen on this earth.

Behind this air attack will follow sea and land forces in such numbers and power as they have not yet seen and with a fighting skill of which they are already well aware.

President Truman said that before 1939 it was the "accepted belief of scientists that it was theoretically possible to release atomic energy, but no one knew any practical method of doing it. By 1942, however, we knew the Germans were working feverishly to find a way to add atomic energy to other engines of war with which they hoped to enslave the world. But they failed. We may be grateful to Providence that the Germans got V-1s and

V-2s late and in limited quantities, and even more grateful that they did not get atomic bombs at all."

President Truman's epoch-making announcement threatening Japan with complete ruin from the air broadcast repeatedly from powerful medium-wave transmitters in the Marianas as well as from shortwave transmitters along the United States' western seaboard.

Dramatized in leaflet form, details of the most terrible missile in history were scattered over the Japanese home islands.

The result of the first atom bomb on Hiroshima created a psychological effect even more devastating than the physical. Sixty percent of the Japanese army town was wiped out and it was at first reported that approximately 100,000 people were killed, thus completely shaking Japan's nerve for war.

Three days later, at noon on August 9, the second use of the atomic bomb occurred at Nagasaki, the big Japanese naval port on the west coast of Kyushu. (1).

Japan then realized that she was facing a choice between unconditional surrender and national harakiri; she was wise to select the former.

IV. JAPAN'S ACCEPTANCE OF ALLIED TERMS

Two atomic bombs and Russia's entry into the Asiatic Theatre of war brought Japan to her knees.

(1) The first details of the two devastating atom bomb raids were given by the Japanese News agency on 22nd August. The two bombs, according to the Agency, killed or injured nearly 200,000 Japanese. The first bomb, dropped on Hiroshima naval base, either blew up or destroyed by fire practically all houses within a nine-mile radius, caused intense heat-wave ripples and "black rain." Sixty thousand Japanese were killed at Hiroshima, with 100,000 injured and 90,000 made homeless.

On August 10, the Tokyo radio declared that the Japanese Government had decided to accept the Potsdam Proclamation calling for Japan's surrender, with the stipulation that acceptance of the ultimatum did not prejudice "the prerogatives of His Majesty as Sovereign Ruler."

The text of the Japanese broadcast is as follows:

In obedience to the gracious command of His Majesty the Emperor who, ever anxious to enhance the cause of world peace, desires earnestly to bring about an early termination of hostilities with a view to saving mankind from the calamities to be imposed upon them by further continuance of war, the Japanese Government several weeks ago asked the Soviet Government, with which neutral relations then prevailed, to render its good offices in restoring peace with the enemy Powers.

Unfortunately, these efforts in the interest of peace having failed, the Japanese Government, in conformity with the august wish of His Majesty to restore general peace and desiring to put an end to untold sufferings entailed by war as quickly as possible, have decided upon the following:

The Japanese Government is ready to accept the terms enumerated in the joint declaration issued at Potsdam on July 26 by the heads of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and China, and lately subscribed to by the Soviet Government, with the understanding that the said declaration does not comprise any demand which

prejudices the prerogatives of His Majesty as Sovereign Ruler.

The Japanese Government hope sincerely that this understanding is warranted and desire keenly that an explicit indication to that effect will be speedily forthcoming.

Before the broadcast was made a note to this effect had already been sent to the Swiss and Swedish Governments for transmission to the United States, Britain, China, and the Soviet Union.

On August 11, the Allied Powers agreed to accept the Japanese surrender offer provided that the Emperor obeyed the orders of the Supreme Allied Commander, ordered the surrender of all Japanese forces and carried out the provisions of the Potsdam Proclamation.

The reply to the Japanese offer was sent by the U.S. Secretary of State, Mr. James Byrnes, through the Swiss Legation in Washington for transmission to Japan, and it represented the views of Britain, Russia and China, as well as of the United States. The full text of the reply is as follows:

At the moment of surrender the authority of the Emperor and of the Japanese Government to rule the State shall be subject to the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers who will take such steps as he deems proper to effectuate the surrender terms.

The Emperor will be required to authorize and ensure signature by the Government of Japan and Japanese Imperial Headquarters of the surrender terms necessary to carry out the

provisions of the Potsdam Declaration and shall issue his command to all Japanese military, naval and air authorities and to all forces under their control, wherever they are located, to cease active operations and to surrender their arms and to issue such other orders as the Supreme Commander may require to give effect to the surrender terms. The ultimate form of the Japanese government shall be established by the freely-expressed wishes of the people of Japan.

After the despatch of the aforesaid reply the whole world was expecting the immediate surrender of Japan but not until 6.30 a.m. (IST) August 15, did the Second World War come to an end. Prime Minister Attlee in London and President Truman in Washington simultaneously announced that Japan had accepted the Allied terms to surrender unconditionally. Meanwhile the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Chungking issued the following communique:

The Japanese Government has formally surrendered unconditionally. The message was sent to the American Government through the Swiss Government. It reads as follows:

'With reference to the Japanese Government's note of August 10, regarding the acceptance of the provisions of the Potsdam Declaration and the reply of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union and China sent by the American Secretary of State, Byrnes, on August 11th the

Japanese Government have the honour to communicate to the Governments of the four Powers as follows:

1. His Majesty the Emperor has issued an Imperial Prescript regarding Japan's acceptance of the provisions of the Potsdam Declaration.

2. His Majesty the Emperor is prepared to authorize and insure the signature by His Government and the Imperial General Headquarters of the necessary terms for carrying out the provisions of the Potsdam Declaration.

3. His Majesty is also prepared to issue his commands to all military, naval and air authorities of Japan and all the forces under their control wherever located to cease active operations, to surrender arms, and to issue such orders as may be required by the Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces for the execution of the above-mentioned terms.

As head of the nation President Chiang Kai-shek on August 15, broadcast the following message on victory over Japan to the people of the world and the soldiers and civilians of China.

Right will triumph over might —this great truth which we never once doubted has been finally vindicated. Our faith in justice, through black and hopeless days and eight long years of struggle, has today been rewarded. The historical mission of our national revolution has at last been fulfilled.

For the peace that lies before us we pay grateful tribute, first to the millions of our soldiers and civilians who so bravely sacrificed their lives; to our Allies who fought by our side for freedom and right; and to the Father of our Republic, Dr. Sun Yat-sen who labored all his lifetime to guide our national revolution to success. But for him we would not be enjoying this day of victory. Above all, we join in thanksgiving to our righteous and merciful God.

The people of China suffered and sacrificed more and more each year as our long war of defence went on. But the confidence that we would emerge victorious also grew from day to day. Our fellow countrymen in the enemy occupied areas had to endure long night of devastation and disgrace. Today they are liberated and can see again the "White Sun in the Blue Sky." The cheers and rejoicings of our armies and people have their deepest meaning in this new freedom for our long-oppressed compatriots.

We have won the victory. But it is not yet the final victory. The universal power of righteousness has yet to achieve one more triumph. We and the people of all the world fervently hope that this war may be the final one.

If this is really to be the last war in human history then our people will not feel that the indescribable cruelties and humiliations they have endured are too big a price to have paid on that peace.

Even in periods of deepest gloom and despair, our people with their fine inherited loyalty, fortitude, magnanimity and goodwill hold to the conviction that sacrifices made for justice and humanity would surely be followed by rightful compensations.

The greatest compensation has been the mutual trust and confidence between peace-loving peoples of the world born out of our common struggle. With the flesh and blood of their armed youth the United Nations build a long continuous dyke against the tide of aggression. All who took part in the great conflict are now Allies, united not simply for a temporary advantage, but rather for a great common faith that binds us together for centuries to come. No intrigues could wreck this great union.

It is my sincere belief that all men on earth—whether they live in the East or the West and whatever the color of their skin may be—will someday be linked together in close fellowship like members of one family. World war is indivisible, and world peace, too, is indivisible. It has encouraged international understanding and mutual trust, which will serve as a powerful bastion against future wars.

I am deeply moved when I think of the teachings of Jesus Christ that we should do unto others as we would have them do unto us and love our enemies. My fellow countrymen know that "nurse no hatred against others" and "do good to all men" have been the highest virtues taught by our own sages. We

have always said that the violent militarism of Japan is our enemy, not the people of Japan. Although the armed forces of the enemy have been defeated and must be made to observe strictly all the terms of surrender, yet we should not for a moment think of revenge or heap abuse upon the innocent people of Japan. We can only pity them for they have been sadly deceived and misled, and hope that they will break away from the wrong doings and crimes of their nation. Let all our fellow citizens—soldiers and civilians—remember this.

The enemy's imperialistic designs at the expense of China have been thoroughly crushed. But relaxation and pride are not rewards of victory that we seek. Peace, when fighting has entirely ceased, will confront us with stupendous and difficult tasks demanding greater strength and sacrifice than the years of war. At times we may feel that the problems of peace that descend upon us are more trying even than those we met during the war.

I think one very serious problem is how to make the peoples misguided by Fascist rulers admit their mistakes and defeat and recognize that our struggle for national independence, democracy and the welfare of all the people is more in harmony with truth and human rights than their struggle for land and power by means of violence and terrorism.

Permanent world peace can be established only upon the basis of democratic freedom and equality and the brotherly coopera-

tion of all nations and races. We must march forward on the great road of democracy and unity and give our collective support to the ideals of lasting peace.

I urge all our friends of the Allied nations and all my own countrymen to face the fact that the peace we have gained by arms is not necessarily the beginning of permanent peace. Only if our enemies are conquered also on the battleground of reason, only if they repent thoroughly of their folly and become lovers of world peace like ourselves, can we hope to satisfy the yearning of mankind for peace and achieve the final goal of the great war that has just ended.

On August 15, General MacArthur was appointed Allied Supreme Commander to accept the Japanese surrender in person and in his capacity as such ordered Japan to cease hostilities immediately and send a competent delegation to Manila to receive surrender terms. Before that, he had already established radio communications with Hirohito and the Japanese Government. In compliance with the Allied Supreme Commander's instructions the Japanese Emperor issued on August 16, the order to all Japanese forces to cease hostilities immediately. On August 19, a 16-man Japanese delegation, headed by Lieutenant General Torashiro Kawabe, Vice-Chief of the Japanese Imperial General Staff arrived at Manila to receive directives for the formal surrender of their country. The next day the Japanese delegates left Manila after having been handed the Allied "invasion plan"

by the Supreme Commander's staff officers. Immediately after the departure of the Japanese emissaries General MacArthur made the following statement regarding the conference:

The Japanese emissaries have reported to the General Headquarters. They have imparted all the information required and instruction of the United Nations are being conveyed by them to the Government of Japan and to the Japanese General Imperial Headquarters. In my capacity as the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers I shall proceed soon to Japan with accompanying forces composed of ground, naval and air elements. Subject to weather that will permit landings it is anticipated that the instrument of surrender will be signed within 10 days.

At that time, having accepted the general surrender of Japanese armed forces for the United States, the Chinese Republic, the United Kingdom and Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics and in the interests of other United Nations at war with Japan, I shall direct the Japanese Imperial Headquarters to issue general orders which will instruct Japanese commanders wherever situated to surrender unconditionally themselves and all forces under their control to an appropriate commander. Responsibility for that portion of the Southwest Pacific area which lies south of the Philippines will be assumed by British and Australian commanders.

It is my earnest hope that pending the formal accomplishment of the instrument of sur-

render armistice conditions may prevail on every front and that bloodless surrender may be effectuated.

On August 23, General MacArthur stated in his communique that he had ordered the Japanese Imperial Government and General Headquarters to put the following directives in effect by 6 p.m., Friday, August 24.

1. Until the Allies notify the Japanese of their disposition, all Japanese military, naval and civil aircraft must remain out of the air.

2. All Japanese and Japanese-controlled, military, naval or merchant vessels in Japanese water to be maintained without damage and undertake no movement. All those at sea to report their positions and await further orders. Explosives on ships are to be disposed of. All under-sea craft are to remain on the surface, to report their positions and to await further orders.

The communique pointed out that the safety and well-being of all United Nations prisoners of war and internees must be "scrupulously preserved," including provision of food, shelter, clothing and medical care until General MacArthur took charge.

On August 30, General MacArthur landed on Japanese soil. The first group of the 11th Airborne Occupation Troops had begun landing about 6 o'clock in the morning.

This advance party left Okinawa early in the morning at the spearhead of history's greatest air armada. Thousands of fighters gave protection to the Supreme Commander and his fighting troops

in the thousands of transports drawn from all over the world.

Shortly after the arrival of the para-troopers at Atsugi airfield the Allied Fleet began landing troops on the north shore of Tokyo Bay, just above Yokosuka naval base.

Rear-Admiral Robert Carney, Chief of Staff to Admiral Halsey, formally took over the naval base on the same day.

V. THE SIGNING OF THE SURRENDER DOCUMENTS—OFFICIAL ENDING OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR

Six years after the start of hostilities in Europe and over eight years since the outbreak of the warfare in Asia, Japan at last lay prostrate at the feet of the Allies. The capitulation ceremonies were officiated and surrender documents signed aboard the U.S. battleship "Missouri" in Tokyo Bay on September 2, 1945.

The dramatic ceremonies aboard the giant battleship "Missouri" reached a climax when representatives of Emperor Hirohito, the Japanese Government and Imperial Headquarter signed the capitulation document as instructed by General MacArthur, who said:

As Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, I announce it my firm purpose in the tradition of the countries I represent, to proceed in the discharge of my responsibilities with justice and tolerance, while taking all necessary dispositions to insure that terms of the surrender are fully, promptly and faithfully complied with.

The surrender ceremony required only a few minutes. The

Japanese representatives affixed their names before the eyes of American and British commanders whom they had previously defeated in the Philippines and Malaya.

Foreign Minister Mamoru Shigemitsu was the first to sign for Japan on behalf of Emperor Hirohito. The instrument was duplicated in English and Japanese. Then came General Yoshijiro Umezu, signing for the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters.

These were followed by the Allied representatives led by the Supreme Commander, General Douglas MacArthur. Fleet Admiral Chester W. Nimitz signed for the U.S. Navy.

For China the document was signed by General Hsu Yungchang, while Lieutenant General Kuzma Derevyenko represented Russia and Admiral Sir Bruce Fraser signed for Great Britain.

Then came General Sir Thomas Blamey for Australia, Colonel Lawrence Mooredosgrave for Canada, General Jacques Le Clere for France, Admiral C.E.L. Helfrich for the Netherlands and Vice-Marshal L. M. Istitt for New Zealand.

Following is the official text of the instrument of surrender signed by the Japanese:

1. We, acting by the command of and in behalf of the Emperor of Japan, the Japanese Government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters, hereby accept the declaration issued by United States, China, and Great Britain, July 26, 1945 at Potsdam and subsequently adhered to by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, which Four Powers are hereafter referred to as the Allied Powers.

2. We hereby proclaim the unconditional surrender to the Allied Powers of the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters and of all the Japanese Armed Forces and all Armed Forces under Japanese control wherever situated.

3. We hereby command all the Japanese Forces wherever situated, and the Japanese people, to cease hostilities forthwith, to preserve and save from damage all ships, aircraft and military and civil property and to comply with all requirements which may be imposed by the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers or by the agencies of the Japanese Government at his direction.

4. We hereby command the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters to issue at once the order to commanders of all Japanese Forces and all forces under Japanese control wherever situated to surrender unconditionally themselves and all who are under their control.

5. We hereby command all civil, military and naval officials to obey and enforce all proclamations, orders and directives deemed by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers to be proper to effectuate this surrender and issued by him or by those under his authority, and we direct all such officials to remain at their posts and to continue to perform their non-combatant duties unless specially relieved by him or those under his authority.

6. We hereby undertake for the Emperor, the Japanese Government and their successors to

carry out the provisions of the Potsdam Declaration all in good faith and to issue whatever orders and to take whatever action may be required by the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers or by any designated representatives of Allied Powers for the purpose of giving effect to that Declaration.

7. We hereby command the Japanese Imperial Government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters at once to liberate all Allied prisoners of war and civilian internees not under Japanese control and to provide for their protection and welfare maintenance and immediate transportation to places as directed.

8. The authority of the Emperor and the Japanese Government to rule the state shall be subject to the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers, who will take such steps as he deems proper to effectuate those terms of the surrender.

Following is the text of Emperor Hirohito's surrender proclamation, issued by order of General MacArthur:

Accepting the terms set forth in the Declaration issued by the heads of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and China on July 26, 1945, at Potsdam and subsequently adhered to by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, I have commanded the Japanese Imperial Government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters to sign on my behalf the instrument of surrender presented by the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers and to issue gen-

eral orders to the military, naval forces in accordance with the direction of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers.

I command all my people forthwith to cease hostilities, to lay down their arms faithfully and to carry out all the provisions of the instrument of surrender and orders issued by the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters.

Article by article, here is what Japan agreed to do under the terms of the surrender:

First, adopt all provisions of the Potsdam Declaration.

Second, surrender unconditionally all armed forces.

Third, cease hostilities forthwith and preserve and save from damage all ships, aircraft and military and civil property.

Fourth, command Imperial General Headquarters to issue orders to all field commanders everywhere to surrender their forces unconditionally.

Fifth, see that all civil, military and naval officials obey and enforce all orders of the Supreme Allied Commander.

Sixth, responsible Japanese-controlled military and civil authorities will hold intact and in good condition, pending further instructions from the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers, the following:

A — All arms, ammunitions, military equipment, stores and supplies and other implements of war of all kinds and all other war material (except as specifically prescribed in Condition 4 of this order).

B — All land, water and air transportation and communication facilities and equipment.

C — All military installations and establishments, including airfields, seaplane bases, anti-aircraft defences, ports and naval bases, storage depots, permanent and temporary land and coast fortifications, fortresses and other fortified areas, together with plans and drawings of all such fortifications, installations and establishments.

D — All factories, plants, shops, research institutions, laboratories, testing stations, technical data, patterns, plans, drawings and inventions designed or intended to produce or to facilitate production or use of all implements of war and other material and property used by or intended for use by any military or part military organization in connection with its operations.

Seventh, Japanese Imperial General Headquarters shall furnish to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers (within time limit of receipt of this order) a complete list of all items specified in Paragraph B and D of Sixth above indicating numbers, types and locations of each.

Eighth, manufacture and distribution of all arms, ammunition and implements of war will cease forthwith.

Ninth, with respect to United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees in the hands of the Japanese or Japanese controlled authorities:

A — The safety and well-being of all United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees will be scrupulously preserved to include administrative and supply service essential

to provide adequate food, shelter, clothing and medical care until such responsibility is undertaken by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

B — Each camp or other place of detention of United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees, together with its equipment, records, arms and ammunition will be delivered immediately to the command of the senior officer designated as the representative of prisoners of war and civilian internees.

C — As directed by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, prisoners of war and civilian internees will be transported to places of safety where they can be accepted by Allied authorities.

D — Japanese Imperial General Headquarters will furnish to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers (within time limit of the receipt of this order) complete lists of all United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees, indicating their location.

Tenth, all Japanese and Japanese-controlled military and civil authorities shall aid and assist the occupation of Japanese-controlled areas by forces of the Allied Powers.

Eleventh, Japanese Imperial General Headquarters and appropriate Japanese official shall be prepared, on instructions from Allied occupation commanders, to collect and deliver all arms in the possession of the Japanese civilian population.

Twelfth, this and all subsequent instructions issued by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Forces or other Allied military authorities will be scrupulously and promptly obeyed by Japanese and Japanese-controlled military and civil officials and private persons.

Any delay or failure to comply with the provisions of this or subsequent orders and any action which the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers determines to be detrimental to the Allied Powers will incur drastic and summary punishment at the hands of the Allied military authorities and the Japanese Government.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE DISARMAMENT OF THE JAPANESE TROOPS IN THE CHINA THEATRE

As a result of the acceptance by the Japanese Government on August 15, 1945 of the provisions of the Potsdam Proclamation made known to the World on July 26, 1945 calling upon Japan to surrender unconditionally, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in the China Theatre, on the same day issued a telegraphic instruction to Lt.-General Yasutsugu Okamura, Commander of the Japanese Forces in Central China, to order the Japanese Forces under the latter's command to cease all military activities and to send a surrender mission to Yushan, Kiangsi, to receive orders from General Ho Ying Chin, Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Army. Upon the receipt of the instruction, General Okamura forwarded to the Generalissimo a reply in which he decided to send Brigadier-General Kiyoshi, Deputy Chief of Staff, as his surrender envoy. In his second telegraphic instruction to General Okamura, the Generalissimo ordered the Japanese envoy to proceed to Chihkiang in Hunan, instead of Yushan as originally designated, due to the fact that the airdrome at Yushan was then not ready for use, and gave detailed instructions in connection with the dispatch of Briga-

dier-General Kiyoshi, as surrender envoy to Chihkiang. The telegram in part reads:

Lieut.-Gen. Yautsugu Okamura, Commander of the Japanese Forces in Central China, Nanking.

Your Deputy Chief of Staff Kiyoshi may proceed to Chihkiang in Hunan on Aug. 21 but the following instructions must be complied with:

1. The number of the representatives must not exceed five persons (among whom there should be one pilot familiar with the conditions of the air fields in the vicinities of Shanghai and Nanking). They shall have on the morning of Aug. 21 in a Japanese plane which shall take off from Hankow and fly direct to Changteh in Hunan. Upon reaching Changteh, the plane shall fly at an altitude of 5000 feet and the time shall be 10 a.m. Chungking summer time (2 a.m. Greenwich Standard Time). At that time, three Allied fighter planes will appear over Changteh at an altitude of 6000 feet to meet the Japanese plane. If the ceiling happens to be very low, the Japanese plane shall be 1000 feet below the ceiling, while the altitude of the Allied planes 500 feet below the ceiling.

2. The Japanese plane shall paint an additional Japanese national flag in bright and shining color on each of the wings and at the ends of both wings, a piece of red cloth of four meters long shall be fastened in order that the plane may be easily distinguished and identified.

3. The three Allied fighter planes shall escort the Japanese plane to the Chihkiang airfield for landing. The order of landing shall be as follows: the first plane to land will be Allied plane, the second the Japanese plane and the third and fourth Allied planes.

4. Deputy of Chief of Staff Kiyoshi shall carry with him documents and maps showing the order of battle, the deployment of the troops and the system of command of all the Japanese forces stationed in China, Formosa and the Annam areas north of 16 degrees North latitude.

5. If due to adverse weather the Japanese plane cannot complete the mission, it shall on the following day carry out the mission according to the time and manner specified above.

6. The crew of the Japanese plane shall use the wave length of 5860 k.c. in communication and call in English the following signal: "King Able Air Ground Control" in order to establish contact with the air ground command of the Chihkiang airfield. At a distance about 100 miles from Chihkiang they shall begin to call the signal and keep on calling every ten minutes until they can see the Chihkiang airfield. The

Chihkiang station directing the landing will use the wave length of 425 k.c. and its calling signal in English will be "King Able." When the Japanese crew see the Chihkiang airfield, they should stop communication with the "King Able" air ground command and immediately use the wave length of 4495 k.c. to establish contact with "King Able" command tower.

7. Upon receipt of this telegram, a reply should be broadcast over the Nanking radio station XON with the wave length of 5400 k.c. on August 19 between 6 and 8 p.m. Chungking summer time.

The Japanese surrender envoy, Brigadier-Gen. Kiyoshi, accompanied by two staff officers and one interpreter landed at the Chihkiang airfield on Aug. 21. He was received by General Hsiao Yi-shu, Chief of Staff of the Chinese Army Headquarters, who in an audience attended by more than one hundred Chinese and Allied officers, handed to Brigadier-General Kiyoshi a memorandum of General Ho Ying-chin for transmission to General Okamura.

The measures for the surrender of Japanese forces in China embodied in General Ho's memorandum to General Okamura are as follows:

1. Areas in Indo-China lying north of 16 degrees north latitude are to be taken over by General Lu Han, Commander of the 1st Area Forces.

2. Canton, Hongkong, Leichow Peninsula and Hainan Island are to be taken over by General

Chang Fah-kwei, Commander of the 2nd Area Forces.

3. Kukong, Chaochow and Swatow are to be taken over by General Yu Han-mu, Commander of the 7th War Area.

4. Changsha and Hengyang are to be taken over by General Weng Yao-wu, Commander of the 4th Area Forces.

5. Nanchang and Kiukiang are to be taken over by General Hsueh Yueh, Commander of the 5th War Area.

6. Hangchow, Kinghwa, Ningpo and Amoy are to be taken over by General Ku Chu-tung, Commander of the 3rd War Area.

7. Nanking and Shanghai are to be taken over by General Tang En-po, Commander of the 6th War Area.

8. Wuhan, Ichang and Shasi are to be taken over by General Sun Wei-ju, Commander of the 7th War Area.

9. Hsuechow, Anking, Pengpu and Haichow are to be taken over by General Li Ping-hsien, Commander of the 10th War Area.

10. Tientsin, Peiping, Paoting and Shihchiachwan are to be taken over by General Sun Lien-chung, Commander of the 11th War Area.

11. Tsingtao, Tsinan, and Tehchow are to be taken over by General Li Yen-nien, Deputy Commander of the 11th War Area.

12. Loyang is to be taken over by General Hu Tsung-nan, Commander of the First Area Forces.

13. Shansi Province is to be taken over by General Yen Hsi-shan, Commander of the 2nd War Area.

14. Jehol, Chahar and Suiyuan are to be taken over by General Fu Tso-yi, Commander of the 12th War Area.

15. Chenchow, Keifeng, Sinhsiang, Kanyang, Siangyang and Fengcheng are to be taken over by General Liu Shih, Commander of the 5th War Area.

Brigadier-General Kiyoshi formally accepted the memorandum and pledged to convey it to General Okamura. The surrender party left for Nanking on August 23.

On August 27, Lt.-Gen. Leng Hsin, Deputy Chief of Staff of the Chinese Army Headquarters, together with a party of 150 Chinese military officers arrived in Nanking by air to set up an advance headquarters for the purpose of facilitating the Japanese surrender which was formally held in Nanking on September 9, 1945.

The ceremony for the Japanese surrender in the China Theatre which marks the official conclusion of China's 8-year war of resistance took place in a simple, 20-minute ceremony in the auditorium of the Central Military Academy in Nanking on September 9, 1945 at 9 a.m. General Ho Ying-chin and Lt.-Gen. Okamura representing their respective Governments signed the surrender document which has an effect of calling more than one million Japanese troops of the land, sea and air forces in China, excluding the North Eastern Provinces and Formosa, to lay down their arms and place themselves at the disposal of the Chinese commanders in the fields. The full text of the Japanese surrender document is as follows:

ACT OF SURRENDER

"The Emperor of Japan, the Japanese government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters, having recognized the complete military defeat of the Japanese military forces by the Allied forces and having surrendered unconditionally to the Supreme Commander for the Allied powers, having directed by his general order No. 1 that the senior commanders and all ground, sea, air and auxiliary forces within China excluding Manchuria, Formosa and French Indo-China north of 16 degrees north latitude shall surrender to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

"We, the Japanese Commanders of all Japanese forces and auxiliaries in the areas named above, also recognizing the complete military defeat of the Japanese military forces by the Allied forces, hereby surrender unconditionally all of the forces under our command to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. All the Japanese forces hereby surrendered will cease hostilities and will remain at the stations they now occupy. They are now non-combatant troops and in due course will be demobilized. They will assemble, preserve without damage, and turn over to the forces specified by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, all arms, ammunition, equipment, supplies, records, information and other assets of any kind belonging to the Japanese forces. Pending specific instructions, all Japanese aircraft, naval units and merchant ships in the areas named above will be held without damage where they are at present located.

"All the Allied prisoners of war and civilian internees now under Japanese control in the areas named above will be liberated at once and the Japanese forces will provide protection, care, maintenance and transportation to places as directed.

"Henceforth, all the Japanese forces, hereby surrendered, will be subject to the control of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. Their movements and activities will be dictated by him and they will obey only the orders and proclamations issued, or authorized, by him, or the orders of their Japanese commanders based upon his instructions.

"This act of surrender and all subsequent orders and proclamations of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to the surrender forces will be issued at once to the appropriate subordinate commanders and forces and it will be the responsibility of all Japanese commanders and forces to see that such proclamations and orders are immediately and completely complied with.

"For any failure or delay, by any member of the forces surrendered hereby to act in accordance with this act of surrender or future orders or proclamation of the Generalissimo, he will summarily and drastically punish both the violator and his responsible commanders."

Immediate after the signing of the surrender document by the representatives of the Japanese troops in the China Theatre, General Ho Ying-chin handed Order No. 1 of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to General Okamura as a sup-

plement to the Act of Surrender. The text of the Order is as follows:

**ORDER OF GENERALISSIMO
CHIANG KAI-SHEK**

I. This is order No. 1 of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to the Japanese forces in China excluding Manchuria, Formosa and French Indo-China north of 16 degrees of north latitude which were surrendered under the act of Sept. 9, 1945. This order supplements the acts of surrender to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers and his General Order No. 1.

II. The Japanese Commanders surrendering the Japanese forces in the areas named above will issue the following order to and insure compliance of such order by all forces under their command.

A. The Emperor of Japan, the Japanese government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters have recognized complete military defeat of the Japanese military forces by the Allied forces and have surrendered unconditionally all Japanese forces to the Allied Powers.

B. All the Japanese ground, sea, air and auxiliary forces within China excluding Manchuria, Formosa and Indo-China north of 16 degrees of north latitude have been surrendered unconditionally to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and henceforth all such surrendered Japanese forces will be subject to the control of the Generalissimo. Their movements and activities will be dictated by him and they will obey only orders or proclamations issued or authorized by him, or orders of their Japanese

commanders based upon his instructions.

C. The surrendered Japanese forces are now non-combatant troops and all hostilities will cease. All such Japanese forces will remain at the stations they now occupy and await further orders from the Generalissimo. They will assemble, preserve without damage, and turn over to forces specified by the Generalissimo all arms, ammunition, equipment, supplies, records, information and assets of any kind belonging to the Japanese forces and auxiliaries.

D. All Japanese aircraft, naval units and merchant ships in the areas named above will be held without damage where they are at present located, except those stated in the Generalissimo's proclamation No. 1, boats on the Yangtze will be assembled at Ichang. Explosives aboard vessels will be removed immediately to safe storage ashore.

E. Commanders of the Japanese military units and civilian auxiliaries will maintain discipline and order and will be responsible for the behavior of their troops. They will see that their forces do not harm or molest inhabitants, or pillage loot or bring unauthorized damage to their property.

F. With respect to the United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees in the hands of the Japanese or Japanese controlled authorities:

1. The safety and well-being of all United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees will be scrupulously preserved, to include the administrative and supply services essential to provide

adequate food, shelter, clothing and medical care until such responsibility is undertaken by the Generalissimo or his authorized representatives.

2. Each camp or other place of detention of United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees together with its equipment, stores, records, arms and ammunitions will be delivered immediately to the command of the senior officer or designated representative of the prisoners of war and civilian internees.

3. As directed by the Generalissimo, or his duly authorized representatives, prisoners of war and civilian internees will be transported to places of safety where they can be accepted by Allied authorities.

4. The Supreme Headquarters in China, Formosa and Indo-China of each of the Japanese military forces and auxiliaries which have surrendered to the Generalissimo will furnish him within time limit of this order, complete lists of all United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees indicating their location.

G. Pending further orders the Japanese forces surrendered to the Generalissimo will continue to operate their lines of services and supply essential to provide food, clothing, medical and other subsistence supplies to feed and supply their own forces and persons for whom they are responsible.

H. Responsible Japanese or Japanese controlled military and civil authorities will insure that:

1. All Japanese mines and minefields and other obstacles to movement by land, sea and air, wherever located will be removed according to instructions of the Generalissimo or his representatives.

2. All safety lanes are to be kept open and clearly marked pending accomplishment of above.

3. All land, water and air transportation and communications facilities and equipment are to be held intact and maintained in good condition.

4. All military installations and establishment including airfields, seaplane bases, aircraft defenses, ports and naval bases, storage depots, permanent and temporary land and coast fortifications, fortresses and other fortifications, installations and establishments, all factories, plants, ships, research institutions, laboratories, testing storage depots, permanent and plans, drawings and inventions designed or intended to produce or to facilitate the production on and of all implements of war and other material and property used by or intended for use by military or semi-military organizations in connection with its operations are to be held intact and maintained in good condition.

III. The Supreme Headquarters in China, Formosa and French Indo-China of the forces which have been surrendered to the Generalissimo within time limit of the receipt of this order will furnish complete information for their

respective areas concerning the following:

A. Lists of all land, air and anti-aircraft units showing locations and strengths in the officers and men.

B. Lists of all aircraft military, naval and civil giving complete information as to the number, type, location and condition of such aircraft.

C. Lists of all Japanese and Japanese controlled naval vessels, surface and submarines and auxiliary naval craft in or out of commission and under construction, giving their position and condition.

D. List of, and position and condition of, all Japanese and Japanese controlled merchant ships of over 100 gross tons in or out of commission and under construction including merchant ships formerly belonging to any of the United Nations which are now in the Japanese hands.

E. Complete and detailed information accompanied by maps, showing locations and layouts of all the mines, minefields, and other obstacles to movement by land, sea or air and the safety lanes in connection therewith.

F. Locations and descriptions of all military installations and establishments, including airfields, seaplane bases, anti-aircraft defences ports and naval bases, storage depots, permanent and temporary land and coast fortifications, fortresses and other fortified areas.

G. Location of all camps and other places of detention of United Nations prisoners of war and civilian internees required under paragraph II F above.

IV. The Supreme Headquarters in China, Formosa and Indo-China

of the forces surrendered to the Generalissimo shall be prepared, on instructions from the occupation commanders representing the Generalissimo to furnish the names and addresses of Japanese civilians residing in their respective areas and to collect and deliver all arms in the possession of such Japanese civilian population. The Headquarters named above will immediately notify all Japanese civilians that until further notice from appropriate authorities representing the Generalissimo they will remain in the vicinity of their present residence and will keep the local Japanese commander advised of their whereabouts.

In accordance with a report submitted by the Japanese Headquarters, there were in the China Theatre (including the areas in Indo-China lying north of 16 degrees north latitude and Formosa and excluding the North Eastern Provinces) over one million and three hundred eighty five thousand of Japanese troops and over half a million of Japanese civilians. In accordance with the provisions embodied in General Ho Ying-chin's memoranda to General Okamura on several occasions, there were divided in the China Theatre sixteen areas and the local commanders in their respective areas were empowered to receive Japanese surrender and to disarm the Japanese troops. To the end of December, 1945, the programme of receiving surrender and of disarming the Japanese troops were nearly completed. Already over one million of the Japanese troops were interned and ready for repatriation.

PART V
CHINA AND THE WORLD

CHAPTER XXV

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

HO FENG-SHAN (何鳳山)*

I. INTRODUCTION

During the period under review (from January 1944 to December 1945) there were no less than ten important international conferences in which China participated. In the course of World War II leaders of the United Nations were fully aware that the winning of peace was just as important as the winning of war. They further realized that peace in the real sense of the word should be just and durable and that a peace of such nature could only be obtained through the willing cooperation of all nations, large and small.

As far as China is concerned, her participation in international conferences has been inspired by her sincere desire to share the responsibility commensurate with her ability and capacity to reshape the world not only for her own interest but also for the well being of all nations and their posterity.

Of the ten conferences mentioned in this Chapter, the United Nations Conference on International Organization is the most important, for it laid down plans and provided measures for the maintenance of peace and security. However, the maintenance of peace and security, as Dr. Willington Koo rightly pointed out,

is not an end in itself, but a necessary condition under which the welfare of all people may be improved and the rule of law may be established.

The world is becoming smaller as time marches on. Isolation is an obsolete term. In the future, nations, being free from fear as peace and security will have to be maintained, will concentrate their efforts for the furtherance of human civilization through cooperation and collaboration. View in this light the ten international conferences as recorded in the following pages may be well regarded as the beginning of human ingenuity in that direction.

II. UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCES ON FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

The United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture, held at Hot Spring, Virginia, U.S.A. on May 18, 1943, has been called the first of the peace conferences for world War II. It was sponsored by the Government of the United States, with post-war problems on food and agriculture as its subject of discussion. Forty-five nations were represented in this Conference. The Chinese Government appointed Messrs. Kuo Ping-wen, Hsih Te-mou, Tsou Ping-wen,

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Yang Shi-tse, Chao Lien-fang, Shen Tsung-hen, Li Kan. Ying Kuo-yung, Chu Chang-keng, Liu Shuei-heng as representatives of China, with Mr. Kuo as chairman of the Delegation. The resolutions of the Conference were embodied in the Final Act signed on June 3, 1943, according to which an Interim Commission was set up to carry out the recommendations of the Conference. In the subsequent year the Commission worked out a draft of The Constitution of the Food and Agricultural Organization, to which most states agreed.

On October 16, 1945 the First Session of Food and Agricultural Organization was convened at Quebec, Canada, attended by the representatives of more than 30 nations.

The Chinese delegation to the Conference, headed by Mr. Tsou Ping-wen with Mr. Sie Kai-sen as alternate, had eleven other members as associates, advisors and secretaries.

The purpose of this Session was to formulate policies, to increase the world's food production, improve the world's nutritional standards and relieve the food shortage throughout the world. In this respect, the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization could become one of the most important institution to eliminate hunger, thereby contributing to expanding a world-wide economy.

According to the Constitution of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization the Organization is to help the nations of the world individually and collectively to solve their food problems. It would function principally as an advisory agency to help improve

nutrition levels, raise living standards, increase the efficiency of agricultural production and better the conditions of the rural population throughout the world. By promoting research, disseminating information, making recommendations and compiling data of world food production and consumption, the Organization aims at achieving gradually the ultimate goal of freedom from want. However, the Organization has no authority to enforce its recommendations upon member nations.

According to the Constitution of the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization, there should be a Director-General, who "shall have the full power and authority to direct the work of the organization . . . subject to the general supervision of the conference and its Executive Committee." Sir John Orr, internationally famous Scottish nutritionist and adviser to the United Kingdom Delegation was unanimously elected the Director-General. In his acceptance speech as first Director-General Sir John Orr emphasized that the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization was designed to bring about cooperation by using science for the promotion of human welfare.

Mr. Tsou Ping-wen, China's Chief delegate was elected member of the Executive Committee of the Organization.

III. UNITED NATIONS MONETARY AND FINANCIAL CONFERENCE

This Conference initiated by the United States Government was held at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, U.S.A. from July 1st

to July 22nd, 1944. The purpose of the Conference was to promote international financial cooperation and coordination through a permanent institution. Besides the United States there were forty-four United and Associated Nations which sent their respective delegations to attend the Conference. The Chinese Delegation was headed by Dr. H. H. Kung, then the Vice President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Finance. Other members of the delegation were as follows:

Tingfu, F. Tsiang, then Chief Political Secretary of the Executive Yuan.

Kuo Ping-wen, then Vice Minister of Finance,

Victor Hoo, then Administrative Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs,

Koo Yee-chun, then Vice Minister of Finance,

Li Kuo-ching, then Adviser to the Ministry of Finance,

Hsi Te-mou, then Representative of the Ministry of Finance in Washington,

Pei Tsu-yee, Director of the Bank of China, and

Soong Tse-liang, Director of the Central Bank of China.

The Conference was divided into three Technical Commissions: Commission I dealt with international Monetary Fund; Commission II, with the Bank for Reconstruction and Commission III, with other means of international financial cooperation. The result of the Conference was the signing of the Final Act on July 22, 1944. The two agreements, namely, the Agreement of International Monetary Fund and the Agreement of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, were

attached to the Final Act as Annex A and B, and will be signed as separate instruments before December 31st, 1945. A brief description of the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development is given hereunder.

A. The International Monetary Fund:—Since foreign trade affects the standard of life of every people, all countries have a vital interest in the system of exchange of national currencies and the regulations and conditions which govern its working. Because these monetary transactions are international exchanges, the nations must agree on the basic rules which govern the exchanges if the system is to work smoothly. When they do not agree, and when a single nation or a small group of nations attempt by special and different regulations of the foreign exchanges to gain trade advantages, the result is instability, a reduced volume of foreign trade, and damage to national economies. This course of action is likely to lead to economic warfare and to endanger the world's peace.

The Conference therefore agreed that broad international action was necessary to maintain an international monetary system which would promote foreign trade. Henceforth the nations should consult and agree on international monetary changes which affect each other. They should outlaw practices which are agreed to be harmful to world prosperity, and they should assist each other to overcome short-term exchange difficulties.

The Conference agreed that the nations here represented should establish for these purposes

a permanent international body, the International Monetary Fund, with powers and resources adequate to perform the tasks assigned to it. Agreement was reached concerning these powers and resources and the additional obligations which the member countries should undertake.

B. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development:—

It is in the interest of all nations that post-war reconstruction should be rapid. Likewise, the development of the resources of particular regions is of general economic interest. Programs of reconstruction and development will speed economic progress everywhere, and will aid political stability and foster peace.

The Conference agreed that expanded international investment was essential to provide a portion of the capital necessary for reconstruction and development.

The Conference further agreed that the nations should co-operate to increase the volume of foreign investment for these purposes, made through normal business channels. It is especially important that the nations should co-operate to share the risks of such foreign investment, since the benefits are general.

The Conference agreed that the nations should establish a permanent international body to perform these functions, to be called The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. It was agreed that the Bank should assist in providing capital through normal channels at reasonable rates of interest and for long periods for projects which would raise the productivity of the borrowing country. There was agreement

that the Bank should guarantee loans made by others and that through their subscriptions of capital all countries should share with the borrowing country in guaranteeing such loans. The Conference agreed on the powers and resources which the Bank must have and on the obligations which the member countries must assume.

The Conference recommended that in carrying out the policies of the institution special consideration should be given to the needs of countries which had suffered from enemy occupation and hostilities.

The proposals formulated at the Conference for the establishment of the Fund and the Bank have been submitted, in accordance with the terms of the invitation, for consideration of the governments and people of the countries represented.

**IV. THE INTERNATIONAL
CIVIL AVIATION
CONFERENCE**

The International Civil Aviation Conference which was held at Chicago from November 1st to December 7th, 1944, with representatives of 54 nations present was initiated by the United States Government. As Delegates Plenipotentiary of the Chinese Government Mr. Chang Chia-ngao, former Minister of Communications, and Air Major General Mao Pon-chu were appointed to attend the Conference.

Heretofore, the International Air Navigation Commission, established in 1919 at the time of the signing of Versailles Treaty, was primarily European in character

badly out of date and lacking in influence. The Havana Convention of 1928 had been ratified by no more than eleven states, thus devoid of its real effect.

Further, no universally applicable rules of the air existed. Yet the tremendous advances of the war in global air transport made it imperative that air traffic control procedures be standardized at major airports all over the world. In short, while air transport had been making gigantic technological strides, there was hardly any adequate political basis to apply this marvelous new transportation medium freely to a world desperately in need of such facilities. It was to close this gap between technology and politics that the Chicago Aviation Conference was called.

The "consuming" nations—those whose primary interest was in the world commerce which international air transport would bring, rather than in the operation of air services themselves—favored the maximum development of world air transport subject only to a minimum of regulations designed to assure non-discrimination and safety. They recognized that it was greatly against their own interests to retard the development or restrict the volume of commercially desirable air services made possible at no cost to them by the generous subsidies of friendly foreign governments.

This was the view, for example of the 19 Latin American republics who early expressed their unanimous opposition to the establishment of an authority with functions other than those of a

purely technical, consultative and advisory nature. It was also the view of the Chinese delegation which emphasized that no valid basis existed for impartial judgment as to ways of parceling out routes or dividing traffic between all the interested countries. It was stated by the Chinese Delegation on November 11, 1944 that "If the authority is given definite powers in the field of technical matters and is assigned at least in the early stages, only consultative and advisory functions in regard to matters of an economic or political nature, we believe the authority will have a better chance for a normal and healthy growth."

On December 7, 1944, the Conference concluded four instruments: (1) Convention of International Civil Aviation, (2) Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation, (3) International Air Transport Agreement and (4) International Air Service Transit Agreement. All of them, except the International Air Service Transit Agreement were accepted by the Chinese Government.

As the full text of the Convention on International Civil Aviation and International Air Transport Agreement is to be found in the following appendices, it needs no elaboration on these two international documents. In regard to the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation the following paragraphs from Dr. J. P. Van Zandt's article, "The Chicago Civil Aviation Conference" are worth quoting:

"Since several years may elapse before the various national legislative bodies can formally ratify the

permanent Convention, a provisional authority is needed which will function during the interim. The provision of such an organization is the purpose of the Interim Agreement. Anticipating that the transitional body will carry over largely intact, its composition and the powers and duties assigned to it follow closely those provided for on a more definitive basis in the main Convention. The Interim Document, in substance, makes available on a provisional executive basis what the permanent Convention provides in more extensive, detailed treaty form.

"The Conference elected 20 members to serve on the first Interim Council for a period of two years. By an ingenious three-way formula, adequate representation on the Council was assured for the seven or eight states of chief importance in air transport, as well as for five additional states which make the largest contribution to the provision of air navigation facilities. Following the selection of these members, the remaining eight seats on the Council were filled by States not otherwise included, whose election will insure that all major geographical areas of the world are represented."

"At the suggestion of the Latin American countries, supported by the United States, the Conference had early adopted the principle of non-weighted voting, or 'juridical equality' of all members. The final result of the balloting was surprisingly uniform: 8 states from the Americas, 8 from Greater Europe, and 4 from the remaining

parts of the world, as follows: Canada, the United States, Mexico, El Salvador, Colombia, Peru, Brazil and Chile; the United Kingdom, Norway, Netherlands, Belgium, France, Czechoslovakia, Egypt and Turkey; and Australia, China, India and Iraq. India, which failed of election at first owes its seat to the magnanimous gesture first of Norway and then of Cuba, the latter withdrawing to make a place available. At the suggestion of the United States, the Twenty-first place on the Council was held open for the U.S.S.R. (which was not present at the Conference), in the event it should later adhere to the Agreement. Canada was selected as the seat of the provisional organization, with the location of the permanent body to be settled by the Interim Assembly later.

"By February 1, 1945, representatives of 41 nations had signed the Interim Agreement. As acceptance by 26 states will bring the Agreement into effect, and states which fail to recognize the signatures of their representatives within six months lose their seats on the Council, it is safe to assume that the provisional body will come into being sometime during this spring or early summer. Its first task will be to elect a president and appoint a permanent secretary general, on whom will fall the heavy responsibility of directing the immediate future course of international aviation developments.

"One of the principal subsidiary working groups to be set up by the Interim Council will deal with air transport. Since each member

state undertakes to require its international airlines to file with the Council traffic reports, cost statistics, and financial statements, a great stream of information will flow to the Air Transport Committee, where it will be analyzed for the benefit of all. These studies will show the sources of all receipts, thus making airline subsidies—one of the controversial subjects at the Conference—a matter of public record for the

first time. The Committee is also instructed to study matters relating to the control of rates, frequencies and schedules, on which the delegates were unable to reach agreement. A second important subsidiary group is the Air Navigation Committee, whose primary interest will be to secure the adoption of minimum technical requirements and standard procedure throughout the world."

APPENDIX I

CONVENTION IN INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION

PREAMBLE

Whereas the future development of international civil aviation can greatly help to create and preserve friendship and understanding among the nations and peoples of the world, yet its abuse can become a threat to the general security, and

Whereas it is desirable to avoid friction and to promote that co-operation between nations and peoples upon which the peace of the world depends,

Therefore, the undersigned governments having agreed on certain principles and arrangements in order that international civil aviation may be developed in a safe and orderly manner and that international air transport services may be established on the basis of equality of opportunity and operated soundly and economically,

Have accordingly concluded this Convention to that end.

PART I—AIR NAVIGATION

CHAPTER I—General Principles and Application of the Convention

Article 1—Sovereignty

The contracting States recognize that every State has complete and exclusive sovereignty over the airspace above its territory.

Article 2—Territory

For the purpose of this Convention the territory of a State shall be deemed to be the land areas and territorial waters adjacent thereto under the sovereignty, suzerainty, protection or mandate of such State.

Article 3—Civil and state aircraft

(a) This Convention shall be applicable only to civil aircraft, and shall not be applicable to state aircraft.

(b) Aircraft used in military, customs and police services shall be deemed to be state aircraft.

(c) No state aircraft of a contracting State shall fly over the territory of another State or land thereon without authorization by special agreement or otherwise, and in accordance with the terms thereof.

(d) The contracting States undertake, when issuing regulations

for their state aircraft, that they will have due regard for the safety of navigation of civil aircraft.

Article 4—Misuse of civil aviation

Each contracting State agrees not to use civil aviation for any purpose inconsistent with the aims of this Convention.

CHAPTER II—Flight Over Territory of Contracting States

Article 5—Right of non-scheduled flight

Each contracting State agrees that all aircraft of the other contracting States, being aircraft not engaged in scheduled international air services shall have the right, subject to the observance of the terms of this Convention, to make flights into or in transit non-stop across its territory and to make stops for non-traffic purposes without the necessity of obtaining prior permission, and subject to the right of the State flown over to require landing. Each contracting State nevertheless reserves the right, for reasons of safety of flight, to require aircraft desiring to proceed over regions which are inaccessible or without adequate air navigation facilities to follow prescribed routes, or to obtain special permission for such flights.

Such aircraft, if engaged in the carriage of passengers, cargo, or mail for remuneration or hire on other than scheduled international air services, shall also, subject to the provisions of Article 7, have the privilege of taking on or discharging passengers, cargo, or mail, subject to the right of any State where such embarkation or discharge takes place to impose such regulations, conditions or

limitations as it may consider desirable.

Article 6—Scheduled air services

No scheduled international air service may be operated over or into the territory of a contracting State, except with the special permission or other authorization of that State, and in accordance with the terms of such permission or authorization.

Article 7—Cabotage

Each contracting State shall have the right to refuse permission to the aircraft of other contracting States to take on in its territory passengers, mail and cargo carried for remuneration or hire and destined for another point within its territory. Each contracting State undertakes not to enter into any arrangements which specifically grant any such privilege on an exclusive basis to any other State or an airline of any other State, and not to obtain any such exclusive privilege from any other State.

Article 8—Pilotless aircraft

No aircraft capable of being flown without a pilot shall be flown without a pilot over the territory if a contracting State without special authorization by that State and in accordance with the terms of such authorization. Each contracting State undertakes to insure that the flight of such aircraft without a pilot in regions open to civil aircraft shall be so controlled as to obviate danger to civil aircraft.

Article 9—Prohibited areas

(a) Each contracting State may, for reasons of military necessity or public safety, restrict or prohibit uniformly the aircraft of

other States from flying over certain areas of its territory, provided that no distinction in this respect is made between the aircraft of the State whose territory is involved, engaged in international scheduled airline services, and the aircraft of the other contracting States likewise engaged. Such prohibited areas shall be of reasonable extent and location so as not to interfere unnecessarily with air navigation. Descriptions of such prohibited areas in the territory of a contracting State, as well as any subsequent alterations therein, shall be communicated as soon as possible to the other contracting States and to the International Civil Aviation Organization.

(b) Each contracting State reserves also the right, in exceptional circumstances or during a period of emergency, or in the interest of public safety, and with immediate effect, temporarily to restrict or prohibit flying over the whole or any part of its territory, on condition that such restriction or prohibition shall be applicable without distinction of nationality to aircraft of all other States.

(c) Each contracting State, under such regulations as it may prescribe, may require any aircraft entering the areas contemplated in sub-paragraphs (a) or (b) above to effect a landing as soon as practicable thereafter at some designated airport within its territory.

Article 10—Landing at customs airport

Except in a case where, under the terms of this Convention or a special authorization, aircraft are permitted to cross the territory

of a contracting State without landing, every aircraft which enters the territory of a contracting State shall, if the regulations of that State so require, land at an airport designated by that State for the purpose of customs and other examination. On departure from the territory of a contracting State, such aircraft shall depart from a similarly designated customs airport. Particulars of all designated customs airports shall be published by the State and transmitted to the International Civil Aviation Organization established under Part II of this Convention for communication to all other contracting States.

Article 11—Applicability of air regulations

Subject to the provisions of this Convention, the laws and regulations of a contracting State relating to the admission to or departure from its territory of aircraft engaged in international air navigation, or to the operation and navigation of such aircraft while within its territory, shall be applied to the aircraft of all contracting States without distinction as to nationality, and shall be complied with by such aircraft upon entering or departing from or while within the territory of that State.

Article 12—Rules of the air

Each contracting State undertakes to adopt measures to insure that every aircraft flying over or maneuvering within its territory and that every aircraft carrying its nationality mark, wherever such aircraft may be, shall comply with the rules and regulations relating to the flight and maneu-

ver of aircraft there in force. Each contracting State undertakes to keep its own regulations in these respects uniform, to the greatest possible extent, with those established from time to time under this Convention. Over the high seas, the rules in force shall be those established under this Convention. Each contracting State undertakes to insure the prosecution of all persons violating the regulations applicable.

Article 13—Entry and clearance regulations

The laws and regulations of a contracting State as to the admission to or departure from its territory of passengers, crew, or cargo of aircraft, such as regulations relating to entry, clearance, immigration, passports, customs, and quarantine shall be complied with by or on behalf of such passengers, crew, or cargo upon entrance into or departure from, or while within the territory of that State.

Article 14—Prevention of spread of disease

Each contracting State agrees to take effective measures to prevent the spread by means of air navigation of cholera, typhus (epidemic), smallpox, yellow fever, plague and such other communicable diseases as the contracting States shall from time to time decide to designate, and to that end contracting States will keep in close consultation with the agencies concerned with international regulations relating to sanitary measures applicable to aircraft. Such consultation shall be without prejudice to the application of any existing international convention

on this subject to which the contracting States may be parties.

Article 15—Airports and similar charges

Every airport in a contracting State which is open to public use by its national aircraft shall likewise, subject to the provisions of Article 68, be open under uniform conditions to the aircraft of all other contracting States. The like uniform conditions shall apply to the use, by aircraft of every contracting State, of all air navigation facilities, including radio and meteorological services, which may be provided for public use for the safety and expedition of air navigation.

Any charges that may be imposed or permitted to be imposed by a contracting State for the use of such airports and air navigation facilities by the aircraft of any other contracting State shall not be higher,

(a) as to aircraft not engaged in scheduled international air services, than those that would be paid by its national aircraft of the same class engaged in similar operations, and

(b) as to aircraft engaged in scheduled international air services, than those that would be paid by its national aircraft engaged in similar international air services.

All such charges shall be published and communicated to the International Civil Aviation Organization: provided that, upon representation by an interested contracting State, the charges imposed for the use of airports and other facilities shall be subject to review by the Council, which shall

report and make recommendations thereon for the consideration of the State or States concerned. No fees, dues or other charges shall be imposed by any contracting State in respect solely of the right of transit over or entry into or exit from its territory of any aircraft of a contracting State or persons or property thereon.

Article 16—Search of aircraft

The appropriate authorities of each of the contracting States shall have the right, without unreasonable delay, to search aircraft of the other contracting States on landing or departure, and to inspect the certificates and other documents prescribed by this Convention.

CHAPTER III—Nationality of Aircraft

Article 17—Nationality of aircraft

Aircraft have the nationality of the State in which they are registered.

Article 18—Dual registration

An aircraft cannot be validly registered in more than one State, but its registration may be changed from one State to another.

Article 19—National laws governing registration

The registration or transfer of registration of aircraft in any contracting State shall be made in accordance with its laws and regulations.

Article 20—Display of marks

Every aircraft engaged in international air navigation shall bear its appropriate nationality and registration marks.

Article 21—Report of registrations

Each contracting State undertakes to supply to any other contracting State or to the International Civil Aviation Organization, on demand, information concerning the registration and ownership of any particular aircraft registered in that State. In addition, each contracting State shall furnish reports to the International Civil Aviation Organization, under such regulations as the latter may prescribe, giving such pertinent data as can be made available concerning the ownership and control of aircraft registered in that State and habitually engaged in international air navigation. The data thus obtained by the International Civil Aviation Organization shall be made available by it on request to the other contracting States.

CHAPTER IV—Measures to Facilitate Air Navigation

Article 22—Facilitation of formalities

Each contracting State agrees to adopt all practicable measures, through the issuance of special regulations or otherwise, to facilitate and expedite navigation by aircraft between the territories of contracting States, and to prevent unnecessary delays to aircraft, crews, passengers and cargo, especially in the administration of the laws relating to immigration, quarantine, customs and clearance.

Article 23—Customs and immigration procedures

Each contracting State undertakes, so far as it may find practicable, to establish customs and

immigration procedures affecting international air navigation in accordance with the practices which may be established or recommended from time to time, pursuant to this Convention. Nothing in this Convention shall be construed as preventing the establishment of customs-free airports.

Article 24—Customs duty

(a) Aircraft on a flight to, from, or across the territory of another contracting State shall be admitted temporarily free of duty, subject to the customs regulations of the State. Fuel, lubricating oils, spare parts, regular equipment and aircraft stores on board an aircraft of a contracting State, on arrival in the territory of another contracting State and retained on board on leaving the territory of that State shall be exempt from customs duty, inspection fees or similar national or local duties and charges. This exemption shall not apply to any quantities or articles unloaded, except in accordance with the customs regulations of the State, which may require that they shall be kept under customs supervision.

(b) Spare parts and equipment imported into the territory of a contracting State for incorporation in or use on an aircraft of another contracting State engaged in international air navigation shall be admitted free of customs duty, subject to compliance with the regulations of the State concerned, which may provide that the articles shall be kept under customs supervision and control.

Article 25—Aircraft in distress

Each contracting State undertakes to provide such measures of assistance to aircraft in distress in its territory as it may find practicable, and to permit, subject to control by its own authorities of the State in which the aircraft is registered to provide such measures of assistance as may be necessitated by the circumstances. Each contracting State, when undertaking search for missing aircraft, will collaborate in coordinated measures which may be recommended from time to time pursuant to this Convention.

Article 26—Investigation of accidents

In the event of an accident to an aircraft of a contracting State occurring in the territory of another contracting State, and involving death or serious injury, or indicating serious technical defect in the aircraft or air navigation facilities, the State in which the accident occurs will institute an inquiry into the circumstances of the accident, in accordance, so far as its laws permit, with the procedure which may be recommended by the International Civil Aviation Organization. The State in which the aircraft is registered shall be given the opportunity to appoint observers to be present at the inquiry and the State holding the inquiry shall communicate the report and findings in the matter to that State.

Article 27—Exemption from seizure on patent claims

(a) While engaged in international air navigation, any authorized entry of aircraft of a con-

tracting State into the territory of another contracting State or authorized transit across the territory of such State with or without landings shall not entail any seizure or detention of the aircraft or any claim against the owner or operator thereof or any other interference therewith by or on behalf of such State or any person therein, on the ground that the construction, mechanism, parts, accessories or operation of the aircraft is an infringement of any patent, design, or model duly granted or registered in the State whose territory is entered by the aircraft, it being agreed that no deposit of security in connection with the foregoing exemption from seizure or detention of the aircraft shall in any case be required in the State entered by such aircraft.

(b) The provisions of paragraph (a) of this Article shall also be applicable to the storage of spare parts and spare equipment for the aircraft and the right to use and install the same in the repair of an aircraft of a contracting State in the territory of any other contracting State, provided that any patented part or equipment so stored shall not be sold or distributed internally in or exported commercially from the contracting State entered by the aircraft.

(c) The benefits of this Article shall apply only to such States, parties to this Convention, as either (1) are parties to the International Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property and to any amendments thereof; or (2) have enacted patent laws which recognize and give ade-

quate protection to inventions made by the nationals of the other States parties to this Convention.

Article 28—Air navigation facilities and standard systems.

Each contracting State undertakes so far as it may find practicable to:

(a) Provide, in its territory, airports, radio services, meteorological services and other air navigation facilities to facilitate international air navigation, in accordance with the standards and practices recommended or established from time to time, pursuant to this Convention;

(b) Adopt and put into operation the appropriate standard systems of communications procedure, codes, markings, signals, lighting and other operational practices and rules which may be recommended or established from time to time, pursuant to this Convention;

(c) Collaborate in international measures to secure the publication of aeronautical maps and charts in accordance with standards which may be recommended or established from time to time, pursuant to this Convention.

CHAPTER V—Conditions to be Fulfilled with Respect to Aircraft

Article 29—Documents carried in aircraft.

Every aircraft of a contracting State, engaged in international navigation, shall carry the following documents in conformity with the conditions prescribed in this Convention:

(a) Its certificate of registration;

(b) Its certificate of airworthiness,

(c) The appropriate licenses for each member of the crew;

(d) Its journey log book;

(e) If it is equipped with radio apparatus, the aircraft radio station license;

(f) If it carries passengers, a list of their names and places of embarkation and destination;

(g) If it carries cargo, a manifest and detailed declarations of the cargo.

Article 30—Aircraft radio equipment

(a) Aircraft of each contracting State may, in or over the territory of other contracting States, carry radio transmitting apparatus only if a license to install and operate such apparatus has been issued by the appropriate authorities of the State in which the aircraft is registered. The use of radio transmitting apparatus in the territory of the contracting State whose territory is flown over shall be in accordance with the regulations prescribed by that State.

(b) Radio transmitting apparatus may be used only by members of the flight crew who are provided with a special license for the purpose, issued by the appropriate authorities of the State in which the aircraft is registered.

Article 31—Certificates of airworthiness

Every aircraft engaged in international navigation shall be provided with a certificate of airworthiness issued or rendered valid by the State in which it is registered.

Article 32—Licenses of personnel

(a) The pilot of every aircraft and the other members of the

operating crew of every aircraft engaged in international navigation shall be provided with certificates of competency and licenses issued or rendered valid by the State in which the aircraft is registered.

(b) Each contracting State reserves the right to refuse to recognize, for the purpose of flight above its own territory, certificates of competency and licenses granted to any of its nationals by another contracting State.

Article 33—Recognition of certificates and licenses

Certificates of airworthiness and certificates of competency and licenses issued or rendered valid by the contracting State in which the aircraft is registered, shall be recognized as valid by the other contracting States, provided that the requirements under which such certificates or licenses were issued or rendered valid are equal to or above the minimum standards which may be established from time to time pursuant to this Convention.

Article 34—Journey log books

There shall be maintained in respect of every aircraft engaged in international navigation a journey log book in which shall be entered particulars of the aircraft, its crew and of each journey, in such form as may be prescribed from time to time pursuant to this Convention.

Article 35—Cargo restrictions

(a) No munitions of war or implements of war may be carried in or above the territory of a State in aircraft engaged in international navigation, except by per-

mission of such State. Each State shall determine by regulations what constitutes munitions of war or implements of war for the purposes of this Article, giving due consideration, for the purposes of uniformity, to such recommendations as the International Civil Aviation Organization may from time to time make.

(b) Each contracting State reserves the right, for reasons of public order and safety, to regulate or prohibit the carriage in or above its territory of articles other than those enumerated in paragraph (a): provided that no distinction is made in this respect between its national aircraft engaged in international navigation and the aircraft of the other States so engaged; and provided further that no restriction shall be imposed which may interfere with the carriage and use on aircraft of apparatus necessary for the operation or navigation of the aircraft or the safety of the personnel or passengers.

Article 36—photographic apparatus

Each contracting State may prohibit or regulate the use of photographic apparatus in aircraft over its territory.

CHAPTER VI—International Standards and Recommended Practices

Article 37—Adoption of international standards and procedures

Each contracting State undertakes to collaborate in securing the highest practicable degree of uniformity in regulations, standards, procedures, and organization in relation to aircraft, personnel,

airways and auxiliary services in all matters in which such uniformity will facilitate and improve air navigation.

To this end the International Civil Aviation Organization shall adopt and amend from time to time, as may be necessary, international standards and recommended practices and procedures dealing with:

(a) Communications systems and air navigation aids, including ground marking;

(b) Characteristics of airports and landing areas;

(c) Rules of the air and air traffic control practices;

(d) Licensing of operating and mechanical personnel;

(e) Airworthiness of aircraft;

(f) Registration and identification of aircraft;

(g) Collection and exchange of meteorological information;

(h) Log Books;

(i) Aeronautical maps and charts;

(j) Customs and immigration procedures;

(k) Aircraft in distress and investigation of accidents; and such other matters concerned with the safety, regularity, and efficiency of air navigation as may from time to time appear appropriate.

Article 38—Departures from international standards and procedures

Any State which finds it impracticable to comply in all respects with any such international standard or procedure, or to bring its own regulations or practices

into full accord with any international standard or procedure after amendment of the latter, or which deems it necessary to adopt regulations or practices differing in any particular respect from those established by an international standard, shall give immediate notification to the International Civil Aviation Organization of the differences between its own practice and that established by the international standard. In the case of amendments to international standards, any State which does not make the appropriate amendments to its own regulations or practices shall give notice to the Council within 60 days of the adoption of the amendment to the international standard, or indicate the action which it proposes to take. In any such case, the Council shall make immediate notification to all other states of the difference which exists between one or more features of an international standard and the corresponding national practice of that State.

Article 39—Endorsement of certificates and licenses

(a) Any aircraft or part thereof with respect to which there exists an international standard of airworthiness or performance, and which failed in any respect to satisfy that standard at the time of its certification, shall have endorsed on or attached to its airworthiness certificate a complete enumeration of the details in respect of which it so failed.

(b) Any person holding a license who does not satisfy in full the conditions laid down in the inter-

national standard relating to the class of license or certificate which he holds shall have endorsed on or attached to his license a complete enumeration of the particulars in which he does not satisfy such conditions.

Article 40—Validity of endorsed certificates and licenses

No aircraft or personnel having certificates or licenses so endorsed shall participate in international navigation, except with the permission of the State or States whose territory is entered. The registration or use of any such aircraft, or of any certificated aircraft part, in any State other than that in which it was originally certificated shall be at the discretion of the State into which the aircraft or part is imported.

Article 41—Recognition of existing standards of airworthiness

The provisions of this Chapter shall not apply to aircraft and aircraft equipment of types of which the prototype is submitted to the appropriate national authorities for certification prior to a date three years after the date of adoption of an international standard of airworthiness for such equipment.

Article 42—Recognition of existing standards of competency of personnel

The provisions of this Chapter shall not apply to personnel whose licenses are originally issued prior to a date one year after initial adoption of an international standard of qualification for such personnel; but they shall in any case apply to all personnel whose licenses remain valid five years after the date of adoption of such standard.

**PART II—THE INTERNATIONAL
CIVIL AVIATION ORGAN-
IZATION****CHAPTER VII—The Organization****Article 43—Name and Composition**

An organization to be named the International Civil Aviation Organization is formed by the Convention. It is made up of an Assembly, a Council, and such other bodies as may be necessary.

Article 44—Objectives

The aims and objectives of the Organization are to develop the principles and techniques of international air navigation and to foster the planning and development of international air transport so as to:

(a) Insure the safe and orderly growth of international civil aviation throughout the world;

(b) Encourage the arts of aircraft design and operation for peaceful purposes;

(c) Encourage the development of airways, airports, and air navigation facilities for international civil aviation;

(d) Meet the needs of the peoples of the world for safe, regular, efficient and economic air transport;

(e) Prevent economic waste caused by unreasonable competition;

(f) Insure that the rights of contracting States are fully respected and that every contracting State has a fair opportunity to operate international airlines;

(g) Avoid discrimination between contracting States;

(h) Promote safety of flight in international air navigation;

(i) Promote generally the de-

velopment of all aspects of international civil aeronautics.

Article 45

The permanent seat of the Organization shall be at such place as shall be determined at the final meeting of the Interim Assembly of the Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization set up by the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation signed at Chicago on December 7, 1944. The seat may be temporarily transferred elsewhere by decision of the Council.

Article 46—First meeting of Assembly

The first meeting of the Assembly shall be summoned by the Interim Council of the above-mentioned Provisional Organization as soon as the Convention has come into force, to meet at a time and place to be decided by the Interim Council.

Article 47—Legal capacity

The Organization shall enjoy in the territory of each contracting State such legal capacity as may be necessary for the performance of its functions. Full juridical personality shall be granted wherever compatible with the constitution and laws of the State concerned.

CHAPTER VIII—The Assembly**Article 48—Meetings of Assembly and voting**

(a) The Assembly shall meet annually and shall be convened by the Council at a suitable time and place. Extraordinary meetings of the Assembly may be held at any time upon the call for the Council or at the request of any ten contracting States addressed to the Secretary General.

(b) All contracting States shall have an equal right to be represented at the meetings of the Assembly and each contracting State shall be entitled to one vote. Delegates representing contracting States may be assisted by technical advisers who may participate in the meetings but shall have no vote.

(c) A majority of the contracting States is required to constitute a quorum for the meetings of the Assembly. Unless otherwise provided in this Convention, decisions of the Assembly shall be taken by a majority of the votes cast.

Article 49—Powers and duties of Assembly

The powers and duties of the Assembly shall be to:

(a) Elect at each meeting its President and other officers;

(b) Elect the contracting States to be represented on the Council, in accordance with the provisions of Chapter IX;

(c) Examine and take appropriate action on the reports of the Council and decide on any matter referred to it by the Council;

(d) Determine its own rules of procedure and establish such subsidiary commissions as it may consider to be necessary or desirable;

(e) Vote an annual budget and determine the financial arrangements of the Organization, in accordance with the provisions of Chapter XII;

(f) Review expenditures and approve the accounts of the Organization;

(g) Refer, at its discretion, to the Council, to subsidiary commissions, or to any other body any matter within its sphere of action;

(h) Delegate to the Council the

powers and authority necessary or desirable for the discharge of the duties of the Organization and revoke or modify the delegations of authority at any time;

(i) Carry out the appropriate provisions of Chapter XIII;

(j) Consider proposals for the modification or amendment of the provisions of this Convention and, if it approves of the proposals, recommend them to the contracting States in accordance with the provisions of Chapter XXI;

(k) Deal with any matter within the sphere of action of the Organization not specifically assigned to the Council.

CHAPTER IX—The Council

Article 50—Composition and election of Council

(a) The Council shall be a permanent body responsible to the Assembly. It shall be composed of 21 contracting States elected by the Assembly. An election shall be held at the first meeting of the Assembly and thereafter every three years, and the members of the Council so elected shall hold office until the next following election.

(b) In electing the members of the Council, the Assembly shall give adequate representation to (1) the States of chief importance in air transport; (2) the States not otherwise included which make the largest contribution to the provision of facilities for international civil air navigation; and (3) the States not otherwise included whose designation will insure that all the major geographic areas of the world are represented on the Council. Any vacancy on the Council shall be filled by the Assembly as soon as possible;

any contracting State so elected to the Council shall hold office for the unexpired portion of its predecessor's term of office.

(c) No representative of a contracting State on the Council shall be actively associated with the operation of an international air service or financially interested in such a service.

Article 51—President of Council

The Council shall elect its President for a term of three years. He may be reelected. He shall have no vote. The Council shall elect from among its members one or more Vice Presidents who shall retain their right to vote when serving as acting President. The President need not be selected from among the representatives of the members of the Council but, if a representative is elected, his seat shall be deemed vacant and it shall be filled by the State which he represented. The duties of the President shall be to:

(a) Convene meetings of the Council, the Air Transport Committee, and the Air Navigation Commission;

(b) Serve as representative of the Council; and

(c) Carry out on behalf of Council the functions which the Council assigns to him.

Article 52—Voting in Council

Decisions by the Council shall require approval by a majority of its members. The Council may delegate authority with respect to any particular matter to a committee of its members. Decisions of any committee of the Council may be appealed to the Council by any interested contracting State.

Article 53—Participation without a vote.

Any contracting State may participate, without a vote, in the consideration by the Council and by its committees and commissions of any question which especially affects its interests. No member of the Council shall vote in the consideration by the Council of a dispute to which it is a party.

Article 54—Mandatory functions of Council

The Council shall:

(a) Submit annual reports to the Assembly;

(b) Carry out the directions of the Assembly and discharge the duties and obligations which are laid on it by this Convention;

(c) Determine its organization and rules of procedure;

(d) Appoint and define the duties of an Air Transport Committee, which shall be chosen from among the representatives of the members of the Council, and which shall be responsible to it;

(e) Establish an Air Navigation Commission, in accordance with the provisions of Chapter X;

(f) Administer the finances of the Organization in accordance with the provisions of Chapters XII and XV;

(g) Determine the emoluments of the President of the Council;

(h) Appoint a chief executive officer who shall be called the Secretary General, and make provision for the appointment of such other personnel as may be necessary, in accordance with the provisions of Chapter XI;

(i) Request, collect, examine and publish information relating to the advancement of air navigation and the operation of international air services, including information about the costs of operation and

particulars of subsidies paid to airlines from public funds;

(j) Report to contracting States any infraction of this Convention, as well as any failure to carry out recommendations or determinations of the Council;

(k) Report to the Assembly any infraction of this Convention where a contracting State has failed to take appropriate action within a reasonable time after notice of the infraction.

(l) Adopt, in accordance with the provisions of Chapter VI of this Convention, international standards and recommended practices; for convenience designate them as Annexes to this Convention; and notify all contracting States of the action taken;

(m) Consider recommendations of the Air Navigation Commission for amendment of the Annexes and take action in accordance with the provisions of Chapter XX;

(n) Consider any matter relating to the Convention which any contracting State refers to it.

Article 55—Permissive functions of Council

The Council may:

(a) Where appropriate and as experience may show to be desirable, create subordinate air transport commissions on a regional or other basis and define groups of states or airlines with or through which it may deal to facilitate the carrying out of the aims of this Convention;

(b) Delegate to the Air Navigation Commission duties additional to those set forth in the Convention and revoke or modify such delegations of authority at any time;

(c) Conduct research into all aspects of air transport and air navigation which are of international importance, communicate the results of its research to the contracting States, and facilitate the exchange of information between contracting States on air transport and air navigation matters;

(d) Study any matters affecting the organization and operation of international air transport, including the international ownership and operation of international air services on trunk routes, and submit to the Assembly plans in relation thereto;

(e) Investigate, at the request of any contracting State, any situation which may appear to present avoidable obstacles to the development of international air navigation; and, after such investigation, issue such reports as may appear to it desirable.

CHAPTER X—The Air Navigation Commission

Article 56—Nomination and appointment of Commission

The Air Navigation Commission shall be composed of twelve members appointed by the Council from among persons nominated by contracting States. These persons shall have suitable qualifications and experience in the science and practice of aeronautics. The Council shall request all contracting States to submit nominations. The President of the Air Navigation Commission shall be appointed by the Council.

Article 57—Duties of Commission

The Air Navigation Commission shall:

(a) Consider, and recommend to the Council for adoption, modification of the Annexes to this Convention;

(b) Establish technical sub-commissions on which any contracting State may be represented, if it so desires;

(c) Advise the Council concerning the collection and communication to the contracting States of all information which it considers necessary and useful for the advancement of air navigation.

CHAPTER XI—Personnel

Article 58—Appointment of personnel

Subject to any rules laid down by the Assembly and to the provisions of this Convention, the Council determine the method of appointment and of termination of appointment, the training, and the salaries, allowances, and conditions of service of the Secretary General and other personnel of the Organization, and may employ or make use of the services of nationals of any contracting State.

Article 59—International character of personnel

The President of the Council, the Secretary General, and other personnel shall not seek or receive instructions in regard to the discharge of their responsibilities from any authority external to the Organization. Each contracting State undertakes fully to respect the international character of the responsibilities of the personnel and not to seek to influence any of its nationals in

the discharge of their responsibilities.

Article 60—Immunities and privileges of personnel

Each contracting State undertakes, so far as possible under its constitutional procedure, to accord to the President of the Council, the Secretary General, and the other personnel of the Organization, the immunities and privileges which are accorded to corresponding personnel of other public international organizations. If a general international agreement on the immunities and privileges of international civil servants is arrived at, the immunities and privileges accorded to the President, the Secretary General, and the other personnel of the Organization shall be the immunities and privileges accorded under that general international agreement.

CHAPTER XII—Finance

Article 61—Budget and apportionment of expenses

The Council shall submit to the Assembly an annual budget, annual statements of accounts and estimates of all receipts and expenditures. The Assembly shall vote the budget with whatever modification it sees fit to prescribe, and, with the exception of assessments under Chapter XV to States consenting thereto, shall apportion the expenses of the Organization among the contracting States on the basis which it shall from time to time determine.

Article 62—Suspension of voting power

The Assembly may suspend the voting power in the Assembly and

in the Council of any contracting State that fails to discharge within a reasonable period its financial obligations to the Organization.

Article 63—Expenses of delegations and other representatives

Each contracting State shall bear the expenses of its own delegation to the Assembly and the remuneration, travel, and other expenses of any person whom it appoints to serve on the Council, and of its nominees or representatives on any subsidiary committees or commissions of the Organization.

CHAPTER XIII—Other International Arrangements

Article 64—Security arrangements

The Organization may, with respect to air matters within its competence directly affecting world security, by vote of the Assembly enter into appropriate arrangements with any general organization set up by the nations of the world to preserve peace.

Article 65—Arrangements with other international bodies

The Council, on behalf of the Organization, may enter into agreements with other international bodies for the maintenance of common services and for common arrangements concerning personnel and, with the approval of the Assembly, may enter into such other arrangements as may facilitate the work of the Organization.

Article 66—Functions relating to other agreements

(a) The Organization shall also carry out the functions placed upon it by the International Air Services Transit Agreement

and by the International Air Transport Agreement drawn up at Chicago on December 7, 1944 in accordance with the terms and conditions therein set forth.

(b) Members of the Assembly and the Council who have not accepted the International Air Services Transit Agreement or the International Air Transport Agreement drawn up at Chicago on December 7, 1944 shall not have the right to vote on any questions referred to the Assembly or Council under the provisions of the relevant Agreement.

PART III—INTERNATIONAL AIR TRANSPORT

CHAPTER XIV—Information and Reports

Article 67—File reports with Council

Each contracting State undertakes that its international airlines shall, in accordance with requirements laid down by the Council, file with the Council traffic reports, cost statistics and financial statements showing among other things all receipts and the sources thereof.

CHAPTER XV—Airports and Other Air Navigation Facilities

Article 68—Designation of routes and airports

Each contracting State may, subject to the provisions of this Convention, designate the route to be followed within its territory by any international air service and the airports which any such service may use.

Article 69—Improvement of air navigation facilities

If the Council is of the opinion that the airports or other air

navigation facilities, including radio and meteorological services, of a contracting State are not reasonably adequate for the safe, regular, efficient, and economical operation of international air services, present or contemplated, the Council shall consult with the State directly concerned, and other States affected, with a view to finding means by which the situation may be remedied, and may make recommendations for that purpose. No contracting State shall be guilty of an infraction of this Convention if it fails to carry out these recommendations.

Article 70—Financing of air navigation facilities

A contracting State, in the circumstances arising under the provisions of Article 69, may conclude an arrangement with the Council for giving effect to such recommendations. The State may elect to bear all of the costs involved in any such arrangement. If the State does not so elect, the Council may agree, at the request of the State, to provide for all or a portion of the costs.

Article 71—Provision and maintenance of facilities by Council

If a contracting State so requests, the Council may agree to provide, man, maintain, and administer any or all of the airports and other air navigation facilities, including radio and meteorological services, required in its territory for the safe, regular, efficient and economical operation of the international air services of the other contracting States, and may specify just and reasonable

charges for the use of the facilities provided.

Article 72—Acquisition or use of land

Where land is needed for facilities financed in whole or in part by the Council at the request of a contracting State, that State shall either provide the land itself, retaining title if it wishes, or facilitate the use of the land by the Council on just and reasonable terms and in accordance with the laws of the State concerned.

Article 73—Expenditure and assessment of funds

Within the limit of the funds which may be made available to it by the Assembly under Chapter XII, the Council may make current expenditures for the purposes of this Article from the general funds of the Organization. The Council shall assess the capital funds required for the purposes of this Article in previously agreed proportions over a reasonable period of time to the contracting States consenting thereto whose airlines use the facilities. The Council may also assess to States that consent any working funds that are required.

Article 74—Technical assistance and utilization of revenues

When the Council, at the request of a contracting State, advances funds or provides airports or other facilities in whole or in part, the arrangement may provide, with the consent of that State, for technical assistance in the supervision and operation of the airports and other facilities, and for the payment, from the revenues derived from the opera-

tion of the airports and other facilities, of the operating expenses of the airports and the other facilities, and of interest and amortization charges.

Article 75—Taking over of facilities from Council

A contracting State may at any time discharge any obligation into which it has entered under Article 70, and take over airports and other facilities which the Council has provided in its territory pursuant to the provisions of Article 71 and 72, by paying to the Council an amount which in the opinion of the Council is reasonable in the circumstances. If the State considers that the amount fixed by the Council is unreasonable it may appeal to the Assembly against the decision of the Council and the Assembly may confirm or amend the decision of the Council.

Article 76—Return of funds

Funds obtained by the Council through reimbursement under Article 75 and from receipts of interest and amortization payments under Article 74 shall, in the case of advances originally financed by States under Article 73, be returned to the States which were originally assessed in the proportion of their assessments, as determined by the Council.

CHAPTER XVI—Joint Operating Organizations and Pooled Services

Article 77—Joint operating organizations permitted

Nothing in this Convention shall prevent two or more contracting States from constituting joint air transport operating

organizations or international operating agencies and from pooling their air services on any routes or in any regions, but such organizations or agencies and such pooled services shall be subject to all the provisions of this Convention, including those relating to the registration of agreements with the Council. The Council shall determine in what manner the provisions of this Convention relating to nationality of aircraft shall apply to aircraft operated by international operating agencies.

Article 78—Function of Council

The Council may suggest to contracting States concerned that they form joint organizations to operate air services on any routes or in any regions.

Article 79 — Participation in operating organizations

A State may participate in joint operating organizations or in pooling arrangements, either through its government or through an airline company or companies designated by its government. The companies may, at the sole discretion of the State concerned, be state-owned or partly state-owned or privately-owned.

PART IV—FINAL PROVISIONS

CHAPTER XVII—Other Aeronautical Agreements and Arrangements

Article 80—Paris and Habana Conventions

Each contracting State undertakes, immediately upon the coming into force of this Convention, to give notice of denunciation of the Convention relating to the

Regulation of Aerial Navigation signed at Paris on October 13, 1919, or the Convention on Commercial Aviation signed at Habana on February 20, 1928, if it is a party to either. As between contracting States, this Convention supersedes the Conventions of Paris and Habana previously referred to.

Article 81—Registration of existing agreements

All aeronautical agreements which are in existence on the coming into force of this Convention, and which are between a contracting State and any other State or between an airline of a contracting State and any other State or the airline of any other State, shall be forthwith registered with the Council.

Article 82—Abrogation of inconsistent arrangements

The contracting States accept this Convention as abrogating all obligations and understandings between them which are inconsistent with its terms, and undertake not to enter into any such obligations and understandings. A contracting State which, before becoming a member of the Organization has undertaken any obligations toward a non-contracting State or a national of a contracting State or of a non-contracting State inconsistent with the terms of this Convention, shall take immediate steps to procure its release from the obligations. If an airline of any contracting State has entered into any such inconsistent obligations, the State of which it is a national

shall use its best efforts to secure their termination forthwith and shall in any event cause them to be terminated as soon as such action can lawfully be taken after the coming into force of this Convention.

Article 83—Registration of new arrangements

Subject to the provisions of the preceding Article, any contracting State may make arrangements not inconsistent with the provisions of this Convention. Any such arrangement shall be forthwith registered with the Council, which shall make it public as soon as possible.

CHAPTER XIII—Disputes and Default

Article 84—Settlement of disputes

If any disagreement between two or more contracting States relating to the interpretation or application of this Convention and its annexes cannot be settled by negotiation, it shall, on the application of any State concerned in the disagreement, be decided by the Council. No member of the Council shall vote in the consideration by the Council of any dispute to which it is a party. Any contracting State may, subject to Article 85, appeal from the decision of the Council to an *ad hoc* arbitral tribunal agreed upon with the other parties to the dispute or to the Permanent Court of International Justice. Any such appeal shall be notified to the Council within sixty days of receipt of notification of the decision of the Council.

Article 85—Arbitration procedure

If any contracting State party to a dispute in which the decision of the Council is under appeal has not accepted the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice and the contracting States parties to the disputes cannot agree on the choice of the arbitral tribunal, each of the contracting States parties to the dispute shall name a single arbitrator who shall name an umpire. If either contracting State party to the dispute fails to name an arbitrator within a period of three months from the date of the appeal, an arbitrator shall be named on behalf of that State by the President of the Council from a list of qualified and available persons maintained by the Council. If, within 30 days, the arbitrators cannot agree on an umpire, the President of the Council shall designate an umpire from the list previously referred to. The arbitrators and the umpire shall then jointly constitute an arbitral tribunal. Any arbitral tribunal established under this or the preceding Article shall settle its own procedure and give its decisions by majority vote, provided that the Council may determine procedural questions in the event of any delay which in the opinion of the Council is excessive.

Article 86—Appeals

Unless the Council decides otherwise, any decision by the Council on whether an international airline is operating in

conformity with the provisions of this Convention shall remain in effect unless reversed on appeal. On any other matter, decisions of the Council shall, if appealed from, be suspended until the appeal is decided. The decisions of the Permanent Court of International Justice and of an arbitral tribunal shall be final and binding.

Article 87—Penalty for non-conformity by airline

Each contracting State undertakes not to allow the operation of an airline of a contracting State through the air space above its territory if the Council has decided that the airline concerned is not conforming to a final decision rendered in accordance with the previous Article.

Article 88—Penalty for non-conformity by State

The Assembly shall suspend the voting power in the Assembly and in the Council of any contracting State that is found in default under the provisions of this Chapter.

CHAPTER XIX—War**Article 89 — War and emergency conditions**

In case of war, the provisions of this Convention shall not affect the freedom of action of any of the contracting States affected, whether as belligerents or as neutrals. The same principle shall apply in the case of any contracting State which declares a state of national emergency and notifies the fact to the Council.

CHAPTER XX—Annexes**Article 90—Adoption and Amendment of Annexes**

(a) The adoption by the Council of the Annexes described in Article 54, subparagraph (1), shall require the vote of two-thirds of the Council at a meeting called for that purpose and shall then be submitted by the Council to each contracting State. Any such Annex or any amendment of an Annex shall become effective within three months after its submission to the contracting States or at the end of such longer period of time as the Council may prescribe, unless in the meantime a majority of the contracting States register their disapproval with the Council.

(b) The Council shall immediately notify all contracting States of the coming into force of any Annex or amendment thereto.

CHAPTER XXI—Ratifications, Adherences, Amendments, and Denunciations**Article 91—Ratification of Convention**

(a) This Convention shall be subject to ratification by the signatory States. The instruments of ratification shall be deposited in the archives of the Government of the United States of America, which shall give notice of the date of the deposit to each of the signatory and adhering States.

(b) As soon as this Convention has been ratified or adhered to by twenty-six States it shall come into force between them on the thirtieth day after deposit of the twenty-sixth instrument. It shall

come into force for each State ratifying thereafter on the thirtieth day after the deposit of its instrument of ratification.

(c) It shall be the duty of the Government of the United States of America to notify the government of each of the signatory and adhering States of the date on which this Convention comes into force.

Article 92—Adherence to Convention

(a) This Convention shall, after the closing date for signature, be open for adherence by members of the United Nations and States associated with them, and States which remained neutral during the present world conflict.

(b) Adherence shall be effected by a notification addressed to the Government of the United States of America and shall take effect as from the thirtieth day from the receipt of the notification by the Government of the United States of America, which shall notify all the contracting States.

Article 93—Admission of other States

States other than those provided for in Articles 91 and 92(a) may, subject to approval by any general international organization set up by the nations of the world to preserve peace, be admitted to participation in this Convention by means of a four-fifths vote of the Assembly and on such conditions as the Assembly may prescribe; provided that in each case the assent of any State invaded or attacked during the present war by the State seeking admission shall be necessary.

Article 94—Amendment of Convention

(a) Any proposed amendment to this Convention must be approved by a two-thirds vote of the Assembly and shall then come into force in respect of States which have ratified such amendment when ratified by the number of contracting States specified by the Assembly. The number so specified shall not be less than two-thirds of the total number of contracting States.

(b) If in its opinion the amendment is of such a nature as to justify this course, the Assembly in its resolution recommending adoption may provide that any State which has not ratified within specified period after the amendment has come into force shall thereupon cease to be a member of the Organization and a party to the Convention.

Article 95 — Denunciation of Convention

(a) Any contracting State may give notice of denunciation of this Convention three years after its coming into effect by notification addressed to the Government of the United States of America, which shall at once inform each of the contracting States.

(b) Denunciation shall take effect one year from the date of the receipt of the notification and shall operate only as regards the State effecting the denunciation.

CHAPTER XXII—Definitions**Article 96**

For the purpose of this Convention the expression:

(a) "Air service" means any scheduled air service performed by aircraft for the public transport of passengers, mail or cargo.

(b) "International air service" means an air service which passes through the air space over the territory of more than one State.

(c) "Airline" means any air transport enterprise offering or operating an international air service.

(d) "Stop for non-traffic purposes" means a landing for any purpose other than taking on or discharging passengers, cargo or mail.

Signature of Convention

In witness whereof, the undersigned Plenipotentiaries, having been duly authorized, sign this Convention on behalf of their respective governments on the dates appearing opposite their signatures.

DONE at Chicago the 7th day of December 1944, in the English language. A text drawn up in the English, French, and Spanish languages, each of which shall be of equal authenticity, shall be opened for signature at Washington, D. C. Both texts shall be deposited in the archives of the Government of the United States of America, and certified copies shall be transmitted by that Government to the governments of all the States which may sign or adhere to this Convention.

For the Government of

For the Government of

APPENDIX II

INTERNATIONAL AIR TRANSPORT AGREEMENT

The States which sign and accept this International Air Transport Agreement being members of the International Civil Aviation Organization declare as follows:

Article I**Section I**

Each contracting State grants to the other contracting States the following freedoms of the air in respect of scheduled international air services:

(1) The privilege to fly across its territory without landing;

(2) The privilege to land for non-traffic purposes;

(3) The privilege to put down passengers, mail and cargo taken on in the territory of the State whose nationality the aircraft possesses;

(4) The privilege to take on passengers, mail and cargo destined for the territory of the State whose nationality the aircraft possesses;

(5) The privilege to take on passengers, mail and cargo destined for the territory of any other contracting State and the privilege to put down passengers, mail and cargo coming from any such territory.

With respect to the privileges specified under paragraphs (3), (4) and (5) of this Section, the undertaking of each contracting State relates only to through services on a route constituting a reasonably direct line out from and back to the homeland of the State whose nationality the air-

craft possesses.

The privileges of this Section shall not be applicable with respect to airports utilized for military purposes to the exclusion of any scheduled international air services. In areas of active hostilities or of military occupation, and in time of war along the supply routes leading to such areas, the exercise of such privileges shall be subject to the approval of the competent military authorities.

Section 2

The exercise of the foregoing privileges shall be in accordance with the provisions of the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation and, when it comes into force, with the provisions of the Convention on International Civil Aviation, both drawn up at Chicago on December 7, 1944.

Section 3

A contracting State granting to the airlines of another contracting State the privilege to stop for nontraffic purposes may require such airlines to offer reasonable commercial service at the points of which such stops are made.

Such requirement shall not involve any discrimination between airlines operating on the same route, shall take into account the capacity of the aircraft, and shall be exercised in such a manner as not to prejudice the normal operations of the international air services concerned or the rights and obligations of any contracting State.

Section 4

Each contracting State shall have the right to refuse permission to the aircraft of other contracting States to take on in its territory passengers, mail and cargo carried for remuneration or hire and destined for another point within its territory. Each contracting State undertakes not to enter into any arrangements which specifically grant any such privilege on an exclusive basis to any other State or an airline of any other State, and not to obtain any such exclusive privilege from any other State.

Section 5

Each contracting State may, subject to the provisions of this Agreement,

(1) Designate the route to be followed within its territory by any international air service and the airports which any such service may use;

(2) Impose or permit to be imposed on any such service just and reasonable charges for the use of such airports and other facilities; these charges shall not be higher than would be paid for the use of such airports and facilities by its national aircraft engaged in similar international services: provided that, upon representation by an interested contracting State, the charges imposed for the use of airports and other facilities shall be subject to review by the Council of the International Civil Aviation Organization established under

the above-mentioned Convention, which shall report and make recommendations thereon for the consideration of the State or States concerned.

Section 6

Each contracting State reserves the right to withhold or revoke a certificate or permit to an air transport enterprise of another State in any case where it is not satisfied that substantial ownership and effective control are vested in nationals of a contracting State, or in case of failure of such air transport enterprise to comply with the laws of the State over which it operates, or to perform its obligations under this Agreement.

Article II**Section I**

The contracting States accept this Agreement as abrogating all obligations and understandings between them which are inconsistent with its terms, and undertake not to enter into any such obligations and understandings. A contracting State which has undertaken any other obligations inconsistent with this Agreement shall take immediate steps to procure its release from the obligations. If an airline of any contracting State has entered into any such inconsistent obligations, the State of which it is a national shall use its best efforts to secure their termination forthwith and shall in any event cause them to be terminated as soon as such action can lawfully be taken after the coming into force of this Agreement.

Section 2

Subject to the provisions of the preceding Section, any contracting State may make arrangements concerning international air services not inconsistent with this Agreement. Any such arrangement shall be forthwith registered with the Council; which shall make it public as soon as possible.

Article III

Each contracting State undertakes that in the establishment and operation of through services due consideration shall be given to the interests of the other contracting States so as not to interfere unduly with their regional services or to hamper the development of their through services.

Article IV**Section 1**

Any contracting State may by reservation attached to this Agreement at the time of signature or acceptance elect not to grant and receive the rights and obligations of Article I, Section 1, paragraph (5), and may at any time after acceptance, on six months' notice given by it to the Council, withdraw itself from such rights and obligations. Such contracting State may on six months' notice to the Council assume or resume, as the case may be, such rights and obligations. No contracting State shall be obliged to grant any rights under the said paragraph to any contracting State not bound thereby.

Section 2

A contracting State which deems that action by another

contracting State under this Agreement is causing injustice or hardship to it, may request the Council to examine the situation. The Council shall thereupon inquire into the matter, and shall call the States concerned into consultation. Should such consultation fail to resolve the difficulty, the Council may make appropriate findings and recommendations to the contracting States concerned. If thereafter a contracting State concerned shall in the opinion of the Council unreasonably fail to take suitable corrective action, the Council may recommend to the Assembly of the above-mentioned Organization that such contracting State be suspended from its rights and privileges under this Agreement until such action has been taken. The Assembly by a two-thirds vote may so suspend such contracting State for such period of time as it may deem proper or until the Council shall find that corrective action has been taken by such State.

Section 3

If any disagreement between two or more contracting States relating to the interpretation or application of this Agreement cannot be settled by negotiation, the provisions of Chapter XVIII of the above-mentioned Convention shall be applicable in the same manner as provided therein with reference to any disagreement relating to the interpretation or application of the above-mentioned Convention.

Article V

This Agreement shall remain in force as long as the above-mentioned Convention; provided, however, that any contracting State, a party to the present Agreement, may denounce it on one year's notice given by it to the Government of the United States of America, which shall at once inform all other contracting States of such notice and withdrawal.

Article VI

Pending the coming into force of the above-mentioned Convention, all references to it herein other than those contained in Article IV, Section 3, and Article VII shall be deemed to be references to the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation drawn up at Chicago on December 7, 1944; and references to the International Civil Aviation Organization, the Assembly, and the Council shall be deemed to be references to the Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization, the Interim Assembly, and the Interim Council, respectively.

Article VII

For the purposes of this Agreement, "territory" shall be defined as in Article 2 of the above-mentioned Convention.

Article VIII

Signatures and Acceptances of Agreement

The undersigned delegates to the International Civil Aviation Conference, convened in Chicago

on November 1, 1944, have affixed their signatures to this Agreement with the understanding that the Government of the United States of America shall be informed at the earliest possible date by each of the governments on whose behalf the Agreement has been signed whether signature on its behalf shall constitute an acceptance of the Agreement by that government and an obligation binding upon it.

Any State a member of the International Civil Aviation Organization may accept the present Agreement as an obligation binding upon it by notification of its acceptance to the Government of the United States, and such acceptance shall become effective upon the date of the receipt of such notification by that Government.

This Agreement shall come into force as between contracting States upon its acceptance by each of them. Thereafter it shall become binding as to each other State indicating its acceptance to the Government of the United States on the date of the receipt of the acceptance by that Government. The Government of the United States shall inform all signatory and accepting States of the date of all acceptances of the Agreement, and of the date on which it comes into force for each accepting State.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the undersigned, having been duly authorized, sign this Agreement on behalf of their respective governments on the date appear-

ing opposite their respective signatures.

DONE at Chicago the seventh day of December 1944 in the English language. A text drawn up in the English, French, and Spanish languages, each of which shall be of equal authenticity, shall be opened for signature at Washington, D. C. Both texts shall be deposited in the archives of the Government of the United States of America, and certified copies shall be transmitted by that Government to the governments of all the States which may sign or accept this Agreement.

V. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCES

The 26th Session of the International Labour Conference was convened on April 20, 1944 in Philadelphia, with delegations from forty-one countries present. There were 74 Government delegates, 28 Employer delegates, and 30 Worker delegates. Accompanying the delegates were 131 Government advisers, 43 Employers' advisers and 54 Workers' advisers making a grand total of 360 delegates and advisers accredited to the Conference.*

The Chinese delegation was composed of Messrs. Li Ping-heng and Hsieh Cheng-fu representing the Government, Mr. Li Ming representing the employers and Mr. Chu Hsueh-fan representing workers.

The Conference agenda comprised of the following seven points:

1. Future policy, program and status of the International Labour Organization.

2. Recommendations to the United Nations for present and post-war social policy.

3. The organization of employment in the transition from war to peace.

4. Social security, principles, and problems arising out of the war.

5. Minimum standards of social policy in dependent territories.

6. Reports on the application of Conventions.

7. Director's Report.

The International Labour Conference adjourned on May 12 after three weeks of deliberations in which the most significant achievement was the enunciation of "The Philadelphia Declaration" outlining the future aims and purpose of the International Labour Organization program. The text of the Philadelphia Declaration reads as follows:

The General Conference of the International Labour Organization, meeting in its Twenty-sixth Session in Philadelphia, hereby adopts, this tenth day of May in the year nineteen hundred and forty-four, the present Declaration of the aims and purposes of the International Labour Organization and of the principles which should inspire the policy of its Members.

* The Governments of Iceland, Nicaragua and Paraguay were represented only by official observers.

I

The Conference reaffirms the fundamental principles on which the Organization is based and, in particular, that:

- (a) Labour is not a commodity;
- (b) freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustain progress;
- (c) poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere;
- (d) the war against want requires to be carried on with unrelenting vigour within each nation, and by continuous and concerted international effort, in which the representatives of workers and employers, enjoying equal status with those of Governments, join with them in free discussion and democratic decision with a view to the promotion of the common welfare.

II.

Believing that experience has fully demonstrated the truth of the statement in the Constitution of the International Labour Organization that lasting peace can be established only if it is based on social justice, the conference affirms that:

- (a) all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity;
- (b) the attainment of the conditions in which this shall

be possible must constitute the central aim of national and international policy;

- (c) all national and international policies and measures, in particular those of an economic and financial character, should be judged in this light and accepted only in so far as they may be held to promote and not to hinder the achievement of this fundamental objective;
- (d) it is a responsibility of the International Labour Organization to examine and consider all international economic and financial policies and measures in the light of this fundamental objective;
- (e) in discharging the tasks entrusted to it the International Labour Organization, having considered all relevant economic and financial factors, may include in its decisions and recommendations any provisions which it considers appropriate.

III.

The Conference recognises the solemn obligation of the International Labour Organization to further among the nations of the world programs which will achieve:

- (a) full employment and the raising of standards of living;
- (b) the employment of workers in the occupations in which they can have the satisfaction of giving the fullest measure of their skill and attainments and

make their greatest contribution to the common well-being;

- (c) the provision, as a means to the attainment of this end and under adequate guarantees for all concerned, of facilities for training and the transfer of labour, including migration for employment and settlement;
- (d) policies in regard to wages and earnings, hours and other conditions of work calculated to ensure a just share of the fruits of progress to all, and a minimum living wage to all employed and in need of such protection;
- (e) the effective recognition of the right of collective bargaining, the co-operation of management and labour in the continuous improvement of productive efficiency, and the collaboration of workers and employers in the preparation and application of social and economic measures;
- (f) the extension of social security measures to provide a basic income to all in need of such protection and comprehensive medical care;
- (g) adequate protection for the life and health of workers in all occupations;
- (h) the provision for child welfare and materiality protection;
- (i) the provision of adequate nutrition, housing and facilities for recreation and culture;
- (j) the assurance of equality of educational and vocational opportunity.

IV.

Confident that the fuller and broader utilisation of the world's productive resources necessary for the achievement of the objectives set forth in this Declaration can be secured by effective international and national action, including measures to expand production and consumption, to avoid severe economic fluctuations, to promote the economic and social advancement of the less developed regions of the world, to assure greater stability in world prices of primary products, and to promote a high and steady volume of international trade, the Conference pledges the full co-operation of the International Labour Organization with such international bodies as may be entrusted with a share of the responsibility for this great task and for the promotion of the health, education and well-being of all peoples.

V.

The Conference affirms that the principles set forth in this Declaration are fully applicable to all peoples everywhere and that, while the manner of their application must be determined with due regard to the stage of social and economic development reached by each people, their progressive application to peoples who are still dependent, as well as to those who have already achieved self-government, is a matter of concern to the whole civilized world.

As far as China is concerned, the 26th Session of the International Labour Conference was particularly fruitful, for she was elected to a permanent seat on the ILO governing body, while Mr. Chu Hsueh-fan was elected

non-permanent member of the ILO governing body and Mr. Li Ming, substitute non-permanent member representing respectively workers' and employers' members on the ILO governing body.

Of the recommendations adopted, several are particularly significant to China, namely, the decision to call the ILO Asiatic regional conference at an early date and the adoption of a social policy for dependent territories where large numbers of Chinese are domiciled.

The 27th Session of the International Labour Conference was convened in Paris from October 15 to November 5, 1945. 370 participants from 39 member nations were present, of whom 138 were delegates and 259 technical advisers. Mr. Alexandre Parodi, French Minister of Labour was elected Conference President. The Chinese delegation was composed of Messrs. Li Perg-cheng, and Pao Hwa-kuo, representing the Government, Mr. Chu Hsueh-fan representing Workers, and Mr. Li Ming representing Employers.

The conference agenda comprised six items as follows:

1. The ILO Director's report on the social problems in the immediate post-war period with special reference to Europe and the future policy and program of ILO.

2. Maintenance of high levels of employment during the period of industrial rehabilitation and reconversion.

3. Welfare of children and young workers.

4. Matters arising out of the work of the Constitutional Com-

mittee of the governing body. In this connection, discussion will center on the separation of ILO from the League of Nations and affiliation with the United Nations Organization.

5. Minimum standards of social policy in dependent territories.

6. Reports on the application of the International Labour Conventions.

During the session, various committees were set up to handle special matters or to study specific problems. On the recommendation of the Selection Committee, eight committees were organized, namely, the Credentials Committee, the Resolutions Committee, the Standing Orders Committee, the Committee on the Maintenance of High Levels of Employment during the Period of Industrial Rehabilitation and Reconversion, the Committee on the Welfare of Children and Young Workers, the Committee on Matters arising out of the work of the Constitutional Committee, the Committee on Minimum Standards of Social Policy in Dependent Territories, and the Committee on the Application of Conventions. Later a Drafting Committee was added.

The most important decision taken during the session was to sever the International Labour Organization completely from the League of Nations and to join the United Nations Organization.

Measures were also decided upon to ensure the existence and operation of ILO during period of transition from the League of Nations to the United Nations Organization and enable it to attain a greater universality and efficiency.

The Conference also devised measures for the maintenance of full employment during the period of industrialization and reconversion and to avoid large-scale labor idleness in the wake of demobilization, and recommended minimum standards for social policy in dependent territories to ensure the political, economic, social and cultural progress of the native peoples. The details of which are given as follows:

The International Labour Conference on November 2nd adopted a resolution concerning the maintenance of full employment during the period of industrial rehabilitation and reconversion.

The resolution expresses the hope that the United Nations Organization through its appropriate organs will define and put into effect as quickly as possible appropriate measures for furthering international coordination of employment policies during the reconversion period, and that for this purpose the fullest use be made of the ILO and other governmental organizations concerned. The resolution urges the governments to take all steps within their power in collaboration with the workers and employers organizations and industry generally to establish such economic and financial conditions as will facilitate absorption into useful employment at the highest practicable levels of remuneration of all members of the population of working age.

The resolution calls for measures to eliminate shortages of capital and consumer goods and counteract inflationary developments. To avoid inflation in countries where there is relative short-

age of consumer goods and meantime a relatively high level of purchasing power, the resolution urges control of the supply of consumption goods by such means as rationing accompanied by price control and financial and taxation measures as long as shortages prevail, control to be relaxed gradually as supply increases, and an educational campaign to persuade consumers to refrain from using their purchasing power in such a way as to force prices up.

The resolution urges the relaxation of high level taxation necessary during the war and the early postwar period, and the reduction of taxes of lower incomes and taxes likely to restrict necessary investment.

The resolution recommends that establishments of appropriate minimum wage standards adequate for the satisfying of human needs in order to assist the progressive raising of the standards of living of all workers.

The resolution also recommends that arrangements be made to enable devastated countries to import materials and industrial equipment required to restore transportation, to reconstruct industries and to replenish stocks so that available labor may be fully employed on productive work, and also consumer goods necessary to ensure to the people a satisfactory standard of living.

The resolution asks member countries to consider measures to facilitate the resumption and expansion of world trade. It emphasizes the importance of promoting arrangements which will enable the countries to bring their balances of payments into equi-

brium by methods which permit them to maintain full employment without recourse to abnormal or unduly prolonged borrowing from abroad or to creation of unreasonable barriers to international trade.

During the same session the International Labor Conference also passed a draft recommendation on minimum standards of social policy in dependent territories designed to supplement the recommendation on social policies in dependent territories passed by the 26th session of the conference at Philadelphia in 1944.

The recommendation covers such aspects of social policy as minimum wage, the fixing of machinery for social security, hours of work, labor inspection of health and safety in employment.

It declares that each member country of the ILO responsible for dependent territories "should take all steps within its competence to secure effective application" of the minimum standards set forth in it.

The terms of the recommendations also provide that countries approving any of such recommendation the ILO of steps they have taken to make it effective.

On the question of wages, the recommendation suggests that "it shall be the aim of our policy to encourage the development of collective bargaining whereby minimum rates in wages may be fixed through negotiations between employers' and workers' organizations." It adds that where there are no arrangements for regulating wages existing machinery through which minimum wages can be fixed shall be established.

The recommendation urges enactment of legal provision for the payment of compensation to persons incapacitated as a result of accidents arising out of their work.

It recommends that the hours of work in industrial commercial enterprises be regulated and that workers be given paid holidays of at least 12 days a year. Whether the number of paid holidays should be 6 or 12 days annually incurred heated debate. By a majority vote, a decision was made on 12 days.

The recommendation also suggests that minimum conditions be laid down for the protection of health, safety and welfare of industrial and other workers.

At its conference on November 4, the International Labor Organization decided to leave the League of Nations and join the United Nations Organization; authorized the Governing Body to enter into agreements with the United Nations as may be necessary for this purpose and also make arrangements with the League of Nations or the United Nations regarding the future ownership, control and use of properties and other assets held by the League of Nations on behalf of ILO and assets in which ILO has a partial interest.

The conference decided to take all appropriate measures to develop collaboration between ILO and other international organizations.

The Governing Body was authorized by the conference to decide on the place at which the next conference would be held.

The International Labour Conference on November 4, also

adopted a resolution concerning the protection of children and young workers.

The resolution declares that the government should accept the responsibility for assuring the health, welfare and education of all children and young persons and for the protection of all youthful workers, regardless of race, creed, color or family circumstances both by national action and appropriate measures of international cooperation.

The resolution calls for national programs "to make possible the complete abolition of child labor by providing for each child its proper maintenance and such conditions of life as will foster talents and aptitude of the child and his full development as a citizen and worker."

It urges free, compulsory education up to the age of 18 as circumstances permit.

Governments are urged by the resolution to "take as their objective the gradual raising to 16 years as the minimum age for admission to employment as circumstances permit." It declares that the hours of work of children and young persons should be regulated strictly and provisions be made to enable young persons to continue their education during working hours.

To guarantee young worker wages commensurate with the work performed, the resolution recommends that provisions be made to pay apprentices for the work done as part of their training. It recommends further that young workers be given the same freedom as adults to join trade unions of their own choice.

The conference also adopted a resolution urging the United Nations to supply food and medical aid to the populations, especially the youth in liberated countries. It also asks them to give assistance to education and social reconstruction in these countries as this vitally affects youth training and their cultural development.

Regarding displaced children and young persons, it urges every possible assistance through national and international means to obtain for them the necessary care.

The conference requested its Governing Body to place on the agenda of the next conference the question of regulating underground work by young persons in mines.

The conference also required the Governing Body to form an advisory committee on juvenile work.

VI. WORLD TRADE UNION CONFERENCE

The World Trade Union Conference had two sessions in 1945. The first session was convened in London on February 6 for a period of 10 days, attended by over 250 delegates from 38 countries and seven organizations in neutral countries representing over 50,000,000 workers. The Chinese delegates to the Conference were Messrs. Chu Hsueh-fan, Liu Hsueh-sui and Pang Kam-yau. The agenda of the Conference consisted of four main points, each with far-reaching bearing on the welfare of workers throughout the world. They were: (1) furtherance of the Allied war effort; (2) the attitude of the trade union towards the anticipated peace settlement such as the question of reparations, and representation of the trade union at the peace conference; (3) the basis

for a new world trade union federation; and (4) post-war reconstruction and immediate union demands.

During the session the Chinese delegation submitted a draft resolution to the Conference to the effect that the war effort of all the United Nations at war with Japan should be continued with unabated vigour after the defeat of Germany. The draft resolution was as follows:

"Whereas Germany and Japan are accomplices in their infamous war against the United Nations, violating the peace of the world and inflicting untold suffering and privations on humanity;

"Whereas the United Nations with the exception of Soviet Russia, are at war with both Germany and Japan and have agreed to prosecute the war against both of them until unconditional surrender;

"The World Trade Union Conference held in London, February 1945, having solemnly resolved to bring the fight against Germany to a victorious conclusion at the earliest possible date;

"Further resolves, with the delegation of Soviet Russia abstaining from the deliberations in this connection, that war effort of the United Nations who are at war with Japan shall be continued with unabating vigour against Japan after the defeat of Germany, and that all Trade Unions participating in this Conference, with the exception of those of Soviet Russia, pledge to support the furtherance of that war effort to bring about the unconditional surrender of Japan after the defeat of Germany."

At the request of the Russian delegation, the resolution before the World Trade Union Conference calling for the prosecution of the war against Japan was amended after it had been presented to the Conference as an unanimous recommendation of the committee concerned.

The resolution as amended and unanimously accepted reads:

"The war against Japan must be prosecuted by the nations at war with her with the same vigour as the war in Europe until unconditional surrender is wrested from her as well."

The Conference also unanimously adopted the recommendations of its committee for the immediate establishment of a new international trade union and the appointment of a large interim committee.

The second session of the World Trade Union Conference was convened in Paris, on September 25, 1945 for a period of two weeks, attended by three hundred delegates from 46 countries representing 60,000,000 workers.

The Chinese delegates to the Conference were Messrs. Chu Hsueh-fan and Li Hsuan-tsui.

During the first session of the World Trade Union Conference there were preliminary discussions for building the world trade union federation, whereas the second session of the conference was engaged in examining details for the organization. On October 3, the Conference unanimously adopted a constitution thus bringing the World Federation of Trade Unions into formal existence. The Conference then continued in session as the first congress of the Federation. Three committees were organized. The first committee

was on the nomination of the Secretary-General and auditors; the second committee on the work of an administrative committee and the third committee on the activities of national trade unions implementing the decisions of the London Conference. In all the three Committees, China played an active part.

China's delegate to the World Trade Union Conference Mr. Chu Hsueh-fan was elected one of the Vice-Presidents of the new World Federation of the Trade Unions by the Executive Committee under the presidency of Britain's delegate Sir Walter Citrine. Other Vice-Presidents elected were Mr. Sidney Hillman of the United States, M. Leon Jouhaux of France, M.V.V. Kuznetsor of the Soviet Union, Mr. Giuseppe Di Vittorio of Italy, Mr. Evert Kuppers of the Netherlands and Mr. Vicente Toledano of the Latin America.

The Conference on October 6 passed a resolution on the representation of world labor on international agencies and organizations. The resolution in its abridged form reads:

"The Congress has as one of its first tasks the winning for the working people of a full effective representation in the making of peace and a responsible share in the international reconstruction. The world labor makes this claim not only because it has made an immeasurable contribution to the victory which we have won but also because it is profoundly convinced that cooperation of the great mass of people as represented in the World Federation of Trade Unions is vital if the peace is to be durable.

"The Congress declares as representative of world labor that it has an inalienable right to participate in the work of the United Nations Organization. It directs the Executive Committee to take all necessary steps to assure the participation of the World Federation of Trade Unions in the work of Social and Economic Council in an advisory capacity pursuant to Article 71, Chapter 10. of the charter of the United Nations Organization. It further directs the Executive Committee to continue the work for the satisfaction of the demands made by the London Conference for representation in the General Assembly in a consultative capacity and a full representation with the right to vote on the Social and Economic Council.

"The Congress further recommends its affiliated organizations to make every effort to secure the inclusion of representatives of organized labor in the delegations appointed by their respective governments to the United Nations Organization."

VII UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL CONFERENCE

The United Nations Educational and Cultural Conference was convened in London from November 1st to 19th, 1945 with delegations from forty-four countries present.

Members of the Chinese Delegation to the Conference were Dr. Hu Shih, chief delegate; Drs. Chao Yuan-ren, Cheng Tien-fang, Lo Chia-lun and Li Shu-hua, delegates; Messrs. Chu Cho-mung, Cheng Hsi-meng and Dr. Yang Kon-ta, advisers; and Drs. Lo Kuang-lai and Edgar Tang, secretaries.

The purpose of the Conference was to formulate a final constitution of a permanent international educational, scientific and cultural organization which would be attached to the United Nations Organization as one of its specialized agencies, so as to develop friendly relations among the nations and to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of a social and cultural character.

At the Plenary Session held on November 14, the Conference adopted a preamble of the proposed constitution for the new organization with a view to setting forth the reasons and purposes for such an organization. The preamble declares:

"Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed. Ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause throughout the history of mankind for suspicion and mistrust between peoples of the world through which their differences all too often end in war.

"This great and terrible war which has just ended is a war that is made possible by the denial of democratic principles of dignity, equality, and mutual respect of men and by the propagation of the doctrine of inequality of men and races.

"A wide diffusion of culture and education of humanity for justice and liberty and peace is indispensable to the dignity of men and constitutes a sacred duty which all nations must fulfil in a spirit of mutual assistance and concern.

"A peace, based exclusively upon political and economical arrange-

ments of the Governments, would not be a peace which could secure a unanimous, lasting and sincere support of the peoples of the world, and a peace must therefore be founded if it is not to fail upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind.

"For these reasons, the states which are parties to this constitution, believing in full and equal opportunities for education for all in the unrestricted pursuit of the objective 'truth' and in free exchange of ideas and knowledge, are agreed and determined to develop and increase a means of communication between peoples and to employ these means for the purpose of mutual understanding and for a truer and more perfect knowledge of each other's lives.

"In consequence, the conference delegates have agreed to create a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization for the purpose of advancing—through the educational, scientific and cultural relations of the world—the objectives of international peace and the common welfare of mankind."

On November 16, three important documents were signed by the delegates of 44 nations, which formally brought into existence of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. The three documents are (1) The Final Act of the United Nations Conference for the Establishment of the Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization; (2) The Constitution of the Organization and (3) The Instrument for Establishment of a Preparatory Educational, Scientific and Cultural Commission.

The Constitution provides for a general conference, composed of five delegates from each nation selected after consultation with cultural groups, a 18-man executive board and a secretariat. Each country is to have one vote. All members of the United Nations are eligible for membership. The seat of the new organization will be in Paris.

VIII. FOREIGN MINISTERS CONFERENCE

In a joint communique issued on March 3, 1945 by United States of America, Great Britain and Soviet Union, in connection with Potsdam Conference it was announced that an agreement was reached for the establishment of a Council of Foreign Ministers. The text of the agreement is as follows:

1. There shall be established a council, composed of the foreign ministers of the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, China, France and the United States.

2. (a) The Council shall normally meet in London, which shall be the permanent seat of the Joint Secretariat which the Council will form. Each of the foreign ministers will be accompanied by a high-ranking deputy, duly authorized to carry on the work of the Council in the absence of his foreign minister, and by a small staff of technical advisers.

(b) The first meeting of the Council shall be held in London, not later than September 1, 1945. Meetings may be held by common agreement in other capitals as may be agreed upon from time to time.

3. (a) As its immediate important task, the Council shall be authorized to draw up, with a view to their submission to the United Nations, treaties of peace with Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Finland, and to propose settlements of territorial questions outstanding on the termination of the war in Europe. The council shall be utilized for the preparation of a peace settlement for Germany to be accepted by the Government of Germany when a government adequate for purpose is established.

(b) For the discharge of each of these tasks, the Council will be composed of the members representing those states which were signatory to the terms of surrender imposed upon the enemy states concerned. For the purpose of a peace settlement for Italy. France shall be regarded as a signatory to the terms of surrender for Italy. Other members will be invited to participate when matters directly concerning them are under discussion.

(c) Other matters may from time to time be referred to the Council by agreement between the member governments.

4. (a) Whenever the Council is considering a question of direct interest to a state not represented hereon, such state should be invited to send representatives to participate in the discussion and study of that question.

(b) The Council may adapt its procedure to the particular problem under consideration. In some cases, it may hold its own preliminary discussions prior to the participation of other interested states. In other cases, the Council may convoke a formal conference of

the states chiefly interested in seeking a solution of the particular problem.

After the announcement of the agreement the Governments of China and France were invited to join in establishing the Council.

As a result of the agreement for the establishment of the Council of Foreign Ministers, the Council had its first conference on September 11, 1945 in London. The Foreign Ministers of five Allied powers to the Conference were Mr. Ernest Bevin, Mr. James Byrnes, M. V. Molotov, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh and M. Georges Bidault.

The agenda of the Council of Foreign Ministers was prepared at the Potsdam Conference according to which the drafting of a treaty for Italy was the first item. Aside from Italy, the drafting of treaties for the Balkan countries was also on the agenda. Further the agenda included discussion on European inland waterways.

After three weeks of deliberations and discussions, the first session of the Foreign Ministers Conference was suspended without a decision. The suspension of the conference was to a certain extent due to different views of the interpretation of the Potsdam agreement which set up the Council of Foreign Ministers as a peace-making instrument. The Soviet delegation insisted on the strictest adherence to the Potsdam terms which would exclude China from drafting the peace treaties with Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Finland; exclude France from drafting the peace treaties with Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Finland and exclude the United States from the Finland peace settlement.

The United States on the other hand, favored a liberal interpretation of the Potsdam agreement. France and China, being permanent members of the United Nations Security Council, should not be excluded.

Although the Conference was temporarily suspended without bearing fruits, yet the three weeks of work had not been entirely wasted. This view was elucidated by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Chinese Foreign Minister, in a message setting forth his impressions and hope for the future of the Council of Foreign Ministers after the termination of the first session of the Council, Dr. Wang's message reads:

"During this session of the Council of Foreign Ministers, there has been a candid exchange of views. This, I believe, will facilitate rather than hinder the work confronting the Council in the future.

"The task of peace is necessarily difficult. You can enforce surrender on your enemy but you can only achieve a common peace with your Allies by mutual agreement.

"China's participation in the work of the Council is a practical one. The bitter experience and sacrifices in the war have taught us that peace is indeed indivisible. We are not concerned with the questions of prestige. Our desire to see collaboration among the five Powers of the Council consolidated outweighs all other questions.

"In the light of the experience of the present conference we feel that fuller consultations between the governments concerned will ensure a greater measure of success for future meetings. It is the

earnest hope of the Chinese delegation that this work will at once be undertaken by all member of the Council."

IX. FAR EASTERN ADVISORY COMMISSION

For the purpose of formulating a long-range policy towards Japan and studying the steps necessary for implementing the Potsdam surrender terms, the Government of the United States on August 21, 1945 proposed to the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union the establishment of a Far Eastern Advisory Commission in Washington. The proposal was accepted by China, the Soviet Union and the United Kingdom on August 31, September 7, and September 28, respectively.

Member nations of the Commission were the United States, China, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, the Netherlands, France, the Philippines and India.

On October 10, the State Department of the United States Government announced the terms of reference indicating the functions of the Commission as an advisory body recommending to the participating governments along the following lines:

1. On the formulation of policies, principles and standards by which the fulfilment by Japan of its obligations under the instrument of surrender.

2. On steps necessary and on machinery required to ensure a strict compliance by Japan with the provisions of the instrument of surrender.

3. On such and other matters as may be assigned to it by agreement by the participating governments.

The terms of reference especially mentioned that the Commission should not make recommendation with regard to the conduct of military operation nor with regard to territorial adjustments. In other words, the American military occupation under General MacArthur was not subject to any recommendation of the Commission.

The Soviet Government on September 24, proposed for the establishment of a Four-Power Control Council for Japan prior to the formation of the Commission.

The Commission was at first scheduled to meet in Washington on October 23, 1945, the invitation of which was sent to the various governments concerned by the United States. The Soviet Government, though she had accepted the proposal for the establishment of a Far Eastern Advisory Commission, declined to accept the invitation. The Commission meeting was thus postponed for a week.

On October 30, 1945, the Far Eastern Advisory Commission was held in Washington without the participation of the representative of the Soviet Government. The representatives to the Commission of the various governments concerned were Dr. Wai Tao-ming, Chinese Ambassador to Washington; General Frank R. McCoy of the United States; Lord Halifax, British Ambassador to Washington; M. Paul Emile Naggiar of France; Mr. Carlos Romulo of the Philippines; Mr. C. A. Berendsen of New Zealand; Dr. Herbert V. Evatt, Australian Foreign Minister; Mr. Lester B. Pearson, Canadian Ambassador to Washington; Mr. C. Loudon, Netherlands Ambassador to Washington and Mr.

Girja Shankar Rajpai, Indian Resident General in Washington.

Immediately after United States Representative Frank McCoy, who served temporary as Chairman, called the meeting to order, Dr. Wai Tao-ming made a motion to adjourn the Commission meeting for another week. Dr. Wai said, among other things, "The Chinese delegation believes it will be advantageous to the progress and outcome of the Conference if the said powers (the United States, China, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union) are allowed sufficient time to continue their discussions with a view to reaching an agreement before the Conference proceeds further. Besides, there are so many documents which have just been distributed that all the delegations would need time to study them. I move, therefore, that for these purposes, the Conference be adjourned for a week to be reassembled on November 6." The motion was met with no objection; the meeting was then adjourned.

The Far Eastern Advisory Commission was formally convened in Washington on November 6, 1945, still without the participation of the Soviet Government. The first meeting of the Commission was devoted principally to organizational and procedural matters. Consequently, General Frank R. McCoy was elected Chairman and Mr. Nelson Johnson, former American Ambassador to China, Secretary-General.

X. DUMBARTON OAKS CONFERENCE

The meeting of the representatives of the Four Big Nations at Dumbarton Oaks was a direct

result of the Moscow Declaration. In the Four Nation Declaration signed on October 30, 1943, the United States, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union and China recognized "the necessity of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states, and open to membership by all such states, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security." Since the Soviet Government was then a neutral in the Pacific war, it became necessary to arrange separate discussions with the Soviet Government. The first phase of the conversations between representatives of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union took place from August 21 to September 28, 1944; the second phase, between representatives of the United States, the United Kingdom and China was held from September 29 to October 7, the same year.

The Chinese Delegation, which participated in the second phase of the Conversations at Dumbarton Oaks, was headed by Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, Ambassador to London. Other delegates were: Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Ambassador to the United States of America; Dr. Victor Hoö, then the Administrative Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs; and General Shang Chen, the Chief of the Military Mission to the United States. The technical delegates of the Chinese Group included the following: Dr. Chang Chung-fu, the Director of the Department of American Affairs of the Ministry of Foreign

Affairs; Dr. Lee Kan, Commercial Counsellor, Chinese Embassy, Washington; Liu Chieh, then Minister-Counsellor, Washington Chinese Embassy, now Administrative Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs; Rear Admiral Liu Ten-fu, Naval Attache to Washington; Maj.-Gen. P. T. Mow, Depute Director of the Commission on Aeronautical Affairs and concurrently Director of the Washington Office of the Commission on Aeronautical Affairs; Poe Hsueh-feng, Counsellor of the Supreme National Defence Council; and T. L. Soong, Delegate to the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference. The advisers to the Delegation were Dr. S. H. Tow, Dr. C. L. Hsia, Dr. C. Y. Cheng, Dr. James Yu, Dr. Liang Yun-li and Mr. Chen Hung-chen. Serving as secretaries were Messrs. Tsui Tswen-ling, F. Y. Chai, C. K. Hsieh and Dr. Lin Mon-sheng.

Immediately after the opening session of the first phase Conversations, the three Delegations with a view to expediting their work appointed a series of subcommittees, including a Joint Steering Committee, a Drafting Subcommittee, a Legal Subcommittee, a Subcommittee on General Questions of International Organization and a Subcommittee on Security. By September 28 the three delegations had reached a consensus of view and on September 29, the American, British and Soviet Governments simultaneously issued a joint communique summarizing their work.

On the day following the conclusion of the first phase of the Conversations, the Chinese, British

and American Delegations began their discussions. During the period of the second phase of the Conversations, the three delegations gave consideration both to the basic principles of international organization and to detailed proposals for providing future peace and security.

At the conclusion of the second phase of the conversations, the Chairman, Mr. E. R. Stettinius Jr. (then U. S. Under Secretary of State) made his remarks at the closing session as follows:

"During the past week we have had opportunity to consider the document of proposals with our colleagues from China. Our thoughtful reexamination of these proposals in plenary session, in the formulation group, and in the Steering Committee has been most fruitful. We have benefited greatly from the close study which Dr. Koo and his associates have given the document and from their penetrating observations and their new perspectives. I am deeply gratified that the members of the Chinese Group have found in the proposals, based as they are upon the documents submitted by all four participating groups, an acceptable body of principles for an international organization to maintain peace and security. Out of our discussions during this phase have emerged many points to which we shall all want to give consideration in preparations for a full conference.

"It has been rightly said of war-makers that they destroy in days that which has taken generations to build. Our task has happily been to construct. I sincerely

hope it may sometime be said that the men of peace who have set around this table have reached agreement in days upon principles which strengthen the promise of security and peace for generations.

"The common understanding we have achieved and the agreements we have reached in so brief a period have been possible because of the great qualities of statesmanship of my fellow chairmen Dr. Koo and Lord Halifax, and of the constructive spirit of cooperation which has prevailed among all who have worked with us. I wish to express my deep appreciation and that of the American Group for the cordiality and the wisdom which our British and Chinese colleagues have brought to the task and for the spirit of harmony which has prevailed in our deliberations.

"The peace-loving peoples of the world will soon have opportunity to judge what we have accomplished here. They will appraise our work critically, for they are deeply earnest in their search for means to rid the world of the horrors of war and insecurity under which they have suffered so cruelly and so long. I am fully confident that the proposals upon which we have agreed will meet the test of their scrutiny. Within these proposals are contained the more important principles for an organization that will make possible, in our era, effective international cooperation for peace and security.

"As we conclude this final phase of our conversations at Dumbarton Oaks I am deeply conscious of the bonds of friendship and

common purpose which join us with China and with the United Kingdom in our common struggle to defeat the Japanese and German aggressors. I anticipate with full confidence that the unit which the United Nations have achieved in war, and which has so richly manifested itself in our present conversations, will strengthen in peace. The four nations which have participated in these conversations will, I am sure, take early steps to complete the task we have begun at Dumbarton Oaks and thereby make possible in the not distant future the calling of a general conference for the establishment of the organization which we have projected here and which is so devoutly desired by the peace-loving peoples of the world."

In reply Dr. Willington Koo, Chairman of the Chinese Delegation made following remarks.

"Mr. Chairman, Gentlemen: I have listened with deep appreciation to the generous tribute which you, Mr. Chairman, have paid to the Chinese Delegation and the fair appraisal which you have made of the work of the second phase of the Dumbarton Oaks conversations. I wish to say how grateful we of the Chinese Delegation feel toward you, Mr. Chairman, for having acted as chairman of our meetings, over which you have presided with such marked ability and unfailing courtesy. We wish also to express our thanks for the hospitality of the Government of the United States, which left nothing to be desired in affording facilities for our meetings and comfort for the delegates. The efficient secretariat provided

by the State Department has also been a very great help to us in our work.

"In our deliberations, we found the achievement of the first phase of the conversations excellent groundwork. The set of proposals which has now received the endorsement of the different participating delegations furnishes a preliminary and concrete plan for the formation of an international organization to maintain peace and security. We hope that the fruits of our labor will contribute in the end to the strengthening of the foundation of this new structure to be reared.

"From the outset we were animated by an earnest desire to promote the success of our joint task. We are glad and delighted to be able to say that our spirit of collaboration was fully reciprocated by our colleagues on the American and British Delegations. At all the meetings we had, whether of the plenary session, the Steering Committee, the formulation group, or of the military experts, an atmosphere of frankness and cordiality prevailed. The learning and wisdom of our American and British colleagues made a deep impression on us. All this made our deliberations and participation both pleasant and profitable.

"We believe that this important series of conversations initiated by the United States Government has accomplished its purpose. The set of agreed proposals, when approved by the four Governments and finally embodied in a more complete form, will constitute a most valuable instru-

ment for consideration and adoption by all the interested nations at a general conference. It is our hope that this conference can be held in the near future so that the ardent wish of all the peace-loving peoples to see the establishment of a universal organization to safeguard international peace and security after the achievement of victory over our common enemy in the East and in the West can find its early fulfilment."

Following the closing plenary session of the second phase of the Conversations, the Chairmen of the Chinese, American and British Delegations issued a joint statement as follows:

"The conversation between American, the British and the Chinese Delegations in Washington regarding the establishment of a world security organization have now reached a satisfactory conclusion. The rapid progress has been made possible because of the work accomplished at the first phase of the Dumbarton Oaks discussions and because that delegations had earlier exchanged a written memoranda on the subject. These conversations have afforded the delegations an opportunity of full and frank exchange of views and have resulted in an agreed set of proposals for a general framework of an international organization and machinery required to maintain peace and security which the three Delegations are now reporting to their respective Governments. The three Governments will issue a statement on the subject in the near future."

APPENDIX: PROPOSALS FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A GENERAL INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

There should be established an international organization under the title of The United Nations, the Charter of which should contain provisions necessary to give effect to the proposals which follow.

CHAPTER I.

Purposes

The purposes of the Organization should be:

1. To maintain international peace and security; and to that end to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace and the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means adjustment or settlement of international disputes which may lead to a breach of the peace;

2. To develop friendly relations among nations and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;

3. To achieve international co-operation in the solution of international economic, social and other humanitarian problems; and

4. To afford a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the achievement of these common ends.

CHAPTER II.

Principles

In pursuit of the purposes mentioned in Chapter I the Organization and its members should act in accordance with the following principles:

1. The Organization is based

on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states.

2. All members of the Organization undertake, in order to ensure to all of them the rights and benefits resulting from membership in the Organization, to fulfill the obligations assumed by them in accordance with the Charter.

3. All members of the Organization shall settle their disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security are not endangered,

4. All members of the Organization shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force in any manner inconsistent with the purposes of the Organization.

5. All members of the Organization shall give every assistance to the Organization in any action undertaken by it in accordance with the provisions of the Charter.

6. All members of the Organization shall refrain from giving assistance to any state against which preventive or enforcement action is being undertaken by the Organization.

The Organization should ensure that states not members of the Organization to act in accordance with these principles so far as may be necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security.

CHAPTER III.

Membership

Membership of the Organization should be open to all peace-loving states.

CHAPTER IV. Principal Organs

1. The Organization should have as its principal organs:
 - a. A General Assembly;
 - b. A Security Council;
 - c. An International Court of Justice; and
 - d. A Secretariat.
2. The Organization should have such subsidiary agencies as may be found necessary.

CHAPTER V. The General Assembly

Section A—Composition

All members of the Organization should be members of the General Assembly and should have a number of representatives to be specified in the Charter.

Section B—Functions and Powers

1. The General Assembly should have the right to consider the general principles of cooperation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and the regulation of armaments; to discuss any questions relating to the maintenance of international peace and security brought before it by any member or members of the Organization or by the Security Council; and to make recommendations with regard to any such principles or questions. Any such questions on which action is necessary should be referred to the Security Council by the General Assembly either before or after discussion. The General Assembly should not on its own initiative make recommendations on any matter relating to the maintenance of international peace and security which is being dealt with by the Security Council.

2. The General Assembly should be empowered to admit new members to the Organization upon recommendation of the Security Council.

3. The General Assembly should, upon recommendation of the Security Council, be empowered to suspend from the exercise of any rights or privileges of membership any member of the Organization against which preventive or enforcement action shall have been taken by the Security Council. The exercise of the rights and privileges thus suspended may be restored by decision of the Security Council. The General Assembly should be empowered, upon recommendation of the Security Council, to expel from the Organization any member of the Organization which persistently violates the principles contained in the Charter.

4. The General Assembly should elect the non-permanent members of the Security Council and the members of the Economic and Social Council provided for in Chapter IX. It should be empowered to elect, upon recommendation of the Security Council, the Secretary-General of the Organization. It should perform such functions in relation to the election of the judges of the International Court of Justice as may be conferred upon it by the statute of the court.

5. The General Assembly should apportion the expenses among the members of the Organization and should be empowered to approve the budgets of the Organization.

6. The General Assembly should initiate studies and make recommendations for the purpose of

promoting international cooperation in political, economic and social fields and of adjusting situations likely to impair the general welfare.

7. The General Assembly should make recommendations for the co-ordination of the policies of international economic, social, and other specialized agencies brought into relation with the Organization in accordance with agreements between such agencies and the Organization.

8. The General Assembly should receive and consider annual and special reports from the Security Council and reports from other bodies of the Organization.

Section C—Voting

1. Each member of the Organization should have one vote in the General Assembly.

2. Important decisions of the General Assembly, including recommendations with respect to the maintenance of international peace and security; election of members of the Security Council; election of members of the Economic and Social Council; admission of members, suspension of the exercise of the rights and privileges of members, and expulsion of members; and budgetary questions, should be made by a two-thirds majority of those present and voting. On other questions, including the determination of additional categories of questions to be decided by a two-third majority, the decisions of the General Assembly should be made by a simple majority vote.

Section D—Procedure

1. The General Assembly should meet in regular annual sessions and in such special sessions as occasion may require.

2. The General Assembly should adopt its own rules of procedure and elect its President for each session.

3. The General Assembly should be empowered to set up such bodies and agencies as it may deem necessary for the performance of its functions.

CHAPTER VI.

The Security Council

Section A—Composition

The Security Council should consist of one representative of each of eleven members of the Organization. Representatives of the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the Republic of China, and, in due course, France, should have permanent seats. The General Assembly should elect six states to fill the non-permanent seats. These six states should be elected for a term of two years, three retiring each year. They should not be immediately eligible for re-election. In the first election of the non-permanent members three should be chosen by the General Assembly for one-year terms and three for two-year terms.

Section E—Principal Functions and Powers

1. In order to ensure prompt and effective action by the Organization, members of the Organization should by the Charter confer on the Security Council primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security and should agree that in carrying out these duties under this responsibility it should act on their behalf.

2. In discharging these duties the Security Council should act in accordance with the purposes and principles of the Organization.

3. The specific powers conferred on the Security Council in order to carry out these duties are laid down in Chapter VIII.

4. All members of the Organization should obligate themselves to accept the decisions of the Security Council and to carry them out in accordance with the provisions of the Charter.

5. In order to promote the establishment and maintenance of international peace and security with the least diversion of the world's human and economic resources for armaments, the Security Council, with the assistance of the Military Staff Committee referred to in Chapter VIII, Section 3, paragraph 9, should have the responsibility for formulating plans for the establishment of a system of regulation of armaments for submission to the members of the Organization.

Section C—Voting

(Note: The question of voting procedure in the Security Council is still under consideration.)

Section D—Procedure

1. The Security Council should be so organized as to be able to function continuously and each state member of the Security Council should be permanently represented at the headquarters of the Organization. It may hold meetings at such other places as in its judgment may best facilitate its work. There should be periodic meetings at which each state member of the Security Council could if it so desired be represented by a member of the gov-

ernment or some other special representative.

2. The Security Council should be empowered to set up such bodies or agencies as it may deem necessary for the performance of its functions including regional subcommittees of the Military Staff Committee.

3. The Security Council should adopt its own rules of procedure, including the method of selecting its President.

4. Any member of the Organization should participate in the discussion of any question brought before the Security Council whenever the Security Council considers that the interests of that member of the Organization are specially affected.

5. Any member of the Organization not having a seat on the Security Council and any state not a member of the Organization, if it is a party to a dispute under consideration by the Security Council, should be invited to participate in the discussion relating to the dispute.

CHAPTER VII.

An International Court of Justice

1. There should be an International Court of Justice which should constitute the principal judicial organ of the Organization.

2. The court should be constituted and should function in accordance with a statute which should be annexed to and be a part of the Charter of the Organization.

3. The statute of the Court of International Justice should be either (a) the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice, continued in force with such modifications as may be desirable or (b) a new

statute in the preparation of which the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice should be used as a basis.

4. All members of the Organization should *ipso facto* be parties to the statute of the International Court of Justice.

5. Conditions under which states not members of the Organization may become parties to the statute of the International Court of Justice should be determined in each case by the General Assembly upon recommendation of the Security Council.

CHAPTER VIII.

Arrangements for the Maintenance of International Peace and Security Including Prevention and Suppression of Aggression

Section A—Pacific Settlement of Disputes

1. The Security Council should be empowered to investigate any dispute or any situation which may lead to international friction or give rise to a dispute, in order to determine whether its continuance is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security.

2. Any state, whether member of the Organization or not, may bring any such dispute or situation to the attention of the General Assembly or of the Security Council.

3. The parties to any dispute the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security should obligate themselves, first of all to seek a solution by negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration or judicial settlement, or other means of their own choice. The Security Council should call

upon the parties to settle their dispute by such means.

4. If, nevertheless, parties to a dispute of the nature referred to in paragraph 3 above fail to settle it by the means indicated in that paragraph, they should obligate themselves to refer it to the Security Council. The Security Council should in each case decide whether or not the continuance of the particular dispute is in fact likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, and, accordingly, whether the Security Council should deal with the dispute and, if so, whether it should take action under paragraph 5.

5. The Security Council should be empowered, at any stage of a dispute of the nature referred to in paragraph 3 above, to recommend appropriate procedure or methods of adjustment.

6. Justiciable disputes should normally be referred to the International Court of Justice. The Security Council should be empowered to refer to the Court, for advice, legal questions connected with other disputes.

7. The provisions of paragraph 1 to 6 of Section A should not apply to situations or disputes arising out of matters which by international law are solely within the domestic jurisdiction of the state concerned.

Section B — Determination of Threats to the Peace or Acts of Aggression and Action with Respect Thereto

1. Should the Security Council deem that a failure to settle a dispute in accordance with procedures indicated in paragraph 3 of Section A, or in accordance with

its recommendations made under paragraph 5 of Section A, constitutes a threat to the maintenance of international peace and security, it should take any measures necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security in accordance with the purposes and principles of the Organization.

2. In general the Security Council should determine the existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace or act of aggression and should make recommendations or decide upon the measures to be taken to maintain or restore peace and security.

3. The Security Council should be empowered to determine what diplomatic, economic or other measures not involving the use of armed force should be employed to give effect to its decisions, and to call upon members of the Organization to apply such measures. Such measures may include complete or partial interruption of rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio and other means of communication and the severance of diplomatic and economic relations.

4. Should the Security Council consider such measures to be inadequate, it should be empowered to take such action by air, naval or land forces as may be necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security. Such action may include demonstrations, blockade and other operations by air, sea or land forces of members of the Organization.

5. In order that all members of the Organization should contribute to the maintenance of international peace and security, they should undertake to make available to the Security Council, on

its call and in accordance with a special agreement or agreements concluded among themselves, armed forces, facilities and assistance necessary for the purpose of maintaining international peace and security. Such agreement or agreements should govern the numbers and types of forces and the nature of the facilities and assistance to be provided. The special agreement or agreements should be negotiated as soon as possible and should in each case be subject to approval by the Security Council and to ratification by the signatory states in accordance with their constitutional processes.

6. In order to enable urgent military measures to be taken by the Organization there should be held immediately available by the members of the Organization national air force contingents for combined international enforcement action. The strength and degree of readiness of these contingents and plans for their combined action should be determined by the Security Council with the assistance of the Military Staff Committee within the limits laid down in the special agreement or agreements referred to in paragraph 5 above.

7. The action required to carry out the decisions of the Security Council for the maintenance of international peace and security should be taken by all the members of the Organization in cooperation or by some of them as the Security Council may determine. This undertaking should be carried out by the members of the Organization by their own action and through action of the appropriate specialized organiza-

tions and agencies of which they are members.

8. Plans for the application of armed force should be made by the Security Council with the assistance of the Military Staff Committee referred to in paragraph 9 below.

9. There should be established a Military Staff Committee the functions of which should be to advise and assist the Security Council on all questions relating to the Security Council's military requirements for the maintenance of international peace and security, to the employment and command of forces placed at its disposal, to the regulation of armaments, and to possible disarmament. It should be responsible under the Security Council for the strategic direction of any armed forces placed at the disposal of the Security Council. The Committee should be composed of the Chiefs of Staff of the permanent members of the Security Council or their representatives. Any member of the Organization not permanently represented on the Committee should be invited by the Committee to be associated with it when the efficient discharge of the Committee's responsibilities requires that such a state should participate in its work. Questions of command of forces should be worked out subsequently.

10. The members of the Organization should join in affording mutual assistance in carrying out the measures decided upon by the Security Council.

11. Any state, whether a member of the Organization or not, which finds itself confronted with special economic problems arising from the carrying out of measures

which have been decided upon by the Security Council should have the right to consult the Security Council in regard to a solution of those problems.

Section C.—Regional Arrangements

1. Nothing in the Charter should preclude the existence of regional arrangements or agencies for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action, provided such arrangements or agencies and their activities are consistent with the purposes and principles of the Organization. The Security Council should encourage settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies, either on the initiative of the states concerned or by reference from the Security Council.

2. The Security Council should, where appropriate, utilize such arrangements or agencies for enforcement action under its authority, but no enforcement action should be taken under regional arrangements or by regional agencies without the authorization of the Security Council.

3. The Security Council should at all times be kept fully informed of activities undertaken or in contemplation under regional arrangements or by regional agencies for the maintenance of international peace and security.

CHAPTER IX.

Arrangements for International Economic and Social Co-operation

Section A—Purpose and Relationships

1. With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for

peaceful and friendly relations among nations, the Organization should facilitate solution of international economic, social and other humanitarian problems and promote respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. Responsibility for the discharge of this function should be vested in the General Assembly and, under the authority of the General Assembly, in an Economic and Social Council.

2. The various specialized economic, social and other organizations and agencies would have responsibilities in their respective fields as defined in their statutes. Each such organization or agency should be brought into relationship with the Organization on terms to be determined by agreement between the Economic and Social Council and the appropriate authorities of the specialized organization or agency, subject to approval by the General Assembly.

Section B—Composition and Voting

The Economic and Social Council should consist of representatives of eighteen members of the Organization. The States to be represented for this purpose should be elected by the General Assembly for terms of three years. Each such state should have one representative, who should have one vote. Decisions of the Economic and Social Council should be taken by simple majority vote of those present and voting.

Section C—Functions and Powers of the Economic and Social Council

1. The Economic and Social Council should be empowered:

- a. to carry out, within the scope of its functions, re-

commendations of the General Assembly;

- b. to make recommendations, on its own initiative, with respect to international economic, social and other humanitarian matters;
- c. to receive and consider reports from the economic, social and other organizations or agencies brought into relationship with the Organization, and to coordinate their activities through consultations with, and recommendations to, such organizations or agencies;
- d. to examine the administrative budgets of such specialized organizations or agencies with a view to making recommendations to the organizations or agencies concerned;
- e. to enable the Secretary-General to provide information to the Security Council;
- f. to assist the Security Council upon its request; and
- g. to perform such other functions within the general scope of its competence as may be assigned to it by the General Assembly.

Section D—Organization and Procedure

1. The Economic and Social Council should set up an economic commission, a social commission, and such other commissions as may be required. These commissions should consist of experts. There should be a permanent staff which should constitute a part of the Secretariat of the Organization.

2. The Economic and Social Council should make suitable arrangements for representatives of the specialized organizations or

agencies to participate without vote in its deliberations and in those of the commissions established by it.

3. The Economic and Social Council should adopt its own rules of procedure and the method of selecting its President.

CHAPTER X.

The Secretariat

1. There should be a Secretariat comprising a Secretary-General and such staff as may be required. The Secretary-General should be the chief administrative officer of the Organization. He should be elected by the General Assembly, on recommendation of the Security Council, for such term and under such conditions as are specified in the Charter.

2. The Secretary-General should act in that capacity in all meetings of the General Assembly of the Security Council, and of the Economic and Social Council and should make an annual report to the General Assembly on the work of the Organization.

3. The Secretary-General should have the right to bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten international peace and security.

CHAPTER XI.

Amendments

Amendments should come into force for all members of the Organization, when they have been adopted by a vote of two-thirds of the members of the General Assembly and ratified in accordance with their respective constitutional processes by the members of the Organization having permanent membership on the

Security Council and by a majority of the other members of the Organization.

CHAPTER XII.

Transitional Arrangements

1. Pending the coming into force of the special agreement or agreements referred to in Chapter VIII Section B, paragraph 5, and in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 5 of the Four-Nation Declaration, signed at Moscow, October 30, 1943, the states parties to that Declaration should consult with one another and as occasion arises with other members of the Organization with a view to such joint action on behalf of the Organization as may be necessary for the purpose of maintaining international peace and security.

2. No provision of the Charter should preclude action taken or authorized in relation to enemy states as a result of the present war by the Governments having responsibility for such action.

Note—In addition to the question of voting procedure in the Security Council referred to in Chapter VI, several other questions are still under consideration.

Washington, D.C.

October 7, 1944

XI. UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

This Conference was convened at San Francisco from April 25 to June 26, 1945, with representatives of fifty nations present. Forty-six of these accepted invitations to San Francisco before the Conference began and four, the Byelorussian

Soviet Socialist Republic, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, Argentina and Denmark, joined them later at the invitation of the Conference itself.

The Delegation of the Republic of China to the Conference, which was appointed by the National Government, consisted of ten members headed by Dr. T. V. Soong, then Acting President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs. Of the ten delegates, four are members of the National Government, namely, Dr. T. V. Soong, Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, Ambassador to Britain, Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Secretary-General of the Supreme National Defense Council, Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Ambassador to the United States; three are representatives of the minority parties, namely, Mr. Li Hwang, leader of the Young China Party, Carson Chun-mai Chang, founder of the State Socialist Party, and Tung Pi-wu, one of the founders and a leader of the Chinese Communist Party; and three are independent educational and social leaders, namely, Dr. Hu Shih, outstanding philosopher and historian, Dr. Wu Yi-fang, President of the Kinling Girls College and Mr. Hu Lin, managing director of Ta Kung Pao. Besides the ten delegates there were twenty four advisers and technical experts whose names and biographical sketches appear in **Appendixes I and II.**

Getting down to business, the Chinese Delegation made its committee assignments as follows:

Steering Committee: T. V. Soong or Wellington Koo

Executive Committee: T. V. Soong or Wellington Koo

Drafting Committee: Wellington Koo

COMMISSION I. GENERAL PROVISIONS: Wang Chung-hui, Hsu Mo

Committee 1. Preamble: Purposes and Principles: Wang Chung-hui, Dison Poe, Liang Yun-li.

Committee 2. Membership and General: Li Huang, Victor Hoo, Lee Wei-kuo

COMMISSION II.—THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY: Wellington Koo, Victor Hoo

Committee 1. Structure and Procedure: Tung Pi-wu, Kuo Ping-chia, Cheng Chen-yu

Committee 2. Political and Security Functions: Carson Chang, Wang Hua-chen, Kuo Ping-chia

Committee 3. Economic and Social Co-operation: Wu Yi-fang, Hu Lin, Pei Tsu-yee, Victor Hoo, Chu Hsin-min, Lee Kan, Chang Fu-yun

Committee 4. Trusteeship System: Wellington Koo, Shao Yu-lin, Liu Chieh

COMMISSION III.—THE SECURITY COUNCIL: Wellington Koo, Hu Shih

Committee 1. Structure and Procedure: Hu Shih, Chang Chung-fu, Kuo Ping-chia

Committee 2. Peaceful Settlement: Hsu Mo, Wang Chia-chen, Liang Yun-li

Committee 3. Enforcement Arrangements: Wellington Koo,

Chen Shao-kuan, Victor Hoo,
Tu Chien-shih, P. T. Mow

Committee 4. Regional Arrangements: Wellington Koo (Rapporteur of the Committee), S. R. Chow, Hsu Shu-hsi, Yang Yun-chu

COMMISSION IV.—JUDICIAL ORGANIZATION: Wang Chung-hui, Wei Tao-ming

Committee 1. International Court of Justice: Wei Tao-ming, Hsu Mo

Committee 2. Legal Problems: Wang Chung-hui, John C. H. Wu, Chang Fu-yun, Liang Yuen-li

As to China's stand in UNCIO the following speech delivered by Dr. V. K. Willington Koo, at Commonwealth Club in San Francisco on May 18, 1945 is worth quoting.

"The Chinese Delegation came to the Conference with two objectives. On the one hand, we hope to contribute our part in setting up a machinery through which peace and security may be maintained. On the other hand, we desire to cooperate with the other members of the United Nations in promoting the welfare of all people and in establishing the rule of law in international conduct.

"The maintenance of peace and security, or the prevention of war, is our first objective. In a sense, however, the maintenance of peace and security is not an end in itself, but a necessary condition under which the welfare of all people may be improved and the rule of law may be established. Our second objective is therefore our ultimate objective.

"In all our deliberations, in all our proposals and amendments and observations, we the Chinese Delegation are guided by these two objectives.

"Under the Dumbarton Oaks plan, the Security Council is charged with the primary responsibility for the maintenance of peace and security; it alone is empowered to determine the existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression and to decide upon measures to be taken to maintain or restore peace and security. Although this concept of the Security Council is not original with us, we of the Chinese Delegation have endorsed it.

"We think that a clear-cut division of functions and powers between the Security Council and the General Assembly is a great improvement over the arrangements under the Covenant of the League of Nations. Under the covenant, both the Council and the Assembly might deal with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or effecting the peace of the world. The functions and powers of each were not clearly defined. As a result, neither organ was primarily responsible for the maintenance of peace and security, and our appeal for the enforcement of the Covenant and the application of a prompt check to the Japanese aggression went unheeded so far as any effective action was concerned. The case was shuffled back and forth between the Council and the Assembly and China and the whole League saw the aggressor march triumphantly forward in pursuit of his sinister design of domination and conquest.

"From the experience of the so-called Manchurian 'incident' we have learned a significant lesson. That is, if international peace and security are to be maintained effectively, there should be an organ, a powerful organ, which is authorized and enabled to take necessary diplomatic, economic, and military measures to remove any threat to the peace or check any act of aggression—an organ in which all the major powers sit and have a definite responsibility to preserve peace and stop aggression. By giving all of the major powers a decisive voice in making decisions for action, we have fixed a superior responsibility on them, and it would no longer be possible for them to hesitate and look anxiously for support from our side.

"Furthermore, both the Council and the Assembly of the League were paralyzed by the rule of unanimity. No action could be taken unless it received a unanimous affirmative vote. Under the Dumbarton Oaks plan, the Security Council, consisting of five permanent members and six non-permanent members, may take any action to maintain or restore peace and security by an affirmative vote of seven members, including the concurrent votes of the permanent members. This is a far more workable and effective procedure than that under the Covenant of the League of Nations.

"We of China have therefore gladly collaborated with the three other sponsoring powers as regards the Dumbarton Oaks plan and have been pleading at this Conference for giving the new United Nations Organization a chance, a chance

to prove its ability to maintain peace and security, in fact, a last chance of mankind to save itself from utter destruction.

"While we are one of the sponsoring nations of the Dumbarton Oaks plan, we have, after careful study and consideration, made certain new proposals and amendments. During the Chinese phase of the Dumbarton Oaks Conversations, we presented three proposals, which later received endorsement from the United States, the United Kingdom, and the Soviet Union.

"The first of these proposals is: The Charter should provide specifically that adjustment or settlement of international disputes should be achieved with due regard for principles of justice and international law.

"Another Chinese proposal accepted by the sponsoring nations is: The Assembly should be responsible for initiating studies and making recommendations with respect to the development and revision of the rules and principles of international law.

"The third proposal we made is: The Economic and Social Council should specifically provide for the promotion of educational and other forms of cultural co-operation.

"These three proposals, it seems to us, provide the moral basis of the new international charter and we are convinced that it is only through a clear recognition of these ideals that the world may be made happy and contented.

"Our approach to the task of drafting a Charter for the world security organization is guided solely by the consideration of

what is most needed as well as of what is practicable in the post-war world. It is the promotion of the cause of peace, justice and happiness which is uppermost in our mind. Thus, as regards regional arrangements, the view of the Chinese Delegation is this: While regional arrangements are useful and appropriate instruments for maintaining regional peace and security, they should recognize the paramount authority and responsibility of the Security Council in all enforcement action. We must avoid any arrangements that would tend to weaken the World Organization on the one hand and to form regional power blocs on the other.

"Our final aim must be to have a world organization that can win the confidence of all regional agencies and that can direct and utilize all such agencies in the maintenance of peace and security.

"Again, in respect of setting up a system of territorial trusteeship we attach great importance to its character and its objectives. It should be regarded as a sacred trust not only by the administering country but also by the World Organization. It should not be confined to administration by individual nations alone but also directly by the World Organization through its own agencies. Among the objectives we should include independence as well as self-government. Only thus can we give hope to millions and tens of millions of people who aspire now or will soon aspire to political freedom.

"I have tried to give you an idea of China's purpose and policy at the Conference as well as her

plan and program of internal reconstruction and development. These two problems are, in fact, closely interrelated. The success of the Conference in writing the fundamental Charter of a new World Organization to maintain peace and security and to promote the welfare of the community of nations, will be a help to China in her work of building a modern State, modern in every respect. It will be a help because she hopes it will relieve her of anxiety about difficulties in her international relations. This freedom from fear about her own security will guarantee her an opportunity to devote her attention and thought and energy to the work of rebuilding and rehabilitation. On the other hand, the emergence of a united, independent, strong and prosperous China will be a great stabilizing factor in the Far East and the Pacific, and will therefore be a valuable asset in our common purpose and task to check and forestall aggression and to preserve peace in the world, so that peace-loving peoples will not be called upon again to send their sons to fight and die in battle."

The basis of discussion at the Conference was the Tentative Proposals for a General International Organization drawn up at Dumbarton Oaks together with the Voting Formula agreed upon by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom and the United States at Yalta, to which China subsequently adhered. These four states were known throughout the Conference as the Sponsoring Powers. Though the French Government was unable to accept the invitation to become one of the Spon-

soring Powers, its representatives subsequently agreed to the Voting Formula and worked closely with the four Sponsoring Powers during the Conference.

A large number of amendments, some 1,200 in all, were tabled by the members of the Conference, including the Sponsoring Powers themselves, and there was a prolonged examination of the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals, the Yalta Voting Formula and these amendments. Four Commissions were set up corresponding to the several parts of the Proposals, namely General Provisions, General Assembly, Security Council, Judicial Organization. These Commissions were subdivided into twelve Technical Committees, where a detailed examination of the various clauses took place. A steering Committee, on which all members of the Conference were represented, and an Executive Committee, composed of representatives of the Sponsoring Powers and France and nine other states, were set up to exercise general supervision over the work of the Conference. The texts drawn up by the Technical Committee were put into final form by a Coordinating Committee, consisting of representatives of the same states which composed the Executive Committee and the Jurists' Committee, composed of experts representing the five languages in which the final text was signed, together with a United States Chairman.

The principal Delegates of the Four Sponsoring Powers were elected Presidents of the Conference and presided in turn over the Plenary Sessions. Mr. E. Stettinius, Jr., the principal Dele-

gate of the United States, was Chairman of the Steering Committee and the Executive Committee, and was entrusted with the supervision of the Secretariat, of which Mr. Alger Hiss, a member of the State Department of the United States, was the Secretary General.

Certain established international organizations were invited to send representatives for purpose of consultation, namely, the League of Nations, the International Labor Organization, the Permanent Court of International Justice, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration and the Food and Agriculture Organization.

English and French were the working languages of the Conference. When other languages were used they were translated into these two by interpreters. The text of the Charter was drawn up in English, French, Russian, Chinese and Spanish. All five texts are equally authentic.

In the Commissions and Technical Committees a two-thirds majority of those present and voting was required both for any amendment to the Proposals and for the Proposals themselves. The text was voted upon by paragraphs, each of which was separately considered together with the relevant amendments. The Charter was finally adopted unanimously at the penultimate Plenary Session.

The Statute of the Court of International Justice was considered at a preliminary conference in Washington. The text there drawn up was examined in a Technical Committee and as there amended was adopted by the Plenary Conference. It is annexed to

the Charter and has equal validity with it.

A Preparatory Commission was set up by the Plenary Conference consisting of all the States represented at San Francisco. This Commission is to have an Executive Committee composed of the same States which composed the Executive Committee of the Conference. A Secretariat under an Executive Secretary will be appointed. The seat of the Commission has been established in London. Its principal duties will be to prepare the Agenda for the first meetings of the various organs of the United Nations, to

make recommendations regarding the transfer of certain functions, activities and assets of the League of Nations, to examine the relationship between the specialized international organizations and agencies and the new organization, to make recommendations regarding the Secretariat and to make studies and recommendations as to the seat of the United Nations.

The three documents, namely the Charter of the United Nations, the Statute of the World Court, the Agreement Establishing the Preparatory Commission are given in Appendixes III, IV, and V respectively.

APPENDIX I.

Following are biographical sketches of the Chinese delegates to the San Francisco Conference:

Dr. T. V. Soong, born in 1894. He took his college education at St. John's University, Shanghai. After graduation, he went to America to study. In 1915 he completed his studies in the Economics Department of Harvard University and later entered Princeton University and Columbia University where he did graduate work. He is holder of the LL. D. degree of St. John's University and th Honorary LL.D. degree of Yale University.

In 1917 Dr. Soong returned to China. After serving as secretary of the Han Yeh Ping Coal and Iron Works, Ltd., he went to Canton to join the Nationalist Government. He served successively as secretary to the Kwangtung Provincial Government, and Minister of Finance, and organizer

and General Manager of the Central Bank of China.

In 1926 Dr. Soong was elected member of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang which post he is still holding. In 1927 he was State Councillor, Minister of Finance and Governor of the Central Bank of China. In 1930 he was concurrently Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Vice-Chairman of the Standing Committee of the National Economic Council and in 1932 he became Acting President of the Executive Yuan.

In 1933 Dr. Soing was delegated by the National Government to represent China in the economic talks at Washington and also took part in the World Economic Conference in London as China's Chief Delegate. He signed the U.S.\$50,000,000 Cotton and Wheat Loan in American and the Nine-Power Silver Agreement in England. From England he proceed-

ed to Paris to take part in the International Conference on Technical Cooperation.

After his return to China, Dr. Soong resigned from the posts of Acting President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance and devoted his full time and energy to national economic reconstruction, thereby laying the foundation for armed resistance against Japanese invasion. In 1933 he was appointed Director of the Central Bank of China and Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Bank of China.

At the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937 Dr. Soong was abroad conducting negotiations with the British and U.S. Governments on the establishment of stabilization funds for China, won for China many friendly nations and participated in several international conferences.

In 1940 Dr. Soong was appointed Chairman of the China Defence Supplies, Inc. in Washington and in winter of the same year he succeeded Dr. Quo Tai-chi as Minister of Foreign Affairs, in which capacity he represented China on the Pacific War Council convened by President Roosevelt. On January 1st, 1942 he signed the Joint Declaration of the United Nations on behalf of China and also signed on June 2nd, 1942 a Sino-American Lend-Lease Agreement with Mr. Cordell Hull, U.S. Secretary of State. He returned to China in October 1942.

In January 1942 Dr. Soong signed in Chungking the new Sino-British Treaty on behalf of China. In February of the same year he again went to the United States, also visited Great Britain

and Canada, and returned to China in September. In 1944 he was re-appointed state Councillor and Acting President of the Executive Yuan, being concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs. In 1945 he was appointed President of the Executive Yuan.

Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, born in Shanghai 1888, is a veteran diplomat. He received his early education in the Anglo-Chinese College and St. John's University in Shanghai. He obtained his Ph. D. degree at Columbia University and the honorary LL.D. degree from Yale University.

Returning to China in 1912, Dr. Koo was appointed secretary to the Cabinet and Secretary to the President. Later he served as secretary of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In 1915 he was named Minister to Mexico and Cuba, the first diplomatic post he held. Three months later he was transferred to the post as Minister to the United States.

Dr. Koo has served as China's delegate to many international conferences. He was Chinese plenipotentiary to the Paris Peace Conference 1919-20 and the Washington Conference in 1921. In 1920 he was Minister to England.

Following the Washington Conference Dr. Koo was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs. Resigning his post in the same year he was named Minister of Finance in which capacity he served as China's chief delegate to the International Conference on Chinese Tariff. In January,

1924 he became Foreign Minister again and three years later Prime Minister.

In 1931 Dr. Koo took up the foreign post and the following year he was made Chinese assessor to the League of Nations Manchurian Commission of Inquiry. Later he was appointed Minister to France and delegate to the 13th Assembly of the League of Nations.

In 1936 Dr. Koo was promoted as China's first Ambassador to France. Five years later he was appointed Ambassador to the Count of St. James's. In this capacity, he negotiated with the British Government for a loan to China, resulting in the conclusion of the Sino-British Lend-Lease Agreement. He was Chinese chief delegate to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference.

Dr. Wang Chung-hui, born in 1881, is a world known jurist. After his graduation from Pei Yang University in Tientsin, he went to Japan, the United States, England, Germany and France for advanced studies, obtaining his D.C.L. degree from Yale University. He translated the German Civil Code into English.

Dr. Wang has held a number of important posts in the Government. He was Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Provisional Government at Nanking in the first year of the Chinese Republic. Later in the Peking Government he served as Minister of Justice, Minister of Education and President of the Supreme Court.

The noted jurist represented China in the Paris Peace Conference and Washington Conference. He once served as a judge of the International Court at the Hague. In 1927 Dr. Wang was elected members of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and was appointed Minister of Justice. Later he served as State Councillor and President of the Judicial Yuan.

From 1930 to 1936 Dr. Wang was judge of the international Court at the Hague. Returning to China, he succeeded Gen. Chang Chun as Minister of Foreign Affairs. In 1941 he was named Secretary-General of the Supreme National Defence Council.

In 1942 he accompanied Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on his visit to India and participated in the Cairo Conference in 1943. He is the Chairman of the Far Eastern and Pacific Section of the United Nations War Crimes Commission.

Dr. Wei Tao-ming, born in 1899, a native of Kiangsi, is a French-retained student, having received his LL.D. degree at Paris University in 1925. He has held a number of important posts in the National Government, such as Minister of Justice, Mayor of Nanking and Secretary-General of the Executive Yuan. In 1942 he was appointed Ambassador to France, a post which he had not taken up. The following year he succeeded Dr. Hu Shih as Ambassador to Washington. He attended the Pacific War Council held at Washington and signed the new Sino-American Treaty for China and served as China's

delegate to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in 1944.

Dr. Hu Shih, born in Chiki, Anhwei 1890, was one time Chinese Ambassador to the United States. He graduated from the China National Institute, Woosung, and later studied at Columbia University which conferred on him the Ph.D. degree.

Returning to China in 1917, Dr. Hu taught at the Peking National University. Collaborating with Chen Tu-hsiu and a few others, he published the magazine "La Jeunesse," starting what is known as the "Literary Revolution."

In 1936 Dr. Hu went to the United Kingdom on a mission connected with the British portion of the Boxer Indemnity Fund, and returned the next year. From 1927 onwards he was successively President of the China National Institute, Honorary Professor of the National Peking University and Acting Dean of the School of Liberal Arts of the National Peking University.

From 1933 to 1936 Dr. Hu was one of the Chinese delegates to the Institute of Pacific Relations. In 1933 he was elected member of the first People's Political Council. Shortly afterwards he was sent to the United States as Ambassador.

Dr. Hu was appointed Senior Adviser to the Executive Yuan in 1942. Two years later he acted as adviser to the Chinese Delegation to the International Monetary Conference at Bretton Woods.

Among his publications are "Outlines of History of Chinese Philosophy" and "Collection of Essays by Hu Shih."

Dr. (Miss) Wu Yi-fang, born in Hangchow, Chekiang 1894, is China's famed woman educator. After graduation from Ginling College for Girls, she continued her studies at the University of Michigan where she received her Ph.D. degree.

After her return from the United States Dr. Wu taught at the Peking Girls' Higher Normal School. Since 1928 she has been President of Ginling College for Girls.

From 1925 to 1926 Dr. Wu was Vice Chairman of the Association of Chinese Students in America. In 1929, 1931 and 1933 she was one of the Chinese delegates to the Institute of Pacific Relations.

In 1938 Dr. Wu was elected member of the first People's Political Council. Ever since then she has been a member of the P.P.C.

In September, 1943 Dr. Wu went to the United States to participate in the conference called by the Liaison Committee of the World Educational Conference to discuss problems relative to postwar education.

Mr. Li Hwang, born in 1895, a native of Chengtu, Szechuen, received his education from Paris University and taught in the National Wuhan University and National Peking University. In his earlier years he edited two magazines "Young China" and "Awakened Lion" and in 1927 helped to organize the Nationalist Youth Party. He was elected member of the People's Political Council

upon its inauguration in 1938 and is now also a member of its Presidium. Since 1940, he has been connected with the Szechuen-Sikang Economic Commission and was elected member of the Commission for the Promotion of Constitutional Government in 1943. He is the author of a number of books of which "History and the Social Science" is the most well-known.

Mr. Carson Chang, born in 1885, a well-known jurist, was educated in Japan, Germany and England. He is the leader of the Chinese National Socialist Party and had been active in the Chinese Revolutionary Movement. In 1928, he went to Europe as an observer at the Paris Peace Conference. He has been successively Editor-in-Chief of the Peking and Tientsin Times in Tientsin, Commissioner of Foreign Affairs in Chekiang, General Manager of Shanghai Times, President of the Institute of Self-Government at Woosung, and Professor of Kwanghwa University. Since 1938 he has been a member of the People's Political Council and is now also a member of the committee for the Promotion of Constitutional Government.

Mr. Tung Pi-wu, born in Huangang, Hupeh 1885, is a communist leader. His early years were spent in Japan where he joined the Tung Men Hui participating in the Wuchang uprising. He later served as a member of the Hupeh Provincial Kuomintang Head quarters for many years.

After having joined the Chinese Communist Party, he was elected one of the eleven delegates to the first meeting of the Communist Party in 1921 at Shanghai.

After the outbreak of the war of resistance, Mr. Tung was appointed by the Supreme National Defence Council as member of the People's Political Council, a post which he is still holding. Being a resident member of the P.P.C., he has been elected member of the Committee for the Promotion of Economic Mobilization and the Committee for the Promotion of Constitutional Government.

Mr. Hu Lin, born in 1899, and a native of Chengtu, has had a long journalistic career. After being educated in Japan, he took up newspaper work upon his return to China. In 1917 he was appointed General Manager and Editor of the Ta Kung Pao in Tientsin. He Visited France during the time of the Paris Peace Conference following which he travelled extensively in Europe. After leaving the Ta Kung Pao in 1931, he started a Chinese news agency, the Ku Wen News Agency, at Shanghai. In 1926 he took over the Ta Kung Pao of which he is General Manager. Under his management the Ta Kung Pao has become one of the most influential newspapers in China.

Mr. Hu was elected member of the P.P.C. in 1942 and later made member of the Committee for the Promotion of Constitutional Government. He was a member of the Chinese Goodwill Mission to Great Britain.

APPENDIX II.

Besides the ten delegates, following are biographical sketches of the members, advisers, of the Chinese Delegation attending San Francisco Conference.

Dr. Alfred Shao-Ke Sze, born in 1878, a native of Kiangsu, was educated at St. John's, Cornell, Toronto and Columbia Universities. During the Ching Dynasty he had been Counsellor to the Imperial Delegates for the investigation of constitutional government in various countries, Commissioner of Foreign Affairs in Kirin, and Envoy to the United States, Mexico, Peru and Cuba. After the founding of the Chinese Republic, he had been Delegate to the Paris Peace Conference, Delegate to the Washington Conference, and Chief Delegate to the International Opium Conference at Geneva. In 1929 he was appointed Minister to Britain and in 1931 he was Delegate to the 12th Assembly of the League of Nations. From 1931 to 1932 he was China's representative on the Council of the League of Nations. In 1933 he was appointed Minister to the United States and promoted Ambassador the following year. In 1935 he resigned from the Ambassadorship. He was member of the People's Political Council from 1938 to 1940. He was Chief Delegate to the 8th Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations in 1942 and also represented China on the Institute's Conference at Atlantic City in 1944.

Admiral Chen Shao-kuan, born in 1888, is a graduate of the Nan-

king Naval College and received naval training in the United States and Great Britain before and during the first world war. In 1932 he was appointed Navy Minister and in 1937 held the post of "Chief of Naval Headquarters" under the National Military Council.

Dr. Hsu Mo, Chinese Ambassador to Turkey, is a career diplomat. Born in 1892, he graduated from Peiyang University and received his M. A. at George Washington University. He was conferred honorary LL.D. by the Melbourne University. He was Director of American and European Affairs in the Foreign Ministry 1928-1931; Administrative Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1932; Political Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1932-1941; and served as the first Chinese Minister to Australia from July 1941 until November 1944 when he was transferred to Ankara.

Pei Tsu-ye, General Manager of the Bank of China, has been working for the Bank since 1914. He served as Manager of its Hong-kong Branch from 1918 to 1927, when he was transferred to the Shanghai branch. Mr. Pei attended the Bretton Woods Monetary Conference as a member of the Chinese Delegation.

Ku Tzu-jen (T. Z. Koo) is known in China as a social worker. He has lectured widely in the United States and Great Britain, and is a member of the world Student Christian Federation.

Li Ping-heng was formerly Director of the Department of Labor in the Ministry of Industries, Editor of the China Labor Monthly and has been a member of the Governing Body of the International Labor Organization since 1934.

Wu Ching-hsiang (John C. H. Wu) was born in 1897 and studied in America, France and Germany. He taught law in various Chinese Colleges and in 1933 was appointed a member of the Legislative Yuan. He has served as Chairman of a Committee for drafting a constitution for China, and is a reserve member of the Executive Committee of the Kuomintang.

Dr. Chou Keng-sheng (S. R. Chow) was born in 1889, studied in Japan for five years, then took an M.A. degree at Edinburgh and the degree of doctor en droit from the University of Paris. He has been dean of the Political Science Department at the National University of Peiping and also at the National Central University. He is a member of the Legislative Yuan, and has taken an active interest in international affairs. His latest book, "Winning the Peace in the Pacific" was published by Macmillan in 1944. Until recently he has been the President of the National Wuhan University.

Wang Chia-cheng (C. C. Wang) was born in Kirin Province. He was Administrative Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs in Nanking from 1930-32, and is at present serving as adviser to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Chungking.

Dr. Chang Chung-fu is a graduate of Michigan, Harvard, and

Johns Hopkins Universities, and was professor of political science at the National Peiping University from 1933 to 1937. He is a member of the political division of the Supreme National Defence Council, and has been the Director of the American Department in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Lieutenant-General C. S. Tu is aide-de-camp to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. He is a graduate of the Command and General Staff School at Fort Leavenworth, which he attended in 1937-38. Since March 1942, he has been the chief instructor in the Officers' Training Corps in China, and was Head of the National Defence Research School.

Dr. Wang Hua-cheng is Counsellor to the Supreme National Defence Council and Director of Treaty Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Yang Yun-chu was educated in Japan and served as Consul-General in Yokohama and First Secretary of the Chinese Embassy in Tokyo, 1936-37. He is at present Director of the East Asiatic Affairs Department in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Dr. Li Wei-kuo is a member of the Generalissimo's Headquarters and also Vice-Minister of the Ministry of Information.

Kuo Pin-chia is a member of the Counsellor's Office in the National Military Council and also Counsellor of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Dr. Hsu Shu-hsi was the Director of the Western Asiatic Department in the Ministry of Foreign

Affairs. He received his P.H.D. from Columbia University in 1925, and was formerly head of the Political Science Department at Yanching University. His special field has been the Manchurian problem, and he served as adviser to the Chinese Government on the Lytton Commission and also as technical adviser to the Chinese delegation to the League of Nations.

Pu Hsueh-feng (Dison Poe) is a counsellor of the Supreme National Defence Council. He was formerly professor of political science at Yunnan University, 1926-28 and National Tsinghua University, 1928-39.

Lee Kan studied at Missouri and Harvard Universities. In 1941 he was appointed Commercial Counsellor to the Chinese Embassy in Washington.

Chang Fu-yun was a secretary of the Chinese delegation to the Washington Conference in 1921, and subsequently became Director of the Customs Administration. He was also a member of the National Economic Council.

Dr. Liang Yun-li a lawyer and lecturer on China's international relations. In 1929 he served as technical adviser to the Chinese delegation to the League of Nations, and in 1934 became senior secretary in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. At present he is Counsellor of the Chinese Embassy in London.

Shao Yu-lin was educated in Japan and is an expert on Japanese political affairs. From 1941 to 1943, Shao served as Director of the Department of Information in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Shao is at present a member of the Generalissimo's headquarters.

Dr. Hu Shih-tseh (Victor Hoo) was the Administrative Vice-Minister of the Foreign Affairs. He studied in Russia, where his father was Chinese Minister from 1905 to 1912, and also in France and England. He attended both the Paris Peace Conference and the Washington Conference as secretary to the Chinese Delegation. He subsequently was Charge d'Affairs in Berlin, Chinese Minister to Switzerland, and Director of the Chinese Office in Geneva. He attended the Bretton Woods Monetary Conference. He served as the Secretary-General of the Chinese Delegation attending the San Francisco Conference.

Liu Chieh, the Minister in the Chinese Embassy in Washington, served as Deputy Secretary-General of the Delegation. He studied at Oxford and Columbia Universities; was first secretary of the Chinese Legation in London, 1932-36, appointed Counsellor of the Chinese Embassy in Washington in 1958, and became Minister in 1942 under Dr. Hu Shih, and was made Administrative Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1945.

Chu Hsin-min was born in Harbin, Manchuria. He was educated in Russian schools and speaks the language fluently. He was formerly Director in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The following attended the Conference in a secretarial capacity:

Tchou Kuan-mon, Cheng Chen-yu, Liu Wei-ying, Wang Chih-chou, Wu Kuo-hsiang, and Chang Chien-hung.

APPENDIX III.

CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS

We, the peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and

to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and

to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and

to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom, and for these ends

to practise tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbors, and

to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and

to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and

to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims.

Accordingly, our respective Governments, through representatives assembled in the City of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an

international organization to be known as the United Nations.

CHAPTER I.**PURPOSES AND PRINCIPLES**

1: The purposes of the United Nations are:—

Article I—1. To maintain international peace and security, and to that end to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace;

2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;

3. To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and

4. To be a centre for harmonising the actions in the attainment of these common ends.

Article 2—The Organization and its Members, in pursuit of the purposes stated in Article 1, shall act in accordance with the following principles:—

1. The Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its members.

2. All Members, in order to ensure to all of them the rights and benefits resulting from membership, shall fulfil in good faith the obligations assumed by them in accordance with the present Charter.

3. All Members shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered.

4. All Members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations.

5. All Members shall give the United Nations every assistance in any action it takes in accordance with the present Charter, and shall refrain from giving assistance to any State against which the United Nations is taking preventive or enforcement action.

6. The Organization shall ensure that States which are not Members of the United Nations act in accordance with these Principles so far as may be necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security.

7. Nothing contained in the present Charter shall authorise the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any State or shall require the Members to submit such matters to settlement under the present Charter; but this principle shall not prejudice the application of enforcement measures under Chapter VII.

CHAPTER II. MEMBERSHIP

Article 3—The original members of the United Nations shall be the states which, having participated in the United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco, or having previously signed the Declaration by United Nations of January 1, 1942, sign the present Charter and ratify it in accordance with Article 110.

Article 4—1. Membership in the United Nations is open to all other peace-loving states which accept the obligations contained in the present Charter and, in the judgment of the Organization, are able and willing to carry out these obligations.

2. The admission of any such state to membership in the United Nations will be effected by a decision of the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council.

Article 5—A Member of the United Nations against which preventive or enforcement action has been taken by the Security Council may be suspended from the exercise of the rights and privileges of membership by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council. The exercise of these rights and privileges may be restored by the Security Council.

Article 6—A Member of the United Nations which has persistently violated the Principles contained in the present Charter may be expelled from the Organization by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council.

CHAPTER III. ORGAN

Article 7—1. There are established as the principal organs of the United Nations: a General Assembly, a Security Council, an Economic and Social Council, a Trusteeship Council, an International Court of Justice and a Secretariat.

2. Such subsidiary organs as may be found necessary may be established in accordance with the present Charter.

Article 8—The United Nations shall place no restrictions on the eligibility of men and women to participate in any capacity and under conditions of equality in its principal and subsidiary organs.

CHAPTER IV. THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY composition

Article 9—1. The General Assembly shall consist of all the Members of the United Nations.

2. Each Member shall have not more than five representatives in the General Assembly.

Functions and Powers

Article 10—The General Assembly may discuss any questions or any matters within the scope of the present Charter or relating to the powers and functions of any organs provided for in the present Charter, and, except as provided in Article 12, may make recommendations to the members of the United Nations or to the Security Council or to both on any such questions or matters.

Article 11—1. The General Assembly may consider the general principles of co-operation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principle

governing disarmament and the regulation of armaments, and may make recommendations with regard to such principles to the Members or to the Security Council or both.

2. The General Assembly may discuss any questions relating to the maintenance of international peace and security brought before it by any Member of the United Nations, or by the Security Council, or by a state which is not a member of the United Nations in accordance with Article 35, paragraph two, and, except as provided in Article 12, may make recommendations with regard to any such questions to the state or states concerned or to the Security Council or to both. Any such question, on which action is necessary, shall be referred to the Security Council by the General Assembly either before or after discussion.

3. The General Assembly may call the attention of the Security Council to situations which are likely to endanger international peace and security.

4. The powers of the General Assembly set forth in this article shall not limit the general scope of Article 10.

Article 12—1. While the Security Council is exercising in respect of any dispute or situation the functions assigned to it in the present Charter, the General Assembly shall not make any recommendation with regard to that dispute or situation unless the Security Council so requests.

2. The Secretary-General, with the consent of the Security Council, shall notify the General Assembly at each session of any matters relative to the maintenance of international peace and security

which are being dealt with by the Security Council and shall similarly notify the General Assembly, or the Members of the United Nations if the General Assembly is not in session, immediately the Security Council ceases to deal with such matters.

Article 13—1. The General Assembly shall initiate studies and make recommendations for the purpose of:

- (a) Promoting international co-operation in the political field and encouraging the progressive development of international law and its codification;
- (b) Promoting international co-operation in the economic, social, cultural, educational, and health fields, and assisting in the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.

2. The further responsibilities, functions, and powers of the General Assembly with respect to matters mentioned in paragraph 1 (b) above are set forth in Chapters IX and X.

Article 14—Subject to the provisions of Article 12, the General Assembly may recommend measures for the peaceful adjustment of any situation, regardless of origin, which it deems likely to impair the general welfare or friendly relations among nations including situations resulting from a violation of the provisions of the present Charter setting forth the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations.

Article 15—1. The General Assembly shall receive and consider annual and special reports from the Security Council; these reports in-

clude an account of the measures that the Security Council has decided upon or taken to maintain international peace and security.

2. The General Assembly shall receive and consider reports from the other organs of the United Nations.

Article 16—The General Assembly shall perform such functions with respect to the international trusteeship system as are assigned to it under Chapter XII and XIII, including the approval of the trusteeship agreements for areas not designated as strategic.

Article 17—1. The General Assembly shall consider and approve the budget of the Organization.

2. The expenses of the Organization shall be borne by the Members as apportioned by the General Assembly.

3. The General Assembly shall consider and approve any financial and budgetary arrangements with specialised agencies referred to in Article 57 and shall examine the administrative budgets of such specialised agencies with a view to making recommendations to the agencies concerned.

Voting

Article 18—1. Each member of the General Assembly shall have one vote.

2. Decisions of the General Assembly on important questions shall be made by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. These questions shall include: recommendations with respect to the maintenance of international peace and security, the election of the non-permanent members of the Security Council, the election of members of the Economic and Social Council, the

election of members of the Trusteeship Council in accordance with paragraph 1 (c) of Article 86, the admission of new Members to the United Nations, the suspension of the rights and privileges of membership, the expulsion of Members, questions relating to the operation of the trusteeship system, and budgetary questions.

3. Decisions on other questions, including the determination of additional categories of questions to be decided by a two-thirds majority, shall be made by a majority of the members present and voting.

Article 19—A Member of the United Nations which is in arrears in the payment of its financial contributions to the Organization shall have no vote in the General Assembly if the amount of its arrears equals or exceeds the amount of the contributions due from it for the preceeding two full years. The General Assembly may, nevertheless, permit such a Member to vote if it is satisfied that the failure to pay is due to conditions beyond the control of the Member.

Procedure

Article 20—The General Assembly shall meet in regular annual sessions and in such special sessions as occasion may require. Special sessions shall be convoked by the Secretary-General at the request of the Security Council or of a majority of the Members of the United Nations.

Article 21—The General Assembly shall adopt its own rules of procedure. It shall elect its President for each session.

Article 22—The General Assembly may establish such subsidiary organs as it deems necessary for the performance of its functions.

CHAPTER V. THE SECURITY COUNCIL Composition

Article 23—1. The Security Council shall consist of 11 Members of the United Nations. The Republic of China, France, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America shall be permanent members of the Security Council. The General Assembly shall elect six other Members of the United Nations to be non-permanent members of the Security Council, due regard being specially paid, in the first instance, to the contribution of Members of the United Nations to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the other purposes of the Organization, and also to equitable geographical distribution.

2. The non-permanent members of the Security Council shall be elected for a term of two years. In the first election of the non-permanent members, however, three shall be chosen for a term of one year. A retiring member shall not be eligible for immediate re-election.

3. Each member of the Security Council shall have one representative.

Functions and Powers

Article 24—1. In order to ensure prompt and effective action by the United Nations, its Members confer on the Security Council primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, and agree that in carrying out its duties under this responsibility the Security Council acts on their behalf.

2. In discharging these duties the Security Council shall act in accordance with the Purposes and

Principles of the United Nations. The specific powers granted to the Security Council for the discharge of these duties are laid down in Chapters VI, VII, VIII and XII.

3. The Security Council shall submit annual and, when necessary, special reports to the General Assembly for its consideration.

Article 25—The Members of the United Nations agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council in accordance with the present Charter.

Article 26—In order to promote the establishment and maintenance of international peace and security with the least diversion for armaments of the world's human and economic resources, the Security Council shall be responsible for formulating, with the assistance of the Military Staff Committee referred to in Article 47, plans to be submitted to the Members of the United Nations for the establishment of a system for the regulation of armaments.

Voting

Article 27—1. Each member of the Security Council shall have one vote.

2. Decisions of the Security Council on procedural matters shall be made by an affirmative vote of seven members.

3. Decisions of the Security Council on all other matters shall be made by an affirmative vote of seven members including the concurring votes of the permanent members; provided that, in decisions under Chapter VI and under paragraph 3 of Article 52, a party to a dispute shall abstain from voting.

Procedure

Article 28—1. The Security Council shall be so organized as

to be able to function continuously. Each member of the Security Council shall for this purpose be represented at all times at the seat of the Organization.

2. The Security Council shall hold periodic meetings at which each of its members may, if it so desires, be represented by a member of the government or by some other specially designated representative.

3. The Security Council may hold meetings at such places other than the seat of the organization as in its judgment will best facilitate its work.

Article 29—The Security Council may establish subsidiary organs as it deems necessary for the performance of its functions.

Article 30—The Security Council shall adopt its own rules of procedure, including the method of selecting its president.

Article 31—Any Member of the United Nations which is not a member of the Security Council may participate, without vote, in the discussion of any question brought before the Security Council whenever the latter considers that the interests of that Member are specially affected.

Article 32—Any Member of the United Nations which is not a member of the Security Council or any state which is not a Member of the United Nations, if it is a party to a dispute under consideration by the Security Council, shall be invited to participate, without vote, in the discussion relating to the dispute.

The Security Council shall lay down such conditions as it deems just for the participation of a state which is not a Member of the United Nations.

CHAPTER VI. PACIFIC SETTLEMENTS OF DISPUTES

Article 33—1. The parties to any dispute, the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, shall, first of all, seek a solution by negotiation, inquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice.

2. The Security Council shall, when it deems necessary, call upon the parties to settle their dispute by such means.

Article 34—The Security Council may investigate any dispute, or any situation which might lead to international friction or give rise to a dispute, in order to determine whether the continuance of the dispute or situation is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security.

Article 35—1. Any Member of the United Nations may bring any dispute of any situation of the nature referred to in Article 34 to the attention of the Security Council or of the General Assembly.

2. A state which is not a Member of the United Nations may bring to the attention of the Security Council or of the General Assembly any dispute to which it is a party, if it accepts in advance, for the purposes of the dispute, the obligations of pacific settlement provided in the present Charter.

3. The proceedings of the General Assembly in respect of matters brought to its attention under this article will be subject to the provision of Articles 11 and 12.

Article 36—1. The Security

Council may, at any stage of a dispute of the nature referred to in Article 33 or of a situation of like nature, recommend appropriate procedures or methods of adjustment.

2. The Security Council should take into consideration any procedures for the settlement of the dispute which have already been adopted by the parties.

3. In making recommendations under this Article the Security Council should also take into consideration that legal disputes should as a general rule be referred by the parties to the International Court of Justice in accordance with the provisions of the Statute of the Court.

Article 37—1. Should the parties to a dispute of the nature referred to in Article 33 fail to settle it by the means indicated in that article, they shall refer it to the Security Council.

2. If the Security Council deems that the continuance of the dispute is in fact likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, it shall decide whether to take action under Article 36 or to recommend such terms of settlement as it may consider appropriate.

Article 38—Without prejudice to the provisions of Articles 33-37, the Security Council may, if all the parties to any dispute so request, make recommendations to the parties with a view to a pacific settlement of the dispute.

CHAPTER VII. ACTION WITH RESPECT TO THREATS TO THE PEACE, BREACHES OF THE PEACE, AND ACTS OF AGGRESSION

Article 39:—The Security Council shall determine the existence

of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression and shall make recommendations, or decide what measures shall be taken in accordance with Articles 41 and 42, to maintain or restore international peace and security.

Article 40—In order to prevent an aggravation of the situation, the Security Council may, before making the recommendations or deciding upon the measures provided for in Article 39, call upon the parties concerned to comply with such provisional measures as it deems necessary or desirable. Such provisional measures shall be without prejudice to the rights, claims or position of the parties concerned. The Security Council shall duly take account of failure to comply with such provisional measures.

Article 41—The Security Council may decide what measures not involving the use of armed force are to be employed to give effect to its decisions, and it may call upon the Members of the United Nations to apply such measures. These may include complete or partial interruption of economic relations and of rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio, and other means of communication, and the severance of diplomatic relations.

Article 42—Should the Security Council consider that measures provided for in Article 41 would be inadequate or have proved to be inadequate, it may take such action by air, sea, or land forces as may be necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security. Such action may include demonstrations, blockade and other operations by air, sea or land forces of Members of the United Nations.

Article 43—1. All Members of the United Nations, in order to contribute to the maintenance of international peace and security, undertake to make available to the Security Council, on its call and in accordance with a special agreement or agreements, armed forces, assistance, and facilities, including rights of passage, necessary for the purpose of maintaining international peace and security.

2. Such agreement or agreements shall govern the numbers and types of forces, their degree of readiness and general location, and the nature of the facilities and assistance to be provided.

3. The agreement or agreements shall be negotiated as soon as possible on the initiative of the Security Council. They shall be concluded between the Security Council and Members or between the Security Council and groups of Members and shall be subject to ratification by the signatory states in accordance with their respective constitutional processes.

Article 44—When the Security Council has decided to use force it shall, before calling upon a Member not represented on it to provide armed forces in fulfilment of the obligations assumed under Article 43, invite that member, if the member so desires, to participate in the decisions of the Security Council concerning the employment of contingents of that Member's armed forces.

Article 45—In order to enable the United Nations to take urgent military measures, Members shall hold immediately available national air-force contingents for combined international enforcement action. The strength and degree of

readiness of these contingents and plans for their combined action shall be determined, within the limits laid down in the special agreement or agreements referred to in Article 43 by the Security Council with the assistance of the Military Staff Committee.

Article 46:—Plans for the application of armed force shall be made by the Security Council with the assistance of the Military Staff Committee.

Article 47:—1. There shall be established a Military Staff Committee to advise and assist the Security Council on all questions relating to the Security Council's military requirements for the maintenance of international peace and security, the employment and command of forces placed at its disposal, the regulation of armaments, and possible disarmament.

2. The Military Staff Committee shall consist of the Chiefs of Staff of the permanent members of the Security Council or their representatives. Any member of the United Nations not permanently represented on the Committee shall be invited by the Committee to be associated with it when the efficient discharge of the Committee's responsibilities requires the participation of that member in its work.

3. The Military Staff Committee shall be responsible under the Security Council for the strategic direction of any armed forces placed at the disposal of the Security Council. Questions relating to the command of such forces shall be worked out subsequently.

4. The Military Staff Committee, with the authorization of the Security Council and after

consultation with appropriate regional agencies, may establish regional sub-committees.

Article 48:—1. The action required to carry out the decisions of the Security Council for the maintenance of international peace and security shall be taken by all the Members of the United Nations or by some of them, as the Security Council may determine.

2. Such decisions shall be carried out by the Members of the United Nations directly and through their action in the appropriate international agencies of which they are members.

Article 49:—The Members of the United Nations shall join in affording mutual assistance in carrying out the measures decided upon by the Security Council.

Article 50:—If preventive or enforcement measures against any State are taken by the Security Council, any other State, whether a Member of the United Nations or not, which finds itself confronted with special economic problems arising from the carrying out of those measures, shall have the right to consult the Security Council with regard to a solution of those problems.

Article 51:—Nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations, until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken by Members in the exercise of this right of self-defence shall be immediately reported to the Security Council and shall not in any way affect the authority and responsibility of

the Security Council under the present Charter to take at any time such action as it deems necessary in order to maintain or restore international peace and security.

CHAPTER VIII REGIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

Article 52:—1. Nothing in the present Charter precludes the existence of regional arrangements or agencies for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action, provided that such arrangements or agencies and their activities are consistent with the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations.

2. The members of the United Nations entering into such arrangements or constituting such agencies shall make every effort to achieve pacific settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies before referring them to the Security Council.

3. The Security Council shall encourage the development of pacific settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies either on the initiative of the states concerned or by reference from the Security Council.

4. This Article in no way impairs the application of Articles 34 and 35.

Article 53:—1. The Security Council shall, where appropriate, utilise such regional arrangements or agencies for enforcement action under its authority. But no enforcement action shall be taken under regional arrangements, or by regional

agencies without the authorization of the Security Council, with the exception of measures against any enemy State, as defined in Paragraph 2 of this Article, provided for pursuant to Article 107 or in regional arrangements directed against renewal of aggressive policy on the part of any such state, until such time as the Organization may, on request of the governments concerned, be charged with the responsibility for preventing further aggression by such a state.

2. The term enemy State as used in paragraph 1 of this Article applies to any state which during the Second World War has been an enemy of any signatory of the present Charter.

Article 54:—The Security Council shall at all times be kept fully informed of activities undertaken or in contemplation under regional arrangements or by regional agencies for the maintenance of international peace and security.

CHAPTER IX. INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CO-OPERATION

Article 55:—With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, the United Nations shall promote:—

(a) Higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and development;

(b) solutions of international economic, social, health and related problems; and international

cultural and educational co-operation; and

(c) universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.

Article 56:—All Members pledge themselves to take joint and separate action in cooperation with the Organization for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 55.

Article 57:—1. The various specialized agencies, established by inter-governmental agreement and having wide international responsibilities, as defined in their basic instruments, in economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related fields, shall be brought into relationship with the United Nations in accordance with the provisions of Article 63.

2. Such agencies thus brought into relationship with the United Nations are hereinafter referred to as specialised agencies.

Article 58:—The Organization shall make recommendations for the co-ordination of the policies and activities of the specialised agencies.

Article 59:—The Organization shall, where appropriate, initiate negotiations among the states concerned for the creation of any new specialised agencies required for the accomplishment of the purposes set forth in Article 55.

Article 60:—Responsibility for the discharge of the function of the Organization set forth in this Chapter shall be vested in the General Assembly and, under the authority of the General Assembly, in the Economic and Social Council, which shall have for this

purpose the powers set forth in Chapter X.

CHAPTER X. THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

Composition

Article 61:—1. The Economic and Social Council shall consist of 18 members of the United Nations elected by the General Assembly.

2. Subject to the provisions of paragraph 3, six members of the Economic and Social Council shall be elected each year for a term of three years. A retiring member shall be eligible for immediate re-election.

3. At the first election, 18 members of the Economic and Social Council shall be chosen, the term of office of six members so chosen shall expire at the end of one year, and of six other members at the end of two years, in accordance with arrangements made by the General Assembly.

4. Each member of the Economic and Social Council shall have one representative.

Functions and Powers

Article 62:—1. The Economic and Social Council may make or initiate studies and reports with respect to international, economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related matters and may make recommendations with respect to any such matters to the General Assembly, to the Members of the United Nations, and to the specialised agencies concerned.

2. It may make recommendations for the purpose of promoting respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all.

3. It may prepare draft conventions for submission to the

General Assembly, with respect to matters falling within its competence.

4. It may call, in accordance with the rules prescribed by the United Nations, international conferences on matters falling within its competence.

Article 63:—1. The Economic and Social Council may enter into agreements with any of the agencies referred to in Article 57, defining the terms on which the agency concerned shall be brought into relationship with the United Nations. Such agreements shall be subject to approval by the General Assembly.

2. It may co-ordinate the activities of the specialised agencies through consultation with and recommendations to such agencies and through recommendations to the General Assembly and to the Members of the United Nations.

Article 64:—1. The Economic and Social Council may take appropriate steps to obtain regular reports from the specialised agencies. It may make arrangements with the Members of the United Nations and with the specialised agencies to obtain reports on the steps taken to give effect to its own recommendations and to recommendations on matters falling within its competence made by the General Assembly.

2. It may communicate its observations on these reports to the General Assembly.

Article 65:—The Economic and Social Council may furnish information to the Security Council and shall assist the Security Council upon its request.

Article 66:—1. The Economic and Social Council shall perform

such functions as fall within its competence in connection with the carrying out of the recommendations of the General Assembly.

2. It may, with the approval of the General Assembly, perform services at the request of Members of the United Nations and at the request of specialised agencies.

3. It shall perform such other functions as are specified elsewhere in the present Charter or as may be assigned to it by the General Assembly.

Voting

Article 67:—1. Each member of the Economic and Social Council shall have one vote.

2. Decisions of the Economic and Social Council shall be made by a majority of the members present and voting.

Procedure

Article 68:—The Economic and Social Council shall set up commissions in economic and social fields and for the promotion of human rights, and such other commissions as may be required for the performance of its functions.

Article 69:—The Economic and Social Council shall invite any Member of the United Nations to participate, without vote, in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that Member.

Article 70:—The Economic and Social Council may make arrangements for representatives of the specialised agencies to participate, without vote, in its deliberations and in those of the commissions established by it, and for its representatives to participate in the deliberations of the specialised agencies.

Article 71:—The Economic and Social Council may make suitable arrangements for consultation with non-governmental organizations which are concerned with matters within its competence.

Such arrangements may be made with international organizations and, where appropriate, with national organizations after consultation with the Member of the United Nations concerned.

Article 72:—1. The Economic and Social Council shall adopt its own rules of procedure, including the method of selecting its President.

2. The Economic and Social Council shall meet as required in accordance with its rules, which shall include provision for the convening of meetings on request of a majority of its members.

CHAPTER XI. DECLARATION REGARDING NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Article 73:—Members of the United Nations which have or assume responsibilities for the administration of territories whose people have not yet attained a full measure of self-government recognise the principle that the interests of the inhabitants of these territories are paramount, and accept as a sacred trust the obligation to promote to the utmost, within the system of international peace and security established by the present Charter, the well-being of the inhabitants of these territories, and to this end:—

- (a) To ensure, with due respect for the culture of the peoples concerned, their political, economic, social

and educational advancement, their just treatment, and their protection against abuses;

- (b) To develop self-government, to take due account of the political aspirations of the peoples, and assist them in the progressive development of their free political institutions, according to the particular circumstances of each territory and its peoples and their varying stages of advancement;
- (c) To further international peace and security;
- (d) To promote constructive measures of development, to encourage research, and to co-operate with one another and, when and where appropriate, with specialised international bodies with a view to the practical achievement of the social, economic and scientific purposes set forth in this Article; and
- (e) To transmit regularly to the Secretary-General for information purposes, subject to such limitation as security and constitutional considerations may require, statistical and other information of a technical nature relating to economic, social and educational conditions in the territories for which they are respectively responsible other than those territories to which Chapters XII and XIII apply.

Article 74:—Members of the United Nations also agree that their policy in respect of the ter-

ritories to which this Chapter applies, no less than in respect of their metropolitan areas, must be based on the general principle of good neighbourliness due account being taken of the interests and well-being of the rest of the world, in social, economic and commercial matters.

CHAPTER XII. INTERNATIONAL TRUSTEE- SHIP SYSTEM

Article 75:—The United Nations shall establish under its authority an international trusteeship system for the administration and supervision of such territories as may be placed thereunder by subsequent individual agreements. These territories are hereinafter referred to as Trust Territories.

Article 76:—The basic objectives of the trusteeship system, in accordance with the Purposes of the United Nations laid down in Article 1 of the present Charter, shall be:—

- (a) To further international peace and security;
- (b) To promote the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the inhabitants of the Trust Territories, and their progressive development towards self-government or independence as may be appropriate to the particular circumstances of each territory and its peoples and the freely expressed wishes of the people concerned, and as may be provided by the terms of each trusteeship agreement;
- (c) To encourage respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to

race, sex, language, or religion, and to encourage recognition of the interdependence of the peoples of the world; and

- (d) To ensure equal treatment in social, economic and commercial matters for all Members of the United Nations and their nationals, and also equal treatment for the latter in the administration of justice, without prejudice to the attainment of the foregoing objectives and subject to the provisions of Article 80.

Article 77:—1. The trusteeship system shall apply to such territories in the following categories as may be placed thereunder by means of trusteeship agreements:—

- (a) Territories now held under mandate;
- (b) Territories which may be detached from enemy states as a result of the Second World War; and
- (c) Territories voluntarily placed under the system by states responsible for their administration.

2. It will be a matter for subsequent agreement as to which territories in the foregoing categories will be brought under the trusteeship system and upon what terms.

Article 78:—The trusteeship system shall not apply to territories which have become Members of the United Nations, relationship among which shall be based on respect for the principle of sovereign equality.

Article 79:—The term of trusteeship for each territory to be placed under the trusteeship system, including any alteration or

amendment, shall be agreed upon by the states directly concerned, including the mandatory power in the case of territories held under mandate by a Member of the United Nations, and shall be approved as provided for in Articles 83 and 85.

Article 80:—1. Except as may be agreed upon in individual trusteeship agreements made under Articles 77, 79 and 81, placing each territory under the trusteeship system, and until such agreements have been concluded, nothing in this Chapter shall be construed in or of itself to alter in any manner the rights whatsoever of any states or any peoples or the terms of existing international instruments to which Members of the United Nations may respectively be parties.

2. Paragraph 1 of this Article shall not be interpreted, as giving grounds for delay or postponement of the negotiation and conclusion of agreements for placing mandated and other territories under the trusteeship system as provided for in Article 77.

Article 81:—The trusteeship agreement shall in each case include the terms under which the trust territory will be administered and designate the authority which will exercise the administration of the trust territory. Such authority, hereinafter called the administering authority, may be one or more states or the Organization itself.

Article 82:—There may be designated, in any trusteeship agreement, a strategic area or areas which may include part or all of the trust territory to which the agreement applies, without prejudice to any special agreement or

agreements made under Article 43.

Article 83:—1. All functions of the United Nations relating to strategic areas, including the approval of the terms of the trusteeship agreements and of their alteration or amendment, shall be exercised by the Security Council.

2. The basic objectives set forth in Article 76 shall be applicable to the people of each strategic area.

3. The Security Council shall, subject to the provisions of the trusteeship agreements and without prejudice to security considerations, avail itself of the Council to perform those functions of the United Nations under the trusteeship system relating to political, economic, social, and educational matters in the strategic areas.

Article 84:—It shall be the duty of the administering authority to ensure that the trust territory shall play its part in the maintenance of international peace and security. To this end the administering authority may make use of volunteer forces, facilities, and assistance from the trust territory in carrying out the obligations towards the Security Council undertaken in this regard by the administering authority, as well as for local defence and the maintenance of law and order within the trust territory.

Article 85:—1. The functions of the United Nations with regard to trusteeship agreements for all areas not designated as strategic, including the approval of the terms of the trusteeship agreements and of their alteration or amendment, shall be exercised by the General Assembly.

2. The Trusteeship Council, operating under the authority of the General Assembly, shall assist the General Assembly in carrying out these functions.

CHAPTER XIII THE TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL Composition

Article 86:—1. The Trusteeship Council shall consist of the following Members of the United Nations:—

- (a) Those Members administering trust territories;
- (b) Such of those members mentioned by name in Article 23 as are not administering trust territories; and
- (c) As many Members elected for three-year terms by the General Assembly as may be necessary to ensure that the total number of members of the Trusteeship Council is equally divided between those Members of the United Nations which administer trust territories and those which do not.

2. Each member of the Trusteeship Council shall designate one specially qualified person to represent it therein.

Functions and Powers

Article 87:—The General Assembly and, under its authority, the Trusteeship Council, in carrying out their functions, may:—

- (a) Consider reports submitted by the administering authority;
- (b) Accept petitions and examine them in consultation with the administering authority;

- (c) Provide for periodic visits to the respective Trust Territories at times agreed upon with the administering authority; and
- (d) Take these and other actions in conformity with the terms of the trusteeship agreements.

Article 88:—The Trusteeship Council shall formulate a *questionnaire* on the political, economic social and educational advancement of the inhabitants of each trust territory, and the administering authority for each trust territory within the competence of the General Assembly shall make an annual report to the General Assembly upon the basis of such a *questionnaire*.

Voting

Article 89:—1. Each member of the Trusteeship Council shall have one vote.

2. Decisions of the Trusteeship Council shall be made by a majority of the members present and voting.

Procedure

Article 90:—1. The Trusteeship Council shall adopt its own rules and procedure, including the method of selecting its President.

2. The Trusteeship Council shall meet as required in accordance with its rules, which shall include provision for the convening of meetings on the request of a majority of its members.

Article 91:—The Trusteeship Council shall, when appropriate, avail itself of the assistance of the Economic and Social Council and of the specialised agencies in regard to matters with which they are respectively concerned.

CHAPTER XIV THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

Article 92:—The International Court of Justice shall be the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. It shall function in accordance with the annexed Statute, which is based upon the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice and forms an integral part of the present Charter.

Article 93:—1. All Members of the United Nations are *ipso facto* parties to the Statute of the International Court of Justice.

2. A state which is not a Member of the United Nations may become a party to the Statute of the International Court of Justice on conditions to be determined in each case by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council.

Article 94:—1. Each Member of the United Nations undertakes to comply with the decision of the International Court of Justice in any case to which it is a party.

2. If any party to a case fails to perform the obligations incumbent upon it under a judgment rendered by the Court, the other party may have recourse to the Security Council, which may, if it deems necessary, make recommendations or decide upon measures to be taken to give effect to the judgment.

Article 95:—Nothing in the present Charter shall prevent Members of the United Nations from entrusting the solution of their differences to other tribunals by virtue of agreement already in existence or which may be concluded in the future.

Article 96:—1. The General Assembly or the Security Council may request the International Court of Justice to give an advisory opinion on any legal question.

2. Other organs of the United Nations and specialised agencies, which may at any time be so authorised by the General Assembly, may also request advisory opinions of the Court on legal questions arising within the scope of their activities.

CHAPTER XV THE SECRETARIAT

Article 97:—The Secretariat shall comprise a Secretary-General and such staff as the Organization may require. The Secretary-General shall be appointed by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council. He shall be the chief administrative officer of the Organization.

Article 98:—The Secretary-General shall act in that capacity in all meetings of the General Assembly, of the Security Council, of the Economic and Social Council, and of the Trusteeship Council, and shall perform such other functions as are entrusted to him by these organs. The Secretary-General shall make an annual report to the General Assembly on the work of the Organization.

Article 99:—The Secretary-General may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security.

Article 100:—1. In the performance of their duties the Secretary-General and the staff shall not seek or receive instruc-

tions from any government or from any other authority external to the Organization. They shall refrain from any action which might reflect on their position as international officials, responsible only to the Organization.

2. Each Member of the United Nations undertakes to respect the exclusively international character of the responsibilities of the Secretary-General and the staff and not to seek to influence them in the discharge of their responsibilities.

Article 101:—1. The staff shall be appointed by the Secretary-General under regulations established by the General Assembly.

2. Appropriate staffs shall be permanently assigned to the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, and, as required, to other organs of the United Nations. These staffs shall form a part of the Secretariat.

3. The paramount consideration in the employment of the staff and in the determination of the condition in the employment of the staff and in the determination of the conditions of service shall be the necessity of securing the highest standards of efficiency, competence and integrity. Due regard shall be paid to the importance of recruiting the staff on as wide a geographical basis as possible.

CHAPTER XVI. MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

Article 102:—1. Every treaty and every international agreement entered into by any Member of the United Nations after the present Charter comes into force shall as soon as possible be registered with the Secretariat and published by it.

2. No party to any such treaty or international agreement which has not been registered in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 1 of this Article may invoke that treaty or agreement before any organ of the United Nations.

Article 103:—In the event of a conflict between the obligations of the Members of the United Nations under the present Charter and their obligations under any other international agreement, their obligations under the present Charter shall prevail.

Article 104:—The Organization shall enjoy in the territory of each of its Members such legal capacity as may be necessary for the exercise of its functions and the fulfilment of its purposes.

Article 105:—1. The Organization shall enjoy in the territory of each of its Members such privileges and immunities as are necessary for the fulfilment of its purposes.

2. Representatives of the Members of the United Nations and officials of the Organization shall similarly enjoy such privileges and immunities as are necessary for the independent exercise of their functions in connection with the Organization.

3. The General Assembly may make recommendations with a view to determining the details of the application of paragraphs 1 and 2 of this Article or may propose conventions to the Members of the United Nations for this purpose.

CHAPTER XVII. TRANSITIONAL SECURITY ARRANGEMENTS

Article 106:—Pending the coming into force of such special agree-

ments referred to in Article 43 as in the opinion of the Security Council enable it to begin the exercise of its responsibilities under Article 42, the parties to the Four-Nation Declaration, signed at Moscow, 30th October, 1943, and France, shall, in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 5 of that Declaration, consult with one another and as occasion requires with other Members of the United Nations with a view to such joint action on behalf of the Organization as may be necessary for the purpose of maintaining international peace and security.

Article 107—Nothing in the present Charter shall invalidate or preclude action, in relation to any state which during the Second World War has been an enemy of any signatory to the present Charter, taken or authorised as a result of that war by the Governments having responsibility for such action.

CHAPTER XVIII. AMENDMENTS

Article 108—Amendments to the present Charter shall come into force for all members of the United Nations when they have been adopted by a vote of two-thirds of the members of the General Assembly and ratified in accordance with their respective constitutional processes by two-thirds of the members of the United Nations, including all the permanent members of the Security Council.

Article 109—1. A General Conference of the Members of the United Nations for the purpose of reviewing the present Charter may be held at a date and place to be fixed by a two-thirds vote of the

members of the General Assembly and by a vote of any seven members of the Security Council. Each Member of the United Nations shall have one vote in the conference.

2. Any alteration of the present Charter recommended by a two-thirds vote of the conference shall take effect when ratified in accordance with their respective constitutional processes by two-thirds of the Members of the United Nations including all the permanent members of the Security Council.

3. If such a conference has not been held before the tenth annual session of the General Assembly following the coming into force of the present Charter, the proposal to call such a conference shall be placed on the agenda of that session of the General Assembly, and the conference shall be held if so decided by a majority vote of the members of the General Assembly and by a vote of any seven members of the Security Council.

CHAPTER XIX. RATIFICATION AND SIGNATURE

Article 110—The present Charter shall be ratified by the signatory states in accordance with their respective constitutional processes.

2. The ratifications shall be deposited with the Government of the United States of America, which shall notify all the signatory states of each deposit as well as the Secretary-General of the Organization when he has been appointed.

3. The present Charter shall come into force upon the deposit of ratifications by the Republic of China, France, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and

Northern Ireland, and the United States of America, and by a majority of the other signatory states. A protocol of the ratifications deposited shall thereupon be drawn up by the Government of the United States of America which shall communicate copies thereof to all the signatory States.

4. The states signatory to the present Charter which ratify it after it has come into force will become original members of the United Nations on the date of the deposit of their respective ratifications.

Article 111—The present Charter,

of which the Chinese, French, Russian, English and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall remain deposited in the archives of the Government of the United States of America. Duly certified copies thereof shall be transmitted by that Government to the Governments of the other signatory states.

In faith whereof the representatives of the Governments of the United Nations* have signed the present Charter.

Done at the City of San Francisco the twenty-sixth day of June one thousand nine hundred and forty-five.

*Note.—Representatives of the following Governments signed the Charter:—

China.	Haiti.
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.	Honduras.
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.	India
France.	Iran.
Argentina.	Iraq.
Australia.	Lebanon.
Belgium.	Liberia.
Bolivia.	Luxembourg
Brazil.	Mexico.
Byelo-Russian S.S.R.	Netherlands.
Canada.	New Zealand.
Chile.	Nicaragua.
Colombia.	Norway.
Costa Rica.	Panama.
Cuba.	Paraguay.
Czechoslovakia.	Peru.
Denmark.	Philippine Commonwealth.
Dominican Republic.	Saudi Arabia.
Ecuador.	Syria.
Egypt.	Turkey.
El Salvador.	Ukrainian S.S.R.
Ethiopia.	Union of South Africa.
Greece.	Uruguay.
Guatemala.	Venezuela.
	Yugoslavia.
	United States of America.

APPENDIX IV.

STATUTE OF THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

Article 1:—The International Court of Justice established by the Charter of the United Nations as the principal judicial organ of the United Nations shall be constituted and shall function in accordance with the provisions of the present Statute.

CHAPTER I

Organization of the Court

Article 2:—The Court shall be composed of a body of independent judges, elected regardless of their nationality from among persons of high moral character, who possess the qualifications required in their respective countries for appointment to the highest judicial offices, or are jurisconsults of recognised competence in international law.

Article 3:—1. The Court shall consist of fifteen members, no two of whom may be nationals of the same state.

2. A person who for the purposes of membership in the Court could be regarded as a national of more than one state shall be deemed to be a national of the one in which he ordinarily exercises civil and political rights.

Article 4:—1. The members of the Court shall be elected by the General Assembly and by the Security Council from a list of persons nominated by the national groups in the Permanent Court of Arbitration, in accordance with the following provisions.

2. In the case of Members of the United Nations not represented in the Permanent Court of

Arbitration, candidates shall be nominated by national groups appointed for this purpose by their Governments under the same conditions as those prescribed for members of the Permanent Court of Arbitration by Article 44 of the Convention of The Hague of 1907 for the pacific settlement of international disputes.

3. The conditions under which a state which is a party to the present Statute but is not a Member of the United Nations may participate in electing the members of the Court shall, in the absence of a special agreement, be laid down by the General Assembly upon recommendation of the Security Council.

Article 5:—1. At least three months before the date of the election, the Secretary-General of the United Nations shall address a written request to the members of the Permanent Court of Arbitration belonging to the states which are parties to the present Statute, and to the members of the national groups appointed under Article 4, paragraph 2, inviting them to undertake, within a given time, by national groups, the nomination of persons in a position to accept the duties of a member of the Court.

2. No group may nominate more than four persons, not more than two of whom shall be of their own nationality. In no case may the number of candidates nominated by a group be more than double the number of seats to be filled.

Article 6:—Before making these

nominations, each national group is recommended to consult its highest court of justice, its legal faculties and schools of law, and its national academies and national sections of international academies devoted to the study of law.

Article 7:—1. The Secretary-General shall prepare a list in alphabetical order of all the persons thus nominated. Save as provided in Article 12, paragraph 2, these shall be the only persons eligible.

2. The Secretary-General shall submit this list to the General Assembly and to the Security Council.

Article 8:—The General Assembly and the Security Council shall proceed independently of one another to elect the members of the Court.

Article 9:—At every election, the electors shall bear in mind not only that the persons to be elected, should individually possess the qualifications required, but also that in the body as a whole the representation of the main forms of civilization and of the principal legal systems of the world should be assured.

Article 10:—1. Those candidates who obtain an absolute majority of votes in the General Assembly and in the Security Council shall be considered as elected.

2. Any vote of the Security Council, whether for the election of judges or for the appointment of members of the conference envisaged in Article 12, shall be taken without any distinction between permanent and non-permanent members of the Security Council.

3. In the event of more than one

national of the same state obtaining an absolute majority of the votes both of the General Assembly and of the Security Council, the eldest of these only shall be considered as elected.

Article 11:—If, after the first meeting held for the purpose of the election, one or more seats remain to be filled, a second and, if necessary, a third meeting shall take place.

Article 12:—1. If, after the third meeting, one or more seats still remain unfilled, a joint conference consisting of six members, three appointed by the General Assembly and three by the Security Council, may be formed at any time at the request of either the General Assembly or the Security Council, for the purpose of choosing by the vote of an absolute majority one name for each seat still vacant, to submit to the General Assembly and the Security Council for their respective acceptance.

2. If the joint conference is unanimously agreed upon any person who fulfils the required conditions, he may be included in its list, even though he was not included in the list of nominations referred to in Article 7.

3. If the joint conference is satisfied that it will not be successful in procuring an election, those members of the Court who have already been elected shall, within a period to be fixed by the Security Council, proceed to fill the vacant seats by selection from among those candidates who have obtained votes either in the General Assembly or in the Security Council.

4. In the event of an equality of votes among the judges, the

eldest judge shall have a casting vote.

Article 13:—1. The members of the Court shall be elected for nine years and may be re-elected; provided, however, that of the judges elected at the first election, the terms of five judges shall expire at the end of three years and the terms of five more judges shall expire at the end of six years.

2. The judges whose terms are to expire at the end of the above-mentioned initial periods of three and six years shall be chosen by lot to be drawn by the Secretary-General immediately after the first election has been completed.

3. The members of the Court shall continue to discharge their duties until their places have been filled. Though replaced, they shall finish any cases which they may have begun.

4. In the case of the resignation of a member of the Court, the resignation shall be addressed to the President of the Court, for transmission to the Secretary-General. This last notification makes the place vacant.

Article 14:—Vacancies shall be filled by the same method as that laid down for the first election, subject to the following provision: The Secretary-General shall within one month of the occurrence of the vacancy, proceed to issue the invitations provided for in Article 5, and the date of the election shall be fixed by the Security Council.

Article 15:—A member of the Court elected to replace a member whose term of office has not expired shall hold office for the remainder of his predecessor's term.

Article 16:—1. No member of the Court may exercise any political or administrative function, or engage in any other occupation of a professional nature.

2. Any doubt on this point shall be settled by the decision of the Court.

Article 17:—1. No member of the Court may act as agent, counsel or advocate in any case.

2. No member may participate in the decision of any case in which he has previously taken part as agent, counsel, or advocate for one of the parties, or as a member of a national or international court, or of a commission of enquiry, or in any other capacity.

3. Any doubt on this shall be settled by the decision of the Court.

Article 18:—1. No member of the Court can be dismissed unless, in the unanimous opinion of the other members, he has ceased to fulfil the required conditions.

2. Formal notification thereof shall be made to the Secretary-General by the Registrar.

3. This notification makes the place vacant.

Article 19:—The members of the Court, when engaged on the business of the Court, shall enjoy diplomatic privileges and immunities.

Article 20:—Every member of the Court shall, before taking up his duties, make a solemn declaration in open court that he will exercise his powers impartially and conscientiously.

Article 21:—1. The Court shall elect its President and Vice-President for three years; they may be re-elected.

2. The Court shall appoint its Registrar and may provide for the appointment of such other officers as may be necessary.

Article 22:—1. The seat of the Court shall be established at The Hague. This, however, shall not prevent the Court from sitting and exercising its functions elsewhere whenever the Court considers it desirable.

2. The President and the Registrar shall reside at the seat of the Court.

Article 23:—1. The Court shall remain permanently in session, except during the judicial vacations, the dates and durations of which shall be fixed by the Court.

2. Members of the Court are entitled to periodic leave, the dates and duration of which shall be fixed by the Court, having in mind the distance between The Hague and the home of each judge.

3. Members of the Court shall be bound, unless they are on leave or prevented from attending by illness or other serious reasons duly explained to the President, to hold themselves permanently at the disposal of the Court.

Article 24:—1. If, for some special reason, a member of the Court considers that he should not take part in the decision of a particular case, he shall so inform the President.

2. If the President considers that for some special reason one of the members of the Court should not sit in a particular case, he shall give him notice accordingly.

3. If in any such case the member of the Court and the President disagree, the matter

shall be settled by the decision of the Court.

Article 25:—1. The full Court shall sit except when it is expressly provided otherwise in the present Statute.

2. Subject to the condition that the number of judges available to constitute the Court is not thereby reduced below eleven, the Rules of the Court may provide for allowing one or more judges, according to circumstances and in rotation, to be dispensed from sitting.

3. A quorum of nine judges shall suffice to constitute the Court.

Article 26:—1. The Court may from time to time form one or more chambers, composed of three or more judges as the Court may determine, for dealing with particular categories of cases; for example, labour cases and cases relating to transit and communications.

2. The Court may at any time form a chamber for dealing with a particular case. The number of judges to constitute such a chamber shall be determined by the Court with the approval of the parties.

3. Cases shall be heard and determined by the chambers provided for in this Article if the parties so request.

Article 27:—A judgment given by any of the chambers provided for in Articles 26 and 29 shall be considered as rendered by the Court.

Article 28:—The chambers provided for in Articles 26 and 29 may, with the consent of the parties, sit and exercise their functions elsewhere than at The Hague.

Article 29:—With a view to the speedy dispatch of business, the Court shall form annually a chamber composed of five judges which, at the request of the parties, may hear and determine cases by summary procedure. In addition, two judges shall be selected for the purpose of replacing judges who find it impossible to sit.

Article 30:—1. The Court shall frame rules for carrying out its functions. In particular, it shall lay down rules of procedure.

2. The Rules of the Court may provide for assessors to sit with the Court or with any of its chambers, without the right to vote.

Article 31:—1. Judges of the nationality of each of the parties shall retain their right to sit in the case before the Court.

2. If the Court includes upon the Bench a judge of the nationality of one of the parties, any other party may choose a person to sit as judge. Such person shall be chosen preferably from among those persons who have been nominated as candidates as provided in Articles 4 and 5.

3. If the Court includes upon the Bench no judge of the nationality of the parties, each of these parties may proceed to choose a judge as provided in paragraph 2 of this Article.

4. The provisions of this Article shall apply to the case of Articles 26 and 29. In such cases, the President shall request one or, if necessary, two of the members of the Court forming the chamber to give place to the members of the Court of the nationality of the parties concerned, and failing such or if they are unable to be pre-

sent, to the judges specially chosen by the parties.

5. Should there be several parties in the same interest, they shall, for the purpose of the preceding provisions, be reckoned as one party only. Any doubt upon this point shall be settled by the decision of the Court.

6. Judges chosen as laid down in paragraphs 2, 3 and 4 of this Article shall fulfil the conditions required by Articles 2, 17 (paragraph 2), 20 and 24 of the present Statute. They shall take part in the decision on terms of complete equality with their colleagues.

Article 32:—1. Each member of the Court shall receive an annual salary.

2. The President shall receive a special annual allowance.

3. The Vice-President shall receive a special allowance for every day on which he acts as President.

4. The judges chosen under Article 31, other than members of the Court, shall receive compensation for each day on which they exercise their functions.

5. These salaries, allowances and compensation shall be fixed by the General Assembly. They may not be decreased during the term of office.

6. The salary of the Registrar shall be fixed by the General Assembly on the proposal of the Court.

7. Regulations made by the General Assembly shall fix the conditions under which retirement pensions may be given to members of the Court and to the Registrar, and the conditions under which members of the Court and the Registrar shall have their travelling expenses refunded.

8. The above salaries, allowances, and compensation shall be free of all taxation.

Article 33:—The expenses of the Court shall be borne by the United Nations in such a manner as shall be decided by the General Assembly.

CHAPTER II

Competence of the Court

Article 34:—1. Only states may be parties in cases before the Court.

2. The Court, subject to and in conformity with its Rules, may request of public international organizations information relevant to cases before it, and shall receive such information presented by such organizations on their own initiative.

3. Whenever the construction of the constituent instrument of a public international organization or of an international convention adopted thereunder is in question in a case before the Court, the Registrar shall so notify the public international organization concerned and shall communicate to it copies of all the written proceedings.

Article 35:—1. The Court shall be open to the states parties to the present Statute.

2. The conditions under which the Court shall be open to other states shall, subject to the special provisions contained in treaties in force, be laid down by the Security Council, but in no case shall such conditions place the parties in a position of inequality before the Court.

3. When a state which is not a Member of the United Nations is a party to a case, the Court shall

fix the amount which that party is to contribute toward the expenses of the Court. This provision shall not apply if such state is bearing a share of the expenses of the Court.

Article 36:—1. The jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it and all matters specially provided for in the Charter of the United Nations or in treaties and conventions in force.

2. The states parties to the present Statute may at any time declare that they recognize as compulsory *ipso facto* and without special agreement, in relation to any other state accepting the same obligation, the jurisdiction of the Court in all legal disputes concerning:—

- (a) The interpretation of a treaty;
- (b) Any question of international law;
- (c) The existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of an international obligation;
- (d) The nature or extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation.

3. The declarations referred to above may be made unconditionally or on condition of reciprocity on the part of several or certain states, or for a certain time.

4. Such declarations shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall transmit copies thereof to the parties to the Statute and to the Registrar of the Court.

5. Declarations made under Article 36 of the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice and which are still in force

shall be deemed, as between the parties to the present Statute, to be acceptances of the compulsory jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice for the period which they still have to run and in accordance with their terms.

6. In the event of a dispute as to whether the Court has jurisdiction, the matter shall be settled by the decision of the Court.

Article 37:—Whenever a treaty or convention in force provides for reference of a matter to a tribunal to have been instituted by the League of Nations, or to the Permanent Court of International Justice, the matter shall, as between the parties to the present Statute, be referred to the International Court of Justice.

Article 38:—1. The Court, whose function is to decide in accordance with international law such disputes as are submitted to it, shall apply:

- (a) International conventions, whether general or particular, establishing rules expressly recognised by the contesting states;
- (b) International custom, as evidence of a general practice accepted as law;
- (c) The general principles of law recognised by civilised nations;
- (d) Subject to the provisions of Article 59, judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified publicists of the various nations, as subsidiary means for the determination of rules of law.

2. This provision shall not prejudice the power of the Court to decide a case *ex aequo et bono*, if the parties agree thereto.

CHAPTER III.

Procedure

Article 39:—1. The official languages of the Court shall be French and English. If the parties agree that the case shall be conducted in French, the judgment shall be delivered in French. If the parties agree that the case shall be conducted in English, the judgment shall be delivered in English.

2. In the absence of an agreement as to which language shall be employed, each party may, in the pleadings use the language which it prefers; the decision of the Court shall be given in French and English. In this case the Court shall at the same time determine which of the two texts shall be considered as authoritative.

3. The Court shall, at the request of any party, authorise a language other than French or English to be used by that party.

Article 40:—1. Cases are brought before the Court, as the case may be, either by the notification of the special agreement or by a written application addressed to the Registrar. In either case the subject of the dispute and the parties shall be indicated.

2. The Registrar shall forthwith communicate the application to all concerned.

3. He shall also notify the Members of the United Nations through the Secretary-General, and also any other states entitled to appear before the Court.

Article 41:—1. The Court shall have the power to indicate, if it considers that circumstances so require, any provisional measures which ought to be taken to preserve the respective rights of either party.

2. Pending the final decision, notice of the measures suggested shall forthwith be given to the parties and to the Security Council.

Article 42:—1. The parties shall be represented by agents.

2. They may have the assistance of counsel or advocates before the Court.

3. The agents, counsel, and advocates of parties before the Court shall enjoy the privileges and immunities necessary to the independent exercise of their duties.

Article 43:—1. The procedure shall consist of two parts: written and oral.

2. The written proceedings shall consist of the communication to the Court and to the parties of memorials, counter-memorials and, if necessary, replies; also all papers and documents in support.

3. These communications shall be made through the Registrar, in the order and within the time fixed by the Court.

4. A certified copy of every document produced by one party shall be communicated to the other party.

5. The oral proceedings shall consist of the hearing by the court of witnesses, experts, agents, counsel, and advocates.

Article 44:—1. For the service of all notices upon persons other than the agents, counsel, and advocates, the Court shall apply direct to the government of the state upon whose territory the notice has to be served.

2. The same provision shall apply whenever steps are to be taken to procure evidence on the spot.

Article 45:—The hearing shall be under the control of the President or, if he is unable to preside, of the Vice-President; if neither is able to preside, the senior judge present shall preside.

Article 46:—The hearing in Court shall be public, unless the Court shall decide otherwise, or unless the parties demand that the public be not admitted.

Article 47:—1. Minutes shall be made at each hearing, and signed by the Registrar and the President.

2. These minutes alone shall be authentic.

Article 48:—The Court shall make orders for the conduct of the case, shall decide the form and time in which each party must conclude its arguments, and make all arrangements connected with the taking of evidence.

Article 49:—The Court may, even before the hearing begins, call upon the agents to produce any document or to supply any explanations. Formal note shall be taken of any refusal.

Article 50:—The Court may, at any time, entrust any individual, body, bureau, commission, or other organization that it may elect with the task of carrying out an inquiry or giving an expert opinion.

Article 51:—During the hearing any relevant questions are to be put to the witnesses and experts under the conditions laid down by the Court in the rules of procedure referred to in Article 30.

Article 52:—After the Court has received the purpose, it may refuse to accept any further oral or written evidence that one party may desire to present unless the other side consents.

Article 53:—1. Whenever one of the parties does not appear before the Court, or fails to defend his case, the other party may call upon the Court to decide in favor of its claim.

2. The Court must, before doing so, satisfy itself, not only that it has jurisdiction in accordance with Articles 36 and 37 but also that the claim is well founded in fact and law.

Article 54:—1. When, subject to the control of the Court, the agents, counsel, and advocates have completed their presentation of the case, the President shall declare the hearing closed.

2. The Court shall withdraw to consider the judgment.

3. The deliberations of the Court shall take place in private and remain secret.

Article 55:—1. All questions shall be decided by a majority of the judges present.

2. In the event of an equality of votes, the President or the judge who acts in his place shall have a casting vote.

Article 56:—1. The judgment shall state the reasons on which it is based.

2. It shall contain the names of the judges who have taken part in the decision.

Article 57:—If the judgment does not represent in whole or in part the unanimous opinion of the judges, any judge shall be entitled to deliver a separate opinion.

Article 58:—The judgment shall be signed by the President and by the Registrar. It shall be read in open court, due notice having been given to the agents.

Article 59:—The decision of the Court has no binding force ex-

cept between the parties and in respect of that particular case.

Article 60:—The judgment is final and without appeal. In the event of dispute as to the meaning or scope of the judgment, the Court shall construe it upon the request of any party.

Article 61:—1. An application for revision of a judgment may be made only when it is based upon the discovery of some fact of such a nature as to be a decisive factor, which fact was, when the judgment was given, unknown to the Court and also to the party claiming revision, always provided that such ignorance was not due to negligence.

2. The proceedings for revision shall be opened by a judgment of the Court expressly recording the existence of the new fact, recognizing that it has such a character as to lay the case open to revision, and declaring the application admissible on this ground.

3. The Court may require previous compliance with the terms of the judgment before it admits proceedings in revision.

4. The application for revision must be made at latest within six months of the discovery of the new fact.

5. No application for revision may be made after the lapse of ten years from the date of the judgment.

Article 62:—1. Should a state consider that it has an interest of a legal nature which may be affected by the decision in the case, it may submit a request to the Court to be permitted to intervene.

2. It shall be for the Court to decide upon this request.

Article 63:—1. Whenever the construction of a convention to

which states other than those concerned in the case are parties is in question, the Registrar shall notify all such states forthwith.

2 Every state so notified has the right to intervene in the proceedings; but if it uses this right, the construction given by the judgment will be equally binding upon it.

Article 64:—Unless otherwise decided by the Court, each party shall bear its own costs.

CHAPTER IV

Advisory Opinions

Article 65:—1. The Court may give an advisory opinion on any legal question at the request of whatever body may be authorised by or in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations to make such a request.

2. Questions upon which the advisory opinion of the Court is asked shall be laid before the Court by means of a written request containing an exact statement of the question upon which an opinion is required, and accompanied by all documents likely to throw light upon the question.

Article 66:—1. The Registrar shall forthwith give notice of the request for an advisory opinion to all states entitled to appear before the Court.

2. The Registrar shall also, by means of a special and direct communication, notify any state entitled to appear before the Court or international organization considered by the Court or, should it not be sitting, by the President as likely to be able to furnish information on the question, that the Court will be prepared to receive, within a time limit to be fixed by the President, written statements,

or to hear, at a public sitting to be held for the purpose, oral statements relating to the question.

3. Should any such state entitled to appear before the Court have failed to receive the special communication referred to in paragraph 2 of this Article, such state may express a desire to submit a written statement or to be heard; and the Court will decide.

4. States and organizations having presented written or oral statements or both shall be permitted to comment on the statements made by other states or organizations in the form, to the extent, and within the time limits which the Court, or, should it not be sitting, the President, shall decide in each particular case. Accordingly, the Registrar shall in due time communicate any such written statements to states and organizations having submitted similar statements.

Article 67:—The Court shall deliver its advisory opinions in open court, notice having been given to the Secretary-General and to the representatives of Members of the United Nations, of other states and of international organizations immediately concerned.

Article 68:—In the exercise of its advisory functions the Court shall further be guided by the provisions of the present Statute which apply in contentious cases to the extent of which it recognises them to be applicable.

CHAPTER V.

Amendment

Article 69:—Amendments to the present Statute shall be effected by the same procedure as is provided by the Charter of the United Nations for amendments to that

Charter, subject, however, to any provisions which the General Assembly upon recommendation of the Security Council may adopt concerning the participation of states which are parties to the present Statute but are not Members of the United Nations.

Article 70—The Court shall have power to propose such amendments to the present Statute as it may deem necessary, through written communications to the Secretary-General, for consideration in conformity with the provisions of Article 69.

APPENDIX V AGREEMENT ESTABLISHING THE PREPARATORY COMMISSION OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The Governments represented at the United Nations Conference on International Organisation in the City of San Francisco, having determined that an international organisation to be known as the United Nations shall be established, having this day signed the Charter of the United Nations, and having decided that, pending the coming into force of the Charter and the establishment of the United Nations as provided in the Charter, a Preparatory Commission of the United Nations should be established for the performance of certain functions and duties.

Agree as follow:—

1. There is hereby established a Preparatory Commission of the United Nations for the purpose of making provisional arrangements for the first sessions of the General Assembly, the Security Council, and the Economic and Social Council, and the Trusteeship Council, for the establishment of the Secretariat, and for the convening of the International Court of Justice.

2. The Commission shall consist of one representative from each Government signatory to the Charter. The Commission shall establish its own rules of procedure. The functions and powers of the

Commission, when the Commission is not in session, shall be exercised by an executive committee composed of the representatives of those Governments now represented on the Executive Committee of the Conference. The executive committee shall appoint such committees as may be necessary to facilitate its work, and shall make use of persons of special knowledge and experience.

3. The Commission shall be assisted by an Executive Secretary who shall exercise such powers and perform such duties as the Commission may determine, and by such staff as may be required. This staff shall be composed so far as possible of officials appointed for this purpose by the participating Governments on the invitation of the Executive Secretary.

4. The Commission shall:

- (a) Convoke the General Assembly in its first session;
- (b) Prepare the provisional agenda for the first sessions of the principal organs of the Organization, and prepare documents and recommendations relating to all matters on these agenda;
- (c) Formulate recommendations concerning the possible

transfer of certain functions, activities, and assets of the League of Nations which it may be considered desirable for the new Organization to take over on terms to be arranged;

- (d) Examine the problems involved in the establishment of the relationship between specialised inter-governmental organizations and agencies and the Organization;
- (e) Issue invitations for the nomination of candidates for the International Court of Justice in accordance with the provisions of the Statute of the Court;
- (f) Prepare recommendations concerning arrangements for the Secretariat of the Organization; and
- (g) Make studies and prepare recommendations concerning the location of the permanent headquarters of the Organization.

5. The expenses incurred by the Commission and the expenses incidental to the convening of the first meeting of the General Assembly shall be met by the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland or, if the Commission so requests, shared by other governments. All such advances from governments shall be deductible from their first contributions to the Organization.

6. The seat of the Commission shall be located in London. The Commission shall hold its first meeting in San Francisco immediately after the conclusion of

the United Nations Conference on International Organization. The Executive Committee shall call the Commission into session again as soon as possible after the Charter of the Organization comes into effect and whenever subsequently it considers such a session desirable.

7. The Commission shall cease to exist upon the election of the Secretary-General of the Organization, at which time its property and records shall be transferred to the Organization.

8. The Government of the United States of America shall be the temporary depository and shall have the custody of the original document embodying these interim arrangements in the five languages in which it is signed. Duly certified copies thereof shall be transmitted to the governments of the signatory states. The Government of the United States of America shall transfer the original to the Executive Secretary on his appointment.

9. This document shall be effective as from this date, and shall remain open for signature by the states entitled to be the original Members of the United Nations until the Commission is dissolved in accordance with paragraph 7.

In faith whereof, the undersigned representatives having been duly authorised for that purpose, sign this document in the English, French, Chinese, Russian and Spanish languages, all texts being of equal authenticity.

Done in the City of San Francisco, this twenty-sixth day of June, Nineteen-Forty-Five.

CHAPTER XXVI

FOREIGN RELATIONS

HO FENG-SHAN (何鳳山)*

INTRODUCTION

In the later part of the World War II China emerged as one of the five major Powers of the United Nations. It has been generally recognized that her occupation of such a prominent position in the family of nations is largely due to her own unswerving decision, undaunted spirit and immeasurable sacrifices in fighting a ruthless and far better equipped enemy at a time when Fascism and militarism began to dominate the world. From historic point of view the outbreak of the World War II did not occur on September 3, 1939, when the United Kingdom and French Republic declared war on Hitlerite Germany, but on July 7, 1937, when China, under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, willingly accepted Japan's challenge, as every effort to preserve peace in the East Asia was in vain.

Being weak in military sense and unprepared for modern warfare, China was the first victim of the fascist aggression. During the early stage of the Sino-Japanese War, her rich provinces along the coast were under the jackboot of the enemy. Hundreds

of thousands of civilians, including, women and children were massacred. Looting and raping followed in the wake of the Japanese invasion. Indescribable atrocities and brutalities degenerated the Japanese as a human-race. The democratic nations of the world were stunned and astonished to witness the indomitable Chinese fighting against overwhelming odds. Yet they failed to realize that the Chinese were fighting not only for their own preservation but also for the freedom and fundamental rights of all nations.

Not until the shameless and treacherous attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 did China no longer fight alone. Now with Japan lying prostrate at our feet, it is only just and fair to laud China as the first to take arms and the last to cease struggle for a cause noble and sacred to all United Nations.

Even before the conclusion of the war China's gallant resistance against Japanese invasion was compensated with better diplomatic relations with her major Allies. On January 11, 1943, new treaties were concluded with the United States and Great Britain, providing for the relinquishment by these two countries of the

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extraterritorial rights and special privileges they hitherto enjoyed in China. Ever since then other countries followed suit. Consequently, the earnest desire of the Chinese people for the restoration of normal diplomatic relations with other countries has been satisfactorily fulfilled.

While nationals of the countries enjoying extraterritorial rights and special privileges had been provided with all facilities and afforded every protection in China, Chinese nationals abroad almost without exception were discriminately treated by these countries. For this reason, the Chinese Government has paid particular attention to the problems confronting overseas Chinese. In signing new treaties with other countries, the Government always takes into consideration the rights and welfare of overseas Chinese living in the countries concerned.

Having been elevated to a prominent position in the family of nations, China, as Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister for Foreign Affairs, sincerely enunciated after having attended the Foreign Ministers' conference in October, 1945 is not so much concerned with the questions of prestige as with the close collaboration among the five big Powers. To quote Dr. Wang's own words:

"The guiding principle of foreign policy is to promote and strengthen the unity and harmony of the United Nations with a view to preserving the peace of the world, especially the cooperation of the five permanent members of the Security Council in whose hands the maintenance of future peace largely rests."

In his welcome speech in honour of Mr. H. A. Wallace, then Vice-President of the United States, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek stated clearly China's attitude towards cooperation and collaboration amongst nations. He said, *inter alia*,

"We believe in ever-increasing cooperation with other countries in matters economic, financial, cultural as well as political. With the world so shrunk in space, so to speak, no nation can enjoy alone the Four Freedoms proclaimed by President Roosevelt without international goodwill and cooperation. No nation can achieve or maintain prosperity except in a prosperous world."

China has no military ambition; she cherishes no dream of territory aggrandizement. Her foreign relations with other countries as recorded in the following pages, are eloquent manifestation of her peaceful intentions and sincere desire for the maintenance of equilibrium and harmony in the family of nations.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The Chinese Military Mission:—

The Chinese Military Mission in Washington was first formed in the early part of 1942 with General Hsiung Shih-hui as its head. Following General Hsiung's resignation, General Shang Chen, then Director of the Main Office of the National Military Council, was appointed to head the Mission. General Shang Chen together with members of his staff arrived in Washington on May 17, 1944, to establish special military liaison with the

United States Government. As a result of the unconditional surrender of Japan on August 14, 1945, General Shang Chen was recalled on August 29 by President Chiang.

Mr. Henry A. Wallace's Visit:—

Mr. Henry A. Wallace, then Vice-President of the United States, who was asked by the late President Roosevelt to serve as his "Messenger" to China, left Washington on May 20, 1944, and arrived in the first Chinese City, Tihua, on June 18. In the wartime capital, he was the guest of President Chiang Kai-shek, with whom he discussed international relations of extreme importance. While in other parts of China, he toured Kunming, Kweiling, Chengtu and Lanchow, visiting farms, universities, industrial cooperatives, the 14th Air Force Bases and talking with officials, professors, students and farmers. After a 14 days' visit in China, Vice-President Wallace left for the United States on July 2. His mission greatly strengthened the most cordial relations long subsisting between China and the United States.

Following is the joint communique issued at the conclusion of Vice-President Wallace's visit in Chungking.

During his visit in Chungking, Vice-President Wallace has had an opportunity to discuss with President Chiang and officials of the Chinese Government, in an informal, frank and friendly atmosphere, matters of common interest and concern. They have exchanged views to mutual advantage and have found themselves in agreement on basic principles and objectives.

Prosecution of the war against Japan in Asia is an urgent job and mutual assistance in every possible way to get that job done quickly and efficiently is fundamental in Chinese-American relations.

The objective of victory in the Pacific is the establishment of a democratic peace based on political and social stability deriving from government devoted to the welfare of peoples.

Enduring peace in the Pacific will depend upon (1) effective permanent demilitarization of Japan; (2) understanding, friendship and collaboration between and among the four principal powers in the Pacific area—China, the Soviet Union, the United States, and the British Commonwealth of Nations—and among all United Nations willing to share in the responsibilities of post-war international order; and (3) recognition of the fundamental right of dependent Asiatic peoples to self-government, and the early adoption of measures in the political, economic and social fields to prepare those dependent peoples for self-government within a specified-practical time limit.

Cognizance was taken of the cornerstone position of China in Asia and of the importance of China in any structure for peace in the Pacific area. It was assumed as axiomatic that essential to such a peace structure would be continuation of ties of friendship that have characterized American-Chinese relations for over a century, and the maintenance of relations on a basis of understanding between China and the Soviet Union—China's nearest great neighbor—as well as be-

tween China and her other neighbors. No balance of power arrangement would serve the ends of peace.

Seven years of resistance to Japan, during the last three of which China has been virtually cut off from physical contact with the outside world, has resulted in serious economic and financial difficulties in Free China. The Chinese people are facing difficulties with fortitude, confident of their ability to stand the strain until greater material assistance from abroad becomes feasible.

The Chinese people and the Government are determined to implement and make real the Three People's Principles of Sun Yat-sen, the first of these principles—National Sovereignty—is now a reality. The second—Democracy—is implicit in plans being formulated for the establishment of a constitution to guarantee individual rights and freedom and to establish representative government. Concrete consideration of the third—the People's Livelihood—is inherent in plans for economic reconstruction.

With regard to the People's Livelihood, the fundamental importance of agricultural reconstruction in any plans for economic or industrial reconstruction was recognized. The life-long interest of Vice-President Wallace in agricultural development gave him a special understanding of China's agrarian problems and enabled him to discuss with President Chiang realistic solutions. Vice-President Wallace was confident that President Chiang would find among the American people a willingness to cooperate in every practical way with the Chinese

people in solving agricultural and related problems posed in Chinese plans for economic reconstruction, implementation of which would mean trade relations between Chinese and American business men on a mutually advantageous basis.

President Chiang and Vice-President Wallace were continually mindful of the fact that the fundamental purpose of their Governments is the promotion of the security and welfare of the peoples of China and the United States respectively, and were in agreement in believing that pursuit of the broad objectives which they had discussed would be in line with the accomplishment of that purpose.

American War Production Mission.—President Roosevelt's personal emissary, Mr. Donald Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board, together with his party, arrived in Chungking on September 6, 1944. During his stay in China, Mr. Nelson had studied China's economic problems, including post-war rehabilitation, and industrialization, and had many conferences with President Chiang and other members of the Chinese Government. On September 24, Mr. Nelson returned to United States to report to President Roosevelt and to work out the American part of the economic program agreed upon with the Chinese Government. After a month's stay in Washington, Mr. Nelson returned to Chungking on November 14. He was accompanied by a group of experts. They were: Messrs. Howard Coonley, Edwin A. Jacobsen, Carl Bell, W. W. Willauer, Francis Cleary, Herbert W.

Graham, E. A. Locke Jr., Henri Ovesen, Eugene Stallings, Harry Strain, Edward Weldschmidt, Alex Traube and Albert Z. Carr.

During their stay in Chungking, Mr. Nelson was appointed High Economic Adviser to the National Government of China, and Mr. Coonley was appointed adviser to the China War Production Board.

Mr. Nelson resigned from his post on May 15, 1945 and President Truman appointed Edwin A. Locke Jr., to succeed Mr. Nelson as head of the American Production mission in China.

Mr. Locke with his party arrived in Chungking on October 17, 1945. The mission of Mr. Locke's visit was threefold: (1) to survey the economic conditions of China for President Truman; (2) to carry out discussions with high officials of the Chinese Government on Sino-American cooperation in the economic field; and (3) to wind up the American mission of production experts and specialists which had been in Chungking to work with the Chinese War Production Board. Mr. Locke left Chungking for the United States on November 26, to report to President Truman. During his brief sojourn in China, Mr. Locke spent half of his time in Chungking and the rest in touring China's important cities, namely, Canton, Hankow, Formosa, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, etc.

Change of American Diplomatic Envoys in China.—Following the departure of Mr. Clarence Gauss, the former American Ambassador to China, late President Roosevelt on November 27, 1945 appointed Major-General Patrick Hurley to be the American Ambassador to

China. Major-General Hurley came to China on September 6, 1945 as late President Roosevelt's personal military emissary. Major-General Hurley presented his Letter of Credence to President Chiang Kai-shek on January 8, 1945. Major-General Hurley resigned on November 27, 1945 his post as Ambassador to China. President Truman appointed former Chief of Staff General George C. Marshall as special Envoy to China with the rank of an ambassador.

U.S. Military Personnel in China

—Following the recall of General Stilwell to Washington, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in his capacity as Supreme Commander of the China Theater appointed on October 29, 1945, Major-General Albert C. Wedemeyer as his Chief of Staff. The Generalissimo also appointed Lieutenant General Daneial I. Sultan in command of all Chinese forces based in India. Major-General Wedemeyer on November 1, 1944 assumed his office as Generalissimo Chiang's Chief of Staff and Commander of the U.S. Army Forces in China.

Major-General Chennault conferred the order of Blue Sky and White Sun.—In an Order of the Day on July 30, 1945, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, in appreciation of the meritorious service rendered by Major-General C. L. Chennault during China's eight years of war, and on the occasion of his resignation from his post as Commander of the U.S. 14th Air Force, conferred upon him the highest military award of the Chinese Government—the Blue Sky White Sun Medal—with special commendation for General Chennault's bravery and abilities.

The Generalissimo's citation reads as follows:

"I am now presenting the Blue Sky White Sun medal—the highest military award—to Major-General C. L. Chennault in commemoration of his eight years of fighting record in China and the painstaking labor he has rendered to help China build and train the Chinese air force.

General Chennault in his capacity as Chief of Staff for Air of the China Theater, Commander of the American Volunteer Group and Commanding General of the U.S. 14th Army Air Force, has made innumerable glorious contribution to the Chinese Air Force, which words cannot aptly describe. General Chennault came to China in the spring of 1937 as an adviser in the training of the Chinese air forces. Not long after the Sino-Japanese war broke out General Chennault helped to plan the strategies which have enabled the Chinese Air Force in the early stages of the war to fight against great odds and thus setting the foundation for victory in the war against Japan. Subsequently, General Chennault became adviser to the Aeronautical Commission and to the Chinese Air Force Training Academy for officers. During this period, he made outstanding contribution to the planning and organization of the Chinese Air Force; its training and education, the introduction of the American Air Force system to be used as a pattern by the Chinese Air Force and

the training of men to fly new American planes. General Chennault continued to give his invaluable help and advice to our air force even to the time immediately prior to his resignation.

General Chennault's military genius was first displayed in the fighting records of the AVG. It is recalled that in the Christmas of 1941, General Chennault in command of a small group of volunteers drove back from the skies of Kunming a much bigger raiding Japanese force. And from then on, the AVG scored victory in campaigns it participated until the Volunteers were universally acclaimed as the world's best fighting force.

On March 10, 1942, the American Volunteer Group was reorganized into a unit of the U.S. Army Air Forces and General Chennault with his well-planned tactics was able to exert more pressure on the enemy. Better results were also reaped.

On July 4, 1942, the 14th Air Force was formally inaugurated and General Chennault was named its commander. In two years, the 14th Air Force has inflicted heavy damages on the enemy and subjected the enemy's forces to its surveillance and control. The 14th Air Force had control of the skies west from Burma, Thailand, Indo-China and eastward through Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung and Fukien, south of the China Sea and northward along the valley of the Yangtze

River, the Yellow River Valley, along the Tientsin-Pukow Railway, the Peiping-Hankow Railway, and in the areas of the Three Eastern Provinces.

At the same time, under the close cooperation of the Chinese and Americans, the Chinese-American Composite Wing was formed. General Chennault with his rich experience and warm sincerity was responsible for the training and deployment of the personnel. The fighting record of this unit has been considerable and especially in West Hupeh, Central China and Hunan and Kwangsi the missions flown by the CACW in supporting Chinese ground forces in routing the enemy out of his hole, reconnaissance and bombing, have produced magnificent results.

Aside from constructive advices, whose value cannot be estimated in four years, General Chennault's military achievements which have been tabulated are self explanatory of his abilities. In appreciation of his magnificent record and as a tribute to his bravery and abilities I hereby confer on him the highest military award for meritorious service—The Blue Sky White Sun Medal.

China Grieved Over the Death of Late President Roosevelt:—Franklin Delano Roosevelt, 32nd President of the United States and the first man to be elected to that high office for four successive terms died on April 11, 1945 of a brain hemorrhage.

The National Government ordered the half-masting of the

National Flag for three days beginning on April 14 throughout the country in mourning of the passing away of the late U.S. President.

On April 16, an impressive, solemn memorial service for the late U.S. President was held in the auditorium of the Central Youth Training College at Fuh-singkwang under the auspices of the National Government. More than one thousand ranking Chinese Government officials and all the diplomatic and military representatives of the United Nations attended the ceremony. As an expression of the unutterable grief of the Chinese people over the loss of a great friend, President Chiang personally officiated at the ceremony. Reviewing Mr. Roosevelt's greatness as a world leader and his contributions to world peace, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, then Minister of Information, read excerpts from the following statements made by Mr. Roosevelt: his speech on October 5, 1937 urging the quarantine of aggressor nations; his January 6, 1941 speech on transforming the United States into the arsenal of democracy and his February 18, 1943 speech on the unconditional surrender of the enemies after the Casablanca Conference with Prime Minister Churchill; his recommendation to Congress in October 1943, for the repeal of the Chinese Exclusion Act; his speech in December 1943 on the Cairo principles for the Far East; his March 12, 1944 speech on the occasion of the anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's death and his June

26, 1944 speech on the role of the big powers in the world peace organization.

Exchange of message on the Surrender of Japan between

President Chiang and President Truman:—On the occasion of the surrender of the Japanese Government the following message was sent by President Chiang to President Truman:

At this glorious hour of our complete victory over our common enemies the entire Chinese nation joins me in paying the highest tribute to the inflexible reserve with which the American people have prosecuted the war against the Axis aggressors. The invaluable contributions to the Allied cause made by your valiant nation, for which humanity will forever remain grateful, have helped shorten the duration of this bloody struggle and restore liberty to all oppressed peoples. The Chinese people, who were the first victims of Axis aggression and who have suffered the longest in this global war, are especially grateful to our American allies for their unceasing moral support and unstinted material assistance. On behalf of the Chinese people I beg to express to you our profoundest admiration for the brilliant achievements of the American nation and for the great role which you and the late President Roosevelt have played in helping to bring about the collapse of the Axis powers in both Europe and Asia. I wish also to assure you, Mr. President, that in the accomplishment of

the stupendous task of worldwide rehabilitation and reconstruction which still lies ahead, China will continue to cooperate with the United States and all the other democratic nations in order that the peace which has been won at such immense costs may be made secure and permanent for the future generations.

President Truman's Reply Message to President Chiang.—

On behalf of the people and Government of the United States I extend to you and to the Chinese nation our deep appreciation of the generous sentiments expressed in your message on this momentous occasion of final and complete victory over the forces of aggression. The magnificent example of the Chinese nation's fortitude and steadfast devotion to the cause of freedom through long years of suffering and discouragements has served as a constant source of inspiration to the American people to put forth the greatest efforts of which we have been capable. The American people join with the people of your great country in deep rejoicing that success had thus gloriously rewarded the United Nations in their struggle for the first great objective and are profoundly grateful to the citizens of all nationalities whose courageous efforts have made such success possible. We pray that through the continued close cooperation of China and the United States and the United Nations there may be built a lasting peace founded on justice to all.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH GREAT BRITAIN, CANADA, AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND, AND INDIA

Chinese Good Will Mission To Britain.—As the British Parliamentary Goodwill Mission which came to China in 1943 did much to increase the understanding and goodwill between China and Great Britain, representatives were chosen by the Chinese Government from the People's Political Council and the Legislative Yuan as members of the Chinese Goodwill Mission to Britain to help strengthen the friendly relations long subsisting between the two countries. The following communique was issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on November 11, 1943:

"Upon the invitation of the British Government and in accordance with the desire expressed by the People's Political Council at one of its recent sessions, a Chinese Mission will soon leave for London.

"As the British Parliamentary Mission which came to China did much to increase the understanding and goodwill between China and Great Britain, it is believed that the impending visit of the Chinese Mission to London will also greatly help to strengthen the friendly relations long subsisting between the two countries. The Chinese Mission will consist of the following members who have been chosen after the Government has consulted with the Presidium of the Legislative Yuan: Mr. Wang Shih-chieh, member of the Presidium of the People's Political Council,

Messrs. Wang Yun-wu, Hu Lin and Han Li-wu, members of the Political Council, and Mr. Wen Yuan-ning, member of the Legislative Yuan. Mr. Li Wei-kuo will act as secretary of the Mission."

The Chinese Mission, bringing the goodwill of the Chinese people to the British people, left Chungking for London on November 17, 1943. The following statement was made by Mr. H. C. Liang, then Minister of Information, in his capacity as the Government spokesman at a foreign press conference on the eve of the departure of the goodwill Mission:

On the eve of the departure of the Chinese Goodwill Mission to Great Britain, I should like to make clear the significance as well as our expectations of the Mission. The British Parliamentary Mission's visit to China last year has contributed in no small measure on the promotion of the mutual understanding and intimate friendship between the two countries.

The significance of our sending a goodwill mission to Britain goes far beyond a mere return of courtesy. There are more similarities than differences in the national character of the Chinese and British peoples who, I may say, cherish the same love for peace, have always upheld the cause of justice, and are known for their spirit of moderation, tolerance and forgivingness. They even share the same misfortune of being perhaps the two most misunderstood peoples in the world.

In fighting shoulder to shoulder against ruthless

enemies and passing through the same vicissitudes of war, China and Great Britain are not only striving for common victory over the Axis aggressors but cooperating and collaborating wholeheartedly with all the other United Nations in laying a firm foundation for a system of general security when peace is restored. There is an English proverb saying, "A friend in need is a friend indeed." The Chinese usually say, "For mutual understanding it is essential to know each other's heart" and "One should have no regret at all if he has found one hearty friend in his whole life."

The Chinese Goodwill Mission to Great Britain affords an excellent opportunity not only for us to express to our great British friends our sincere admiration for their titanic efforts at the prosecution of the war and for their enthusiasm in aiding China, but also for the members of the Mission to report, upon their return to China, to us on what they have learned in Great Britain. Such exchange of ideas and feelings between nations is the most effective means of bringing about everlasting and solid friendship.

We are firmly convinced that only in a safe peaceful world can the interests of all nations be safeguarded, and that world's safety and peace can be derived only from the mutual understanding, love, respect and reliance among nations.

The members of the Mission were accorded an official welcome

at the railway station upon their arrival in London on December 3. The official program arranged for them started from the 6th, which bore testimony to the importance attached to the visit. During the 6-week stay in Britain, they were given a warm reception by organizations and individuals wherever they went. They were taken to various parts of the country to see by the British people h h h h h h m r r r r for themselves gigantic efforts made by the British people towards the prosecution of the war. They exchange views with British political and industrial leaders. Their visit in Britain was an enjoyable and instructive one. Since their return to China in March 1944, they have given a first hand account of conditions in Great Britain and of the trials and tribulations the British people have undergone, the difficulties they have surmounted, and the sacrifices they have made not only for their own existence but also for the cause of freedom and humanity at large. This will unquestionably have far-reaching effects on the strengthening of the bond of friendship and amity between these two peoples.

Speaking on the occasion of the visit of the Chinese Mission to Britain, Mr. Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary, said: "Our two peoples have so much in common. So much, so infinitely much, depends upon our working together in the vital years that lie ahead." This view is fully shared by the Chinese Government and people.

Promotion of Cultural Relation

—With a view to promoting Sino-British cultural relations, the British Council, which has played

a great part in promoting better understanding between Britain and foreign countries by fostering cultural contacts of every kind, appointed Prof. Percy M. Roxby as British Council's Chief Representative in China. Prof. Roxby is an expert on the geography of the eastern hemisphere and has been professor of geography at Liverpool University. Prof. Roxby arrived in Chungking in May 1945.

Exchange of Notes Regarding Jurisdiction over the Armed Forces in Each Other's Territories.—On July 6, 1945 China and Great Britain concluded an agreement regarding the exercise of jurisdiction over members of armed forces in each other's territories. On that occasion, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued the following statement:

According to International Law and international practice, when the armed forces of one allied nation are stationed in the territory of another for the purposes of undertaking joint military operations, exclusive criminal jurisdiction over members of such forces is exercised by the service courts or authorities of the country to which such forces belong. Such rights have been exercised either with or without special agreements. However, special agreements have invariably been preferred by reason of their clarity and precision.

For this purpose, an exchange of notes took place on May 21, 1943 between the Chinese and the United States Governments plac-

ing on record the understanding that jurisdiction over criminal offenses committed by members of the Chinese or the United States armed forces in each other's territory shall be exclusively exercised by the service courts and the service authorities of the country to which such forces belong. After the conclusion of that agreement, negotiations for a similar agreement was undertaken by the Chinese and the British Governments, which culminated in an exchange of notes between Dr. K. C. Wu, then Political Vice-Minister in charge of Ministerial Affairs of Foreign Affairs on behalf of the Chinese Government and Sir Horace Seymour, British Ambassador in China, on behalf of the British Government. The exchange of notes with its annex constitutes an agreement whereby the Chinese and the British service courts or authorities shall exercise exclusive criminal jurisdiction over members of their respective forces present in India and Burma or in Chinese territory respectively. If in the future Chinese forces should be stationed in any territory under British authority other than India or Burma, the British Government will be prepared to extend the same privileges to such forces.

The full text of the notes exchanged and the annex appended thereto is as follows:

*Note from Sir Horace Seymour
to Dr. K. C. Wu*

July 1, 1945

Sir,

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Gov-

ernment of India are desirous of determining by agreement with the Government of the Republic of China and on the basis of reciprocity the question of jurisdiction over members of their respective forces when these forces are present in territory of the other party. They propose that this question should be determined in accordance with the provisions of the Annex to this present note. If in the future Chinese forces should be stationed in any territory under the authority of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom not covered by the provisions of the Annex to this note, His Majesty's Government will be prepared to extend the provisions of the Annex to Chinese forces stationed in any such territory.

If Your Excellency confirms on behalf of the Government of the Republic of China their acceptance of this proposal, the present note (with its Annex) and Your Excellency's note in reply shall be deemed to constitute an agreement between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom on their own behalf and in respect of Burma and the Government of India on the one part and the Government of the Chinese Republic on the other part.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) H. J. SEYMOUR

ANNEX

Article 1. (1) In this Agreement the expression (a) "Members of the British forces" means

every uniformed person, holding a rank in the naval, military or air forces, maintained by the Government of the United Kingdom, the Government of India or the Government of any overseas territory, colony or territory under the protection of His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, who is, in respect of the duties which he performs in Chinese territory, under the orders of the commander of any British naval, military or air force in China. It includes uniformed members (i) of political or civil staffs attached to the British forces, (ii) of the women's forces auxiliary to the said forces, (iii) of the nursing staffs, male and female, (iv) of the staff of the Navy, Army and Air Force Institutes, (v) of guerilla units auxiliary to the British forces which operate under the command of a commander of the British forces and which are subject to British military law. It does not include Chinese nationals employed by or accompanying the British forces but not enlisted or commissioned in the British forces; nor does it may be recruited in China for employment with the British forces. The expression also includes members of the crews (other than Chinese nationals of merchant ships belonging to or chartered or requisitioned by or on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom, the Government of India, or the Government of any overseas territory, colony or territory under the protection of His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British

Dominions beyond the seas, Emperor of India, which are operating in conjunction with the British naval authorities.

(b) "Members of the Chinese forces" means every uniformed person, holding a rank in the naval, military or air forces, maintained by the Government of the Republic of China, who is, in respect of the duties which he performs in India or Burma, under the orders of the commander of any Chinese naval, military or air force in India or Burma. It includes uniformed members (i) of political or civil staffs attached to the Chinese forces, (ii) of the women's forces auxiliary to the said forces, (iii) of the nursing staffs, male and female, (iv) of the staff of the Navy, Army and Air Force Institutes, (v) of women's forces auxiliary to the Chinese forces which operate under the command of a commander of the Chinese forces and which are subject to Chinese military law. It does not include British nationals employed by or accompanying the Chinese forces but not enlisted or commissioned in the Chinese forces; nor does it include nationals of third powers or persons without nationality who may be recruited in India or Burma for employment with the Chinese forces. The expression also includes members of the crews (other than British subjects or British protected persons) of merchant ships belonging to or chartered or requisitioned by or on behalf of the Government of the Republic of China, which are operating in conjunction with the Chinese naval authorities.

(c) "Members of the forces" means "members of the British forces" or "members of the Chinese forces" as the case may be and "forces" means the British or Chinese forces as the case may be.

(d) "Service tribunals" means naval, military or air force tribunals of the force to which the person concerned belongs, exercising jurisdiction under the naval, military or air force law of that force, or as regards the members of the crews of the merchant ships referred to in Article 1 (1) (a), British Naval Courts, and, as regard the members of the crews of the merchant ships referred to in Article 1 (1) (b), the appropriate Chinese tribunal.

(e) "Service authorities" means the appropriate authorities of the British forces in China or (as the case may be) of the Chinese forces in India or Burma.

(f) "Territory" means the territory in which the members of the forces are present.

(g) "Local authorities" means the authorities (civil or military) of the territory.

(2) This agreement applies to members of the British forces present anywhere in the territories of the Republic of China and to members of the Chinese forces who are present anywhere in India or in Burma.

Article 2 (1) In all criminal matters members of the forces shall be subject to the jurisdiction of Service tribunals. The jurisdiction of the Service tribunals shall be exclusive of the

jurisdiction of all other tribunals in the territory, unless, in any particular case, the senior officer present in the territory of the forces to which the accused belongs, requests or consents to the exercise of jurisdiction by some tribunal of the territory. This request or consent shall be given in writing and addressed direct to the local authorities who have been designated as competent for this purpose by the Government or administration of the territory in question.

(2) Where a case, which is of legitimate interest to the local authorities because it arises out of injury to a local inhabitant or local property or for some other reason, is submitted to a service tribunal, the local authorities may request the Service authorities to inform them of the progress of the case, and, when the case is concluded, to supply a copy of the judgment of the tribunal.

Article 3 (1) Save as provided in paragraphs (2) and (3) of this Article, a member of the forces may only be arrested, searched or detained in custody by his Service authorities. Only the Service authorities shall have the right to enter or search any premises which are occupied exclusively by the forces as a camp, barracks, offices, stores, warehouses, or residence.

(2) A member of the forces may be arrested by the local authorities when such arrest is necessary in order to maintain public order. In this case the arrested person will be immediately handed over to the Service authorities. In any case where there

is any doubt whether an arrested person is a member of the forces a certificate signed by an officer of or above the rank of Major in the Military forces and of or above the rank in the Naval and Air Forces which corresponds to that of Major shall be accepted by the local authorities as conclusive.

(3) The local authorities shall, on request from the Service authorities, search for members of the forces alleged to have committed offences, and if they are found, shall arrest them and hand them over to the Service authorities.

Article 4:—The Service authorities will investigate and deal appropriately with any alleged criminal offence committed by members of the forces which may be brought to their notice by the competent local authorities or which the Service authorities may find to have taken place. The Service tribunals will try and, on conviction, punish all criminal offences which members of the forces may be alleged on sufficient evidence to have committed in the territory.

Article 5:—The trial of any member of the forces for an offence against a member of the civilian population of the territory will be conducted in open court (except where security considerations forbid this) and will be arranged to take place promptly in the territory and within a reasonable distance from the spot where the offence was alleged to have been committed, so that witnesses shall not be required to travel great distances to attend the hearing.

Article 6:—The Service authorities and the local authorities will collaborate to provide satisfactory machinery for such mutual assistance as may be required in making investigations and collecting evidence in respect of offences which members of the forces are alleged to have committed or in which they are alleged to be concerned. In general such preliminary action will be taken by the local authorities on behalf of the Service authorities where witnesses, or other persons from whom it is desired to have statements, will assist in connection with the prosecution before the courts of the territory of persons who are not members of the forces, where the evidence of any member of these forces is required or where the assistance of the Service authorities in the investigation of the case (including the taking of statements from members of the forces) may be needed.

Article 7:—(1) Any claim for reparation on account of damage or injury caused or alleged to have been caused in the territory by members of the forces shall be referred in the first instance to the Service authorities, who, in the event of a settlement act being reached, will consult with the local authorities.

(2) If any claim for reparation cannot be settled between the local and Service authorities, the claim may be taken up through the diplomatic channel.

(3) The preceding paragraphs of this Article do not apply to damage or injury caused by "acts

of war" (that is to say, by acts done in the zone of military operations which are part of offensive or defensive operations against the enemy) which shall form the subject of future discussion between the Governments parties to the present Agreement.

(4) As soon as the present Agreement comes into force, the competent British and Chinese authorities will discuss and determine the detailed arrangements necessary for examining and disposing of claims in accordance with paragraph 1 of this Article

Article 8:—The local authorities will investigate and deal appropriately with any alleged criminal offence, committed by persons in the territory against members of the forces, or the property of the forces or the security of the forces which may be brought to their notice by the Service authorities or which the local authorities may find to have taken place. If sufficient evidence is produced against any person accused of any such offence committed in the territory, the local authorities will cause him to be arrested, tried and, on conviction, punished in the same manner as if such offence had been committed against the members, the property or the security of forces maintained by the Government of the territory. The Service authorities shall be informed by the local authorities of the result of all action taken by the latter under this Article

Article 9:—(1) The present agreement shall come into force immediately as from this day's date.

(2) The present Agreement shall remain in force until it is terminated by a notice of termination given to the Chinese Government by His Majesty's Ambassador in China jointly on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Government of India, or given to His Majesty's Ambassador in China by the Chinese Government. Notice of termination shall not be given prior to the termination of hostilities with Japan or to their suspension by a general armistice. Any notice of termination so given shall take effect six months after the date upon which it is given.

*Note from Dr. K. C. Wu to
Sir Horace Seymour*

July 7, 1945

SIR,

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's note of today's date reading as follows:

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of India are desirous of determining by agreement with the Government of the Republic of China, and on the basis of reciprocity, the question of jurisdiction over members of their respective forces when these forces are present in the territory of the other party. They propose that this question should be determined in accordance with the provisions of the Annex to this present note. If in the future Chinese forces should be stationed in any territory under the authority of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom

not covered by the provisions of the Annex to this note, His Majesty's Government will be prepared to extend the provisions of the Annex to Chinese forces stationed in any such territory.

If Your Excellency confirms on behalf of the Government of the Republic of China their acceptance of this proposal, the present note (with its Annex) and Your Excellency's note in reply shall be deemed to constitute an agreement between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom on their own behalf and in respect of Burma and the Government of India on the one part, and the Government of the Chinese Republic on the other part.

I have the honour to inform Your Excellency that I am authorized to confirm, on behalf of the Government of the Republic of China, their acceptance of the proposal as recorded in Your Excellency's note and its accompanying Annex. The present note and Your Excellency's note under reply with its Annex (a copy of which is hereto appended) shall be deemed to constitute an agreement between the Government of the Republic of China on the one part, and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom on their own behalf and in respect of Burma and the Government of India on the other part.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) K. C. Wu

CANADA

Exchange of Ambassadors.—As a result of the elevation of the diplomatic status which was decided upon on December 11, 1943, the Chinese Government on February 18, 1944 appointed Dr. Liu Shih-shun as China's first Ambassador to Canada. Dr. Liu presented his Letter of Credence on January 26, 1944. The Canadian Government appointed Major-General Victor Wentworth Odlum, as first Canadian Ambassador to China. Major-General Odlum presented his Letter of Credence on March 15, 1944.

Conclusion of the Mutual Aid Agreement:—

For the purpose of strengthening the cooperation of the United Nations, a Sino-Canadian Mutual Aid Agreement was signed in Ottawa on March 22, 1944. This Agreement, which consists of eleven articles and provides for the supply of war materials to China by Canada, is similar to the Sino-American Mutual Aid Agreement signed on June 2, 1942. The full text of the Agreement is as follows:

Agreement between the Governments of China and Canada of the Principles Applying to the Provision by Canada of Canadian War Supplies to China under the War Appropriation (United Nations Mutual Aid) Act of Canada 1943.

Whereas China and Canada are associated in the present war, and whereas it is desirable that war supplies should be distributed among the United Nations in accordance with strategic needs of the war and in such manner as to contribute most effectively to the

winning of the war and the establishment of peace, and

Whereas it is expedient that the conditions upon which such war supplies are made available by one United Nation to another should not be such as to burden post-war commerce, or lead to the imposition of trade restrictions or otherwise prejudice a just and enduring peace, and

Whereas the Governments of Canada and China are mutually desirous of concluding an agreement in regard to the conditions upon which Canadian war supplies will be made available to China.

The Undersigned, being duly authorized by their respective Government for the purpose, have agreed as follows:—

Article I.—The Government of Canada will make available under the War Appropriation (United Nations Mutual Aid) Act of Canada, 1943, to the National Government of the Republic of China such war supplies as the Government of Canada shall authorize from time to time to be provided.

Article II.—The National Government of the Republic of China will continue to contribute to the defence of Canada and the strengthening thereof and will provide such articles, services, facilities or information as it may be in a position to supply and as may from time to time be determined by common agreement in the light of the development of the war.

Article III.—The National Government of the Republic of China will, in support of any applications to the Government of Canada for

the provision of war supplies under this agreement, furnish the Government of Canada with such relevant information as the Government of Canada may require for the purpose of deciding upon the applications and for executing the purposes of this agreement.

Article IV.—The National Government of the Republic of China agrees to use any war supplies delivered to it under this agreement in the joint and effective prosecution of the war.

Article V.—The National Government of the Republic of China will not without the consent of the Government of Canada sell to any other Government or to persons in other countries war supplies delivered to it under this agreement.

Article VI.—The Government of Canada will not require the National Government of the Republic of China to re-deliver to the Government of Canada any war supplies delivered under this agreement except as specifically provided in Articles VII and VIII and subject to any special agreement which may be concluded in the circumstances contemplated in Article IX.

Article VII.—Title to any cargo ships delivered under this agreement will remain with the Government of Canada and the ships shall be chartered to the National Government of the Republic of China on term providing for their re-delivery.

Article VIII.—Upon the cessation of hostilities in any major theatre of war, any war supplies which have been transferred to the National Government of the Republic

of China under this agreement and are still in Canada or in ocean transit shall revert to Canadian ownership, except those supplies destined for a theatre of war in which hostilities have not ceased or supplies made available for relief purposes or such other supplies as the Government of Canada may specify.

Article IX.—The Government of Canada reserves the right to request:

a. the delivery, after the cessation of hostilities in any theatre of war, for relief and rehabilitation purposes, to another United Nation or to an international organization, of automotive equipment supplied under this agreement;

b. the transfer to Canadian forces serving outside Canada after the cessation of hostilities of vehicles, aircraft, ordnance or military equipment supplied under this agreement to the National Government of the Republic of China if such war supplies are required for the use of such Canadian forces and are not required by the National Government of the Republic of China for military operations; and

c. the return to Canada after the war, if required in Canada for Canadian purposes, of aircraft and automotive equipment supplied under this agreement which may still be serviceable, due regard being had to the degree of wastage likely to have been suffered by these articles, provided that when the identity of such Canadian equipment has been lost as a result of pooling

arrangements or for other reasons, the National Government of the Republic of China may substitute equipment of a similar type.

The National Government of the Republic of China agrees to use its best endeavours to meet any such requests on such reasonable terms and conditions as shall be settled in consultation with the Government of Canada.

Article X.—The Governments of China and Canada re-affirm their desire to promote mutually advantageous economic relations between their countries and throughout the world. They declare that their guiding purposes include the adoption of measures designed to promote employment, the production and consumption of goods, and the expansion of commerce through appropriate international agreements on commercial policy, with the object of contributing to the attainment of all the economic objectives set forth in the Declaration of August 14, 1941, known as the Atlantic Charter.

Article XI.—The agreement will take effect as from this day's date. It shall apply to war supplies furnished to the National Government of the Republic of China by the Government of Canada under the authority of the War Appropriation (United Nations Mutual Aid) Act of Canada, 1943, or substituted Act, including supplies furnished under the said Act before the conclusion of this agreement. It shall continue in force until a date to be agreed upon by the two Governments.

Dated at Ottawa, this 22nd day

of March, nineteen hundred and forty-four.

Signed for and on behalf of the National Government of the Republic of China

Liu Shih Shun

Signed for and on behalf of the Government of Canada

W. L. Mackenzie King
C. D. Howe

CONCLUSION OF TREATY OF AMITY

Following the conclusion of the Treaty of Amity between China and United States and between China and Great Britain, a Sino-Canadian Treaty of Amity was signed in Ottawa on April 14, 1944 with Dr. Liu Shih Shun, Chinese Ambassador to Canada representing the Chinese Government and Mr. Mackenzie King, Prime Minister of Canada, representing the Canadian Government. The full text of the Treaty is as follows:

SINO-CANADIAN TREATY

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, in respect of Canada;

Desiring to promote a spirit of friendship in the general relations between China and Canada, and for this purpose to adjust certain matters in the relations of the two countries;

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 Dr. Liu Shih Shun, Ambassador Extra-ordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of China to Canada; and

His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, for Canada;

The Right Honorable W. L. Mackenzie King, Prime Minister, President of the Privy Council and Secretary of State for External Affairs of Canada;

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed on the following Articles:

Article I.—In the present Treaty the expression "companies" shall be interpreted as meaning limited liability and other companies, partnerships and associations constituted under the laws of the Republic of China or of Canada as the case may be.

Article II.—All provisions of treaties or agreements in force between China and Canada, which authorize any Canadian or British authority to exercise jurisdiction in China over Canadian nationals or companies are hereby abrogated. Canadian nationals and companies shall be subject in China to the jurisdiction of the Government of the Republic of China, in accordance with the principles of international law and practice.

Article III.—The Government of Canada will cooperate, to the extent that any Canadian interest may be involved, with the Government of the Republic of China in negotiations and arrangements for the abandonment by foreign governments of special privileges held by them in Peiping, Shanghai, Amoy, Tientsin and Canton, and

will raise no objection to any measures which may be directed to the abolition of such special privileges.

Article IV.—(1) Article II of the present Treaty shall not affect existing rights in respect of, or existing titles to, real property in China held by Canadian nationals or companies. Such existing rights and titles shall be indefeasible except upon proof, established through the process of law, that such rights or titles have been acquired by fraud or by fraudulent or dishonest practices, 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 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 defence 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. And it is further agreed that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights and titles to real property referred to in this Article will be applied by the Chinese authorities in an equitable manner and that if, and when, the Government of the Republic of China declines to give assent to a proposed transfer, the Government of the Republic of China will, in a spirit of justice and with a view to precluding loss on the part of the nationals or companies whose interests are affected, undertake, if so requested

by the nationals or companies to whom permission to alienate has been refused, to take over the rights and titles in question and to pay adequate compensation thereof.

(2) Should the Government of the Republic of China desire to replace by new and appropriate deeds existing documentary evidence relating to real property held by Canadian nationals or companies, the new deeds shall fully protect the prior rights and interests of the Canadian nationals or companies, and their legal heirs, successors or assigns.

(3) Canadian nationals or companies shall not be required 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 day of coming into force of the present Treaty.

Article V.—The Government of Canada having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within the territory of Canada 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 Canadian nationals within the territory of the Republic of China. Each of the two Governments will endeavour to accord in territory under its jurisdiction to nationals and companies of the other country in regard to all legal proceedings and in matters relating to the administration of justice, and to the levying of taxes or requirements in connection therewith, treatment not less favorable than that accorded to its own nationals and companies.

Article VI.—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 other High Contracting Party as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to interview, to communicate with, and to advise nationals or companies 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 waiting trial in their consular districts and they shall, upon ratification to the appropriate authorities, be permitted to visit any such nationals, and, in general, the consular officers of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territory of the other shall be accorded the rights, privileges and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

It is likewise agreed that the nationals or companies of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territory of the other 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 of the High Contracting Parties who are under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in the territory of the other High Contracting Party shall be forwarded to such consular officers by the local authorities.

Article VII.—(1) The High Contracting Parties agree that they will enter into negotiations for the conclusion of a comprehensive modern treaty or treaties of friend-

ship, 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 Governments has 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 Canadian Government or of Canadian nationals or companies should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present Treaty and annexed exchange of notes or by the provisions of the existing treaties, conventions and agreements between the Governments of the Republic of China and Canada which are not abrogated by or inconsistent with the present Treaty and annexed exchange of notes, such questions shall be discussed by representatives of the two Governments and shall be decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

Article VIII.—The High Contracting Parties agree that questions which may affect the sovereignty of the Republic of China and which are not covered by the present Treaty and annexed exchange of notes shall be discussed

by representatives of the High Contracting Parties and decided in accordance with generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

Article IX.—The present Treaty shall be ratified and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged at Chungking as soon as possible. The present Treaty shall come into force and be effective 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 Ottawa this fourteenth day of the fourth month of the thirty-third year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the fourteenth day of April, 1944, in duplicate in Chinese and English, both texts being equally authentic.

(L.S.) LIU SHIH SHUN

(L.S.) W. L. MACKENZIE KING

EXCHANGE OF NOTES

*Note from Dr. Liu Shih Shun to
Mr. W. L. MacKenzie King*

April 14, 1944.

SIR,

In connection with 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 Canada, I have the honour to state that it is the understanding of the National Government of the Republic of China that all the rights and privileges relinquished by His Majesty the King, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and

Northern Ireland and India, as provided in the Treaty and exchange of notes of January 11, 1943, between the Republic of China on the one hand and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India on the other, have been similarly relinquished by His Majesty the King for Canada. This understanding, if confirmed by your Government, shall be considered as forming an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered to be effective upon the date of the entry into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if you would confirm the above understanding on behalf of the Government of Canada.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Sir, the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) LIU SHIH SHUN

*Note from Mr. W. L. MacKenzie
King to Dr. Liu Shih Sun*

April 14, 1944.

EXCELLENCY,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of today's date reading as follows:

In connection with 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 Canada, I have the honour to state that it is the understanding of the National Government of the Republic of China that all the rights and privileges relinquishes by His

Majesty the King, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, as provided in the Treaty and exchange of notes of January 11, 1943, between the Republic of China on the one hand and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India on the other, have been similarly relinquished by His Majesty the King for Canada. This understanding, if confirmed by your Government, shall be considered as forming an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered to be effective upon the date of the entry into force of that Treaty. I should be glad if you would confirm the above understanding on behalf of the Government of Canada.

I have the honour on behalf of the Government of Canada to confirm the understanding of the National Government of the Republic of China that all rights and privileges relinquished by His Majesty the King, for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India, as provided in the Treaty and exchange of notes of January 11, 1943, between the Republic of China on the one hand and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and India on the other, have been similarly relinquished by His Majesty the King for Canada.

This understanding shall be considered as forming an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered to be effective upon the date of the entry into force of that Treaty.

Accept, Excellency, the renewed assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) W. L. MACKENZIE KING

The following is an official statement issued on April 14 by the Canadian Government on the occasion of the conclusion of the Treaty:

Mr. Mackenzie King announced in Ottawa today that Canada and China had concluded a treaty for the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights and other special privileges which under treaty provisions, Canada, together with other nations, hitherto had exercised.

The treaty was signed on behalf of Canada by Mr. King and on behalf of China by Dr. Lih Shih Shun.

The treaty is similar in its terms to the British treaty abolishing extraterritorial rights concluded on behalf of the United Kingdom, Northern Ireland and India on January 11, 1943 and the U.S. treaty with China signed on the same day.

Upon coming into force of the treaty, all international agreements which authorize any British or Canadian authority to exercise jurisdiction in China over Canadian nationals are abrogated.

The relinquishment of extraterritorial rights does not affect the existing rights of Canadian nationals with regard to their real property in China. It is agreed that Canadian property in China will be subject to Chinese laws concerning taxation and national defence.

Canadian nationals are accorded the right to travel, re-

side and carry on trade in China. Each country is to endeavor to accord nationals of the other treatment not less favorably than that enjoyed by its own national regarding legal proceeding justice administration and levying taxes.

Consular officers of each country may reside in such places as are agreed on.

The treaty provides that not later than six months after cessation of hostilities, the two governments will enter into a comprehensive and modern treaty of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights. Meanwhile, questions affecting Canadian nationals' rights in China and the sovereignty of the Chinese Republic which are not covered by the treaty will be decided in accordance with international law.

The exchange of ratifications of the Treaty took place on April 3, 1945 at Chungking. Dr. T. V. Soong, then Acting President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs represented the Chinese Government, and Ambassador Victor Odum represented the Canadian Government. The Treaty became effective immediately upon the exchange of ratification.

AUSTRALIA

Sir Frederick Eggleston, first Australian Minister to China, left China for Australia on March 2, 1944. The following statement was issued by the Australian Minister prior to his departure:

I am returning to Australia on furlough and for consultation with my government. I

hope to be back in China again by the autumn of this year.

When I first came to Chungking in 1941, China had then been fighting for four years at a great disadvantage against the better equipped Japanese forces. Now China and Australia are full and active allies in the fight against aggression and I feel confident that victory is certain, although the task before us is immense. It will still require a great deal of sacrifice from the fighting men and civilians of all the allied nations.

My stay in China has been a most enjoyable one and I feel that it has enriched me with experiences to which I shall look back with happy memories. During my stay of two and half years I have met many eminent Chinese statesmen, scholars and soldiers. I am grateful for their unfailing kindness and hospitality. I have the greatest admiration for the great work that many of them are doing for China, and for the allied cause. The people of China have had to endure much. In the front line, in the bombed cities their sufferings have been acute. They have borne in full measure the privations which wartime bring. I feel now that a cooperative effort will soon bring these sufferings to an end, and that by a continuance of this cooperation China will enter a new period of reconstruction and prosperity.

In spite of the difficulties of transportation in wartime China, I have been fortunate enough to have seen a few places in your

country. In Chengtu, Shapingpa and Kunming I was greatly impressed with the cultural institutions which I saw. I was also impressed with the engineering feat of the irrigation system at Kuanhsien. I enjoyed the excellent climate and beautiful scenery in Kunming, and during my trip to Kweilin and Kiyang (in Hunan) I saw many signs of the industry of Chinese farmers and of the vast extent of fertile lands.

When I came to Chungking I brought with me seeds of Australian trees and I have given some of the seedlings to the school of Forestry and to one of your universities. I have been told that these trees are flourishing, and I hope that they will be symbolical of the friendly relations existing between our two countries.

I am taking back with me some paintings and scrolls, the works of some of your best artists—and I hope that they will increase the interest of the Australian people in Chinese art and culture.

I wish to take this opportunity of saying goodbye to my many friends and to thank them for their many kindnesses to me during my stay in China.

As Sir Frederick Eggleston was transferred to the United States to become Australian Minister there, the Australian Government appointed in November 1945 Dr. Douglas Berry Copland, C.M.G., as Australian Minister to China to succeed him. Dr. Copland has been Prices Commissioner for the Commonwealth since the outbreak

of war in 1939 and Economic Consultant to the Australian Prime Minister. Dr. Copland has been Professor of Commerce at the Melbourne University since 1942 and is generally regarded as Australia's leading authority in economics.

NEW ZEALAND

In a resolution on December 13, 1944 by the General Assembly of New Zealand, discriminatory clauses in the Immigration Law of New Zealand imposed upon Chinese seeking entry into the country were abolished. Such discriminations included the payment by Chinese immigrants of an entry tax of £100 per capita.

INDIA

With a view to returning the visit of the Chinese Agricultural Mission to India in the later part of 1943, the Indian Government organized an Indian Agricultural Mission to China. The Mission which was composed of three members, namely Dr. Bttal of New Delhi, Dr. Sardar Saheb Karkar Singh of Punjab and Mr. B. Sircar of Bengal, came to China in April, 1944. During their stay of two months in China, they held meetings with the various competent government authorities and toured Chengtu, Tzekiang, Niushan, Kweilin, Liuchow and Kunming.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

The Appointment of a New Soviet Ambassador:—Mr. A. S. Paniushkin, former Soviet Ambassador to China left for Soviet Russia on May 15, 1944 to recuperate his health after several

months of illness. The Soviet Government appointed Mr. A. A. Petrov to succeed M. Paniushkin as Soviet Ambassador to China. Ambassador Petrov arrived in Chungking on April 30, 1945 and presented his Letter of Credence to President Chiang Kai-shek on May 8, 1945.

Conclusion of Treaty of Friendship and Alliance:—The Treaty of Friendship and Alliance concluded between China and the Soviet Union was signed in Moscow on August 14, 1945 by Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs Dr. Wang Shih-chieh and Soviet Foreign Commissar M. V. M. Molotov, representing their respective Governments. The Treaty together with the related agreements, protocols, exchanges, was ratified accordingly by the two Governments on August 25, 1945. The exchange of ratifications took place in Chungking on December 5, 1945.

Negotiations for the conclusion of this Treaty began when Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan, accompanied by Dr. Victor Ho, then Administrative Minister of Foreign Affairs, and fourteen other government officials, arrived in Moscow on June 30, 1945.

The first phase of the negotiations lasted for two weeks and on July 14, 1945 a joint communique was issued in Moscow. The communique reads:

For the past few days negotiations took place in Moscow between Generalissimo Joseph Stalin, Chairman of the People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. and M. Molotov, Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R.,

on the one hand, and Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China on the other.

The following took part in the negotiations: For the Soviet Union, M. Lozovski, Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs. For China, Dr. Fu Ping-sheung, Chinese Ambassador to the U.S.S.R., and Mr. Chiang Ching-kuo.

The negotiations had the purpose of improving Soviet-Chinese relations and consequently the important questions of interest to both parties were discussed.

The conversations proceeded in a friendly atmosphere and revealed a large measure of mutual understanding.

The negotiations were interrupted owing to the departure of Generalissimo Stalin and M. Molotov for the conference of the leaders of three powers. Dr. T. V. Soong went to Chungking for some time. Negotiations will be continued in the near future.

After the conclusion of the Three-Power Conference on August 1, 1945, Dr. T. V. Soong accompanied by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, the newly appointed Foreign Minister, again visited Moscow on August 7. Negotiations between China and the Soviet Union resumed. The second phase of the negotiations which lasted for a week resulted in the successful conclusion of the Chinese-Soviet talks and the signing of a treaty of friendship and alliance. The following communique was issued on August 15.

After the return of Generalissimo Joseph Stalin from the Berlin Conference, Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan of the Chinese Government, accompanied by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, arrived in Moscow and renewed talks with Generalissimo Stalin and M. Molotov, Soviet Foreign Commissar, on problem concerning Chinese-Soviet relations.

On August 14 a treaty of friendship and alliance between the Soviet Union and the Chinese Republic was concluded and they reached full agreement on all other problems which are of common interest. The treaty and other agreements will be made public in the nearest future as soon as they are ratified by the Soviet Union and the Chinese Republic.

The Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the U.S.S.R. and the related agreements, protocols, exchange of notes and initiated minutes, which were signed in Moscow on August 14, 1945 were submitted to and passed by a joint conference session of the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and the Supreme National Defense Council; and subsequently they were submitted to and passed by the Legislative Yuan on August 24, 1945. Ratification by the National Government occurred the following day. The exchange of ratifications took place in Chungking on December 5, 1945, after which the Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued on December 6, 1945 the following statement;

On December 5, 1945, instruments of ratification of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance and the Sino-Soviet Agreements concerning Changchun Railway, Port Arthur and Dairen were exchanged in Chungking by His Excellency Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of the Republic of China, and His Excellency M. Apollon A. Petrov, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the U.S.S.R. to China.

The said Treaty and Agreement were signed in Moscow on August 14, 1945, and ratified by the National Government of the Republic of China and the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. on August 25, 1945.

The English versions of the Treaty and the related documents are as follows:

TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP AND
ALLIANCE BETWEEN
THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA
AND
UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST
REPUBLICS

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China, and the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Desirous of strengthening friendly relations that have always existed between China and the U.S.S.R. through an alliance and good neighborly post-war collaboration,

Determined to assist each other in the struggle against aggression on the part of enemies of the United Nations in this world war, and to collaborate in the common

war against Japan until her unconditional surrender.

Expressing their unswerving aspiration to cooperate in the cause of maintaining peace and security for the benefit of the peoples of both countries and of all the peace-loving nations,

Acting upon the principles enunciated in the joint declaration of the United Nations of January 1, 1942, in the Four Power Declaration signed in Moscow on October 30, 1943, and in the Charter of the International Organization of the United Nations,

Have decided to conclude the present Treaty to this effect and appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China.

His Excellency Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

His Excellency M. V. M. Molotov, the People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R.

Who, after exchanging their Full Powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

Article I.—The High Contracting Parties undertake in association with the other United Nations to wage war against Japan until final victory is won. The High Contracting Parties undertake mutually to render to one another all necessary military and other assistance and support in this war.

Article II.—The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into separate negotiations with

Japan and not to conclude, without mutual consent, any armistice or peace treaty either with the present Japanese Government or with any other government or authority set up in Japan which do not renounce all aggressive intentions.

Article III.—The High Contracting Parties undertake after the termination of the war against Japan to take jointly all measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Japan.

In the event of one of the High Contracting Parties becoming involved in hostilities with Japan in consequence of an attack by the latter against the said Contracting Party, the other High Contracting Party shall at once give to the Contracting Party so involved in hostilities all the military and other support and assistance with the means in its power.

This article shall remain in force until such time as the organization "The United Nations" may on request of the two High Contracting Parties be charged with the responsibility for preventing further aggression by Japan.

Article IV.—The High Contracting Party undertakes not to conclude any alliance and not to take any part in any coalition directed against the other High Contracting Party.

Article V.—The High Contracting Parties, having regard to the interests of the security and economic developments of each of them, agree to work together in close and friendly collaboration after the coming of peace and to act according to the principles of mutual respect for their sovereignty and territorial integrity and

of non-interference in the internal affairs of the other Contracting Party.

Article VI.—The High Contracting Parties agree to render each other every possible economic assistance in the post-war period with a view to facilitating and accelerating reconstruction in both countries and to contributing to the cause of world prosperity.

Article VII.—Nothing in this Treaty shall be so construed as may affect the rights or obligations of the High Contracting Parties as members of the organization "The United Nations."

Article VIII.—The present Treaty shall be ratified in the shortest possible time. The exchange of the instruments of ratification shall take place as soon as possible in Chungking.

The Treaty comes into force immediately upon its ratification and shall remain in force for a term of thirty years.

If neither of the High Contracting Parties has given notice, a year before the expiration of the term, of its desire to terminate the Treaty, it shall remain valid for an unlimited time, each of the High Contracting Parties being able to terminate its operation by giving notice to that effect one year in advance.

In faith whereof the Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and affixed their seals to it.

Done in Moscow the Fourteenth August, 1945, corresponding to the Fourteenth day of the Eighth month of the Thirtieth-fourth year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each one in the Russian and Chinese languages, both texts being equally authoritative.

The Plenipotentiary of the president of the National Government of the Republic of China.

(Signed) WANG SHIH-CHIEH

The Plenipotentiary of the President the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

(Signed) V. MOLOTOV

Exchange Of Notes

Note from M. Molotov, Soviet Commissar of Foreign Affairs to Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs.

August 14, 1945.

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

With reference to the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance signed today between the Republic of China and the U.S.S.R., I have the honor to put on record the understanding between the High Contracting Parties as follows:

1. In accordance with the spirit of the above-mentioned Treaty, and in order to put into effect its aims and purposes, the Government of the U.S.S.R. agrees to render to China moral support and aid in military supplies and other material resources, such support and aid to be entirely given to the National Government as the Central Government of China.

2. In the course of conversations regarding Dairen and Port Arthur and regarding the joint operation of the Chinese Changchun Railway, the Government of the U.S.S.R. regarded the Three Eastern Provinces as part of China and reaffirmed its respect for China's full sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognize their territorial and administrative integrity.

3. As for the recent developments in Sinkiang the Soviet Government confirms that, as stated in

Article V of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, it has no intention of interfering in the internal affairs of China.

If Your Excellency will be so good as to confirm that understanding is correct as set forth in the preceding paragraphs, the present note and Your Excellency's reply thereto will constitute a part of the aforementioned Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

I take this opportunity to offer Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. MOLOTOV

Reply Note from Dr. Wang Shih-chieh to M. Molotov.

August 14, 1945.

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date reading as follows:

With reference to the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance signed today between the Republic of China and the U.S.S.R., I have the honor to put on record the understanding between the High Contracting Parties as follows:

1. In accordance with the spirit of the aforementioned Treaty, and in order to put into effect its aims and purposes, the Government of the U.S.S.R. agrees to render to China moral support and aid in military supplies and other material resources, such support and aid to be entirely given to the National Government as the Central Government of China.

2. In the course of conversations regarding Dairen and Port Arthur and regarding the joint operation of the Chinese Changchun Railway, the Government

of the U.S.S.R. regarded the Three Eastern Provinces as part of China and reaffirmed its respect for China's full sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognize their territorial and administrative integrity.

3. As for the recent developments in Sinkiang the Soviet Government confirms that, as stated in Article V of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, it has no intention of interfering in the internal affairs of China.

If Your Excellency will be so good as to confirm that the understanding is correct as set forth in the preceding paragraphs, the present Note and Your Excellency's reply thereto will constitute a part of the aforementioned Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

I have the honor to confirm that the understanding is correct as set forth above.

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) WANG SHIH-CHIEH

Note on Outer Mongolia from

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh to

M. Molotov.

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

In view of the desire repeatedly expressed by the people of Outer Mongolia for their independence, the Chinese Government declares that after the defeat of Japan should a plebiscite of the Outer Mongolian people confirm this desire, the Chinese Government will recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia with the existing boundary as its boundary.

The above declaration will become binding upon the ratification of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the Republic of China and the U.S.S.R. signed on August 14, 1945.

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) WANG SHIH-CHIEH

Reply Note on Outer Mongolia

from M. Molotov to

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note reading as follows:

In view of the desire repeatedly expressed by the people of Outer Mongolia for their independence, the Chinese Government declares that after the defeat of Japan should a plebiscite of the Outer Mongolian people confirm this desire, the Chinese Government will recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia with the existing boundary as its boundary.

The above declaration will become binding upon the ratification of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the Republic of China and the U.S.S.R. signed on August 14, 1945.

The Soviet Government has duly taken note of the above communication of the Government of the Chinese Republic and hereby expresses its satisfaction therewith, and it further states that the Soviet Government will respect the political independence and territorial integrity of the People's

Republic of Mongolia (Outer Mongolia).

I avail myself of this opportunity to offer to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) V. MOLOTOV

Agreement Between the Republic of China and the U.S.S.R. Concerning the Chinese Changchun Railway

The President of the Republic of China and the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. desiring to strengthen the friendly relations and economic bonds between the two countries on the basis of the full observation of the rights and interests of each other, have agreed as follows:

Article I:—After the Japanese armed forces are driven out of the Three Eastern Provinces of China the main trunk line of the Chinese Eastern Railway and the South Manchurian Railway from Manchuli to Suifenho and from Harbin to Dairen and Port Arthur united into one railway under the name of "Chinese Changchun Railway" shall be in joint ownership of the U.S.S.R. and the Republic of China and shall be operated by them jointly.

There shall be joint ownership and operation only of those lands acquired and railway auxiliary lines built by the Chinese Eastern Railway during the time of Russian and joint Sino-Soviet administration and by the South Manchurian Railway during the time of Russian administration and which are designed for direct needs of these railways as well as the subsidiary enterprises built during the said periods and dir-

ectly serving these railways. All the other railway branches, and subsidiary enterprises and lands shall be in the complete ownership of the Chinese Government.

The joint operation of the aforementioned railway shall be undertaken by a single management under Chinese sovereignty and as a purely commercial transportation enterprise.

Article II:—The High Contracting Parties agree that their joint ownership of the railway shall be in equal shares and shall not be alienable in whole or in part.

Article III:—The High Contracting Parties agree that for the joint operation of the said Railway the Sino-Soviet Company of the Chinese Changchun Railway shall be formed; and that the Company shall have a Board of Directors to be composed of ten members of whom five shall be appointed by the Chinese Government and five by the Soviet Government. The Board of Directors shall be in Changchun.

Article IV:—The Chinese Government shall appoint one of the Chinese Directors as President of the Board of Directors and one as the Assistant President. The Soviet Government shall appoint one of the Soviet Directors as Vice-President of the Board of Directors, and one as the Assistant Vice-President. Seven persons shall constitute a quorum. When questions are decided by the Board, the vote of the President of the Board of Directors shall be counted as two votes.

Questions on which the Board of Directors cannot reach an agreement shall be submitted to the Governments of the Contracting

Parties for consideration and settlement in an equitable and friendly spirit.

Article V:—The Company shall establish a Board of Auditors which shall be composed of six members of whom three are appointed by the Chinese Government and three appointed by the Soviet Government. The Chairman of the Board of Auditors shall be elected from among the Soviet Auditors, and Vice-Chairman from among the Chinese Auditors. When questions are decided by the Board the vote of the Chairman shall be counted as two votes. Five persons shall constitute a quorum.

Article VI:—For the administration of current affairs the Board of Directors shall appoint a manager of the Chinese Changchun Railway from among Soviet citizens and one assistant manager from among Chinese citizens.

Article VII:—The Board of Auditors shall appoint a General-Comptroller from among Chinese citizens, and an assistant General-Comptroller from among Soviet citizens.

Article VIII:—The Chiefs and Assistant Chiefs of the various departments, Chiefs of sections, station masters of important stations of the railway shall be appointed by the Board of Directors. The Manager of the Railway has right to recommend candidates for the above-mentioned posts. Individual members of the Board of Directors may also recommend such candidates in agreement with the Manager. If the Chief of a department is a national of China, the Assistant Chief shall be a national of the Soviet Union, and vice versa. The appointment of

the Chiefs and assistant Chiefs of departments and Chiefs of sections and station masters shall be made in accordance with the principle of equal representation between the nationals of China and nationals of the Soviet Union.

Article IX:—The Chinese Government will bear the responsibility for the protection of the said Railway.

The Chinese Government will also organize and supervise the railway guards who shall protect the railway buildings, installations and other properties and freight from destruction, loss and robbery, and shall maintain the normal order on the railway. As regards the duties of the police in execution of this Article, they will be determined by the Chinese Government in consultation with the Soviet Government.

Article X:—Only during the time of war against Japan the railway may be used for the transportation of Soviet troops. The Soviet Government has the right to transport by the above-mentioned railway for transit purpose military goods in sealed cars without customs inspection. The guarding of such military goods shall be undertaken by the railroad police and the Soviet Union shall not send any armed escort.

Article XI:—Goods for through transit and transported by the Chinese Changchun Railway from Manchuli to Suifenhö or vice versa and also from Soviet territory to the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur or vice versa shall be free from Chinese Customs duties or any other taxes and dues, but on entering Chinese territory such goods shall be subject to

Chinese Customs inspection and verification.

Article XII:—The Chinese Government will ensure, on the basis of a separate agreement, that the supply of coal for the operation of the railway will be fully secured.

Article XIII:—The railway shall pay taxes to the Government of the Republic of China the same as are paid by the Chinese state railways.

Article XIV:—Both Contracting Parties agree to provide the Board of Directors of the Chinese Changchun Railway with working capital the amount of which will be determined by the Statutes of the Railway.

Profits and losses in exploitation of the Railway shall be equally divided between the Parties.

Article XV:—For the working out in Chungking of the Statutes of joint operation of the Railway the High Contracting Parties undertake within one month of the signing of the present Agreement, to appoint their representatives three representatives from each Party. The Statutes shall be worked out within two months and reported to the Governments for their approval.

Article XVI:—The determination, in accordance with the provisions in Article I, of the properties to be included in the joint ownership and operation of the Railway by China and U.S.S.R. shall be made by a Commission to be composed of three representatives each of the two Governments. The Commission shall be constituted in Chungking within one month after the signing of the present Agree-

ment and shall terminate its work within three months after the joint operation of the Railway shall have begun.

The decisions of the Commission shall be reported to the two Governments for their approval.

Article XVII:—The term of this present Agreement shall be thirty years. After the expiration of the term of the present Agreement, the Chinese Changchun Railway with all its properties shall be transferred without compensation to the ownership of the Republic of China.

Article XVIII:—The present Agreement shall come into force from the date of its ratification.

Done in Moscow, August 14, 1945, corresponding to the 14th day of the 8th month of the 34th year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each in the Russian and Chinese languages, both texts being equally authoritative.

The Plenipotentiary of the President of the National Government of the Republic of China.

(Signed) WANG SHIH-CHIEH

The Plenipotentiary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

(Signed) V. MOLOTOV.

Agreement Concerning Dairen

In view of a Treaty of Friendship and Alliance having been concluded between the Republic of China and the U S S R and of the pledge by the latter that it will respect Chinese sovereignty in the control of all of Manchuria as an integral part of China; and with the object of ensuring that the U.S.S.R.'s interest in Dairen as a port of entry and exit for its

goods shall be safeguarded, the Republic of China agrees:

1. To declare Dairen a free port open to the commerce and shipping of all nations.

2. The Chinese Government agrees to apportion in the mentioned port for lease to U.S.S.R. wharves and warehouses on the basis of separate agreement.

3. The Administration in Dairen shall belong to China. The harbor-master and deputy harbor-master will be appointed by the Chinese Changchun Railway and in agreement with the Mayor. The harbor-master shall be a Chinese national.

4. In peace time Dairen is not included in the sphere of efficacy of the naval base regulations, determined by the Agreement on Port Arthur of August 14, 1945, and shall be subject to the military supervision or control established in this zone only in case of war against Japan.

5. Goods entering the free port abroad for through transit to Soviet territory on the Chinese Changchun Railway and goods coming from Soviet territory on the said railway into the free port for export shall be free from customs duties. Such goods shall be transported in sealed cars.

Goods entering China from the free port shall pay the Chinese import duties, and goods going out of other parts of China into the free port shall pay the Chinese export duties as long as they continue to be collected.

6. The term of this Agreement shall be thirty years.

7. The Agreement shall come into force upon its ratification.

In faith whereof the Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and affixed their seals to it.

Done in Moscow, the Fourteenth August, 1945, corresponding to the Fourteenth day of the Eighth month of the Thirty-fourth year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each one in the Russian and Chinese languages, both text being fully authoritative.

The Plenipotentiary of the President of the National Government of the Republic of China.

(Signed) WANG, SHIH-CHIEH.

The Plenipotentiary of the Presidium the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

(Signed) V. MOLOTOV

Protocol to The Agreement on Dairen

1. At the request of the U.S.S.R. the Chinese Government leases to the U.S.S.R. free of charge one half of all port installations and equipment. The term of lease shall be thirty years. The remaining half of port installations and equipment shall be reserved for the use of China.

The expansion or reequipment of the port shall be made by agreement between China and U.S.S.R.

2. It is agreed that the sections of the Chinese Changchun Railway running from Dairen to Mukden that lie within the region of the Port Arthur naval base, shall not be subject to any military supervision or control established in this region.

The Plenipotentiary of the President of the National Government of the Republic of China.

The Plenipotentiary of the Presidium the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

Agreement on Port Arthur

In conformity with aid for the implementation of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the Republic of China and the U.S.S.R. the High Contracting Parties have agreed as follows:

Article I:—With a view to strengthening the security of China and the U.S.S.R. against further aggression by Japan, the Government of the Republic of China agrees to the joint use by the two countries of Port Arthur as a naval base.

Article II:—The precise boundary of the area provided in Article I is described in the Annex and shown in the map (Annex I).

Article III:—The High Contracting Parties agree that Port Arthur, as an exclusive naval base, will be used only by Chinese and Soviet military and commercial vessels.

There shall be established a Sino-Soviet Military Commission to handle the matters of joint use of the above-mentioned naval base. The Commission shall consist of two Chinese and three Soviet representatives. The Chairman of the Commission shall be appointed by the Soviet side and The Vice-Chairman shall be appointed by the Chinese side.

Article IV:—The Chinese Government entrusts to the Soviet Government the defence of the naval base. The Soviet Government may erect at its own expense such installations as are necessary for the defence of the naval base.

Article V:—The Civil Administration of the whole area will be Chinese. The leading posts of the Civil Administration will be appointed by the Chinese Govern-

ment taking into account Soviet interests in the area.

The leading posts of the civil administration in the city of Port Arthur are appointed and dismissed by the Chinese Government in agreement with Soviet military command.

The proposals which the Soviet military commander in that area may address to the Chinese civil administration in order to safeguard security and defence will be fulfilled by the said administration. In case of disagreement, such cases shall be submitted to the Sino-Soviet military commission for consideration and decision.

Article VI:—The Government of U.S.S.R. have the right to maintain in region mentioned in Article II, their army, navy and air force and to determine their location.

Article VII:—The Government of the U.S.S.R. also undertakes to establish and keep up lighthouses and other installations and signs necessary for the security of navigation of the area.

Article VIII:—After the termination of this agreement all the installations and public property installed or constructed by the U.S.S.R. in the area shall revert without compensation to the Chinese Government.

Article IX:—The present Agreement is concluded for thirty years. It comes into force on the day of its ratification.

In faith whereof the Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have signed the present Agreement and affixed thereto their seals. The present Agreement is made in two copies, each in the Russian and Chinese language both texts being equally authoritative.

Done in Moscow, August 14, 1945, corresponding to the 14th day of the 8th month of the 34th year of the Chinese Republic.

The Plenipotentiary of the President of the National Government of the Republic of China.

The Plenipotentiary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

Note: The English text of the Annex is at present not available.

Agreement Regarding Relations between the Chinese Administration and the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Forces after the Entry of Soviet Troops into The "Three Eastern Provinces" of China during the Present Joint Military Operations against Japan

The President of the National Government of China and the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Desirous that relations between the Chinese Administration and the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces after the entry of Soviet troops into the "Three Eastern Provinces" of China during the present joint military operations against Japan should be governed by the spirit of friendship and alliance existing between the two countries,

Have agreed on the following:

1. After the Soviet troops enter the "Three Eastern Provinces" of China as a result of military operations, the supreme authority and responsibility in all matters relating to the prosecution of the war will be vested, in the zone of operations for the time required for the operations, in the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces.

2. A Chinese National Government representative and staff will be appointed for the recovered territory, whose duties will be:

- (a) To establish and direct, in accordance with the laws of China, an administration for the territory cleared of the enemy.
- (b) To establish the cooperation between the Chinese armed forces, both regular and irregular, and the Soviet forces in recovered territory.
- (c) To ensure active cooperation of the Chinese administration with the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces and, specifically, to give the local authorities directions to this effect, being guided by the requirements and wishes of the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces.

3. To ensure contact between the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces and the Chinese National Government representative a Chinese military mission will be appointed to the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces.

4. In the zones under the supreme authority of the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces, the Chinese National Government administration for the recovered territory will maintain contact with the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces through the Chinese National Government representative.

5. As soon as any part of the liberated territory ceases to be a zone of immediate military operations, the Chinese National Government will assume full authority in the direction of public

affairs and will render the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces every assistance and support through its civil and military bodies.

6. All persons belonging to the Soviet forces on Chinese territory will be under the jurisdiction of the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces.

All Chinese, whether civilian or military, will be under Chinese jurisdiction. This jurisdiction will also extend to the civilian population on Chinese territory even in the case of offenses against the armed forces, with the exception of offenses committed in the zone of military operations under the jurisdiction of the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces, such cases coming under the jurisdiction of the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces. In disputable cases the question will be settled by mutual agreement between the Chinese National Government representative and the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet forces.

7. With regard to currency matters after the entry of Soviet troops into the "Three Eastern Provinces" of China, a separate agreement shall be reached.

8. The present Agreement comes into force immediately upon the ratification of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the U.S.S.R. signed this day. The Agreement has been done in two copies, each in the Chinese and Russian languages. Both texts are equally valid.

Done in Moscow August 14, 1945, corresponding to the Fourteenth day of the Eighth month of the Thirty-fourth year of the Chinese Republic.

On the Authorization of the National Government of the Republic of China.

On the Authorization of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Minutes

At the fifth meeting held on July 11, 1945, between Generalissimo Stalin and Dr. T. V. Soong, the question of the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Chinese territory after the participation by the U.S.S.R. in the war against Japan was discussed.

Generalissimo Stalin would not like to have a clause in the agreement governing the entry of Soviet troops into Manchuria which provides for the withdrawal of Soviet troops within three months after the defeat of Japan. However, he said that after the capitulation of Japan the Soviet troops would commence to withdraw within three weeks.

Dr. Soong asked how long it would take to complete the withdrawal. Generalissimo Stalin said he thought the withdrawal could be completed in not more than two months.

Dr. Soong further asked whether the withdrawal would be definitely completed within three months. Generalissimo Stalin stated three months would be the maximum for the completion of the withdrawal.

Moscow, August 14, 1945.

U.S.S.R.'s Entry Into War Against Japan:—The entry into war by the Soviet Union against Japan which took place on August 9, 1945 accelerated the unconditional surrender of the Japanese aggressors.

The following statement was issued on August 9, by the Chinese Government spokesman upon the Soviet Union's declaration of war against Japan:

"With the Soviet Union's declaration of war against Japan on August 9, the only gap left in the Asiatic Theatre in the last stages of the global war against aggression now ceases to exist. It goes without saying that this action of the Soviet Union will make the Japanese aggressors share the fate of their Axis partner—Hitlerite German—by bringing about their collapse at an early date, and thereby shorten the duration of the war and hasten the restoration of peace and order throughout the world.

"We have always been aware of the fact that the Japanese aggressors are the common enemies of civilized humanity and are especially a great menace to the security and peaceful reconstruction of the Chinese and Soviet nations. It has long been the firm conviction of the Chinese Government and people that the Japanese militarists were secretly planning for the establishment of their hegemony in East Asia and for the conquest of the whole world. Hence in July, 1937, when the Japanese invaders embarked upon their large-scale aggression against China, the entire Chinese army and people resolutely took up arms under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to resist the enemy single-handed regardless of the sacrifices it entailed, and in spite of their inferior equipment they have been able to fight the invaders to a standstill by waging a war of attrition and

annihilation and have thus helped to reduce the capacity of Japan to take aggressive actions in other directions. China's war of resistance, therefore, is a potent factor which has had a decisive influence on the development of the entire situation of the present worldwide anti-aggression struggle.

"During the initial stages of China's war of resistance to Japanese aggression a great deal of encouragement and assistance was extended to China by the Soviet Government and people, which was truly symbolic of the spirit of sharing each other's joys and sorrows displayed by the two nations in the war against aggression. Aside from the enormous credits extended to China by the Soviet Union in exchange for war materials, great contributions were made to China's war of resistance by the Soviet military advisers, technicians and volunteer airmen sent to this country to help China in her struggle with the enemy. This friendship which was forged at a time when China was in great difficulty is most precious and cherished by us.

"China and the Soviet Union are the two largest countries in Asia. They have the longest continuous boundary line and numerous special interests in common. If there is to be permanent security in East Asia, the close cooperation of China and the Soviet Union must be regarded as the first prerequisite. In the course of her resistance to Japanese aggression and her joint struggle with her American and British allies, China's consistent policy has always been to seek the friendship of the Soviet Union. When the Soviet Union was suffering from

the barbarous and ruthless attacks of Hitlerite Germany, the Chinese people had unbounded sympathy for the Soviet people. And for the brilliant successes achieved by the Soviet forces under the inspiring leadership of Generalissimo Stalin we have nothing but the profoundest admiration. The most cordial welcome accorded to Dr. T. V. Soong during his first visit to Moscow and the friendly attitude of Generalissimo Stalin and M. Molotov at the Sino-Soviet talks have been a source of deep gratification to us. Now at the very moment while Dr. Soong is paying his second visit to Moscow together with the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, the Soviet Union has already become our ally in the joint struggle with Japan. We strongly believe that this will not only lead to Japan's immediate collapse but will help to lay the foundation of a lasting peace in East Asia.

"In the statement announcing her declaration of war against Japan the Soviet Union formally declared her adherence to the demand for Japan's unconditional surrender issued by the heads of the Governments of China, the United States and Great Britain on July 26, 1945, in which there were explicit provisions for the treatment of Japan after the war and the effective implementation of the decisions of the Cairo Conference. This is most gratifying indeed as it clearly shows the unanimity of views and the spirit of perfect harmony existing among the chief Allied nations.

"As for Japan, she has long realized the impossibility of winning the war, and her only hope has been that dissensions might

arise among the Allied nations and thereby give her a breathing spell. Facts, however, have already proved that there can be no such possibility. Immediately following the experimental attack on Hiroshima with an atomic bomb by the American air force, the Soviet Union has announced her declaration of war against Japan, which cannot but have an overwhelming and crushing effect on the enemy. If there is still an iota of wisdom left in the Japanese people they ought to realize that the only way to avert Japan's utter destruction is to comply with the joint demand of China, the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union and unconditionally surrender to the Allied nations."

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

Recognition of the French Provisional Government:—The Chinese Government appointed on June 6 1944, Dr. Ch'ien Tai, former Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, China's delegate with ambassadorial rank to the French National Liberation Committee at Algiers. After the French National Liberation Committee was formally transformed into a Provisional Government in June 1944, the Chinese Government tended its formal recognition on October 24, 1944 with the appointment of Dr. Chien Tai on November 21, 1944 as China's Ambassador.

The French Government appointed General Z. Peckoff as French Ambassador to China, who presented his Letter of Credence to President Chiang Kai-shek on January 9 1945.

Pact of Rendition of Kwang-Chow-Wan:—A Sino-French convention on the rendition of the leased territory of Kwangchowwan was signed on August 18, 1945, at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with Dr. K. C. Wu, then Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, representing the Chinese Government and M. Jean Daridan, the French Charge d'Affaires, representing the French Government. The following is a translation of the convention:

The National Government of the Republic of China and the Provisional Government of the French Republic, in accordance with an exchange of letters on March 13 1945, providing for the settlement of pending questions between China and France in a spirit of amity which have so long existed between the two countries, have decided to conclude a convention and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China;

His Excellency Dr. Kuo-cheng Wu, Political Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China.

His Excellency the President of the Provisional Government of the French Republic;

Mr. Jean Daridan, Counsellor of the French Embassy and Charge d'Affaires,

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

Article I:—The Sino - French Convention of the 16th November

1899 is abrogated and the rights accorded to the French Government by this Convention are terminated.

Article II:—The French Government agrees that the leased territory of Kwang-Chow-Wan, as delimited by the Sino-French Convention of November 16, 1899 reverts to the Chinese administration and control with the understanding that the Chinese Government, in taking over this territory will assume its obligations and liabilities and assure the protection of all the legitimate rights therein.

Article III:—The French Government renounces gratuitously in favor of the Chinese Government all lands, buildings, public properties, installations and establishments situated on the territory and belonging to it. It will hand over to the Chinese Government all registered archives, title deeds and other documents which might be useful for the transfer and for the subsequent administration of the territory of Kwangchowwan.

Article IV:—1. To obviate any question as to the existing rights and titles to real property possessed by French companies and nationals in the territory of Kwangchowwan and any questions which might arise from the abrogation of the Sino-French Convention of the 16th November 1899, the Chinese Government and the French Government agree that the existing rights and titles will 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 dis-

honest practice 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 required. It is also agreed that the exercise of these rights or titles shall be subject to the laws and the regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national defence 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 French Government and the Chinese Government 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 titles or other documentary evidence relating to real property held by French nationals or companies, 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 titles 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 Chinese Government and the French Government also agree that the French companies and nationals shall not be required or asked by the Chinese authorities to make any payment of fees in connection with land transfers for or with relation to any period prior to the effective date of this convention.

Article V.—The Chinese Government agrees to lend free of charge to the French Government for a period of requisition, renewable by agreement of both parties the former residence of the Chief Administrator of the Territory of Kwangchowwan at Fort Bayard, with the lands and annexes belonging to it, as the seat of a French Consulate. If the French Government so requests; it being understood that in case the French Government does not invoke this provision within one year beginning from the conclusion of the present Convention, the Chinese Government will be free to take over permanently the land and buildings.

Article VI.—The provisions of the present convention will become effective immediately.

Article VII.—The present convention is drawn up in duplicate, in Chinese and French, both texts being equally authentic.

In witness whereof the above mentioned Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Chungking, the eighteenth day of the eight month of the Thirty-Fourth year of the Republic of China corresponding to the eighteenth day of August 1945.

ANNEX

At the moment of the signature of the Convention of today's date for the rendition of the Leased Territory of Kwangchowwan, the Plenipotentiaries have agreed on the sending to the spot, as soon as the territory is liberated, of a Sino-French Mixed Com-

mission composed of one member of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs and one member of the French Embassy in China charged with the mission to:

1. Assist local authorities in the settlement of urgent questions regarding the transfer of the administration.

2. Take the necessary measures so that the repatriation of French nationals, civil and military, may be assured of the best conditions.

Chungking, August 18, 1945

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH NORWAY AND SWEDEN NORWAY

Conclusion of New Treaty:—The Norwegian Government in a note forwarded by its Ambassador in London to the Chinese Embassy there in mid-October, 1942, expressed its readiness to conclude a new treaty to replace the one entered into between China and Norway in 1847, under which the Norwegian enjoyed extraterritoriality and related rights. As a result of negotiations between the two Governments, a new Treaty was signed at Chungking on November 10, 1943, with Dr. T. V. Soong, then Acting President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs, representing the Chinese Government and Mr. Alf Hassel, Norwegian Ambassador to China, representing the Norwegian Government. The text of the Treaty reads:

Sino-Norwegian Treaty

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Norway;

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, Dr. T. V. Soong, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China.

His Majesty the King of Norway:

His Excellency Monsieur Alf Hassel, His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the Republic of China;

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed as follows:—

Article I:—The expression "companies of the one (or of the other) High Contracting Party" shall for the purposes of the present Treaty be interpreted as meaning limited liability and other companies, partnerships and associations constituted under the law of that High Contracting Party.

Article II:—All those provisions of treaties or agreements in force between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Norway or his representatives to exercise jurisdiction over Norwegian nationals or companies in the territory of the Republic of China are hereby abrogated. The nationals and companies of His

Majesty the King of Norway 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 III:—(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 of Norway, or by the Norwegian Government, and in particular questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties and agreements provided for in Article II of the present Treaty, and the High Contracting Parties agree that such existing rights and 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.

(ii) 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 of Norway or by the Norwegian Government 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 alienations.

(iii) The High Contracting Parties agree further that nationals or companies of His Majesty the King of Norway or the Norwegian Government 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 IV:—His Majesty the King of Norway having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within the territory of Norway to travel, reside or carry on commerce throughout the whole extent of that territory, the Government of the Republic of China agree to accord similar rights to nationals of His Majesty the King of Norway within the territory of the Republic of China. Each High Contracting Party will endeavor to accord in his territory to nation-

als or companies of the other High Contracting Party in regard to all legal proceedings and in matters relating to the administration of justice, the levying of taxes and requirements in connection therewith treatment not less favorable than that accorded to his own nationals and companies.

Article V.—The consular officers of one High Contracting Party duly provided with exequaturs shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places or cities of the territory of the other High Contracting Party as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall have the rights within their districts in the territory of the other High Contracting Party to interview, communicate with and to advise the nationals and companies of the former High Contracting Party and nationals and companies of the one High Contracting Party shall have the right at all time to communicate with the consular officers of the former High Contracting Party. The consular officers of one High Contracting Party in the territory 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 territory 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 territory of the other High Contracting Party the rights, privileges and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

Article VI.—(i) 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 have respectively concluded with other Powers in recent years.

(ii) 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 of Norway, or of the Norwegian Government, should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present Treaty and Exchange of Notes or by the provisions of the 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 question 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 VII.—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 tenth day of the eleventh month of the thirty-second year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the tenth day of November of the year 1943, in Chinese, Norwegian and English each in duplicate, the English text being authentic.

(L.S.) TZE-VUNG SOONG

(L.S.) ALF HASSEL

Exchange Of Notes

*Note from the Chinese Minister
of Foreign Affairs to the
Norwegian Ambassador*

November 14, 1943

SIR,

During the negotiations for the Treaty signed today between His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Norway, 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 the Royal Norwegian Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) TZE-VUNG SOONG

His Excellency

M. Alf Hassel

His Majesty's Ambassador,
Chungking.

ANNEX

1. With reference to Article 2 and Article 6 (ii) of the Treaty it is understood that:

(a) His Majesty the King of Norway 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 of Norway actually agree that the merchant vessels of one High Contracting Party shall be permitted freely to come to ports, places and waters in the territory 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 favorable than that accorded to national vessels and

shall be as favorable 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 that High Contracting Party.

(b) His Majesty the King of Norway relinquishes all existing rights with regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territory of the Republic of China.

(c) His Majesty the King of Norway 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 Norwegian Government shall extend to each other in connection with the visits of warships of one High Contracting Party to the ports of the other High Contracting Party mutual courtesy in accordance with ordinary international usage.

(d) The courts of His Majesty the King of Norway which have hitherto been sitting in the territory of the Republic of China have been closed down in accordance with Article II of the Treaty signed this day, the orders, decrees, judgments and other acts of any of the Norwegian 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 the Norwegian courts in China at the time of the coming into effect of the Treaty shall, if the plaintiff or 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 Norwegian court would have applied.

(e) His Majesty the King of Norway 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 Norwegian nationals or companies which have been used for the purpose of these trades and which the owners may wish to dispose of and to pay adequate compensation therefore. Should one High Contracting Party accord in his territory the right of coasting trade or inland navigation to 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 vessels of the former High Contracting Party to engage in the coasting trade and inland navigation of his territory. Coasting trade and inland navigation are excepted from the requirements 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 territory of the other High Contracting Party with respect to coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favorable as that accorded to vessels of any third country subject to the above provision.

(f) His Majesty the King of Norway relinquishes His special rights, if any, in the diplomatic quarters at Peking and the International Settlement at Shanghai and Amoy.

2. With reference to the last sentence of Article III (i) of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China declares 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 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 of Norway whose interests are affected, undertake, if so requested by the Norwegian nationals or company 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 treaty ports will not affect existing property rights, and that the nationals of the each High Contracting Party will enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property throughout the territory 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 Norwegian Government and decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

*Note from the Norwegian
Ambassador to the Chinese
Minister of Foreign Affairs*

November 10, 1943

SIR,

I have the honor to acknowledge the 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 Norway, 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 the Royal Norwegian Government."

I have the honor on behalf of the Norwegian Government to confirm the understandings reached between us as recorded in the annex to Your Excellency's Note, which annex 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.

(Signed) ALF HASSEL

His Excellency
Dr. Tze-Vung Soong
Minister of Foreign Affairs
of the Republic of China
Chungking

Agreed Minute

With reference to paragraphy 1 (a) of the annex to the Note from the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs to the Norwegian Ambassador in connection 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.

SWEDEN

Appointment of new Swedish Minister:—Mr. Sven Allard, Swedish Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, arrived in Chungking in December, 1944, and presented his Letter of Credence to President Chiang Kai-shek on December 20, 1944.

Conclusion of New Equal Treaty:

—The negotiations for the conclusion of a new Treaty between China and Sweden were commenced in December, 1943. The signing of the Treaty took place at Chungking on April 5, 1945 with Dr. T. V. Soong, then Acting President of the Executive Yuan and concurrently Minister for Foreign Affairs, representing China, and Mr. Sven Allard, Swedish Minister in China, representing Sweden.

The Treaty was approved by the Chinese Government on July 11, 1945 and a communique was issued on July 20, 1945 by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Chinese Government. The communique reads:

In accordance with Article of the Treaty for the relinquishment by the Swedish Government of its extraterritorial and other related special rights in China signed between China and Sweden on April 5, 1945, the Treaty shall come into force on the day on which the two Governments shall have notified each other that the ratifications have been effected. The Swedish Minister having notified the Chinese Government on June 23 that the Treaty had been ratified by the Swedish Government, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs in a note dated July 20 also notified the Swedish Minister that the said Treaty had similarly been ratified by the Chinese Government. Thereupon the Treaty came into force as from July 20. The date for the exchange of ratifications, however, still remains to be arranged by the two Governments.

The full text of the Treaty is as follows:

Sino-Swedish Treaty:—His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Sweden, 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 have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China,

His Excellency, Dr. Tse Vung Soong, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China;

His Majesty the King of Sweden,

His Excellency, Mr. Sven Allard, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Sweden in China,

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 Kingdom of Sweden which authorize the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden or its representatives to exercise jurisdiction over nationals of Sweden in the territory of the Republic of China are hereby abrogated. Nationals of Sweden 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:—In order to obviate any questions as to existing rights in respect of real property in territory of the Republic of China possessed by the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden or by Swedish nationals, companies or associations, particularly questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties or agreements as stipulated in Article 1 of the present Treaty, it is agreed that such existing rights 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, it being understood that no right 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 shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national defence and the right of eminent domain, and that no such rights may be alienated to the Government or nationals (including companies and 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 the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden or by Swedish nationals, companies or associations, 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 the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden or Swedish nationals, companies or associations shall not be required or asked by the Chinese authorities to make any pay-

ments of fees in connection with land transfers for or with relation to any period prior to the effective date of this Treaty.

Article III.—The Government of the Kingdom of Sweden having long accorded rights to nationals of the Republic of China within the territory of Sweden to travel, reside and carry on trade throughout that territory, the Government of the Republic of China agrees to accord similar rights to nationals of Sweden within the territory of the Republic of China.

Article IV.—The nationals of each country shall, within the territory of the other country, in all questions regarding protection by the Courts of Justice and other authorities for their persons and property, enjoy the same treatment as the nationals of that country.

Article V.—The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden agree that the consular officers of each country, duly provided with exequaturs, shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places and cities of the territories of the other country as may be agreed upon. The consular officers of each country shall have the right to interview, to communicate with, and to advise nationals, companies and associations 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 in their consular districts and they, 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, companies and associations 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 in the territory of the other country shall be forwarded to such consular officers by the competent authorities.

Article VI.—The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden agree that they will enter, within six months after the cessation of the present hostilities, into negotiations for the conclusion of a comprehensive modern treaty of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights. 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 Kingdom of Sweden 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 the territory of the Republic of China of the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden or of Swedish nationals, companies or associations, 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 Kingdom of Sweden not abrogated by or inconsistent with this Treaty, such questions shall be discussed by representatives of the two Governments and shall be decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

Article VII.—The present Treaty has been drawn up in two copies in Chinese, Swedish and English. In case of any difference of interpretation, the English text shall prevail.

Article VIII.—The present Treaty shall be ratified by the two Governments in accordance with the respective constitutional procedure of their countries, by Sweden subject to the approval of the Riksdag.

The present Treaty shall come into force on the day on which the two Governments shall have notified each other that the ratifications have been effected. The instruments of ratification shall thereafter be exchanged at Chungking as soon as possible.

In testimony whereof, we the undersigned, by virtue of our respective powers, have signed this Treaty and have affixed our seals.

Done at Chungking this fifth day of the fourth month of the thirty-four year of the Republic of China corresponding to the fifth day of April nineteen hundred and forty-five.

(L.S.) TZE-VUNG SOONG
(L.S.) SVEN ALLARD

Exchange Of Notes

*Note from the Chinese Minister
of Foreign Affairs to the
Swedish Minister*

April 5, 1945.

EXCELLENCY,

In connection with the Treaty signed today by the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden, in which the Swedish Government relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China, I have the honour to state that agreement has been reached on the following points:

1. The rights of the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden and of its nationals in regard to the Diplomatic Quarter in Peiping and the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, in regard to the system of treaty ports, 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 foreign overseas merchant shipping will remain open to Swedish overseas merchant shipping after the coming into effect of the above-mentioned Treaty.

2. 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. The treatment accorded to such vessels in such ports, places, and waters shall be not less favourable than that accorded to national vessels

and shall be as favourable as that accorded to the vessels of any third country.

3. The Government of the Kingdom of Sweden relinquishes the special rights which Swedish vessels have been accorded with regard to the coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China. The Government of the Republic of China is prepared to take over any Swedish properties 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.

4. Should either country, in an agreement hereafter concluded accord to vessels of any third country any favour with regard to coasting trade or inland navigation, such favour should similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other country. The Republic of China shall, however, not be entitled to claim such special favours as Sweden may accord to any or several of the Scandinavian countries. Coasting trade and inland navigation are excepted from the requirements of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each High Contracting Party in relation thereto.

5. The Government of the Kingdom of Sweden relinquishes the special rights which naval vessels of Sweden have been accorded in the waters of the Republic of China. The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden shall extend to each other, in connection with the visits of warships of one country

to the ports of the other country, mutual courtesy in accordance with ordinary international usage.

6. Each of the two Governments will accord in territory under its jurisdiction to nationals, companies and associations of the other country, in regard to the levying of taxes or requirements in connection therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded to the nationals, companies and associations of any third country. Neither country shall, however, be entitled to claim such favours in regard to taxation as are mutually applied between the other country and a third country by virtue of an agreement for the avoidance of double taxation.

7. With reference to Article 1 of the Treaty signed today, it is understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the courts of Sweden in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall, when necessary, be enforced by the Chinese authorities. Any cases pending before a court of Sweden in China at the time of the coming into effect of the Treaty shall, if the plaintiff or petitioner so desires, be remitted 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 Sweden.

8. With reference to Article II of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China declares that the restriction on the right of alienation of existing rights 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 Swedish nationals, companies or associations, whose interests are affected, undertake, if the Swedish party in interest so desires, to take over the right in question and to pay adequate compensation therefor.

9. With reference to Article IV of the Treaty, it is understood that questions regarding *cautio judicatum solvi* and gratuitous legal assistance shall be settled by special agreement between the two Governments.

10. The abolition of the system of treaty ports will not affect existing property rights, and nationals of each country will enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property in the other country in accordance with the conditions and requirements prescribed in the laws and regulations of that country.

11. Questions, which are not covered by the above-mentioned Treaty 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 the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

It is understood that the agreements and understandings set forth in the present note, if con-

firmed 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. If either Government so requests, negotiations shall, however, be opened with a view to modifying one or several of paragraphs 2, 4 and 6 of the present note. Should no agreement has been reached within six months from the day on which the opening of such negotiations was requested, each Government reserves the right to denounce the provisions regarding which a request for modification has been made. If such denunciation is made, the provisions in question shall cease to be valid at the expiration of six months from the day on which they have been denounced.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will confirm the foregoing.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(L.S.) TZE-VUNG SOONG

His Excellency,
Mr. Sven Allard,
Swedish Minister,
Chungking.

*Note from the Swedish Minister
to the Chinese Minister for
Foreign Affairs*

April 5, 1945.

EXCELLENCY,

In connection with the Treaty signed today between the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden

and the Government of the Republic of China, in which the Swedish Government 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,

In connection with the Treaty signed today by the Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden, in which the Swedish Government relinquishes its extraterritorial and related special rights in China. I have the honour to state that agreement has been reached on the following points:

1. The rights of the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden and of its nationals in regard to the Diplomatic Quarter in Peiping and the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy, in regard to the system of treaty ports, 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 foreign overseas merchant shipping will remain open to Swedish overseas merchant shipping after the coming into effect of the above-mentioned Treaty.

2. 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. 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.

3. The Government of the Kingdom of Sweden relinquishes the special rights which Swedish vessels have been accorded with regard to the coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China. The Government of the Republic of China is prepared to take over any Swedish properties 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.

4. Should either country, in an agreement hereafter concluded, accord to vessels of any third country any favour with regard to coasting trade or inland navigation, such favour should similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other country. The Republic of China shall, however, not be entitled to claim such special favours as Sweden may accord to any or several of the Scandinavian countries. Coasting trade and inland navigation are excepted from the requirements of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each High Contracting Party in relation thereto.

5. The Government of the Kingdom of Sweden relinquishes the special rights which naval

vessels of Sweden have been accorded in the waters of the Republic of China. The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden shall extend to each other, in connection with the visits of warships of one country to the ports of the other country, mutual courtesy in accordance with ordinary international usage.

6. Each of the two Governments will accord in territory under its jurisdiction to nationals, companies and associations of the other country, in regard to the levying of taxes or requirements in connection therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded to the nationals, companies and associations of the other country, in regard to the levying of taxes or requirements in connection therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded to the nationals, companies and associations of any third country. Neither country shall, however, be entitled to claim such favours in regard to taxation as are mutually applied between the other country and a third country by virtue of an agreement for the avoidance of double taxation.

7. With reference to Article 1 of the Treaty signed today, it is understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the courts of Sweden in China shall be considered as *res judicata* and shall, when necessary, be enforced by the Chinese authori-

ties. Any cases pending before a court of Sweden in China at the time of the coming into effect of the Treaty shall, if the plaintiff or petitioner so desires, be remitted 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 Sweden.

8. With reference to Article 11 of the Treaty, the Government of the Republic of China declares that the restriction on the right of the alienation of existing rights 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 Swedish nationals, companies or associations, whose interests are affected, undertake, if the Swedish party in interest so desires, to take over the right in question and to pay adequate compensation therefor.

9. With reference to Article IV of the Treaty, it is understood that questions regarding *cautio Judicatum Solvi* and gratuitous legal assistance shall be settled by special agreement between the two Governments.

10. The abolition of the system of treaty ports will not affect existing property rights, and nationals of each country will

enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property in the other country in accordance with the conditions and requirements prescribed in the laws and regulations of that country.

11. Questions, which are not covered by the above-mentioned Treaty 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 the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

It is understood that the agreements and understandings set forth in the present note, 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. If either Government so requests, negotiations shall, however, be opened with a view to modifying one or several of paragraphs 2, 4 and 6 of the present note. Should no agreement have been reached within six months from the day, on which the opening of such negotiations was requested, each Government reserves the right to denounce the provisions regarding which a request for modification has been made. If such denunciation is made, the provisions in question shall cease to be valid at the expiration of six months from the day on which they have been denounced.

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 Kingdom of Sweden 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.

(L.S.) SVEN ALLARD

His Excellency,
Dr. Tse Vung Soong,
Minister for Foreign Affairs,
Chungking.

Agreed Minute

With reference to the note from the Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs to the Swedish Minister in connection with the Treaty signed today, it is understood that both Governments reserve the right to close any port to all overseas merchant shipping for reasons of national security.

This minute shall be considered as forming an integral part of the Treaty signed today and shall be considered effective upon the date of the entrance into force of that Treaty.

(L.S.) TSE VUNG SOONG

(L.S.) SVEN ALLARD

Chungking,
April 5, 1945.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH HOLLAND AND BELGIUM

HOLLAND

Appointment of Ambassador.—The Chinese Government appointed on February 27, 1945 Dr. Tung Lin, former Adviser to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ambassador to the Netherlands.

Conclusion of New Treaty.—A new Sino-Netherlands Treaty was signed on May 29, 1945, in London with Dr. Wunsz King, then Ambassador to the Netherlands, representing the Chinese Government and Mr. Jonkheor E.F.M.J. Michiels van Verduynen, Acting Minister for Foreign Affairs, representing the Netherlands Government.

After the signing of the Sino-Netherlands Treaty, the Chinese and the Netherlands Governments issued on May 30, 1945 the following joint communique:

"For some time negotiations have taken place between the Chinese and the Netherlands Governments for the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China and the settlement of related matters. The negotiations which have been conducted in a spirit of mutual friendship and understanding have now led to the conclusion of a treaty which was signed in London yesterday by the Chinese Ambassador to the Netherlands, on behalf of His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and the Acting Netherlands Foreign Minister, on behalf of Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands. A supplementary Exchange of Notes also concerning matters relating to extra-

territorial rights and which, according to its terms, is made an integral part of the Treaty, was signed by them at the same time. The Treaty and the accompanying Exchange of Notes provide for the relinquishment by the Netherlands of the extraterritorial and other special privileges which, under treaty provisions, the Netherlands have hitherto exercised, as have other countries, in China and for the adjustment of various matters in connection with this relinquishment."

The Treaty was approved by the Chinese Government on October 31, 1945 and the exchange of ratifications took place on December 5, 1945 at Chungking. Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of China and the Netherlands Ambassador Lovink, represented their respective governments. The Treaty became effective immediately upon the exchange of ratifications.

The full Texts of the Treaty and the accompanying exchange of Notes are as follows:

Treaty Between The Republic Of China And The Kingdom Of The Netherlands For The Abolition Of Extraterritorial And Related Rights In China.

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands:

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 Monsieur Wunsz King, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of China to Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands;

Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands:

His Excellency Jonkheer E.F. M.J. Michiels van Verduynen, Her Acting Minister for Foreign Affairs;

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following Articles:

Article I.—The territories of the High Contracting Parties to which the present Treaty applies are, on the part of the Republic of China, all the territories of the Republic of China; and on the part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, all the territories of the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

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 persons who are Chinese citizens by virtue of the Chinese nationality laws and in relation to the Kingdom of the Netherlands, mean all persons being Netherlands subjects by virtue of the Netherlands nationality laws.

Article II.—All these provisions of treaties or agreements in force

between the Republic of China and the Kingdom of the Netherlands which authorize the Netherlands Government or its representatives to exercise jurisdiction over Netherlands nationals or companies in the territory of the Republic of China 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 III.—The Netherlands Government considers that the Final Protocol concluded at Peking on Sept. 7, 1901, between the Chinese Government and other governments, including the Netherlands Government, should be terminated and agrees that the rights accorded to the Netherlands Governments under that Protocol and under the agreements supplementary thereto shall cease.

The Netherlands Government 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 Netherlands Government a continued right to use for official purposes the land which has been allocated to the Netherlands Government in the Diplomatic Quarter in Peiping, on parts of which are located buildings belonging to the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Article IV.—The Netherlands Government 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 Netherlands Government in relation to those Settlements shall cease.

The Netherlands Government 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 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 V.—In order to obviate any questions as to existing rights in respect of or as the existing titles to real property in the territory of the Republic of China possessed

by Netherlands nationals or companies, or by the Kingdom of the Netherlands, particularly questions which might arise from the abrogation of the provisions of treaties or agreements as stipulated in Article II, 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 or companies 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 of other documentary evidence relating to real property held by Netherlands nationals or companies or by the Kingdom of the Netherlands, 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 with-

out diminution of their prior rights and interests, including the right of alienation.

It is further agreed that Netherlands nationals or companies 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 VI.—Each of the High Contracting Parties shall accord to the nationals of the other the right to enter or to leave its territory and the right to travel, reside and carry on commerce throughout the whole extent of that territory.

With regard to all legal proceedings and all matters relating to the administration of justice and the levying of taxes of whatever description, each of the two Governments will endeavour to accord to nationals and companies of the other treatment not less favourable than that enjoyed by its own nationals and companies in its own territory.

Article VII.—The High Contracting Parties mutually agree that the consular officers of one of the High Contracting Parties, duly provided with exequaturs, shall be permitted to reside in such ports, places and cities of the other High Contracting Party as may be agreed upon.

The Consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall have the right to interview, to communicate with and to advise the nationals of their country within their consular districts; they shall be informed immediately whenever the nationals of their country are

under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in their consular districts and shall, upon notification to the appropriate authorities, be permitted to visit any such nationals; and in general the consular officers of one High Contracting Party shall be accorded in the territory of the other High Contracting Party the rights, privileges and immunities enjoyed by consular officers under modern international usage.

It is likewise agreed that the nationals of one High Contracting Party in the territory of the other High Contracting Party shall have the right at all times to communicate with the consular officers of their country. Communications to their consular officers from the nationals of one High Contracting Party who are under detention or arrest or in prison or are awaiting trial in the territory of the officers by the local authorities.

Article VIII.—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 should 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.

Pending the conclusion of the treaty or treaties referred to in the preceding paragraph, each of the High Contracting Parties agrees that the consular officers of the other will be permitted to exercise their functions as such in accordance with general principles of international law in all ports, cities, and places of the former which are or may be open to consular officers of any foreign country.

Pending the conclusion of the treaty or treaties referred to in the first paragraph, if any questions affecting the rights in the territory of the Republic of China of Netherlands nationals or companies or of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, should arise in future and if these questions are not covered by the present Treaty and the Exchange of Notes or by the provisions of existing treaties, conventions or agreements between the High Contracting Parties, not abrogated by or inconsistent with this Treaty and the Exchange of Notes, such questions shall be discussed by the representatives of the two Governments and shall be decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and with modern international practice.

Article IX.—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 their seals thereto.

Done at London this twentieth day of the fifth month of the thirty-fourth year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the twenty-ninth day of May 1945, in duplicate in English.

(L.S.) WUNSZ KING

(L.S.) E.F.M.J. MICHAELS
VAN VERDUYNEN

Exchange of Notes

*Note from the Chinese Ambassador
to Netherlands Acting
Foreign Minister*

London, May, 29, 1945.

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

In connection with the Treaty concluded today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands, I have the honour to state that it is understood that:

1. a) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights in connection with the system of treaty ports in China;
- b) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights relating to the special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy;
- c) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights with regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territories of the Republic of China;
- d) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights in relation to coasting trade and inland

navigation in the waters of the Republic of China;
 e) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights relating to the entry of its naval vessels into the waters of the Republic of China without previous consent of the National Government of the Republic of China.

2. It is mutually agreed that the merchant vessels of the one High Contracting Party shall be permitted freely to come to the 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 not less favourable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favourable as that accorded to vessels of any third country.

3. It is mutually understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the Netherlands consular tribunals in the Republic of China shall be considered as *res judicata*, and shall, when necessary for reaching the purposes of such orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts, be given effect by the Chinese authorities.

4. It is also understood 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.

5. 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 Note shall be discussed by the representatives of the National Government of the Republic of China and the Netherlands Government and decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

6. 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.) WUNSZ KING

*Reply Note from Netherlands
 Acting Foreign Minister to
 Chinese Ambassador*

May 29, 1945.

YOUR EXCELLENCY,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of today's date reading as follows:

"In connection with the Treaty concluded today between His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China and Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands, I have the honour to state that it is understood that:

1. a) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights in connection with the system of treaty ports in China;
 - b) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights relating to the special courts in the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy;
 - c) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights with regard to the employment of foreign pilots in the ports of the territories of the Republic of China;
 - d) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights in relation to coasting trade and inland navigation in the waters of the Republic of China;
 - e) The Netherlands Government relinquishes all existing rights relating to the entry of its naval vessels into the waters of the Republic of China without previous consent of the National Government of the Republic of China.
2. It is mutually agreed that the merchant vessels of the one High Contracting Party shall be permitted freely to come to the 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 not less favourable than that accorded to national vessels and shall be as favourable as that accorded to vessels of any

third country.

3. It is mutually understood that the orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts of the Netherlands consular tribunals in the Republic of China shall be considered as *res judicata*, and shall, when necessary for reaching the purposes of such orders, decrees, judgments, decisions and other acts, be given effect by the Chinese authorities.

4. It is also understood 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.

5. 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 Note shall be discussed by the representatives of the National Government of the Republic of China and the Netherlands Government and decided in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and modern international practice.

6. 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 have the honour to confirm the agreements and understanding, as recorded in Your Excellency's Note, which 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 assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) E.F.M.J. MICHAELS
VAN VERDUYNEN

Agreed Minute

With reference to Paragraph 2 of the Exchange of Notes which form an integral part of 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.

(Signed) WUNSZ KING
E.F.M.J. MICHAELS
VAN VERDUYNEN

BELGIUM

Exchange of Ratifications:—
A new Sino-Belgian Treaty was concluded on October 20, 1943. The exchange of ratifications of the Treaty took place at Chungking on June 1, 1945. Dr. K. C. Wu, Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, represented the Chinese Government, and Ambassador Delvaux represented the Belgian Government. The Treaty became effective immediately upon the exchange of ratifications. The important points of the Treaty are as follows:

1. The Belgian Government acting in its own name and, by virtue of existing agreements, in that of the Luxemburg Govern-

ment, relinquish their extraterritorial jurisdiction in China and all special rights in relation to the International Settlements at Shanghai and Amoy.

2. Belgium relinquishes all special rights under the Final Protocol of Peking, 1901 (including rights relating to the Diplomatic quarters at Peking) and those relating to inland navigation and coasting trade.

3. The existing real property rights of the Belgian and Luxemburg Governments, nationals and companies shall be indefeasible. However, the exercise of these rights shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the Republic of China concerning taxation, national defense and the right of eminent domain; and these shall not be alienated to the government, nationals or companies of any third state without the consent of the Chinese Government.

4. Nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territory of the other will enjoy the right to acquire and hold real property in accordance with the conditions and requirements there established.

5. Nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be at liberty to enter and to leave the territory of the other on the same terms as nationals of any third country. They shall enjoy the right to travel, reside and trade. In connection with legal proceedings, administration of justice and payment of taxes, the Belgian and Luxemburg Governments have long accorded na-

nationals treatment to Chinese nationals and China agrees to accord similar treatment to Belgian and Luxemburg nationals.

6. The consular officers of the High Contracting Parties in the territory of the other shall reside at such places as agreed upon and shall have the right to interview and to communicate with their own nationals.

7. The High Contracting Parties agree to begin their negotiations for the conclusion of a modern comprehensive treaty of friendship, commerce, navigation and consular rights within six months after the cessation of hostilities in the war against their common enemies.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH CZECHOSLOVAKIA AND POLAND CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Elevation of Diplomatic Status:—

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Chinese Government on July 26, 1944 issued the following communique announcing the elevation of the status of its diplomatic mission in Czechoslovakia:

"The Government of the Chinese Republic and the Czechoslovak Government, desirous of strengthening the ties of friendship and mutual understanding between the two countries, have decided to raise the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of an embassy."

Appointment of Ambassadors:—

Following the elevation of the Chinese and Czechoslovak Legations to the status of Embassy, the Chinese Government appointed Dr. Wunsz King, to be the

first Ambassador to Czechoslovakia. Dr. King presented his Letter of Credence to President Benes on October 12, 1944. The Czechoslovakian Government appointed Mr. Stanislav Minovski to be the first Ambassador to China. Mr. Stanislav Minovski presented his Letter of Credence to President Chiang Kai-shek on October 25, 1944.

POLAND

Recognition of New Polish Government:—In accordance with the arrangement reached upon at the Yalta Conference, the Chinese Government accorded formal recognition to the Polish Government of National Unity at Warsaw on July 5, 1945.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH SWITZERLAND, ITALY AND GREECE SWITZERLAND

Chinese Minister to Switzerland:—Dr. Lone Liang, former Director of the European Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs was appointed Minister to Switzerland by the Chinese Government on March 10, 1945. Dr. Liang assumed his office in Switzerland on June 9, 1945. Since the departure of Dr. Victor Hoo in 1941, it is the first time China is again represented at the Swiss capital by a Minister.

Swiss Economic Mission:—The Swiss Economic Mission consisting of six leading industrialists in Switzerland, organized by private organizations came to China in July 1945 to study industrial conditions in China. Members of the Mission were: Drs. Han Schindler, Resppinger, Messrs. Werner Allemann, Miao Chang-hwa, W. Winkler and J. Corti.

ITALY

Recognition of New Italian Government:—China severed her diplomatic relations with Italy on July 2, 1941 when the latter accorded its recognition to the Nanking puppet regime. With the collapse of the Fascist Government in Italy in 1943 and the reestablishment of a new government basing upon the principle of democracy, China extended her recognition to the new Government on October 25, 1944. The Chinese Government instructed Mr. Sie Cheou-kang, Chinese Minister to the Vatican to notify the Italian Government to that effect. The normal diplomatic relations between China and Italy began when the Chinese Government appointed Mr. Sih Kwang-t sien to be Chinese Charge d'Affairs with Ministerial rank to Rome on August 24, 1945. Mr. Sih assumed his office in Rome on October 16, 1945. The Chinese Government agreed on December 4, 1945 to the Italian Government's proposal to send Signor Francesco Fransoni as Ambassador to China.

GREECE

Prince Pierre's visit:—Although a normal diplomatic relation between China and Greece has been suspended on account of the war, China was, however, honored by the royal visit of Prince Pierre of Greece, who arrived in Chungking on August 2, 1945, and left on August 22, 1945. The purpose of Prince Pierre's visit in China was to pay respects on behalf of the King of Greece to President Chiang Kai-shek and to reestablish cordial diplomatic and commercial relations between the two countries.

IX. CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH MEXICO

Exchange of Diplomatic envoy:—The First Mexican Ambassador to China is Major-General Helioforo Escalante Ramirez, who arrived in Chungking on June 18, 1945 and presented his Letter of Credence on July 10, 1945.

The Chinese diplomatic mission in Mexico was first headed by Mr. Chen Tien-ku, and from July 15, 1944 he was succeeded by Mr. Chen Chieh. Mr. Chen Chieh was the first Chinese Ambassador to Mexico. In August 1945, Mr. Chen Chieh was transferred to Argentine and Mr. Feng Tse-cheng, Consul-General in San Francisco, was appointed on August 29, 1945 to succeed Mr. Chen Chieh. Mr. Feng Tse-cheng presented his Letter of Credence on December 28, 1945.

Signing of Treaty of Amity:—Treaty of Amity was concluded between China and the United States of Mexico on August 1, 1944. The Treaty concluded between China and Mexico at Washington on December 14, 1899 expired as early as November 30, 1928. At the beginning of 1943, negotiations for a new Treaty of Amity began and in July, 1944 the text of the treaty was agreed upon. The signing of this Treaty took place at Mexico city on August 1, 1944 with Minister Cheng Tien-ku representing China, and the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs representing Mexico. The full text of the Treaty is as follows:

The Republic of China and the United Mexican States, being equally desirous of further strengthening the friendly rela-

tions that so happily exist between the two countries and promoting the mutual interests of their peoples, have decided to conclude a Treaty of Amity, based on the principles of equality and mutual respect of sovereignty, and have, for this purpose, appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Excellency the President of the National Government of the Republic of China:

Cheng Tien-ku, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Republic of China to Mexico; and

His Excellency the President of the United Mexican States:

Licenciado Ezequiel Padilla, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of the United Mexican States;

Who, having exchanged their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following Articles:

Article I:—There shall be perpetual peace and everlasting amity between the Republic of China and the United Mexican States as well as between their respective peoples.

Article II:—The High Contracting Parties declare their firm determination to work in close and friendly collaboration for the establishment and maintenance of a world peace based on principles of justice and equality and for the promotion of economic prosperity of both peoples.

Article III:—Each one of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to accredit to the other, diplomatic representatives, who shall enjoy, in the country to the Government of which they are accredited, all the rights, privileges, immunities and exemptions

generally recognized by public international law.

Article IV:—Each of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to send Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents to the localities within their respective territories which shall be determined by common accord. Such Consular officers shall exercise the functions and enjoy the treatment generally recognized by international practice. Prior to their assumption of office, they shall obtain from the Government of the country to which they are sent, proper exequaturs which shall be subject to withdrawal by the said Government.

The High Contracting Parties shall not appoint persons engaged in industry or commerce in the country in which their duties are to be discharged, as their consular officers, honorary consuls being excepted.

Article V:—The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be at liberty to enter or leave the territory of the other under the same conditions as the nationals of any their country in accordance with the immigration laws, regulations and other provisions in force in each country.

Article VI:—The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties, as well as their property, in the territory of the other, shall be subject to the laws and regulations of the latter and to the protection of the laws and regulations under the jurisdiction of its courts.

They shall enjoy full protection of the laws and the regulations of the country, as regards their persons and property.

They shall have the right to travel, reside, work and engage in industries and trade in all the localities where the nationals of any other country might do the same, subject, however, to the laws and regulations of the country.

They shall also have the liberty to establish schools for the education of their children, and shall enjoy the liberty of assembly and association, of publication, of worship and religion, of burial of their dead and of building cemeteries, in accordance with the laws and regulations of the country.

With regard to this Article, the laws and regulations of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not establish discriminatory provisions against the nationals of the other.

Article VII.—Other relations between the two High Contracting Parties shall be based on the principles of international law.

The High Contracting Parties undertake to submit any controversies that may arise between them, and which they shall be unable to settle through the diplomatic channel, to conciliation and arbitration.

Article VIII.—The High Contracting Parties agree to conclude, as soon as possible, a treaty of commerce and navigation for the further promotion of their commercial relations.

Article IX.—The present Treaty is drawn up in duplicate in the Chinese, Spanish and English languages. In case of any divergence of interpretation, the English text shall be authoritative.

Article X.—The present Treaty shall be ratified as soon as pos-

sible by the High Contracting Parties in accordance with their respective constitutional requirements, and shall enter into force on the day on which the exchange of ratifications takes place. The instruments of ratification shall be exchanged at Mexico, D.F.

In faith whereof, the above-mentioned Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and have affixed thereto their seals, at Mexico, D.F., on the first day of the eighth month of the thirty-third year of the Republic of China corresponding to the first of August of the year nineteen hundred forty-four.

(Signed) CHENG TIEN-KU
LICENCIADO EZEQUIEL
PADILLA

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH DOMINICO, NICARAGUA, HONDURAS, SALVADOR AND COSTA RICA

DOMINICO

A new clause added to the Sino-Dominican Treaty:—As a result of negotiations successfully concluded in San Francisco between Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan, and Mr. Licenciado Manuel A. Pena Batlle, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of the Dominican Republic, a new clause providing for the free entry of the nationals of China and the Dominican Republic into each other's territory under the same conditions as nationals of any other country has been added to the Treaty between the two Republics, signed on May 11, 1940.

The following is the text of the communique issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on June 22, 1945:

"The National Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the Dominican Republic, respectively represented by Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of the Republic of China, and Licenciado Manuel A. Pena Battie, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of the Dominican Republic, signed in San Francisco on June 8, 1945, an agreement whereby a clause was added to the Treaty between the two Republics of May 11, 1940. By virtue of this clause, nationals of China and the Dominican Republic may freely enter and leave the territory of each other under the same conditions as nationals of any other country.

"In signing this new agreement China and the Dominican Republic have once more reaffirmed their traditional bonds of friendship and reciprocal esteem.

"According to diplomatic usage, this agreement will come into force as soon as the exchange of ratifications has taken place. The exchange of ratifications will be effected in Ciudad Trujillo, capital of the Dominican Republic."

Presentation of Letter of Credence:—Dr. T. T. Li, Chinese Minister to the Dominican Republic, presented his Letter of Credence to the Dominican President on February 24, 1944.

NICARAGUA

The Nicaraguan Congress on September 7, 1944 passed a law permitting the entry of Chinese into Nicaragua.

HONDURAS

The Honduras Congress on March 2, 1944 amended the Immigration Law lifting restriction against Chinese.

SALVADOR

As a gesture of friendship toward China, the Government of Salvador on March 31, 1944 revised the immigration law striking out all provisions which contained discriminatory measures against the Chinese. On July 27, a proposal for abolishing the law forbidding Chinese residence was submitted to the National Assembly of the Government of Salvador.

COSTA RICA

Abolishing the Restrictions of Chinese Immigration. Costa Rican President Calderon Guardia signed on January 6, 1944 a decree approved by the Congress abolishing the restrictions on Chinese immigration to Costa Rica.

Conclusion of Treaty of Amity:—A Treaty of Amity was concluded between China and Costa Rica at San Jose on May 5, 1944 with Mr. Tu Yuen-tan, Chinese Minister to Costa Rica, representing the Chinese Government and M. Fernando Soto Harrison, Minister of the Interior representing the Costa Rican Government. The Treaty contains the following provisions:—

1. The Nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be at liberty to enter or leave the territory of the other under the same conditions as the nationals of any third country, in accordance with the laws and regulations of each other applicable to all aliens.

2. The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territory of the other shall enjoy the full protection of the laws and regulations of the country as regards their persons and property. They shall, subject to the laws and regulations of the country, have the right to travel, reside, work and engage in industries and trade in all localities where the nationals of any other country are allowed to do the same, and have the liberty to establish schools for the education of their children, as well as the freedom of assembly and organization of association, freedom of publication, and freedom of worship and religion. With regard to this Article, the laws and regulations of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not contain discriminatory provisions against the nationals of the other.

3. The High Contracting Parties agree to conclude as soon as possible a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

The Treaty will become effective upon exchange of ratifications and is expected to contribute to the strengthening of the friendly relations between the two countries.

The exchange of ratifications of the Treaty took place on June 15, 1945 at San Jose. The Treaty became effective immediately upon the exchange of ratifications.

Congratulatory message to Costa Rican President: On the occasion of the assumption of office of the President of the Republic of Costa Rica, Teodore Picado Michalski, on May 8, 1944, President Chiang sent a congrat-

ulatory message to the former and designated Mr. Tu Yun-tan, Chinese Minister to Costa Rica and concurrently Minister to Panama, Honduras and Salvador, as a special representative with the rank of ambassador for the occasion to extend felicitations. The message reads as follows:

On the occasion of your assumption of office as President of the Republic of Costa Rica, I have much pleasure in expressing to Your Excellency my cordial felicitations as well as that of the Chinese Government and people. The remarkable development of friendship and mutual understanding between our two countries in this tilantic struggle against aggression is a source of deep satisfaction to us and it is our firm conviction that under your leadership the people of Costa Rica will continue to play an important part in the consummation of our common cause and will greatly contribute to the building of a free and peaceful world.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH BRAZIL, PERU, CHILE AND ARGENTINA

BRAZIL

Exchange of Diplomatic Envoys:—
—The Chinese Government appointed Mr. Chen Tieh-ku as Ambassador to Brazil on July 4, 1944. Mr. Joaquim Eulalio do Nascimento e Silva was appointed first Brazilian Ambassador to China by the Brazilian Government. The Brazilian Ambassador arrived in Chungking on May 24, 1944 as the first ambassador from

a South American country to China.

Treaty of Amity:—Negotiations for a new treaty with Brazil were started in May 1942 and assumed a more effective turn especially after the conclusion of the Sino-American and Sino-British Treaties on January 11, 1943. But the new Treaty of Amity had not been signed until August 20 of that year. Following is a statement issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to this effect:

"The Government of China and the Government of Brazil, being desirous of strengthening the bonds of friendship existing between these two countries, concluded on this day, August 20, 1943 at Rio de Janeiro a new Treaty of Amity based on the principles of general international law to replace the Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation, signed at Tientsin on October 3, 1881."

The important provisions of the new Treaty are as follows:

(1) The High Contracting Parties reaffirm the purposes of peace and amity.

(2) The diplomatic and consular agents of each of the High Contracting Parties shall receive, in the territory of the other on terms of reciprocity, the same treatment accorded by general international law.

(3) The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties as well as their properties in the territory of the other, shall be subjected to the laws and regulations of the latter and to the jurisdiction of its law courts.

(4) Each of the High Contracting Parties agrees to accord to nationals of the other within its territory the rights to travel, reside and carry on commerce throughout the whole extent of that territory according to its laws and on the same terms as the nationals of any third country, and will endeavor to accord in its territory to nationals of the other treatment not less favourable than that accorded to its own nationals with reference to all legal proceedings, to matters relating to the administration of justice and to the levying of taxes and formalities in connection therewith.

(5) The High Contracting Parties agree to enter into negotiations in the near future for the conclusion of a new and comprehensive treaty of commerce and navigation which shall be based upon the principles of international law and international practice.

The present Treaty shall be ratified as soon as possible and shall come into force one month after the exchange of ratifications."

The exchange of ratifications of the Treaty took place at Rio de Janeiro on April 9, 1944. The Treaty became effective on May 9, 1944.

PERU

Establishment of Diplomatic Relations:—Although the Chinese and Peruvian relations can date back 60 years, the formal diplomatic relation was not established until the appointment of Dr. Santiago Bedoya by the Peruvian Government to be the first Peruvian Minister to China. Dr. Santiago Be-

doya came to China on August 30, 1944 and presented his Letter of Credence on October 4, 1944.

Elevation of Diplomatic Status:—

A communique was issued on September 1, 1944 by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Chinese Government for the elevation of the diplomatic status between China and Peru, the text of which is as follows:

The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of Peru, desirous of strengthening the ties of friendship between the two countries, have decided to raise the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of an embassy.

The Chinese Government appointed Mr. Pao Chun-chien, former Consul-General in Calcutta to be the first Chinese Ambassador to Peru.

CHILE

Appointment of Minister:—

The Chinese Government appointed on February 27, 1945 Mr. Wu Chai-hsiang, former Commissioner for Foreign Affairs in Sinkiang as Minister to Chile.

Elevation of diplomatic status:—

With a view to further strengthening the cordial relations between China and Chile, the Chinese and Chilean Governments in December, 1945 decided to raise their respective diplomatic missions to the status of embassies.

ARGENTINA

Establishment of diplomatic relations.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued the following communique on June 1, 1945 announcing the establishment of diplomatic relations between China and Argentina:

The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of Argentina have agreed to establish formal diplomatic relations between the two countries. Ambassadors will soon be exchanged and a basic treaty will be concluded in the near future so that the peoples of the two countries may enjoy on a basis of permanent friendship and mutual understanding the rights and privileges to which they are entitled by their treaty relations.

Exchange of diplomatic envoy:—

In accordance with the aforementioned communique the Chinese Government appointed Dr. Chen Chieh as Ambassador to Argentina and the Argentine Government appointed Dr. Jose Arce as Ambassador to China. The latter presented his Letter of Credence on December 4, 1945. The exchange of ambassadors between China and Argentina marked the first page in the history of the diplomatic relations between the two countries.

**CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH
TURKEY, IRAN, AFGHANISTAN,
EGYPT, IRAQ, SYRIA AND
LEBANON**

TURKEY

Appointment of Ambassador:—

As a result of the announcement made on the Turkish National Day on October 29, 1943 for the elevation of the status of their respective diplomatic representative to the rank of ambassador, the Turkish Government appointed M. Hunusi Foat Tugay as first Turkish Ambassador to China, and the Chinese Government appointed Dr. Hsu Mo, former Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs and Minister to

Australia as first Chinese Ambassador to Turkey. The Turkish Ambassador presented his Letter of Credence to President Chiang Kai-shek on June 12, 1944.

IRAN

Elevation of Diplomatic Status:— China and Iran entered into diplomatic relations in 1942 when China established a legation in Iran with Mr. Li Ti-tseng as the first Minister. The Iranian Government appointed Mr. S. Ali Nassr as first Minister to China. Mr. S. Ali Nassr presented his Letter of Credence on October 4, 1944.

Exchange of Diplomatic Envoys:— In recognition of the growing importance of diplomatic relations between China and Iran, the two Governments agreed on February 1, 1945 to elevate their respective diplomatic missions to the status of an Embassy. The following announcement to that effect was issued by the National Government on the same day:

The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of Iran, desirous of further strengthening the ties of friendship between the two countries, have decided to raise the status of their respective diplomatic mission to that of Embassy.

Following the elevation of the diplomatic status on March 3, 1945, the Chinese Government decided to promote Mr. Li Tieh-tseng, as the first Ambassador to Iran.

AFGHANISTAN

Conclusion of Treaty of Amity:— On the occasion of the conclusion of Sino-Afghan Treaty of Amity on March 2, 1944, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued the following statement:

Inasmuch as China and Afghanistan are neighboring countries, the establishment of formal diplomatic relations between them has long been desired. Negotiations for the conclusion of a Sino-Afghan Treaty of Amity began as early as 1920, in the spring of 1943 they were resumed at Ankara, the Turkish capital, and the final draft of the Treaty was agreed upon. The Chinese Government is now happy to announce that the said Treaty was signed at Ankara on March 2, 1944 with Minister Tsou Shang-yu representing China and Afghan Ambassador to Turkey representing Afghanistan."

Following is a summary of the essential points of this Treaty.

1. There shall be sincere and perpetual peace and amity between the two countries and between their respective peoples.

2. The two countries shall exchange diplomatic and consular representatives and such diplomatic and consular representatives shall receive in each other's territory on terms of reciprocity treatment in accordance with the general principles of international law

3. The two countries agree to enter into negotiations as soon as possible for the purpose of concluding a Commercial Treaty.

The Sino-Afghan Treaty of Amity was approved by the Legislative Yuan of the Chinese Government on May 30, 1944 and the exchange of ratifications of the Treaty between China and Afghanistan took place on September 30, 1944 at Ankara with Mr. Tsou

Shang-yu, Chinese Minister to Turkey and Fais Mohammed Khan, Afghan Ambassador to Turkey, representing their respective Governments. The Treaty became effective immediately upon the exchange of ratifications.

EGYPT

Egypt entered into diplomatic relations with China four years ago when China established legation in Egypt. The Chinese Government appointed Dr. Hsu Nien-tseng as the first Chinese Minister to Egypt. Dr. Hsu presented his Letter of Credence on January 17, 1945.

IRAQ

The Chinese Minister to Iraq, Mr. Li Ti-tseng, who was concurrently Minister to Iran, presented his Letter of Credence to the Iraq Government on April 8, 1944.

SYRIA AND LEBANON

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced on November 14, 1944 that the Chinese Government had decided to extend recognition to Syria and Lebanon.

CHINA'S RELATIONS WITH PHILIPPINES AND KOREA

PHILIPPINES

Exchange of Greetings:—On the occasion of the liberation of Manila, President Chiang Kai-shek sent a message of congratulations to President Sergio Osmena of the Philippine Commonwealth on February 6, 1945.

President Chiang's message reads as follows:

His Excellency Sergio Osmena
President of the Philippine
Commonwealth,
Manila.

The entire Chinese nation rejoices with you and our Philippine brethren over the liberation of Manila. I wish to extend to Your Excellency and through you to the Philippine people our heartiest congratulations upon your great victory, and it is my firm belief that your country will soon be completely rid of the ruthless invaders and your heroic people will again be able to enjoy the blessings of peace and freedom.

CHIANG KAI-SHEK.

The following is the message of President Osmena in reply to President Chiang's message.

Dear Generalissimo: I am profoundly grateful to you for your message on the liberation of Manila. It is one forward step in the irresistible advance of the Allied Forces towards Tokyo and will help to make easier China's final victory over Japan. Freedom is indivisible and a blow struck for it in Manila is struck for it also in Chungking. It is my fervent prayer that the great Chinese people who have so bravely pioneered in the fight for democracy against the forces of violence and greed in the Far East may soon achieve the triumph that their heroism and courage so rightly deserve.

President Sergio E. Osmena of the Philippines sent the following message to the Chinese people on March 3, 1945:

To the Chinese people, the people of the Philippines through the third established Commonwealth Government, greet the Chinese people through their constitutional Government. The

return to civil rule to the Philippines is a story of Philippine American collaboration. It is the result of heroic efforts on the part of both peoples. It has been very dearly bought with American and Filipino lives; but the greatest support came from the people themselves who have been persistent and courageous in their opposition to Japan's rule even at the time the Japanese military power was enthroned in principal towns all over the Philippines.

It is my fervent wish that Chinese and Filipino peoples will heartily and cordially cooperate in the establishment of a new world based on democracy, friendship and understanding.

KOREA

Following the liberation of Korea from the Japanese yoke, the Provisional Government of Korea in Chungking moved back to its homeland in November, 1945. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in his capacity as Director-General of the Kuomintang, and Madame Chiang gave a farewell tea party

to the Korean revolutionary leaders on the eve of their departure for Korea in Chungking on November 4, 1945.

Present at the party were Mr. Kim Koo and Mr. Kiusic Kim, President and Vice-President of the Korean Provisional Government, and Messrs. Y. Tjosowang, Foreign Minister, Cho Wan Koo, Minister of Finance, Kim Yak-an, Minister of War, Shin Lk Hi, Minister of Interior, Kim Sang Duk, Minister of Culture David H. S. An, Minister of Information, Choi Dong Oh, Minister of Justice.

Mr. Kim Koo and Mr. Kiusic Kim, President and Vice-President of the Korean Provisional Government, together with their cabinet members, left for Shanghai on their way to Korea on November 5, 1945. Mr. Chang Shou-hsien, representative of the Central Secretariat of the Kuomintang Headquarters, accompanied the party to Shanghai. The Chinese Government appointed Mr. Shao Yu-lin as Chinese representative in Korea.

PART VI

FINANCE AND ECONOMY

CHAPTER XXVII

PUBLIC FINANCE

CHOW YUNG-NENG (周雍能)*

I. INTRODUCTION

Finance Minister's Statement.—

On July 7, 1945, the eighth anniversary of the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, the Minister of Finance, Mr. O. K. Yui, issued the following statement:

China enters its ninth years of war with determination that no financial obstacles shall be allowed to impede the crucial task of winning Allied victory over Japanese aggression.

Seldom indeed has any country faced greater financial strains and stresses than has China in 1937-1945—the longest war in the last century. Just as in the military field China has suffered from the lack of modern technique of mechanized warfare, so in the financial front she has been handicapped by the nature of her economy and the level of her financial development.

Most of China's richest cities have been occupied and her main arteries of communication broken by the enemy. Extension of hostilities has paralyzed trade and industry and seriously impaired Government revenues. The tax system is still inelastic. The people's surplus income over and above subsistence out of which taxes can be paid is proverbially

small. New taxation which takes time to develop cannot possibly bring sufficient revenue to meet urgent demands. In the absence of a well-developed bond market and of an efficient institutionalized savings system, it is difficult for the Government to absorb idle capital and finance war operations from taxation and savings alone. The decentralized nature of Chinese economy, coupled with the lack of modern financial control in the interior, adds to the obstacles of mobilizing and coordinating the nation's resources. Elaborate and comprehensive controls of trade, currency, production, consumption and prices workable in other belligerent countries cannot be applied throughout China.

Besides all these complex problems and peculiar difficulties, China has had to raise herself by her own bootstraps. The task of the Government is not simply to find the sinews of war but the infinitely more difficult one of hastening amid the clash of arms the economic development of the hitherto backward hinterland so as to strengthen its base for resistance and reconstruction. China has to build as she fights.

China's war budget has been mounting at an alarming speed in

*Director, Central Trust of China.

the last eight years. The 1945 budget for instance is about 190 times larger than that of the fiscal year preceding the outbreak of war.

Actual expenditures will considerably exceed the original estimates since huge additional appropriations are required for increasing war efforts, accelerating war production, meeting rising prices and improving the lot of soldiers and public employees. Although absolutely the war budget is considerably smaller than that of the United States, Great Britain or even Japan, relatively the fiscal burden of war falls no less heavily on China than it does on them. However, she cannot and will not spare anything to win victory.

The enormous cost of the war has been borne as far as possible by taxation and savings. Under the best conditions, the development of taxes is a slow and difficult process; and under stress of war it is all the harder. Nevertheless, China is placing a greater emphasis on the increase of revenue in its fiscal program as the war progresses. It has redoubled its efforts to develop revenue by renovating old taxes and opening up new sources of income. Briefly, the policy has been to consolidate the national finance system, to raise tax rates equitably, to abolish unreasonable local levies, to make the rich contribute more to the war chest, to evolve a more reliable and elastic system of taxation and to unify and simplify the procedure and machinery of tax collection.

During the past six months, several drastic measures have been adopted by way of retrench-

ment and with a view to increasing administrative efficiency. A total of 509 offices and sub-offices under the charge of the Ministry of Finance alone, involving a staff of 17,996 members, has been either abolished or amalgamated, thus saving the Government around 1,614 million dollars in overhead expenses for the rest of the year. Many preventive offices and inspection stations throughout the country have also been closed in order to facilitate the free flow of goods. A number of vexatious taxes have been abolished, notwithstanding the fact that this has entailed a loss of 4 billion dollars in revenue to the national treasury during 1945 alone. The state monopoly system has been removed so as to accord greater freedom to private enterprises. The machinery for the collection of the direct tax and commodity tax has been further simplified. The administration of the land tax has been incorporated into the Ministry of Food in order to unify and simplify the tax machinery. Last but not least officials in the tax service have been given better pay with a view to attaining a higher standard of efficiency in the responsible work which they perform.

All in all, these and other measures of fiscal reform are yielding fair results and will, it is believed, prove their effectiveness increasingly as they become better implemented and the tax personnel gain in training and experience.

Admittedly the most serious economic problem confronting

China today is inflation. In view of the difficulties already referred to by way of bridging the gap between current revenues and expenditures, the Government inevitably had to resort to enormous borrowing from the banks, which in part involved expansion of note issue. It was not a matter of choice but of necessity. The attendant rise in prices has placed a heavy burden on Government and people alike and immeasurably complicated the problem of war financing by accelerating the increase in expenditures.

The Government is keenly aware of the dangers attendant upon note expansion. It realizes equally well the fact that the fight against inflation is a many-sided one, which to be successful must be conducted not on one front but on all. Eternal and ubiquitous vigilance is needed to combat inflation.

In this connection, the Government is exerting its utmost. In the fiscal field, it is making strenuous efforts to increase revenues in proportion to expenditures. On the other hand, a policy of retrenchment is being enforced. Redundant Government organs have been abolished or amalgamated, budgetary appropriations for less essential activities have been cut, and expenditures on development projects not urgently needed for the prosecution of the price equation or requiring a comparatively long time to yield desired results have been deferred or reduced.

In the banking sphere, the Government has strengthened its control over the banking system in order to tighten bank credit, to curb speculation and profiteer-

ing and to improve credit facilities for assisting the increased production of wartime necessities. It does much for the amelioration of the supply side of the price equation and stands ever ready to execute any feasible scheme for the encouragement of agricultural and industrial production.

At the same time, the Government has sought to withdraw the enormous purchasing power of the public by promoting the savings campaign, by improving the system of security flotation, and by adopting the policy of selling gold, which during the last nine or ten months has already resulted in withdrawing over 80 billion dollars of paper from circulation. Finally, to alleviate the effects of the rising cost of living on public employees and school teachers, who are hardest hit, the Government has increased their pay and provided for their purchase from Government agencies of daily necessities at moderate prices.

There is no panacea for China's current economic and financial difficulties, which result mainly from the war. The immediate problem of financial management is to tide the country over the war period and to maintain financial stabilization, a touchstone vital both to winning the war and to sound economic development. Fortunately for China, the agriculture basis of its economy is at least negatively an advantage in relation to the price situation.

Good harvests are a factor of no little importance in the maintenance of morale and stability in a country where 85% of the population are farmers and are

more or less self-sufficient as far as necessities are concerned. Moreover, with the military situation decidedly developing in its favor, the psychological factor which plays an important part in inflation is bound to improve China's economic outlook.

II. CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATION

The Chinese Maritime Customs collects the import duty, export duty and interport duty. During the pre-war years of 1934-36, the annual Customs revenue collection averaged around NC\$300,000,000, constituting 40% of the total national revenue. With the outbreak of war in July, 1937, and the enemy's invasion of the coastal provinces, a marked decline was registered in the Customs revenue. But the Ministry of Finance lost no time in establishing a number of freight inspection offices in the vicinity of the war areas and at different communication centres for the control of exports and imports via the occupied areas. In January, 1942, five new Customs districts were formed with head offices at Shangjiao, Kukong, Sian, Loyang and Langchow, taking over the functions of the freight inspection offices. The Chinese Customs is headed by the Inspector-General of Customs who works under the direction and supervision of the Customs Administration, one of the departments of the Ministry of Finance.

The unequal treaties provided a uniform rate of 5% ad valorem until 1929, in which year China regained her tariff autonomy. The Government enforced in February, 1929, a national import tariff ranging from 7.5% to 27.5% for seven categories of goods. Since then the import tariff

schedule has been revised several times, notably in 1930 when 12 different rates from 5% upwards were stipulated. The change of tariff unit from Haikwan Tael into Customs Gold Unit and the introduction of the maximum rate of 80% ad valorem for import duty were among the important features. All revisions were necessitated by domestic requirement of developing revenue sources and protecting home industry and guided by the changing conditions of international trade. In order to further replenish the national treasury and ensure the repayment of flood relief loans, revenue and flood relief surtaxes at 5% of the import and export duties have been collected.

After the outbreak of the war, with a view to increasing the importation of daily necessities and materials for reconstruction, the Government in July, 1939, prohibited the importation of 168 categories of luxuries and non-essential goods, and in September of the same year reduced the import duty on goods other than those prohibited to one-third of the original tariff rates.

In 1942 and 1943 a notable readjustment in the import tariff was made in view of the rising price level, namely, the change of specific duty formerly levied on certain imported goods into ad valorem duty. In 1944 full duty payment was restored on certain categories of goods which had formerly enjoyed reductions in import duty, because the importation of such goods no longer needed encouragement as home production had increased to such an extent that it could well meet the domestic demand.

Before 1929, the export tariff system rested upon a very old 5% ad valorem basis conventionally laid down some forty years ago. From May, 1931, after the abolition of all the native Customs establishments, an interport duty at 7.5% ad valorem, in lieu of the former coastal trade duty, was collected on home-made goods. The old export tariff was also revised in 1931 and 1934. Specific rates on certain home-made goods were stipulated so that they effectively corresponded to 5% ad valorem, while for reasons of national and international trade more than 80 kinds of goods were accorded full exemption or reduction in export duty.

From 1942, simultaneously with the abolition of the interport duty and miscellaneous harmful local levies, a wartime consumption tax in addition to import duty was collected on all imported goods except those which enjoyed duty exemption or reduction and certain categories of home-made goods which were designed for home consumption. This collection yielded considerable income to the national treasury, aggregating in 1944 \$2,200,000,000, but for the facilitation of domestic trade it was abolished in January, 1945.

For financial and other reasons the export tariff was in June, 1945, again revised when rates of 5% were substituted for specific rates originally levied on certain export goods. The Customs tariffs are under very careful technical study by the Government departments concerned. Readjustments are being contemplated to reshape the import and export tariffs to meet the post-war requirements.

III. SALT ADMINISTRATION

With a view to the regulation of production and distribution, the stabilization of prices and the increase of public revenue, the Government in the spring of 1942 established a state monopoly system on four articles of daily use; namely, salt, sugar, tobacco and matches. In the case of salt, a monopoly system had long existed in China with regard to its distribution and sale. But the method of control was in 1942 renovated and extended to its production. In the spring of 1945, however, when the system of state monopoly was discontinued, salt once more resumed its time-honoured status of an article of taxation, though the principal features of its production, transportation and consumption remained unchanged on the whole.

Production:—Following the seizure of salt-works along the coast by the enemy, efforts were made to increase the production of salt in the interior provinces in order to meet the nation's needs. A new issue of permits authorizing manufacture of salt was completed in 1943. Salt produced is collected by Government agencies either against full payment of cost or against Government loans, and is distributed according to the conditions of supply and demand of the country as a whole. Improvement has been made in the technique of manufacture to reduce its cost and improve its quality. The Salt Administration has already formulated concrete plans for the post-war rehabilitation of salt-works, restoration of offices and development of the salt industry in the occupied areas.

ANNUAL COLLECTIONS OF CUSTOMS DUTIES AND WARTIME CONSUMPTION TAX SINCE 1937

Fiscal Year	Total	CUSTOMS DUTIES							Wartime Consumption Tax	Percentage to total revenue collection of entire country	
		Total	Import Duty	Export Duty	Tonnage Dues	Interport Duty	Revenue Surtax	Flood Relief Surtax		War Area	Free China
1937	342,899,739 100.00	342,899,739 100.00	261,286,534 76.20	29,073,179 8.48	3,224,610 0.94	20,148,871 5.88	14,578,836 4.25	14,587,709 4.25	—	4.17	95.83
1938	254,565,469 100.00	254,565,469 100.00	160,936,329 63.22	16,532,939 6.49	2,913,405 1.14	55,846,004 21.94	9,163,631 3.60	9,179,161 3.61	—	62.57	37.43
1939	331,323,640 100.00	331,323,640 100.00	237,683,384 71.74	17,415,280 5.26	3,660,836 1.10	46,661,699 14.08	12,951,045 3.91	12,951,396 3.91	—	83.72	16.28
1940	475,749,134 100.00	475,749,134 100.00	343,597,369 72.22	27,552,965 5.80	3,094,980 0.65	63,813,940 13.41	18,844,021 3.96	18,845,359 3.96	—	89.06	10.94
1941	487,436,138 100.00	487,436,138 100.00	325,295,129 66.74	29,209,858 5.99	1,833,427 0.38	95,064,811 19.50	18,015,578 3.69	18,017,335 3.70	—	86.16	13.84
1942	499,568,989 100.00	156,463,972 31.12	88,058,479 56.28	3,146,804 2.01	20,675 0.01	55,057,067 35.83	4,588,794 2.93	4,592,153 2.94	343,105,017 68.68	—	—
1943	1,077,492,466 100.00	350,902,397 32.57	315,538,000 89.92	1,039,784 0.29	17,962 0.01	2,669,682 0.76	15,818,431 4.51	15,818,538 4.51	726,590,069 67.43	—	—
1944	2,976,265,600 100.00	766,046,192 25.74	692,696,440 70.42	3,694,767 0.48	32,723 —	—	34,811,128 4.54	34,811,134 4.54	2,210,219,408 74.26	—	—
1945*	1,319,889,215 100.00	1,080,740,552 81.88	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	239,148,663 18.12	—	—

*Ending June 30.

Transportation and Consumption—Transportation routes and distribution centers have been adequately established throughout the country. In principle, salt is to be transported by the Government, but merchants are allowed to transport salt wherever feasible. Salt is sold by Government agencies wholesale at distribution depots and retailed by authorized salt shops and co-operative stores under Government supervision. To ensure adequate supply of salt at a stabilized price, ration system is introduced in a number of areas. Measures have been taken to ensure the whole country of an adequate supply of salt when enemy-occupied areas are recaptured.

Taxation—During the period of salt monopoly, a monopoly profit

was collected in lieu of tax. In 1943, rates were consolidated as far as possible. Upon the abolition of the monopoly system, the rates of salt tax were unified. It is to be noted that the "War-time Surtax" and the "Surtax for Army Food and Fodder Allowance" levied in 1943 and 1944 constituted surcharges and not increases in the tax proper.

Existing Tax Rates—Salt Tax is uniformly levied at \$110 per picul and the "Surtax for Army Food and Fodder Allowance" and the "War-time Surtax" respectively at \$6,000 and \$1,000. In the southeastern provinces of Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, however, the rates of the Surtaxes are considerably lower on account of their proximity to the theaters of military operations.

ANNUAL COLLECTIONS OF SALT REVENUE FROM 1937 TO JUNE, 1945

<i>Year</i>	<i>Nature of Levy</i>	<i>Amount Collected</i>
1937	Salt Tax	217,705,000
1938	Salt Tax	138,597,000
1939	Salt Tax	113,276,000
1940	Salt Tax	105,100,000
1941	Salt Tax	360,724,000
1942	Monopoly Profit	1,202,010,000
1943	Monopoly Profit	1,668,975,000
1943	Wartime Surtax	1,676,890,000
1944	Monopoly Profit	1,390,457,000*
1944	Wartime Surtax	4,301,326,000
1944	Surtax for Army Food and Fodder Allowance	8,671,596,000
1945 (January-June)	Salt Tax	1,231,875,000*
"	Wartime Surtax	13,479,474,000*
"	Surtax for Army Food and Fodder Allowance	6,956,281,000*

Note:—*Preliminary returns.

IV. COMMODITY TAX ADMINISTRATION

The Commodity Tax is an indirect tax collected by the "Sui Wu Shu" or Commodity Tax Administration. Its present scope comprises the consolidated tax, mining products tax and native tobacco-wine tax, the only three main items of collection now under the charge of the Commodity Tax Administration.

The history of the consolidated tax dated back to January of 1928 when the National Government promulgated a set of regulations imposing a tax on rolled tobacco (cigars and cigarettes) in the five provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, Anhwei and Kiangsi. The consolidated tax system is based on the principle that a commodity is subject to only one tax levied at one place, generally at the source, and subsequently free from any other levy. Later, the scope of consolidated tax collection was broadened to cover four more principal commodities, namely, cotton yarn, matches, cement and flour. In 1932, the Consolidated Tax Administration came into being with branch offices in the various provinces of the country, and subsequently, the Tobacco, Wine and Stamp Tax Department was amalgamated with it under the name of "Sui Wu Shu," which has continued to function to the present day.

The war has seriously impaired the collection of the consolidated tax. Due to the seizure and destruction by the enemy of most of the rolled tobacco factories and cotton mills in the coastal provinces, which formed the richest source of taxation, the revenue

declined considerably. However, the Ministry of Finance has taken drastic measures to cope with the emergency. Firstly, it extended the scope of collection by establishing more collecting agencies at different points, paying particular attention to commodities coming from war areas. Secondly, in places where no branch offices of the Commodity Tax Administration had been established, the Customs offices were authorized to collect the consolidated tax. Thirdly, to cope with rising prices, the Government in September, 1941 ordered that the consolidated tax was thereafter to be levied according to the changing value of the taxed commodities.

Before 1943 the consolidated tax system included eleven articles; namely, rolled tobacco, flue-cured tobacco leaves, foreign-styled wine and beer, aerated water, tea, alcohol, matches, sugar, flour, cement and cotton yarn. In March, 1943, it was extended to cover eight other articles; namely, bamboo, wood, raw hides and leather, hairs, porcelain, china-ware, paper and metalfoil. In January, 1945, however, the tax on the latter articles was abolished.

At present, there are five articles on which the Commodity Tax Administration levies the consolidated tax; namely, rolled tobacco, matches, cotton yarn and foreign-styled wine and beer. To meet war-time needs, the tax on cotton yarn and sugar is collected in kind.

The mining products tax was formerly collected by the local governments. Upon the abolition of Likin in 1931, the Ministry of Finance took over the collection of taxes on minerals and

has since made notable progress in unifying the system. This tax is the only source of revenue which has not been affected by the war. Since the outbreak of the war, the Chinese Government has spared no effort to expand mining industries. As a result, the output of minerals of all kinds, particularly those urgently needed for war purposes, has increased by leaps and bounds. To tighten the collection of the tax on mining products, the Ministry of Finance stations officers at mining concessions. The tax is imposed on mining concessions and mining products which fall under four categories; namely, coal, iron, nonferrous metals and other non-metallic minerals.

It may be recalled that upon its inauguration at Nanking the National Government enforced a system of government monopoly of native tobacco and wine. In July, 1933, the system was abolished in the seven provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Honan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, and Fukien, while in the other provinces it remained effective. In July, 1941, the Government promulgated a set of regulations relating to the levy of the consolidated tax on tobacco and wine throughout the country, thereby doing away with much of the inconveniences which had hitherto hampered the trade in these two articles. The collection of these taxes has entailed peculiar difficulties because the makers of native tobacco and wine, most of whom are small scale handworkers, are widely scattered in the rural districts and there are often not enough tax officers to undertake the task of inspection and collection. For this reason,

the system of tax farming, usually through the aid of the local tobacco and wine guilds, has been adopted in different localities as a matter of expediency.

An important step taken by the Ministry of Finance in enhancing tax proceeds has been the substitution of ad valorem collection for specific collection. Articles for collection of ad valorem taxes are generally divided into three categories, namely, luxuries, articles of daily consumption and necessities. It is estimated that the tax rates on luxury articles have been increased by from 20 to 100 per cent—for example, the tobacco tax rate has gone up from 60% to 100% while the foreign-styled wine and beer tax rate has gone up from 30% to 60%. On the other hand, the rates on necessities and articles of daily consumption have been considerably reduced—for example, the tax rate on cotton yarn has been lowered from 5% to 3.5%. (For further information, see Table 2.)

To cope with the problem of rising prices, the Ministry of Finance has set up a Commodity Price Valuation Committee, by which prices of taxable commodities are evaluated and readjusted from time to time. Consequently, revenue yields have increased considerably and steadily. Formerly, the readjustment of commodity prices for the purpose of taxation was made once every six months. At present it is done once a month or whenever necessary.

Before the summer of 1945, the Commodity Tax Administration and the Direct Tax Administration, though independent in their respective functions, were linked

up through their intermediate bureaus, i.e., the provincial tax bureaus, which functioned as intermediary organs for both Administrations. In order to enhance administrative efficiency, the Ministry of Finance in June, 1944, separated the intermediate organs of the two Administrations, each Administration having its own provincial or district bureaus. The whole country, exclusive of enemy-occupied areas, is now

divided into eight districts, each having a commodity tax bureau responsible for the collection of the commodity tax in a varying number of counties. It is expected that this readjustment in organization coupled with the improvement recently made in the personnel administration of tax officials and the intensification of tax inspection will result in increased revenues.

TABLE I. ANNUAL COLLECTIONS OF COMMODITY TAXES SINCE 1937

Unit: Yuan

<i>Year</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Consolidated Tax</i>	<i>Mining Products Tax</i>	<i>Tobacco-wine Tax</i>
1937	147,742,438	128,278,136	3,880,545	15,603,757
1938	67,738,588	48,716,033	2,353,138	16,669,417
1939	51,157,938	30,914,055	1,888,914	18,354,969
1940	65,730,460	39,911,632	1,761,185	24,057,643
1941	198,772,481	127,734,287	7,851,819	63,186,375
1942	599,464,784	306,674,082	22,838,897	269,931,805
1943	1,836,911,026	626,137,279	72,086,701	1,138,687,046
1944	5,628,909,144	2,432,679,517	197,459,340	2,998,770,287
1945 (ending June 30)	6,877,149,423	3,864,460,655	220,441,675	2,792,257,093

TABLE 2. EXISTING COMMODITY TAX RATES

<i>Commodities</i>	<i>Tax Rates</i>
Machine-made rolled tobacco	100%
Hand-made rolled tobacco	60%
Native-made cigar	60%
Flue-cured tobacco	30%
Matches	20%
Foreign-styled wine and beer	60%
Native wine	60%
Native tobacco leaves	40%
Native tobacco shreds	20%
Coal	5%
Iron	5%
Other metals	10%
Other non-metallic minerals	10%
Sugar	20%
Cotton yarn	3.5%

V. DIRECT TAX ADMINISTRATION

The evolution of direct taxation is a wartime fiscal landmark. Before the war, China's national taxation system was built entirely upon indirect taxes. Receipts from the customs duty, salt tax and consolidated tax constituted the principal sources of revenue, and the so-called direct tax was practically non-existent.

The history of direct taxation in China began with the introduction of the income tax in the winter of 1936. Following the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in the summer of 1937, the Ministry of Finance bent its efforts to develop a system of direct taxation so as to secure an elastic and equitable system of taxation. As a result, the system of direct taxation has been steadily expanded and improved and its revenue yield has become one of the main sources of China's wartime financial support.

The income tax is a progressive tax levied on business profits, salaries and wages, interest derived from securities and deposits and proceeds realized from the lease and sale of properties. During the last eight years, several important changes have been made in the constitution and rates of the tax in order to improve the system and meet the demands of wartime finance. The range of taxable incomes has been enlarged, basic rates raised, and methods of assessment simplified. Among the readjustments made, the most important is the enlargement of the scope of the tax to include incomes

of an irregular or casual nature. Before 1943, taxable incomes consisted of only regular and fixed incomes, while incomes realized from casual business transactions were exempt from taxation, thus causing considerable loss of revenue. In order to increase revenue yield, a new income tax law was promulgated in 1943 providing that incomes derived from the lease and sale of properties,

TABLE I. RATES OF INCOME TAX FOR GROUPS B, A, C, UNDER CLASS I. PROFIT-SEEKING ENTERPRISES

<i>Income/Capital</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
10% — 15% ..	4%
15% — 20% ..	5%
20% — 25% ..	8%
25% — 30% ..	10%
30% — 40% ..	12%
40% — 50% ..	14%
50% — 60% ..	16%
60% — 70% ..	18%
70% — UP ..	20%

TABLE 2. RATES OF INCOME TAX FOR GROUP C: TEMPORARY PROFIT-SEEKING ENTERPRISES, NOT COMPUTABLE ON THE BASIS OF CAPITAL

<i>Taxable Income</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
\$ 200 — \$ 2,000	4%
2,000 — 4,000	6%
4,000 — 6,000	8%
6,000 — 8,000	10%
8,000 — 10,000	12%
10,000 — 14,000	14%
14,000 — 16,000	16%
16,000 — 18,000	20%
18,000 — 20,000	22%
20,000 — 50,000	24%
50,000 — 100,000	26%
100,000 — 200,000	28%
200,000 — UP	30%

such as real estates, are henceforth subject to the tax. The extension of the scope of taxable incomes constitutes a great step forward towards the completion of the direct tax system in China.

The excess war profit tax is the second corner-stone of China's direct tax system. Unlike the income tax, the excess profit tax is intended to be merely a wartime measure for the twofold purpose of increasing government revenue and correcting maladjustments in the distribution of national income due to wartime fluctuation of prices. The law was promulgated in 1939 and revised in 1943. Since its inception, the tax has become an important source of state revenue.

The inheritance tax came into being in July 1940. It is a tax levied on a progressive basis on the estate left by the deceased. When it was first introduced, the tax exemption limit was fixed at \$5,000. Owing to the inflation of wartime prices, the limit was raised to \$100,000 early in 1945. In order to facilitate the enforcement of the new tax, the Ministry of Finance has endeavored to simplify the method of collection as far as possible. But due to unsettled conditions in wartime and the lack of vital statistics, the tax has not made much headway.

The business or sales tax was originally a local tax collected by the provincial governments. In readjusting the financial system, the Central Government took it over in January 1942 and adopted drastic measures to reform the tax

machinery. Since then, notable progress has been made both in its yield and method of assessment. It is now a tax levied on all profit-seeking enterprises, with the exception of agricultural undertakings which are subject to the land tax. Its rate system is a very simple one, i.e. 3% of total business-turn-over or 4% of capital.

TABLE 3. RATES OF INCOME TAX FOR CLASS II: INCOME FROM SALARIES OR REMUNERATION

Monthly Income	Tax Rate Per \$10
Over \$ 100	\$0.10
100 — \$ 200	\$0.20
200 — 300	\$0.30
300 — 400	\$0.40
400 — 500	\$0.60
500 — 600	\$0.80
600 — 700	\$1.00
700 — 800	\$1.20
800 — 900	\$1.40
900 — 1,000	\$1.60
1,000 — 1,100	\$1.80
1,100 — 1,500	\$2.00
1,500 — 2,000	\$2.20
2,000 — 3,000	\$2.40
3,000 — 5,000	\$2.60
5,000 — 10,000	\$2.80
10,000 — UP	\$3.00

TABLE 4. RATES OF INCOME TAX FOR CLASS III: INCOME FROM SECURITIES OR DEPOSITS

Income	Tax Rate
Interest on Government Bonds . . .	5%
Corporate Debentures . . .	5%
Shares of Stock . . .	5%
Deposits	5%

The stamp tax is the oldest tax in this group, having a history of more than thirty years. Although it is not a direct tax in nature, it is collected by the Direct Tax Administration for administrative expediency. During the past few years, the stamp tax law has undergone several revisions and improve-

TABLE 5. RATES OF INCOME TAX
FOR CLASS IV: INCOME FROM THE
RENTAL OF PROPERTY

<i>Taxable Income</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
\$ 3,000 — 25,000	10%
25,000 — 50,000	15%
50,000 — 100,000	20%
100,000 — 200,000	25%
200,000 — 300,000	30%
300,000 — 400,000	35%
400,000 — 500,000	40%
500,000 — 600,000	45%
600,000 — 700,000	50%
700,000 — 800,000	55%
800,000 — 900,000	60%
900,000 — 1,000,000	65%
1,000,000 — 1,100,000	70%
1,100,000 — 1,200,000	75%
1,200,000 — Up	80%

TABLE 6. RATES OF INCOME TAX
FOR CLASS V: INCOME FROM THE
SALE OF PROPERTY

<i>Taxable Income</i>	<i>Tax Rate (on the Excess Amount)</i>
Over	
\$ 5,000 — 50,000	10%
50,000 — 150,000	14%
150,000 — 300,000	16%
300,000 — 500,000	18%
500,000 — 750,000	20%
750,000 — 1,000,000	22%
1,000,000 — 1,250,000	25%
1,250,000 — 1,500,000	30%
1,500,000 — 1,750,000	35%
1,750,000 — 2,000,000	40%
2,000,000 — Up	50%

ments have been made in the machinery for collection and inspection. Since 1942 the tax yield has been increasing steadily.

The land value tax and land increment tax are two latest additions in the realm of direct taxation. The former is a progressive levy on the value of land assessed according to a specific standard while the latter is a levy on the

TABLE 7. RATES OF EXCESS PROFIT
TAX

<i>Profit in Excess of Capital</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
20% — 25% . . .	10%
25% — 30% . . .	15%
30% — 35% . . .	20%
35% — 40% . . .	25%
40% — 45% . . .	30%
45% — 50% . . .	35%
50% — 55% . . .	40%
55% — 60% . . .	45%
60% — 100% . . .	50%
100% — 200% . . .	55%
200% — Up	60%

TABLE 8. RATES OF ESTATE TAX

<i>Value of Taxable Estate</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
\$ 100,000 — 200,000	1%
200,000 — 300,000	2%
300,000 — 400,000	3%
400,000 — 500,000	4%
500,000 — 750,000	5%
750,000 — 1,000,000	6%
1,000,000 — 1,500,000	8%
1,500,000 — 2,000,000	10%
2,000,000 — 3,000,000	13%
3,000,000 — 4,000,000	16%
4,000,000 — 5,000,000	21%
5,000,000 — 6,000,000	26%
6,000,000 — 7,000,000	31%
7,000,000 — 8,000,000	36%
8,000,000 — 9,000,000	41%
9,000,000 — 10,000,000	46%
10,000,000 — Up	51%

increment of value of land at the time of transfer. Inasmuch as these two taxes are still in their infant stage of development, their yield constitutes only a small percentage of total national revenue receipts.

TABLE 9. RATES OF LAND VALUE TAX

<i>Taxable Value</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
A*	1.5%
A* — A500%	1.7%
A500% — A1,000%	2.0%
A1,000% — A1,500%	2.5%
A1,500% — A2,000%	3.0%
A2,000% — A2,500%	3.5%
A2,500% — A3,000%	4.0%
A3,000% — A4,000%	4.5%
A4,000% — Up	5.0%

*"A" represents the starting point of progression. (\$100,000-\$200,000 as the case may be)

RATE OF LAND INCREMENT TAX

<i>Taxable Value</i>	<i>Tax Rate</i>
Over	
P100%*	20%
P100%—P200%	40%
P200%—P300%	60%
P300%—Up	80%

*"P" represents the original value and the purchasing price of the previous transfer of land.

VI. LAND TAX REFORM

The outstanding tax reform in wartime has been the reorganization of the land tax. China being an agricultural country, her national wealth depends largely on her rural economy. Obviously, the fundamental solution to her wartime financial problem had to be sought in the reform of the land tax, not only as a means of improving the fiscal situation but

also of facilitating the adequate provision of food supplies for the army and the rear. Moreover, on account of the advance of commodity prices in the course of the war, it was especially desirable to readjust the burden of taxation, in view of the fact that the actual value of the land tax revenue collected in cash was rapidly decreasing in proportion to the rise of the prices of agricultural products—a situation which gave the landowners unreasonably high returns and encouraged hoarding of foodstuffs.

The Government had long recognized the need for reorganizing the land tax, which had been allocated to the provincial governments in 1929. But it was expedient to wait for a propitious moment when the desired reform could be carried out smoothly on a nationwide scale. In the spring of 1941, the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee laid down the principle that the Central Government should take back the land tax for reorganization and revert to the ancient Chinese custom of collecting the tax in kind. In pursuance of that principle, the Ministry of Finance drew up detailed plans, and in June 1941 convened the Third National Financial Conference which confirmed the Government's policy.

As of July 1, 1941, the Ministry of Finance took over and reorganized the land tax. Since then the transfer of the tax has been effected in 21 provinces. It is only in the Northeastern Provinces of Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol, where special circumstances prevail, that the enforcement of the reform has been postponed.

TABLE 11. ANNUAL COLLECTIONS OF DIRECT TAXES 1937-1944

<i>Fiscal year</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Income Tax</i>	<i>Excess War Profit Tax</i>	<i>Estate Tax</i>	<i>Stamp Tax</i>	<i>Business Tax</i>
1937	\$20,116,761.53	\$20,116,761.53	—	—	—	—
1938*	8,231,297.76	8,231,297.76	—	—	—	—
1939	29,213,667.30	29,213,667.30	—	—	—	—
1940	82,441,029.58	49,118,765.44	\$35,012,050.80	\$1,900.00	\$8,308,313.34	—
1941	184,539,664.46	81,755,353.85	87,607,274.60	331,084.88	14,845,951.13	—
1942	1,173,957,046.67	207,944,808.40	352,055,462.86	2,605,282.87	26,550,905.74	584,800,586.80
1943	4,521,286,228.89	990,947,382.94	1,219,972,517.88	49,406,499.00	369,263,756.53	1,891,696,072.54
1944	7,950,758,542.81	1,698,614,276.10	1,998,065,485.45	414,426,315.96	890,559,984.39	3,219,092,480.91

PUBLIC FINANCE

*Due to change in the fiscal year, the figures represent collections for the six months from July to December, 1938

In the provinces of Sinkiang and Chahar, its operation has been left to the Provincial Bureau of Finance acting for the Central Government.

At the same time, the collection of land tax in kind went into effect. In 1941 the rate was fixed with reference to the cash payment of the tax collectable that year; namely, two standard tou (3.524 standard tou=1 American bushel) of rice for one dollar. In the following year the rate was doubled. The successful collection of land tax in kind, together with obligatory Government purchases from landowners, has placed at the Government's disposal sufficient foodstuffs with which to feed the army and Government employees, to reduce the issue of notes and also to stabilize the price of the most essential daily necessity—rice. In terms of monetary value, the land tax brought the National Treasury \$945,052.500 in the second half year of 1941, \$3,505,804,700 in 1942, \$7,074,389.940 in 1943 and \$3,584,320,824 in 1944.

Along with these measures, steps have been taken to do away with many age-old malpractices connected with the collection of the land tax. According to the new regulations promulgated in October 1941, the land tax and land surtaxes are to be amalgamated. Administrative expenses are to be included in the budgets of the offices-in-charge and no extra charges whatsoever may hereafter be levied by them. The tax is to be paid by the tax-payers direct to the collecting offices and may not be farmed out to any organizations or individuals. At the beginning,

the functions of assessment and collection of the tax were separated and entrusted with the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Food respectively. In 1943 they were, in most provinces, entrusted to provincial bureaus under the joint supervision of the two Ministries. In 1945, the Ministry of Finance transferred its part of the land tax administration to the Ministry of Food in order to simplify the tax machinery and promote administrative efficiency.

To facilitate the equitable adjustment of the land tax, efforts have been intensified by the Ministry of Finance to complete land registration so as to provide a more adequate basis for tax assessment. The work has already been completed in a number of hsien in different provinces. Upon the completion of land registration, land tax will be collected according to new rates and the yield should thereby at least double. Meanwhile, a National Land Administration has been created by the Government, which among other things is studying the ways and means for adjusting land values in line with the Kuomintang's agrarian policy of democratizing land ownership.

VII. PUBLIC TREASURY SYSTEM

Of particular importance in the improvement of fiscal control and administration was the introduction of the public treasury system on October 1, 1939. Before the war the National Government had made progress towards fiscal control by instituting the Comptroller-General's Office which operates the

budgetary system. But the handling of public funds was still left in the hands of various government offices, entailing necessarily a certain amount of inefficiency and peculation. With the enforcement of the public treasury system, all public funds are to be handled by the National Treasury. Thus the receipts and disbursements of all government organs become centralized and at the same time the two functions are separated. Such a procedure on the one hand does away with the traditional decentralized system of financial operation with all its defects and on the other makes for closer integration of the nation's political and financial powers.

The Central Bank of China is authorized to act as the chief agent of the National Treasury in charge of all Government receipts, payments, custody and transfer of cash, notes, bonds, and securities as well as the safe-keeping of title-deeds and certificates of real estates and other government properties. In the absence of a branch bank of the Central Bank of China in any locality, a branch of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications or the Farmers' Bank of China may be designated as the local National Treasury agent. In places where none of the above mentioned Banks has a branch office, other local banks or post-offices may be specially authorized to function as agents for the National Treasury.

To extend and strengthen the public treasury system, the Government in 1941 adopted a two-

year plan calling for the progressive establishment of 1,200 branches of the National Treasury in the country. Its object was to maintain at least one branch treasury in each hsien. By December, 1942, 727 branch treasuries had been established. But for unforeseen changes in the conditions of the war zones, this plan would have been completed in time. Up to June, 1945, a total of 1,037 branches and sub-branches of the National Treasury have been established in the provinces of Szechuen, Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Yunnan, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Sikang, Sinkiang, Ninghsia, Chinghai and Suiyuan. Certain branches in or near the war zones, however, have been removed to the rear or temporarily suspended due to war emergencies.

Meantime, plans have been made to build up, apart from the National Treasury System, a network of Hsien (or county) and Municipal Treasuries as a means of ensuring the proper handling of funds in local finance. Eighteen provinces, including Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien, have submitted plans which have been approved by the Government and are being put into force. It is expected that a local treasury system will be established in the near future throughout the country.

For the purpose of supervision, the National Treasury Administration of the Ministry of Finance

maintains a large number of inspector-auditors in six Inspection-Districts covering the whole country. The duties of these auditors are to watch closely the operation of the public treasury system, to check against any handling of public funds outside the legitimate channels of budgetary control, and to report all discrepancies from and violations of the Treasury Law.

Owing to the difficulties of transporting and distributing large quantities of bank-notes in the war areas to meet the demands for

military and administrative expenditures therein, the National Treasury Administration of the Ministry of Finance has designated the Branch National Treasuries in Kwangtung, Fukien, Kiangsi, Chekiang and Anhwei as treasury centers with the function of concentrating and allocating cash funds in the war areas.

The following table shows the distribution of branches and sub-branches of the National Treasury as of June, 1945.

DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONAL TREASURY SYSTEM
(June, 1945)

<i>Agent Provinces</i>	<i>Central Bank of China</i>	<i>Bank of China</i>	<i>Bank of Com- muni- cations</i>	<i>Farm- ers' Bank of China</i>	<i>Provin- cial & Local Banks</i>	<i>Post- offices</i>	<i>Total</i>
Chungking .	4	3	5	8	—	1	21
Szechuen .	32	16	5	5	48	34	140
Hupei .	4	—	—	1	26	5	36
Hunan .	12	—	1	1	58	8	80
Kwangtung .	5	8	1	4	68	2	88
Kwangsi .	6	1	—	1	30	28	66
Kweichow .	3	5	3	9	—	25	45
Yunnan .	7	4	1	3	6	46	67
Fukien .	12	6	1	1	58	5	83
Chekiang .	3	6	4	1	51	1	66
Kiangsi .	7	2	2	1	64	1	77
Anhwei .	2	1	—	—	32	1	36
Honan .	5	—	—	—	30	25	60
Shensi .	7	2	4	2	37	19	71
Kansu .	5	1	—	1	55	5	67
Sikang .	2	—	—	1	7	4	14
Singkiang .	2	—	—	—	—	—	2
Ninghsia .	1	—	—	—	—	7	8
Suiyuan .	1	—	—	—	—	2	3
Chinghai .	1	—	—	—	—	6	7
Total .	121	55	27	39	570	225	1037

VIII. CONSOLIDATION OF NATIONAL FINANCE SYSTEM

The enforcement of the "National Finance System" in 1941 whereby provincial finances, formerly ad-

ministered by the provincial governments, became incorporated with the national finance, is a reform fraught with far-reaching political as well as financial conse-

quences. The freedom of financial action which the provinces had previously enjoyed lent itself to abuse and at times tended to give them a degree of autonomy which was often inimical to the efficient functioning of the Central Government. This reform, therefore, represents a milestone in the unification of national fiscal control and in the establishment of a pattern of relations between the Central and Provincial Governments consistent with the character of a modern state.

Following the decision to introduce this new fiscal system, made at the Eighth Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee in the spring of 1941, the Ministry of Finance prepared a detailed plan for effecting the change. The plan was readily confirmed by the Third National Financial Conference of June 1941 and went into effect in July.

Under the new system of financial control, the original provincial budgets no longer exist as such but are merged in the national annual general budget. Provincial governments merely submit to the Executive Yuan the estimates of their annual administrative expenditures, while the making of the estimates of annual revenue in the provinces is undertaken by the Tax Bureaus under the direct control of the Ministry of Finance. Provincial assets and liabilities are taken over by the Central Government for readjustment, thus increasing the usefulness of the former and enhancing public confidence in the latter. The finances of the whole country are demarcated into National and

Local. Public revenues and expenditures which should be planned and adjusted as a whole are classified under the "National Finance System," while those which should be done according to local conditions come under the "Local Self-government Finance System." The machinery for the collection of all taxes in the country is unified and centralized in the Ministry of Finance which maintains tax bureaus in all hsien to collect not only national taxes for itself but also local levies for the various local governments.

IX INAUGURATION OF LOCAL FINANCE SYSTEM

Simultaneously with the consolidation of the "National Finance System," the Government inaugurated the so-called "Local Self-Government Finance System," in order to facilitate the development of local self-government, which is an integral part of China's program of democratic progress.

In the past, the hsien finance was made subsidiary to the province, which often appropriated local revenue to subsidize its military establishments. It had no important sources of income of its own, while on the expenditure side each hsien had to resort to miscellaneous levies in order to meet required expenses, due to many duties assigned by the provincial government. Besides, while the richer hsien managed to get along, the poorer hsien suffered immensely from financial stringency. Such a state of affairs was injurious both to financial soundness and to the development of self-government.

To remedy these defects, the new system provides ways and means for increasing the revenue of the hsien governments, so as to enable them to fulfil adequately their functions in education, public health, police organization and other administrative duties. Also, it calls for the readjustment of the revenue of rich and poor hsien governments in order to ensure the balanced development of different localities. It further requires that the method and machinery of revenue collection in all hsien should be simplified and standardized. Finally, all miscellaneous uneconomic local levies are to be abolished, and no new local levies may be imposed without the approval of the Central Government. Notable progress has been made in the enforcement of the

new system, the workings of which may be summarized as follows:

Collection of Local Taxes.—

Under the new local finance system, revenues for hsien governments come mainly from five sources; namely, house tax, business license tax, special operations license tax, and banquet and entertainment tax. Regulations governing the collection of these taxes have been enforced in various parts of the country. Within a period of three and a half years, ending in June, 1945, the house tax has been enforced under the new system in 14 provinces; special operations license tax, in 14 provinces; banquet and entertainment tax, in 14 provinces. Collections from local self-government taxes in various provinces are shown in the following table:

<i>Tax</i> \ <i>Year</i>	1942	1943	1944
House Tax	\$ 19,809,765	\$ 38,275,840	\$ 124,968,260
Butchery Tax	268,792,87 ^c	660,026,046	2,319,156,397
Business License Tax	14,580,111	30,058,777	117,711,714
Special Operation License Tax . .	5,964,202	15,727,632	35,666,191
Banquet and Entertainment Tax .	24,784,152	42,585,999	196,979,984
Total	\$333,931,10^c	\$786,674,294	\$2,794,482,546

Re-allocation of National Revenue for Hsien and Municipalities.

—According to the revised regulations governing the revenue and expenditure system promulgated in 1942, the portions of national revenues to be allocated to the hsien and municipalities are

30% of the stamp tax, 15% of the land tax, including the land value tax and land increment tax, 50% instead of 30% of business license tax and 25% of the inheritance tax. In 1944, the Central Government instituted income taxes on the sale and lease of

property. Thirty percent of each of these taxes has been allocated to the local governments as additional subsidies. Besides the above-mentioned allocations, the hsien and municipal governments are allowed to impose a surtax of 25% on title-deeds, and for local governments suffering from re-

venue deficiency, the Central Government has granted special annual subsidies which totalled \$356,220,166 in 1942, \$98,623,337 in 1943 and \$308,421,294 in 1944. The total annual allocations from the Central Government from 1942-1944 are shown in the following table:

<i>Tax</i> \ <i>Year</i>	1942	1943	1944
Land Tax (Farm Tax)	165,441,476	538,788,000	1,057,015,000
Land Value Tax		37,500,000	34,980,000
Land Increment Tax		7,500,000	6,975,000
Business Tax	110,783,200	245,640,000	525,341,436
Stamp Tax	10,649,600	28,215,000	204,673,500
Inheritance Tax	4,700,000	11,750,000	11,750,000
Income Tax on Property Lease ..			27,000,000
Income Tax on Property Sales ..			27,000,000
Total	\$291,574,276	\$869,393,000	\$1,894,734,936

Readjustment of Local Finance

—In order to improve the financial situation of the local governments the Executive Yuan adopted in December 1942 a "Program for the Readjustment of Local Finance." By June, 1945, a total of 975 hsien in 16 provinces had already adjusted their finances on the basis of the local self-government system and become financially independent of the provincial treasury.

Reclaiming of Public Property and Fund.—In order to prevent local funds and properties from being misappropriated and unlawfully taken over by individuals for their personal gain, as had been done in the past, the Min-

istry of Finance promulgated the "Law for the Reclamation of Public Property and Fund" in 1942. The essence of the law is that all hsien and municipal properties and funds previously under the control of private individuals should be turned over completely to the local authorities, and the local people are encouraged to report or disclose cases of misappropriation of public properties and funds to their respective authorities. Properties and funds so reclaimed are to be leased or otherwise put to profitable use by the local government. The following table shows the amount of local public properties and funds reclaimed up to the end of June 1945:

Province	Public Fund (Yuan)	Land (Shih Mow)	Public Properties		
			Building (Room)	Rice (Picul)	Rent (Yuan)
Szechuen . .	4,400,735	206,658	241	4,193	34,334,542
Fukien . .	985,507	152,477	305	49,995	1,276,880
Kiangsi . .	27,398,568	3,771,140	138	115,018	1,253,768
Chekiang . .	653,525	4,823	120	1,200	1,072,943
Hunan . .	459,000	31,705	427	42,851	686,587
Anhwei . .	54,100	80	33		
Kwangsi . .	66,416	21,845	191	9,670	12,400
Kweichow . .	2,800,000	10,224	1,098	16,219	20,323
Hupeh . .	6,170,169	147,483	99	79	9,813,240
Honan . .	41,272,519	280,415	51,144		
Kansu . .	719,334	409,279	6,205		18,919,938
Shensi . .	9,172,874	219,085	35,394	200	
Ninghsia . .					247,744
Kwangtung . .	11,822,385	10,931	794	10,203	42,236,494
Chungking . .		91,196	1,119		2,192,280
Total . .	\$105,975,152	5,357,341	97,308	249,628	112,067,139

Increasing Revenue by Public Production.—The revenue of hsien government is derived mainly from taxation and public properties. In order to increase the revenue from the latter source, the Government in 1942 enforced a set of regulations governing the use of public properties for the benefit of the local governments. The essence of these regulations is to enable the local governments to make better use of public land for cultivation by organizing voluntary laborers into producers' co-operatives. This will not only give the local government an additional revenue but also help to improve the livelihood of the rural population, thus constituting an important step towards local economic reconstruction. Up to June 1945 this system has been put into effect in 19 provinces and local revenue from public properties has increased considerably.

Enforcement of Budgetary System.—The local budgetary system was introduced in 1943 following the Second National Financial Conference. Under this system, every hsien or municipality should, before the opening of a fiscal year, complete the compilation of its budget and submit it to the provincial government concerned to be forwarded to the Ministry of Finance for final approval. Eighteen provinces duly submitted their local budgets to the Ministry of Finance for approval in 1942; and 17 provinces and one municipality in 1943. Beginning 1944, in accordance with the regulations governing wartime municipal and hsien budgeting, the power of budget approval was transferred to the provincial government. By June, 1945, all the provinces of the country, with the exception of Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang

Jehol, Chahar and Hopei, where special conditions prevail, have adopted the new system, making a new chapter in the history of Chinese local finance.

X. PUBLIC LOANS

As wartime revenue could not possibly keep with mounting expenditures, the National Government has found it necessary to bridge the gap by considerable borrowing. Thanks to the consolidation and improvement of the internal and external debt structure in pre-war years and to the support of the people and friendly countries, China has been able to carry out the borrowing program smoothly.

Internal Loans.—Due to the limitations placed on the nation by its impartial economic development, the Government particularly during the earlier stage of the war had to follow a cautious policy in its borrowing program; e.g., by adopting the method of voluntary subscription of bonds and issuing them in comparatively small amounts. Beginning 1942, however, larger amounts were issued and measures were adopted to enforce compulsory subscription among selected classes of the people so as to absorb more genuine savings from the public.

Since the start of war, the Government has floated 15 issues of internal loans equivalent to the total of C\$17,622,000,000. Three of these issues were quoted in gold currencies to attract foreign exchange and to arrest the outflow of idle capital, and one of them was for readjusting provincial

loans. Of the total new indebtedness, the capital amount outstanding at the end of June 1945 was C\$16,862,100,000. (Vide Table 1 below) In July 1944, the Government authorized the issue of another loan, for the amount of C\$5,000,000,000, but it has not yet been put on the market.

A wartime innovation in internal loans is the issuance of Food Treasury Notes, secured on the land tax and redeemable in five years. From 1941 to 1943, the Government used such notes in addition to cash for purchase of foodstuffs from the landowners. The amount of such notes issued totalled 40,475,672 piculs* of rice and 4,766,667 bags of wheat, thereby saving the Government large amounts of expenditures in cash. The principal amounts outstanding on June 30, 1945, were 26,911,077 piculs of rice and 2,806,666 bags of wheat. (Vide Table 2 below)

In addition to the issuance of public bonds, the Government has received substantial advances from the four Government banks, part of which the banks financed from the public's deposits with them and from other assets at their disposal, the remainder representing bank credit creation.

To promote a national savings system, the Government in July 1940 created a National Thrift-Reconstruction Savings Promotion Commission, under the joint auspices of the Four Government Banks Joint Administration, and launched a nationwide movement for the encouragement of savings deposits and the sale of savings certificates. In 1942 U.S. Dollar

* 1 picul = 110 lbs.

Savings Certificates for the amount of US\$100,000,000 were issued and were entirely absorbed by the public.

External Loans.—During the first one and a half years of the war, China battled without financial aid from abroad. In the subsequent years, external aid has greatly assisted in strengthening its financial front. Altogether, war-time loans and commodity credits received from the various countries, with the exception of the exchange stabilization credits, amounted to U.S. \$870,000,000 and £58,047,000, equivalent to C\$22,043,760,000. Of this total, the amount already expended by the Chinese Government up to the end of June 1945 was US\$758,894,229.37 and £9,509,188/8/9 equivalent to C\$15,938,619,662.40, and the capital amount redeemed was US\$147,698,226.28 and £677,510/4/8 equivalent to C\$3,008,165,350.30 (Vide Table 3 below).

The United States came to China's help first in 1938 by extending the Wood Oil Loan of US\$25,000,000. This was followed by the US\$20,000,000 Tin Loan and US\$25,000,000 Wolfram Loan in 1940, US\$50,000,000 Metal Reserve Loan in 1941, and in 1942 the Lend-Lease Agreement and US\$500,000,000 Credit Loan. From Great Britain came two Export Guarantee Credits of £2,859,000 and £5,000,000 in 1939 and 1941 and the £50,000,000 Credit Loan announced in 1942 and concluded in 1944. Soviet Russia made three barter trade agreements in 1938 and 1939, totalling US\$250,000,000. In addition there were a number of other smaller loans and

credit arrangements, including private purchase credits, from different countries, which have since been liquidated.

Of these foreign loans and credits, special mention should be made of two which carried not terms; namely, the 1942 US\$500,000,000 Loan from America and the 1944 £50,000,000 Loan from Great Britain. The terms of these two loans were left to be decided after the winning of the war. The British Financial Aid Agreement of 1944, however, stipulated that the use by China of the British credit of £50,000,000 shall be terminated immediately upon the cessation of hostilities with Japan.

Debt Service.—A major factor contributing to the maintenance of China's credit has been her scrupulous anxiety to live up to her obligations even is wartime China's determination to uphold her credit was such that for more than one and a half years following the outbreak of hostilities, she continued to meet her debt service fully and regularly, despite the seizure by the enemy of pledged revenues without any provision for applying them to debt service.

During the first one and a half years, the National Government advanced for the service of the customs-secured obligations alone a total of C\$175,000,000 from other sources in order to make up for the revenue that should have been remitted from areas under Japanese occupation. The Central Bank of China moreover provided all the foreign exchange required in spite of Japanese interference with the Chinese currency. By the spring of 1939 the situation

had become too anomalous to be continued, especially as the remaining foreign currency funds had to be conserved for war purposes and for currency support.

On January 15, 1939, the Government very reluctantly suspended temporarily the advance of funds for service of customs-secured obligations. On March 26 1939, the transfer of payments for service of salt-secured obligations was similarly suspended. As from those dates, however, the Government undertook to set aside regularly in special accounts in the Central Bank of China a share of the long-term debt service, proportionate to the collections in the areas not subject to Japanese interference, of the revenues pledged to all such debts outstanding before the hostilities.

In the meantime, obligations contracted during the war have all been fully and promptly met. In fact, the first loan from the United States, secured on Wood oil, was amortized in full two years ahead of schedule and several other external loans were also fully liquidated. Between July 1937 and June 1945, China paid out no less than C\$4,079,007,446 for debt amortization alone, of which C\$3,432,316,830 was on account of external obligations and C\$646,690,616 on that of internal obligation.* Moreover she voluntarily set aside considerable sums from the customs and salt revenues as proportionate shares of areas free from Japanese domination for the long-term

service of obligation secured on those two revenues.

Boxer Indemnity.—At the outbreak of war, the capital amount outstanding of the different national portions of the Boxer Indemnity of 1901 was equivalent approximately to US\$26,700,000. As of January 1, 1939, indemnity payments were suspended along with payment of other customs-secured obligations. As from that date, the Inspectorate General of Customs has, under instructions from the Minister of Finance, made monthly deposits in special accounts in the Central Bank of China of sums in Chinese currency representing for the several customs-secured obligations, including indemnity payments, a share of debt service corresponding to the proportion of customs revenue collected in Free China to the total customs receipts of the entire country. The total of unpaid and uncancelled annuities scheduled since January 1, 1939, is equivalent to approximately US\$11,600,000, not including the Japanese portion which presumably will be cancelled. The entire French and Belgium portions and part of the British portion have been pledged to secure four loans and are therefore not included in the above-mentioned figures.

The American and British treaties with China abolishing extra-territoriality and effective May 20, 1943, also cancelled the 1901 Protocol providing for indemnity payments. In October

*For the capital amounts of pre-war internal and external loans outstanding on June 30, 1945, vide Tables 4 and 5 below.

1943, China and Belgium signed a treaty similar to the treaties with America and Great Britain, abrogating the 1901 Protocol. The payments in respect of the Belgium portion, however, which are entirely pledged for loan service, were scheduled to terminate in 1941, prior to the effective date of the treaty. France has not yet concluded such a treaty with China; consequently, the position of indemnity annuities payable to France, which are entirely pledged for loan service, remains un-

changed. When the war broke out, payments of the Japanese portion beginning with September 1937, were put in a special account in the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank at Shanghai and not turned over to Japan. It is expected that the entire Japanese portion will be cancelled in the final peace settlement. The other portions, payable to Portugal, Spain, Norway and Sweden, are insignificant and were, all except the payments to Portugal, scheduled to end in 1940.

TABLE I. WARTIME INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED THROUGH THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE (As of June 30, 1945)

Loan	Cur- ren- cy	Amount	Date	In- ter- est	Matu- rity	Security	Outstanding Amount	
							Principal	Interest
26th Year Kwangsi Currency Readjustment Loan (1937) ..	N.C.	17,000,000	12/'37	4%	11/'59	Kwangsi Salt Revenue	13,280,000	4,284,000
26th Year Liberty Bonds (1937) ..	N.C.	500,000,000	9/'37	4%	8/'71	Nat'l. Treasury	488,000,000	428,040,000
27th Year National Defence Loan (1938) ..	N.C.	500,000,000	5/'38	6%	4/'69	Income Tax	468,000,000	324,260,000
27th Year Relief Loan (1938) ..	N.C.	30,000,000	7/'38	4%	6/'62	Nat'l. Treasury	29,040,000	12,818,400
27th Year Gold Loan (1938) ..	CGU	100,000,000	5/'38	5%	4/'54	Salt revenue	91,000,000	26,442,500
	£	10,000,000	5/'38	5%	4/'54	Salt revenue	9,100,000	2,644,250
	US\$	50,000,000	5/'38	5%	4/'54	Salt revenue	45,500,000	13,221,250
28th Year Military Supplies Loan (1939) ..	N.C.	600,000,000	10/'39	6%	9/'66	Tobacco Wine and Consolidated Taxes	579,300,000	466,623,000
28th Year Reconstruction Loan (1939) ..	N.C.	600,000,000	8/'39	6%	7/'66	Profits of Gov't Enterprises & Appropriation for Reconstruction	579,300,000	466,623,000
29th Year Military Supplies Loan (1940) ..	N.C.	1,200,000,000	9/'40	6%	2/'67	Nat'l. Treasury	1,186,800,000	1,074,996,000
29th Year Reconstruction Gold Loan (1940) ..	£	10,000,000	11/'40	5%	10/'67	Nat'l. Treasury	9,780,000	6,972,500
	US\$	50,000,000	11/'40	5%	10/'67	Nat'l. Treasury	48,900,000	34,962,500
30th Year Reconstruction Loan (1941) ..	N.C.	1,200,000,000	10/'41	6%	10/'68	Nat'l. Treasury	1,191,200,000	1,140,456,000
30th Year Military Supplies Loan (1941) ..	N.C.	1,200,000,000	10/'41	6%	9/'68	Nat'l. Treasury	1,191,200,000	1,140,456,000
31st Year Allied Victory American Gold Loan (1942) ..	US\$	100,000,000	5/'41	4%	10/'53	Part of 1942 U.S. Credit Loan of US\$ 500,000,000	91,000,000	18,380,000
31st Year Allied Victory Loan (1942) ..	N.C.	1,000,000,000	7/'42	6%	12/'54	Nat'l. Treasury	970,000,000	333,000,000
32nd Year Allied Victory Loan (1943) ..	N.C.	3,000,000,000	6/'32	6%	11/'66	Nat'l. Treasury	2,970,000,000	2,200,000,000
32nd Year Loan for Readjustment of Provincial Loans (1943) ..	N.C.	175,000,000		5%	12/'81	Nat'l. Treasury	171,500,000	116,490,000
	N.C.	10,022,000,000					9,823,700,000	7,708,046,400
	£	20,000,000					18,880,000	9,616,750
Total ..	US\$	200,000,000					185,400,000	66,462,750
	CGU	100,000,000	7/'43				91,000,000	26,442,500
Equivalent ..	N.C.	17,622,000,000					16,862,100,000	10,335,511,400

Note: * Converted at existing official rates of exchange.

TABLE 2. WARTIME EXTERNAL LOANS UNDER CHARGE OF MINISTRY OF FINANCE
(As of June 30, 1945)

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Loans	Date	Amount	Inter- est	Security	Matu- rity	Amount Expended*	Capital Redeemed
American Wood-oil Loan	Feb. 8, 1939	US\$ 25,000,000	4%	Wood Oil	1942	US\$ 22,000,000	Fully Liquidated
American Tin Loan	Apr. 20, 1940	US\$ 20,000,000	4%	Tin	1947	US\$ 17,500,000	US\$ 4,200,000
American Wolfram Loan	Oct. 22, 1940	US\$ 25,000,000	4%	Wolfram	1945	US\$ 25,000,000	US\$ 12,505,812.59
American Metal Reserve Loan	Feb. 4, 1941	US\$ 50,000,000	4%	Wolfram, Antimony and Tin	1947	US\$ 36,218,420.37	US\$ 8,992,413.69
American Credit Loan	Feb. 1, 1942	US\$ 500,000,000	*	*	*—	US\$ 485,000,000	*—
First Soviet Barter Credit Loan	Mar. 1, 1938	US\$ 50,000,000	3%	Agricultural & Mining Products	1943	US\$ 50,000,000	Fully Liquidated
Second Soviet Barter Credit Loan	July 1, 1938	US\$ 50,000,000	3%	—do—	1945	US\$ 50,000,000	Fully Liquidated
Third Soviet Barter Credit Loan	June 30, 1939	US\$ 150,000,000	3%	—do—	1952	US\$ 73,175,809	*—
First British Export Guarantee Credit Loan	Mar. 15, 1938	£ 188,000	5%	No security	1943	£ 188,000	Fully Liquidated
Second British Export Guarantee Credit Loan	Aug. 18, 1939	£ 2,859,000	5%	—do—	1953	£ 2,700,100	£ 489,510-4-8
Third British Export Guarantee Credit Loan	June 5, 1941	£ 5,000,000	3.5%	Agricultural & Mining Products	1961	£ 2,737,890	*—
British Financial Aid Loan	May 2, 1944	£ 50,000,000	*	*—		£ 3,883,198-8-9	*—
	Equivalent	US\$ 870,000,000				US\$758,894,229.37	US\$ 147,698,226.28
		£ 58,047,000				£ 9,509,188-8-9	£ 677,510-4-8
		NC\$22,043,760,000				NC\$15,938,619,662.40	NC\$3,008,165,350.30

PUBLIC FINANCE

TABLE 3. PRE-WAR INTERNAL LOANS ISSUED BY THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE (As of June 30, 1945)

Name	Cur- ren- cy	Amount	Date	In- ter- est	Date of Maturity	Security	Outstanding Amount	
							Principal	Interest
17th Year Long Term Cur- rency Loan	N.C.	45,000,000	Nov. 1928	2½%	Sept. 1953	Customs	32,625,000	6,117,188
23rd Year Yuping Railway Loan	N.C.	12,000,000	June, 1934	6%	May 1943	Surtax on Kwangsi salt revenue	—	—
23rd Year 6% Boxer Indem- nity Sterling Loan . . .	£	1,500,000	June, 1934	6%	Jan. 1947	British Boxer In- demnity	972,000	254,010
25th Year Consolidated Loan	N.C.	1,460,000,000	Feb. 1936	6%	Jan. 1960	Customs	1,412,450,000	927,727,400
25th Year Recovery Loan . .	N.C.	340,000,000	Mar. 1936	6%	Feb. 1960	Customs	329,800,000	273,717,000
26th Year U.S. Dollar Loan for Engineering Projects and Harbour Development in Kwangtung	US\$	2,000,000	Apr. 1937	6%	Mar. 1953	Surtax on Kwang- tung Customs Import Duty	1,840,000	913,200
24th Year Szechuen Rehabi- litation Loan	N.C.	70,000,000	July 1935	6%	June 1944	Szechuen Salt revenue	—	—
25th Year Szechuen Rehabili- tation Loan	N.C.	15,000,000	Apr. 1936	6%	Mar. 1951	Szechuen Salt revenue	8,100,000	1,680,500
25th Year Kwangtung Cur- rency Readjustment Loan	N.C.	120,000,000	Oct. 1936	4%	Sept. 1966	Kwangtung Conso- lidated Tax	90,000,000	42,240,000
Total	N.C.	2,062,000,000					1,872,975,000	1,251,482,088
	£	1,500,000					972,000	254,010
	US\$	2,000,000					1,840,000	913,200
Equivalent*	N.C.	2,222,000,000					1,987,535,000	1,290,066,888

*Converted at existing official rates of exchange.

TABLE 4. PRE-WAR EXTERNAL LOANS UNDER CHARGE OF MINISTRY OF FINANCE
(As of June 30, 1945)

Name	Cur- ren- cy	Amount	In- ter- est	Security	Date of Maturity	Outstanding Amount†	
						Principal	Interest
Anglo-German Loan of 1898	£	16,000,000	4½%	Customs	Mar. 1943	2,996,425	344,516
Reorganization Loan of 1913	£	25,000,000	5%	"	July 1960	19,691,880	12,727,884
Anglo-French Loan of 1908	£	5,000,000	4½%	Salt	Oct. 1938	250,000	—
Crisp Loan of 1912	£	5,000,000	5%	"	Sept. 1952	3,666,971	1,349,651
Vickers-Marconi Loans of 1918 and 1919 ..	£	2,403,200	3%	"	June 1975	2,403,200	1,566,225
Chicago Continental Bank Loan of 1919 ..	US\$	5,500,000	6%	"	Nov. 1954	5,500,000	(1,105,500* (2,846,250
Pacific Development Corporation Loan of 1919	US\$	4,900,000	6%	"	July 1954	4,900,000	1,918,350
Sino-Japanese Industrial Corporation Loan of 1919	Yen	1,450,000	—	National Treasury	Nov. 1944	1,315,000	—
An Lee Co. Treasury Notes of 1918	NC	1,910,000	—	"	Mar. 1953	920,000	—
Hwa Ning Co. Treasury Notes of 1916† ..	Yen	1,880,000	—	"	May 1946	188,000	—
American Wheat and Cotton Loans of 1931 and 1933	US\$	26,299,109	4%	Customs Relief Surtax	Dec. 1944	—	—
Hukwang Railway Loan of 1911 ..	£	5,656,000	2½%	Salt	June 1975	5,656,000	(441,667* (7,255,200
Total	NC	1,910,000				920,000	
	£	59,059,200				34,664,476	23,685,143
	US\$	36,699,109				10,400,000	5,870,100
	Yen	3,330,000				1,503,000	
Equivalent‡	NC	5,561,976,000				2,983,581,080	2,012,213,440

Note: *Non-interest bearing scrip.

‡Converted at existing official rates of exchange.

†Payments on customs-secured and salt-secured obligations suspended as of January and March, 1939, respectively.

‡Bought up by the Central Bank of China in 1936.

TABLE 5. WARTIME FOOD TREASURY NOTES ISSUED JOINTLY BY THE MINISTRIES OF FINANCE AND FOOD
(As of June 30, 1945)

<i>Treasury Notes</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Interest</i>	<i>Date of Maturity</i>	<i>Security</i>	<i>Outstanding Amount</i>	
							<i>Principal</i>	<i>Interest</i>
30th Year Food Treasury Notes ..	Rice (Picul)	27,983,656	Sept. 1941	5%	Sept. 1947	Land Tax	3,193,455	239,509
	Wheat (Bag)	1,816,667		5%	Sept. 1947		726,666	54,500
31st Year Food Treasury Notes ..	Rice (Picul)	11,380,036	July 1942	5%	July 1948	Land Tax	6,828,022	682,802
	Wheat (Bag)	1,400,000		5%	July 1948		840,000	84,000
32nd Year Food Treasury Notes ..	Rice (Picul)	21,112,000	Sept. 1943	5%	Sept. 1952	Land Tax	16,889,600	2,111,200
	Wheat (Bag)	1,550,000		5%	Sept. 1952		1,240,000	155,000
Total	Rice (Picul)	40,475,672					26,911,077	3,033,511
	Wheat (Bag)	4,766,667					2,806,666	293,500

CHAPTER XXVIII

BANKING AND CURRENCY

LIU KUNG-YUNG (劉攻芸)*

I. THE JOINT BOARD OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

The Joint Board of Four Government Banks is the joint administration office of the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China. It was organized for the purpose of carrying out the wartime financial and economic policies of the National Government. The present high degree of coordination 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 Board.

Since its inauguration in the autumn of 1937, the Joint Board has undergone two changes. On May 4, 1942, the Organic Law of the Joint Board was revised in accordance with the decision made by the provisional conference of the Board of Directors, and again was revised in September of the same year. According to Article 2 of the revised law, the Central Trust of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank were also put to the direction and supervision of the Joint Board. The activities of the Joint Board may be summarized as follows:

1. The planning and distribution of the financial network throughout the country.

2. The training, examination and readjustment of the personnel of the government banks.

3. Auditing of the expenditure and budgetary estimates of the government banks.

4. Adjustment of the note-issue and inspection of the reserves of the government banks.

5. Directing and auditing of savings deposits.

6. Auditing and inspection of loan extensions.

7. Auditing and inspection of rural credit extensions.

8. Approval of applications for foreign exchange by importers.

9. Assisting the Ministry of Finance in the administration of matters relating to finance.

10. Other matters relating to the financial policy in wartime.

The Joint Board has a Board of Directors composed of the governor and the deputy governor of the Central Bank of China, the chairmen and the general managers of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China, the Ministers of Finance, Economic Affairs, Communications and Food. The Board of Directors has a

*Chief Secretary, Ministry of Finance.

chairman and a deputy chairman. The National Government appointed President Chiang Kai-shek and Dr. T. V. Soong as respectively the chairman and deputy chairman of the Board of Directors. Under the Board of Directors are two committees, namely, the Wartime Financial and Economic Committee and the Agricultural Finance Planning Committee. Members of these two committees were selected by the chairman and deputy chairman from the senior staff members of government banks or from other experts. The Wartime Financial and Economic Committee has eight sub-committees for the examination of related matters; namely, the Savings, Loans Discounts, Farm Loans, Domestic and Foreign Exchange, Land Finance, Materials Purchase, Rehabilitation Business committees and a Special Committee. Each of the sub-committees has a director and a deputy director and a number of members appointed by the chairman and deputy chairman of the Board of Directors. The Joint Board has a Secretariate and an Accounting Department in charge of daily office work under the direction of the chairman and deputy chairman of the Board of Directors. The Secretariate has five sections, namely, Loans, Savings, Farm Loan, Auditing and General Affairs. The Accounting Department has three sections, namely, accounting, statistics and correspondence. The Joint Board is also running a Banking Personnel Training Institute, training personnel for the government banks.

The Joint Board may establish branch offices and sub-branch offices in various localities, whose functions are:

1. Carrying out orders handed down by the Joint Board.
2. Joint extension of loans and domestic exchange.
3. Purchase of raw materials.
4. Absorption of money deposits and promotion of public savings.
5. Extension of farm loans and development of land finance and co-operative finance.
6. Economic research and investigation of the credits extended to industries and mines.
7. Budget, accounting and statistics.

Each of the branch offices and sub-branch offices is composed of one or two representatives of the local government banks, with one of them acting as the chairman. The branch office may have a secretary, the sub-branch office, a clerk, in charge of routine work.

II. CONTROL MEASURES

A. Control Measures for Government Banks.—In recent years the National Government has taken important control measures over banking institutions, which have greatly helped the wartime finance and social economy. Those concerning the government banks are as follows:

1. *The Strengthening of Functional Specialization.*—The government banks have assumed a new role since July, 1943, when they were called upon to perform functional specialization. With a view to strengthening the financial power of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China, the government undertook to increase government capital in these three banks, their capital being thus raised to \$60,000,000, each. In the year 1944, these three banks were

ordered to summon meetings of shareholders which were postponed since the beginning of war. The Ministry of Finance had also given order to increase the number of directors and supervisors of the above mentioned banks.

2. *The Concentration of Cash Balance.*—For the purpose of facilitating the financial policy of the government, the Joint Board has ordered the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China transfer their cash balance into the Central Bank of China. In November, 1944, the Joint Board again stipulated measure, containing 8 articles, for assisting the government banks to tide over difficulties resulted from the cash shortage.

3. *The Deflation of Credit.*—Restrictions had been imposed upon the commercial loans extended by the government banks. In August, 1944, however, all loans extended to merchants and commercial banks were prohibited. This has contributed a great deal to the stabilization of commodity prices.

4. *The Control of Postal Remittances and Savings Business.*—In October, 1944, the Ministry of Finance, together with the Joint Board of Four Government Banks and the Ministry of Communications, enacted the "Regulations Governing Postal Remittances and Savings Business," by which all measures taken by the Ministry of Finance and the Joint Board of Four Government Banks are applicable to the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank. The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank should do no other business than savings, remittances and simple life insurance.

5. *The Fostering of Productive Enterprises.*—The Joint Board had paid due attention to loans extended by government banks. In 1944, the Joint Board and the Ministry of Finance formulated the "Regulations Governing the Industrial and Mining Loans." According to the regulations, loans granted to industries and mines should be carefully studied so that the loans would give the greatest help to the enterprises.

B. Control Measures for Private Banks.—As to the measures concerning private banks, the chief purpose is to improve their business so as to suit the wartime financial policy of the government.

1. *The Promotion of Stock Exchange.*—In April, 1943, the Ministry of Finance promulgated the "Regulations Governing Stock Exchange in Period of Emergency" and ordered to be put into effect in designated places. Under the auspices of the Joint Board of Four Government Banks, the government banks, in cooperation with the commercial banks in Chungking, inaugurated a model stock exchange in October 1944, handling the acceptance of bills.

2. *The Organization of "Bankers' Joint Reserve Committee."*—For purposes of maintaining the financial stability and guaranteeing the extension of loans by the Central Bank of China, the Joint Board announced 11 principles concerning the organization of the "Bankers' Joint Reserve Committee" for adoption, and ordered these principles first to be put into practice in Chungking, as a model to other places. All member banks of the committee will guarantee each other when in difficulty. Each of the member

banks may submit their property to the committee for a certificate with which to obtain loans from the Central Bank of China.

3. *The Improvement of Trust Business.*—Since the promulgation of Provisional Regulations Governing the Control of Banks in the Period of Emergency, banks have been prohibited from direct participation in any business undertaking or in hoarding any kind of commodities. They have also been prohibited from buying and selling commodities, either on their own account or on behalf of their client through the instrumentality of their "agency department," "trading department," or any other such offices. But there were banks that transferred their deposits received by trust departments to other uses. To amend this, the Ministry of Finance decided to cease granting any approval to the establishment of trust department. The banks that have been running trust departments were ordered to undertake their business in strict accordance with the regulations promulgated by the Ministry of Finance.

4. *The Unification of Accounting System.*—To direct a sound development of banking business the Ministry of Finance has taken measure to unify the accounting system of banks. The unified accounting system of government banks was worked out by the Joint Board of Four Government Banks, which has already been put into practice.

5. *The Prohibition of accepting gold and food as security for loans.*—In March, 1944, the Ministry of Finance, for preventing pro-

fitteering with loans from gold which proved to be a hindrance to the carrying out of "gold policy," prohibited all banking institutions to accept gold as security for loans. In November of the same year, the Bankers' Association was ordered to instruct banks and native banks not to extend loans on security of food which would tend to encourage hoarding food.

III. THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA

The Central Bank of China was first founded at Canton in 1924. After the accomplishment of the Northern Expedition, the bank was officially inaugurated in Shanghai in November, 1928, with a capital of \$20,000,000, from the National Treasury. On account of business expansion its capital was augmented to \$100,000,000 in May, 1934, its branches and sub-branches being established in all important cities of the country. By June, 1937, a plan for the reorganization of the Central Bank of China into a Central Reserve Bank had already adopted. The execution of the plan, however, was disrupted by the outbreak of war. According to the "Central Bank Law" promulgated in 1935, the Central Bank of China is organized upon the basis of "Three Separate Powers," namely, the legislative function, governed by the Board of Directors; the supervisory function, discharged by the Supervisory Council, and the executive function, performed by the Governor and two Deputy Governors.

A. *The Board of Directors.*—The Bank has a board of directors consisting of 11 to 15 members and a standing board of directors of 5

to 7 members to be elected by the members of the board of directors. The board of directors has the power to decide the policy of business, the amount of note issue, the auditing of budget, the increase of capital and the establishment or suspension of branches and sub-branches. The decisions of the board of directors are usually handed to the governor of the bank for execution.

B. The Supervisory Council.—The bank has one supervisory council consisting of 7 members appointed by the National Government. It is responsible for the auditing of account, inspection of reserve and the examination and approval of budget.

C. Governor and Deputy Governors.—The bank has one governor and two deputy governors appointed by the National Government. The governor is the actual ruler of the bank, with deputy governors as his assistants. He is also designated as the chairman of the board of directors.

The bank is now composed of the following departments:

1. Personnel Department
2. Accounting Department
3. Banking Department
4. Auditing Department
5. Economic Research Department
6. Secretariat Department
7. Treasury Department
8. Note Issue Department
9. Banking Business Inspection Department

To carry out the government policy of accomplishing financial network in the Southeast and Northwest, the Central Bank of China has established branches and sub-branches in such border pro-

vinces as Tibet, Chinghai, Ninghsia, Suiyuan and Sinkiang. By the end of 1944, 134 branches and sub-branches were established.

The Central Bank of China has the prerogative to act as National Treasury to handle government bonds, to mint coinage and to issue banknotes. At the same time the bank may engage in the following business:

1. Receiving deposits
2. Safe-keeping the reserves of both government and private banks.
3. Handling the exchange of bills and clearing accounts among banks.
4. Re-discounting public loans interest, coupon and treasury notes issued or guaranteed by the Government.
5. Re-discounting bills accepted by the local banks, commercial bills and promissory notes.
6. Buying and selling promissory notes which are to be paid in a foreign country.
7. Buying and selling promissory notes and demand drafts of reliable foreign banks.
8. Buying and selling public loans certificates issued or guaranteed by the National government.
9. Buying and selling gold and silver and foreign coinage.
10. Handling foreign remittances.
11. Extending loans on security of gold and silver.
12. Extending loans on security of public loans certificates issued or guaranteed by the National Government.
13. Handling other business on instruction of the National Government.

In 1935, the National Government completed its currency reform by announcing the bank-notes issued by the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, and the Bank of Communications as legal tender. Since the enforcement of functional specialization in July, 1942, the right of issuing bank notes is centralized in the Central Bank of China. The amount of bank note issued by the Central Bank of China is as follows:

(unit: \$1,000,000)

<i>Period (up to)</i>	<i>Accumulated Number</i>
June, 1937	376
Dec., 1937	431
June, 1938	490
Dec., 1938	768
June, 1939	1049
Dec., 1939	1881
June, 1940	2894
Dec., 1940	3852
June, 1941	4808
Dec., 1941	6341
June, 1942	8278
Dec., 1942	17883

Since the promulgation of "Public Treasury Law" in October, 1939, the Central Bank of China was charged with the disbursement, safe-keeping and transfer of cash, notes bonds and the safe-keeping of title deeds of property. In places where the Central Bank has

no branches, another bank or the post office may be authorized to act as its agent in handling matters relating to public treasury. In the last quarter of 1939, when the public treasury system was started, the head office was established in Chungking by the Central Bank of China. Many provinces in the free China also started to form treasuries in accordance with the Public Treasury Law. The ruling is applicable to guerilla and war areas. In the following years saw a number of new branches and sub-branches and agencies came into existence in various localities. Towards the end of 1944, the number had increased to 1,086. The sum of money received in 1944 was 250 times that of 1933.

In point of deposits and loan extension, the position of the Central Bank of China has become even more important as a "bankers' bank." Since the outbreak of war, the Bank has led the work of Joint Loan and Discount Committee, collected gold and silver for the government and directed the wartime control of foreign exchange. In more recent years, the Bank has taken the duty of safe-keeping the deposit reserves for other banks, inaugurated the clearing system among banks and assumed re-discount and other business.

STATISTICS OF DEPOSITS, LOANS AND REMITTANCES OF THE
CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA
(unit: \$1,000,000)

<i>Period</i>	<i>Deposits</i>	<i>Loans Extended</i>	<i>Remittances</i>
December, 1939	2521	3742	1884
" 1940	3969	5098	2157
" 1941	5689	11437	3191
" 1942	10242	39953	12608
" 1943	21969	94435	38816

BANKING AND CURRENCY

CLEARING SECTIONS OF THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA

<i>Location</i>	<i>Date of Inauguration</i>
Chungking ..	June, 1942
Chentu ..	May, 1943
Sian ..	May, 1944
Kunming ..	November, 1945
Kweiyang ..	February, 1945
Kweilin ..	(suspended by enemy occupation of the place)

<i>Location</i>	<i>Date of Inauguration</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Date of Inauguration</i>
Lanchow . .	Sept., 1944	Nanning . . .	Aug., 1944
Tienschui . .	Nov., 1944	Wanhhsien . . .	Aug., 1943
Chiutsuan . .	Nov., 1944	Iping . . .	July, 1944
Ningsai . .	Sept., 1944	Tzuliuching . . .	Aug., 1944
Paochi . .	Sept., 1944	Neikiang . . .	Aug., 1944
Nancheng . .	Oct., 1944	Peip'ei . . .	Sept., 1944
Laohokuo . .	Jan., 1945	Nanchung . . .	Oct., 1944
Kiangsi . .	Nov., 1944	Chiating . . .	Oct., 1944
Shangjao . .	April, 1945	Hochuan . . .	Nov., 1944
Chi-an . .	Oct., 1944	Fuling . . .	Nov., 1944
Yungan . .	Oct., 1944	Luhhsien . . .	Dec., 1944
Tsuanchow . .	Dec., 1944	Kiangching . . .	Nov., 1944
Lungtsuan . .	Jan., 1944	Kwangyuan . . .	April, 1945
Hungkiang . .	Jan., 1945	Ya-an . . .	Oct., 1944
Yuanling . .	Jan., 1945	Shaoyang (suspended by enemy occupation of the place)	
Pingyuan . .	Jan., 1945	Lingling cupation of the places)	

IV. THE BANK OF CHINA

The Bank of China is the successor to the Ta Ching Bank of the Manchu Dynasty. Following the founding of the Republic of China in 1912, the Ta Ching Bank was reorganized into the Bank of China. It had been in the lead of banking business for many years before the establishment of the Central Bank of China. When the Central Bank of China came into existence, the Bank of China was authorized to deal exclusively in foreign exchange. As a result of monetary reform in November, 1935, its bank notes were made full

legal tender. The Bank was charged with the duty of stabilizing foreign exchange with the Central Bank of China and the Bank of Communications. Since the out-break of the war of resistance the Bank of China, along with the Central Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China, has been responsible for the carrying out of wartime financial policy under the direction of the Joint Board of Four Government Banks. When the functional specialization put into effect in July, 1942, the Bank of China was entrusted with

financing foreign trade. The principal business of the Bank of China are as follows:

1. Receipt and disbursement of government foreign funds on instruction of the Central Bank of China.

2. Investment in and extension of loans to enterprises for the development of foreign trade.

3. Handling of foreign exchange for imports and from exports and remittances from overseas Chinese on instruction of the Central Bank of China.

4. Handling of remittances of domestic and commercial funds.

5. Handling of savings deposits and trust business.

In 1943, the capital of the Bank of China was augmented to \$60,000,000, of which 2/3 were held by the government. By the end of 1944, the Bank of China had established 208 branches and sub-branches in various places and 10 agents in foreign countries. The following table shows the amounts of deposits, loans extended and remittances handled by the Bank of China in the last few years:

DEPOSITS, LOANS AND REMITTANCES OPERATION OF THE BANK OF CHINA.

(unit: \$1,000,000)

<i>Period (up to)</i>	<i>Deposits</i>	<i>Loans Extended</i>	<i>Remittances</i>
December, 1939	3,261	3,322	1,417
" 1940	3,752	4,174	2,072
" 1941	6,093	6,115	3,662
" 1942	5,835	8,339	7,167
" 1943	6,684	6,192	22,574
" 1944	13,044	10,461	63,989

Since the war began, the Bank of China has made the absorption of overseas remittances as its chief business, and the amount received has increased from year to year. The Bank received \$173,000,000 in 1939 and \$1,206,000,000 in 1943 half of them came from the South Sea Islands. About \$630,000,000 were received by the Bank in the first half of 1944, but since the South Sea Islands were occupied by the Japanese as a result of the outbreak of the Pacific War, the remittances from these places were rapidly decreasing. The Bank of China has made every effort to

facilitate the overseas Chinese to support their families.

The saving business of the Bank of China has also made much progress since the Saving Department was officially inaugurated in 1935. The Bank received \$100,000,000 by the end of 1937, and \$200,000,000 in the next year. The amount increased to \$603,000,000 in 1942 and to \$2,947,000,000 in 1944.

V. THE BANK OF COMMUNICATIONS

The Bank of Communications was established in 1907, five years before the founding of the Republic

of China. Besides handling general banking transactions, the Bank of Communications was authorized to act as agent for the collection of government revenue from railways, telegraphs, posts and navigation. It also had the right of note issuing. In 1928, the National Government revised the regulations of the Bank and designated it as an industrial bank. With the specialization of business of four government banks enforced in 1942, the bank has been undertaking the following business:

- 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 and handling of transportation business.
- E. Handling of saving deposits and trust business.

At present the Bank has seven departments under its head office in charge of general affairs, auditing, accounting, savings, trust and personnel respectively. It has 120 branches, sub-branches, and simple savings offices functioning in various localities all over the country. Its foreign branches in Saigon, Rangoon, the Philippines, with the exception of that in Calcutta, were suspended following the Japanese occupation of those places.

The Bank of Communications has been successful in doing its duties regulated by the National Government. Large sums of loans have been rendered with success to the spinning and weaving industry, food industry and other industries concerning national defense and people's livelihood. Progress has been shown in the general banking business of the bank. The following table shows the deposits, loan, and remittance operations of the bank in recent years:

DEPOSITS, LOANS AND REMITTANCES OPERATION OF THE BANK
OF COMMUNICATIONS
(unit: \$1,000,000)

<i>Period (up to)</i>	<i>Deposits</i>	<i>Loans Extended</i>	<i>Remittances</i>
December, 1939	952	1,335	573
" 1940	1,437	2,285	844
" 1941	2,677	4,349	2,093
" 1942	1,642	2,573	3,221
" 1943	3,873	4,353	13,821
" 1944	10,048	9,838	35,820

In 1930, the Bank of Communications established a savings department, operating various savings. The money received by the savings department at the end of

1930 was \$1,600,000. The amount was increased to \$61,000,000 in 1936, to \$543,000,000 in 1942 and to \$3,550,800,000 at the end of 1944.

VI. THE FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA

The Farmers Bank of China was founded in 1933 through the amalgamation of Honan-Hupeh-Anhui Four-Province Farmers' Bank of China, for the specific purpose of assisting the rehabilitation of rural economy. With the enforcement of functional specialization of four government banks, its capital was augmented to \$60,000,000. The Farmers' Bank of China has head office consisting of ten departments, namely, General Affairs, Transportations, Farm Loans, Savings, Trust, Accounting, Auditing, Land Finance, Economic Research and Secretariat. In 1936, it had only 75 branches and sub-branches, most of them located in the coastal provinces. But towards the end of 1944 it had 373 branches and sub-branches operating all over the country. The principal businesses of the Farmers' Bank of China are as follows:

1. Investment in and extension of loans to agricultural enterprises.
2. Extension of loans to farmers' cooperative enterprises.
3. Extension of loans of irri-

gation and famine preventive enterprises.

4. Opening of granaries and extension of loans to enterprises concerning the improvement of agricultural products and tools.

5. Extension of loans on security of personal and real property and on credit.

6. Acceptance and discount of bills and notes.

7. Absorption of savings and other deposits.

8. Remittance of money in payment of demands, accounts, drafts, etc.

9. Handling of short term loans and payment among banks.

10. Buying and selling securities.

11. Other business of farmers' banks.

As provided in the Law Governing the Farmers' Bank of China, the farm loans extended by the bank should not be less than 60% of the total loans extended. The following table shows the amounts of deposits, loans and remittances handled by the Bank in recent years.

DEPOSITS, LOANS AND REMITTANCES OPERATION OF THE FARMERS'
BANK OF CHINA
(unit: \$1,000,000)

<i>Period (up to)</i>	<i>Deposits</i>	<i>Loans Extended</i>	<i>Remittances</i>	<i>Savings</i>
December, 1939	286	619	683	7
" 1940	421	1,059	867	29
" 1941	1,165	2,827	2,209	91
" 1942	1,883	3,154	6,391	470
" 1943	3,394	3,001	13,397	1,222
" 1944	8,024	5,811	34,539	2,267

The Land Finance Department of the Farmers' Bank of China was formally established in June, 1941, with a capital of \$10,000,000 paid up in full from the stock subscribed by the Ministry of Finance. The chief purpose of the Department is to assist the government to enforce the policies of equalization of land ownership and 'land for each tiller.' It is also given the right of issuing land bonds, the amount of which should not be in

excess of the five-fold of its capital paid-up and the total loans extended by the bank. The farm loans operation has extended to 12 provinces, namely, Fukien, Chekiang, Kwangtung, Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Szechuen, Kweichow, Shansi, Kansu, Sikang and Ninghsia. The following table shows the kinds of farm loans extended by the Farmers' Bank of China:

FARM LOANS OPERATION OF THE FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA

(unit: \$1,000,000)

<i>Loans</i>	<i>Dec., 1942</i>	<i>Dec., 1943</i>	<i>Dec., 1944</i>
'One who tills his own land' fostering loans	493	12,179	43,505
Land improvement loans	900	36,707	97,568
Land re-division loans	1,140	2,345	1,225
Town and village public property registration and utilization loans	—	1,600	4,664
Land levy loans	—	5,250	5,100
Land buying according to its price loans	—	4,000	4,170
Title deeds rearrangement loans .	—	1,930	13,211
Total	2,533	64,011	169,443

VII. THE CENTRAL TRUST OF CHINA

The Central Trust of China was established in October, 1935, with a capital of \$10,000,000 appropriated by the Central Bank of China. Owing to expansion of business, its capital had been increased several times, and now it holds a capital of \$50,000,000. According to the revised Organic Law of the Central Trust of China promulgated in June, 1942, it has a Board of Directors consisting of 9 members. The Governor of the Cen-

tral Bank of China was designated the chairman of the Board of Directors. It also has a Supervisory Council composed of 3 members. Under the Board of Directors are one General Manager and a number of Assistant Managers. The Central Trust has at present the following departments:

1. Trust Department.
2. Savings Department.
3. Material Purchase Department.
4. Life Insurance Department.
5. Printing Department.

6. Products Insurance Department.
7. Accounting Department.
8. Secretariat Department.
9. Central Saving Department.

By the end of 1944, the Central Trust has opened five branches located in Chengtu, Kunming, Kweichow, Hungyang and Kweichow, respectively and an agent in India.

The Central Trust was originally established, as a representative of the Central Bank of China, to carry out the long term financial policy of the government. It aims at the promotion of trust business to finance productive enterprises and the promotion of savings business. The following table shows the deposits and trust loans operation of the Central Trust of China.

Category	1943	1944
Current Deposit in Trust	\$424,598,000	\$616,293,000
Time Deposit in Trust	37,605,000	44,041,000
Trust bonds Selling	—	45,708,000
Total	\$462,203,000	\$706,042,000

The Savings Business of the Central Trust of China consists of the following items:

1. Ordinary savings: Ordinary savings consist of current savings, fixed savings, optional savings, servicemen's savings and worker's savings.
2. Thrift and reconstruction savings: Thrift and reconstruction savings consist of Thrift and

Reconstruction savings, U.S. gold dollar savings certificates and town and village public welfare savings.

3. Gold Savings: Prize Savings consist of Prize Savings and Special Prize Savings Certificates. The savings operation of the Central Trust of China is shown in the following table:

Ordinary Savings:

1. Current Savings	\$825,511,000
2. Fixed Savings	15,277,000
3. Optional Savings	1,760,000
4. Servicemen's Savings	5,316,000
5. Workers' Savings	50,000
Total		<u>847,914,000</u>

Thrift and Reconstruction Savings:

1. Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Certificates ..	\$377,004,000
2. Thrift and Reconstruction Savings ..	2,913,000
3. U.S. Gold Dollar Savings ..	231,480,000
4. Town and Village Public Welfare Savings ..	252,862,000
5. Public Fund ..	6,238,000
Total	<u>.. \$870,497,000</u>

Gold Savings:

Fabi converted into gold savings deposits \$ 54,167,000

Prize Savings:

1. Prize Savings	\$ 35,134,000
2. Special Prize Savings Certificates ..	240,000,000
Total	\$275,134,000

The following table shows the insurance operation of the Central Trust of China in 1944:

DEVELOPMENT OF INSURANCE BUSINESS OF THE CENTRAL TRUST, 1944
(In National Dollars)

<i>Insurance</i>	<i>Sum Insured</i>	<i>Premium received</i>
1. Ordinary Insurance		
a. Fire	1,568,805,373,000	61,434,000
b. Marine	7,880,912,000	73,053,000
c. Others	53,068,000	1,864,000
2. Land War Risks		
a. War Risks on Cargoes in Transit	8,803,765,000	69,343,000
b. Land War Risks	7,803,718,000	156,158,000

The insurance business of the Central Trust of China consists of People's Life Insurance, Group Insurance for Government Employees, Endowment Insurance, Whole Life Insurance, Town and Village Public Welfare Life Insurance, and Life Re-Insurance. The sums insured in the last three years are as follows:

1942	\$137,888,000
1943	187,673,000
1944	590,713,000

The following table shows the sum of Life Insurance insured in 1944:

<i>Locality</i>	<i>Sum Insured</i>
Chungking ..	\$ 204,471,000
Kunming ..	34,038,000
Chengtu ..	20,679,000
Kweiyang ..	15,699,000
Sian ..	12,244,000
Wanhhsien ..	8,058,000
Kweilin ..	6,841,000
Lanchow ..	4,649,000
Neikiang ..	4,204,000
Paachi ..	1,383,000
Luchow ..	72,000
Chiating ..	16,000
Total ..	312,354,000
Life Re-Insurance ..	\$1,614,727,000
Grand total ..	\$1,927,081,000

In the Spring of 1941, the Central Trust established a printing factory on instruction of the Ministry of Finance with a purpose to unify bank-notes and certificates issued by both Central and local banks. At the beginning of

1945, the printing factory was reorganized into the Central Printing Factory with an independent fund. The factory printed the following matters within the year of 1944:

<i>Kinds</i>	<i>Number printed</i>	<i>Cost of printing</i>
500-dollar notes	30,000,000 sheets	\$ 196,800,000
100-dollar notes	400,000,000 "	1,021,120,000
Postage Stamps	267,000,000 "	15,538,000
Revenue Stamps	1,000,000 "	4,100,000
Food Treasury Notes	51,980,000 "	16,998,000
Public Welfare Savings Certificates .	86,786,000 "	66,500,000
Thrift and Reconstruction Certificates	8,022,000 "	7,014,000
Special Prize Savings Certificates ..	15,000,000 "	15,108,000
Savings Stamps	400,000,000 "	17,200,000
Government bonds	1,469,000 "	8,836,000
Others		16,321,000
Total		1,385,535,000

VIII. THE POSTAL REMITTANCES AND SAVINGS BANK

Before the establishment of the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank in 1930, the Bank was a subordinate organ of the Ministry of Communications. In 1934, it was reorganized as an independent unit. The Bank has a Director and two Deputy Directors and the following departments:

- 1.—General Affairs Department
- 2.—Banking Department
- 3.—Accounting Department
- 4.—Saving Department
- 5.—Remittance Department
- 6.—Insurance Department

Up to February 1941, the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank had

18 branches, 34 agents, established in various important points of communications. By the end of 1944, over six thousand post offices were handling savings, remittances, and life insurance business for the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank.

Postal Remittances—Postal remittances in China began more than 40 years ago. In the early years of its inauguration, the service was restricted to big commercial ports only. It started international postal remittances in 1918, and overseas remittances in 1938.

The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank handled domestic remittance to the amount of \$300,000,000 in 1939, \$600,000,000 in 1940, \$1,200,000,000 in 1941,

\$1,800,000,000 in 1942, \$6,400,000,000 in 1943, and \$22,000,000,000 in 1944. Overseas remittances handled by the Bank also numbered \$100,000,000 to \$200,000,000 every year. Since the outbreak of Pacific War, remittances from the South Sea Islands have been suspended.

Postal Savings—The Postal Savings was inaugurated in 1919, when only 81 post offices were operating the business and only \$108,000 were received at the end of that year. Since the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank established in 1930, with its branches spreading in Nanking, Shanghai and Hankow, the business has been rapidly progressing. Towards the end of 1937 money received amounted to \$61,000,000 with 300,000 depositors. The development of postal saving, however, had met with great difficulty following the occupation of coastal provinces by the Japanese. The branches of the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank in the rear have made every effort to promote savings and begun the sale of the Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Certificates, U.S. Gold Savings Certificate, etc. At the end of 1944, the bank collected a sum of \$4,400,000,000 from various savings and through the sale of various certificates.

Simple Life Insurance—The Bank began writing life insurance policies in Shanghai, Nanking and Hankow in 1935. At that time the maximum amount of each policy was limited to \$500. Although the service was later extended to all postal districts, little development was witnessed because of the small size of the policy. Up to the end of 1941, the bank had only writ-

ten 54,000 policies. But since the maximum amount of each policy was raised to \$5,000 in 1942, to \$20,000 in 1943, and to \$50,000 in 1944, 250,000 policies were written at the end of 1944.

Investment—For reasons of safety, the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank has made the investment in Government Bonds and communication enterprises of national defense the only utilization of its funds. The Bank invested \$900,000 in 1941, \$100,000,000 in 1942, \$500,000,000 in 1943 and \$1,300,000,000 in 1944.

IX. INDUSTRIAL AND MINING LOANS BY THE JOINT BOARD OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS

To coordinate with the government policy of centralizing the financial power of the country to enhance production of industries and to control commodity prices, the Joint Board had made every effort to encourage the production of enterprises. Assistance had been rendered by extending loans to the development of communications, the production and transportation of salt, the purchasing and storing of food and domestic and foreign carrying trade according to their necessities. In 1944, loans extended by the Joint Board for various purposes amounted to \$33,000,000,000 of which 72% were industrial and mining loans, 14%, salt, 2.8%, communication development, 2.7% food, 6%, commodity price stabilization and purchasing and marketing, and 2%, others. Tables below show the loan operation of the Joint Board of Four Government Banks:

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LOAN OPERATION OF THE JOINT BOARD OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS
(In National Dollars, unit: \$1,000)

Loans		1941	1942	1943	1944
Industrial and Mining Loans . .	Newly extended	215,644	1,060,544	5,775,106	21,824,182
	Renewed	38,702	180,004	844,557	1,997,382
	Total	254,346	1,240,548	6,619,663	23,821,564
Communications Development Loans	Newly extended	191,340	219,550	1,290,860	692,400
	Renewed	3,694	72,300	154,820	216,550
	Total	197,034	291,850	1,445,680	908,950
Food loans . .	Newly extended	172,450	26,150	325,600	446,150
	Renewed	44,200	213,400	414,950	454,910
	Total	216,650	239,550	740,550	901,060
Salt loans .	Newly extended	826,320	92,020	944,575	4,045,360
	Renewed	8,700	37,500	19,500	649,500
	Total	835,020	419,530	1,014,075	4,694,860
Commodity Price stabilization and Purchasing and Marketing Loans .	Newly extended	104,589	183,210	325,600	1,417,350
	Renewed	141,063	158,570	414,950	543,466
	Total	245,652	341,780	740,550	1,960,816
		38,192	139,905	667,659	573,466
Others	Newly extended	10,818	3,200	57,528	154,919
	Renewed				
	Total	49,010	143,105	725,187	728,385
Total . .	Newly extended	1,550,535	2,011,379	9,510,318	28,998,908
	Renewed	247,177	644,974	1,589,125	4,016,727
	Total	1,797,712	2,676,353	11,099,443	33,015,635

CLASSIFICATIONS OF LOANS FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER 1944 EXTENDED BY THE
JOINT BOARD OF FOUR GOVERNMENT BANKS.
(In National Dollars, unit: \$1,000)

Classification Amount		Newly approved	Renewed	Total	
Industrial & Mining Loans	Government Owned . .	1,945,572	385,600	2,331,172	
	Private	418,940	137,100	556,040	
	Private	Mining	483,150	67,620	550,770
		Iron & Steel . .	206,600	60,150	266,750
		Electric Machin- ery	554,690	51,100	605,790
		Cotton Spining . .	5,652,052	384,570	6,036,622
		Wool & Hemp . .	423,500	52,400	475,900
		Chemical En- gineering . .	1,112,920	97,800	1,210,720
		Food	589,508	608,742	1,198,250
		Electric Power . .	142,500	93,500	236,000
		others	294,750	58,800	353,550
		Total	9,459,670	1,474,682	10,934,352
	Loans Extended by W.T.B.	10,000,000	—	10,000,000	
	Grand Total	21,824,182	1,997,382	23,821,564	

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	Aviation	16,000	16,000	32,000
	Railways	72,000	36,500	108,500
Communications	Highways	377,300	103,150	480,450
Development	Navigation	171,600	55,000	226,600
Loans	Stage Transportation	20,500	—	20,500
	Others	35,000	5,900	40,900
	Total	692,400	216,550	908,950
	Government Purchase & Transportation	815,000	300,000	1,115,000
	Storing	985,000	—	985,000
Salt Loans	Transportation	1,590,360	345,500	1,935,860
	Production	632,000	—	632,000
	Others	50,000	4,000	54,000
	Total	4,045,360	649,500	4,694,860
	Military provisions	46,000	200,000	246,000
Food Loans	Civil Food	400,150	252,910	653,060
	Others	—	2,000	2,000
	Total	446,150	454,910	901,060
	Stabilization	279,900	34,700	314,600
Commodity Price	Emergency Purchase & Transportation	319,200	177,166	496,366
Stabilization &	Foreign Trade	687,650	3 06,000	993,650
Purchasing &	Sugar	119,800	21,000	140,800
Marketing Loans	Others	10,800	4,600	15,400
	Total	1,417,350	543,466	1,960,816
	National Colleges	64,229	44,010	108,239
	Cultural Bodies	51,415	13,239	64,654
Other Loans	Local Finance	110,602	25,200	135,802
	Wartime Service Groups	167,000	2,000	169,000
	Others	180,220	70,470	240,690
	Total	573,466	154,919	728,385
Grand Total .		28,998,908	4,016,727	33,015,635

X FARM LOANS

Remarkable progress has been shown in the farm loan business since the outbreak of war. Not only the process of extending loans was unified, the scope of loan extension has also been enlarged. Revisions of farm loans policy were made so as to suit the financial policy of the country. The individual loan extension of government banks has been substituted by planned extension of loans. And now farm loan has developed into a special business of banks which opened a new era in Chinese financial history.

The wartime farm loans extension may be divided into two periods: the first period is from 1937 to 1940 and the second is from 1940 to the present. When the war began, the government, for the purpose of raising agricultural production for both military and civil uses, adopted the policy of expansion of farm loans. In 1941, as China's material aids from foreign countries was practically cut off as a result of the Pacific War, the government could not but abandon its extensive loan extension policy and limit its farm loans to enter-

prises that yielding direct increase of production. In 1944, the government proclaimed irrigation projects, seeds improvement and agricultural tools as its chief objects of loan extension.

Farm loans may be roughly divided into two kinds, namely agricultural loans and agricultural investment. The scope of farm loans consists of ordinary area, recovered area, war zone and frontier provinces. Ordinary area indicates the rear provinces, the business of which is most prosperous. Agricultural loans may be sub-divided into the following kinds:

1. Agricultural Production Loans
2. Large-scale Farm Irrigation Loans.
3. Small-scale Farm Irrigation Loans.
4. Agricultural Extension Loans.
5. Agricultural Products Transportation and Marketing Loans.
6. Agricultural By-products Loans.

In order to meet temporary needs, cotton loans, wounded soldiers production loans, reclamation loans and husbandry loans were also extended.

The objects of farm loans were farmers' or government organi-

FARM LOANS AND INVESTMENT BY PROVINCE, 1944
(unit: \$1,000)

Province	Accumulated number of the whole year		Remainder at the end of the year	
	Amount	Percentage %	Amount	Percentage %
Szechuen	1,062,912	38.80	988,401	36.41
Sikang	21,553	0.79	29,505	1.09
Hupeh	72,930	2.66	7,726	3.23
Hunan	111,635	4.07	81,322	2.99
Kwangsi	80,345	2.93	167,223	6.16
Kwangtung	69,176	2.52	69,970	2.58
Kweichow	72,679	2.65	77,014	2.85
Yunnan	77,951	2.85	129,714	4.78
Chekiang	30,664	1.12	45,394	1.67
Anhui	23,230	0.85	31,473	1.16
Kiangsu	—	—	100	—
Fukien	53,380	1.95	51,949	1.91
Kiangsi	113,500	4.14	102,488	3.77
Honan	12,183	0.44	67,751	2.49
Shensi	547,593	19.99	62,362	13.35
Shansi	15,000	0.55	20,600	0.74
Kansu	330,070	12.05	344,738	12.70
Ninghsia	20,301	0.74	12,415	0.46
Suiyuan	9,825	0.36	9,532	0.35
Chinghai	14,720	0.54	34,720	1.28
Other areas	—	—	737	0.03
Total	2,739,661	100.00	2,714,534	100.00

Remarks: Other areas include the occupied areas of Kiangsu, Anhui and Hupeh.

zations which may be evenly divided into four kinds, namely cooperative organizations, farm groups, farm improvement organizations and others. All farm loans are to be directed to farmers through these organizations and they must have a sound organization and operate legal business. The process of extending loans should be simple and must be beneficial to every farmer that needs help.

The farm loans extended in 1944 were \$2,739,161,000. Considering the large area of farms in China the great farm population

and the high cost of living during wartime, this sum is still not much. Following tables show the farm loans operations in the last few years:

EXTENSION OF FARM LOANS, 1940-44
In National Dollars: Unit: \$1,000)

Year	Sum extended	Remainder
1940	303,579	201,547
1941	498,561	456,301
1942	634,501	682,805
1943	1,451,530	1,527,474
1944	2,739,661	2,714,504

CLASSIFICATION AND AMOUNT OF FARM LOANS, 1944

(In National Dollars: unit: \$1,000)

Amount Loans			Accumulated Amount		Balance at the end of the Year		
			Amount	%	Amount	%	
Agricultural loans	Ordinary Area	Agricultural Production	1,034,323	37.75	740,692	27.29	
		Farm	Large-scale	606,420	22.14	1,095,181	40.35
			Small „	60,895	2.22	74,982	2.76
		Irrigation	Total	667,315	24.36	1,170,163	43.11
		Agricultural Extension	162,572	5.93	127,677	4.70	
		Agricultural Products Transportation and Marketing	613,833	22.41	346,013	12.75	
		Agricultural By-Products	122,342	4.47	97,490	3.59	
		Total	2,600,385	94.92	2,482,035	91.44	
Agricultural Investment	Recovered Area	16,182	0.59	30,370	1.12		
	War Zone	49,058	1.79	71,545	2.26		
	Frontier Provinces	5,329	0.19	7,158	0.26		
	Total ..	2,670,954	97.49	2,581,108	95.08		
		439	0.01	50,912	1.88		
	Agricultural Enterprises	51,966	1.90	78,380	2.59		
	Others	16,302	0.60	12,134	0.45		
	68,707	2.51	133,426	4.92			
Grand Total			2,739,661	100.00	2,814,534	100.00	

XI THE PROMOTION OF THE NATIONAL THRIFT AND RECONSTRUCTION SAVINGS

The Summary Regulations Governing the Thrift and Reconstruction Savings, passed by the Supreme National Defense Council in July, 1938, and the Summary Regulations Governing the Thrift and Reconstructions Campaign, promulgated by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in December, 1938 manifested clearly the policy of the Government to absorb idle capital of the society, to mobilize the financial power of the country and to encourage production of various enterprises. The promulgation of Regulations Governing Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Deposit in December 1939, which charged the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Farmers' Bank of China, the Central Trust of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank with the duty of promoting savings, marked the beginning of the nation-wide Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Campaign of the country. For the purpose of supervising and assisting the various government

financial institutions in the active promotion of Thrift and Reconstruction Savings, the Joint Board established the Thrift and Reconstructions Savings Soliciting Committee with its head office in Chungking and branches in various localities. The work of soliciting savings has been conducted in close cooperation with the Party and official circles in order to utilize full publicity in the movement.

Up to the present, the savings consist of five kinds, namely: Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Certificates, Foreign Currency Fixed Deposits, Special Prize Savings Certificates and U.S. Gold Thrift and Reconstruction Savings Certificates. By the end of 1940, the receipt from these savings handled by the Bank of China, the Bank of Communication, and the Farmers' Bank of China amounted to \$536,000,000. The total increased to \$23,015,000,000 by the end of June, 1945, besides \$9,000,000 of gold deposits and "Town and Village Public Welfare Savings." Table below shows the savings operation of these Banks:

SAVING OPERATION OF GOVERNMENT BANKS
(In National Dollars: unit: 1,000,000)

<div><div>Year</div><div>Kind</div></div>	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	(June) 1945
Ordinary Savings . .	228	248	299	406	599	1,105	3,596	7,985	16,099
Thrift and Recon- struction Savings . .	—	—	3	131	536	1,353	2,469	3,499	3,959
Special Prize Savings	—	—	—	—	58	120	296	564	885
Foreign Currency Sav- ings	—	—	—	—	6	7	4	2	2
U.S. Gold Dollar Sav- ings	—	—	—	—	—	480	2,070	2,070	2,070
Total	228	248	536	1,199	3,065	8,435	8,435	14,120	23,015

In the Spring of 1944, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek proclaimed an order to launch a nation-wide savings campaign with each hsien as a unit, to be put into practice according to scheme laid down by the National Government. The Executive Yuan in cooperation with the Ministry of Finance and the Joint Board of Four Government Banks stipulated the Summary Regulations Governing the Town and Village Public Welfare Savings and other regulations and handed them to all provinces, municipalities and hsien for execution.

Generally speaking, the savings campaign in various places has been going on satisfactorily since its beginning in the later half of 1944. However, the savings plan was only partly carried out in Hunan, Honan, Kwangsi, Fukien, Chekiang and Kiangsi Provinces owing to battle going on in those provinces. In one of the border and famine areas the campaign was also met with much difficulties and had little success. By the end of June, 1945, over \$8,400,000,000 of Savings Certificates were sold out with a receipt of \$6,600,000,000.

XII GOLD POLICY

Since the completion of currency reform in 1935, the National Government has provided gold as the reserve of the legal tender and ordered the government banks to collect gold in its stead. The Government also established a "Gold Mining Bureau" to supervise and encourage the production of both government and private mines. As a result of the out-

break of the Pacific War the collection of gold was considered as unnecessary, for China's sea routes were cut off and demand for foreign exchange was decreasing. At that time the commodity prices were soaring and the idle capital was every where finding chances for speculation. To cope with the situation the 11th Plenary Session of the Central Executive and Supervisory Committees of the Kuomintang passed decisions to control resources with gold, and to absorb idle capital with resources in order to curb commodity prices soaring. Various acts and laws concerning the prohibition of buying and selling gold were abolished by the Government in June 1943. In September of the same year the government declared the gold stored in the Central Bank of China, together with \$200,000,000 worth gold imported from U.S. to be on sale at the Bank of China and the Farmers' Bank of China in Chungking. Table below shows the price fluctuation of gold in 1944 and 1945 fixed by the Central Bank of China based on the conditions of the market:

<i>Date</i>		<i>Price (per tael)</i>
1944	Jan. 28 . .	\$14,300
	Feb. 1 . .	15,000
	Feb. 7 . .	17,500
	Feb. 8 . .	19,800
	Feb. 9 . .	21,500
	Feb. 15 . .	20,500
	Apr. 25 . .	18,500
	July 17 . .	17,500
	Nov. 13 . .	20,000
1945	Mar. 29 . .	35,000
	June 9 . .	50,000

The selling of gold was temporarily suspended from May 28 1945. The government sold 1,145,094 taels of gold, and received \$21,040,000,000 of tender.

Besides the sale of gold, the government initiated the "Fabi Converted Into Gold Deposits Savings" in September, 1944 at the proposal of the Ministry of Finance. The Central Bank of China was instructed to conduct the business in cooperation with the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, The Farmers' Bank of China, the Central Trust of China and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank. The deposits business was first inaugurated in Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Kweiyang, Sian and Lanchow. People not living in the above mentioned places may deposit their money by remittances. In order to accelerate the absorption of idle capital the branches of the four government banks in the southeast provinces were ordered to handle 2-year and 5-year deposits savings in March, 1945.

The business of gold savings has made marked progress since the beginning. On June 25, 1945, the Ministry of Finance ordered the suspension of gold savings for the tense situation of financial market. The government received \$62,509,000,000 for the sale of 2,198,500 taels of gold savings. The receipt from the gold and the gold savings which amounted to over \$80,000,000,000 has helped a great deal in stabilizing commodity prices. Since the unconditional surrender of the Japanese, the urgent need for cash was felt on

the market for universal declining of commodity prices. The Executive Yuan, for the effective use of gold policy, established a Gold Price Adjusting Committee to decide the price of buying and selling gold. The Ministry of Finance also designated the Bank of China to undertake the business of buying and selling of gold according to regulations laid down by the Government to stabilize the price of gold and to arrange cash for the market.

XIII FOREIGN EXCHANGE CONTROL

During the war, the government had enforced the policy of absorbing exchange resulting from exports, encouraging overseas remittances, restricting the supply of foreign exchange and concluded a number of currency loans. On March 14, 1938, the National Government, in answer to the establishment of the bogus Federal and Reserve Bank of North China in Peiping at the instigation of the enemy, announced the measures for exercising close surveillance on transactions on foreign exchange. The sale of foreign exchange was centralized to the Central Bank of China. In April 1938, the Government further promulgated the Regulations Governing the Liquidating of Foreign Exchange to prevent the smuggling of foreign exchange by disloyal merchants. In March 1939, the enemy prohibited the circulation of Chinese legal tender in North China on the one hand, and established a bogus Hwa Hsin Bank in Shanghai on the other. The National Government, for maintaining the credit of legal tender

secured £5,000,000 from British Banks, and £5,000,000, from the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications as the foreign exchange stabilization fund. A Foreign Exchange Stabilization Committee was formed to utilize the fund and to manage the black market. In June, 1939, owing to the great menace caused by the seasonal rushing in of imports in Shanghai, the Foreign Exchange Stabilization Committee changed the exchange rate besides taking the following steps:

1. Encourage the exporters by granting the difference between the official rate and the quotation of foreign exchange.
2. Impose a tax on the importers to the amount of the difference between the official rate and the quotation of foreign exchange.
3. The imports of non-necessities and luxuries was banned.
4. The Foreign Exchange Committee of the Ministry of Finance was given the sole power to examine the applications of government offices and merchants for foreign exchange.
5. The Bank of China and the Bank of Communications were instructed to announce the foreign exchange quotations in Chungking instead of in Hongkong in order to get away the pernicious influence of the black market.

In August, 1940, the government changed the official exchange rate from 7½d to 4½d to destroy the enemy plot of absorbing Chinese Foreign Exchange Fund. In January, 1941, when Shanghai was in danger owing to the Japanese southward invasion, the govern-

ment moved the financial market from Shanghai to Chungking and took the following measures:

1. Ordered the Central Bank of China to supply bona fide merchants with foreign exchange according to official rate.
2. Secured US\$50,000,000 from U.S. Government and £5,000,000 from British Government, added by US\$20,000,000 from the government banks as stabilization fund and reorganized the Foreign Exchange Stabilization Committee into the Stabilization Board of China.
3. Requested the American and British Governments to freeze Chinese assets in these two countries.

Beginning from October, 1941, commercial concerns could no longer apply for foreign exchange according to official rates, but new rates were established for such purposes by the Central Bank of China. All foreign exchange transactions of importers and exporters were to be calculated on the basis of new rates.

Since the Pacific War broke out, the Ministry of Finance ordered the Foreign Exchange Committee of the Ministry of Finance to suspend the supply of foreign exchange in Shanghai and Hongkong and at the same time, established a foreign exchange market in Chungking. Applications for foreign exchange by both government organs and commercial firms were to be approved and handed by the Foreign Exchange Committee.

In April, 1945, the Foreign Exchange Committee was abolished by an order of the Government. Matters relating to the sale and buying and the liquidating of fore-

ign exchange of imports were transferred to the Central Bank of China from 16th April of the same year. The Central Bank of China established a Foreign Exchange Investigation and Approving Committee to handle these matters. The Ministry of Finance is still conducting the foreign exchange policy of the country. The Ministry later promulgated Regulations Governing the Sale of Foreign Exchange to Individuals, Regulations Governing the Sale of Foreign Exchange to Commercial Institutions in Wartime, Regulations Governing the Sale of Foreign Exchange to Government Organs and Enterprises, etc. which were handed to the Central Bank of China for practice.

XIV. PROVINCIAL BANKS

Features of Provincial Banks different from ordinary banks include emphasis on the development of resources in the provinces, exploitation of special provincial products, assistance to the development of local finance. Many provincial banks were organized in the early years of the founding of the Chinese Republic. In 1942, China had 19 provincial banks with an aggregate capital of \$34,000,000 constituting a major bank in the financial system. Since the war broke out in 1937, some of those banks have moved their head offices and branches to safer places, while others have closed down many branches due to continued hostilities. But the provincial banks are carrying on, however, more industriously than ever, with the assistance of the government. Under the direction of the Ministry of Finance, new branches were

opened in various localities to help complete the local financial network of the country. Following the adoption of New National Financial System in 1942 which results in the abolition of provincial budgets, provincial banks have become agents of the National Treasury in their respective provinces. All investment made by provincial banks were taken over by the National Treasury. For further managing provincial banks, the Ministry of Finance drafted Regulations Governing the Organization of Provincial Banks and forwarded it to the National Government for approval. The following measures were promulgated by the Government in March, 1945:

1. *Purposes.*—The purposes of the provincial banks are the readjustment of provincial finance, the promotion of economic reconstruction in the provinces and the development of local productive enterprises.

2. *Title.*—The provincial banks should use the unanimous title of their respective provinces, such as Kiangsu Provincial Bank, Chekiang Provincial Bank, etc.

3. *Structure.*—Every province should have only one provincial bank. Those provinces that have had more than one provincial banks should amalgamated them into one. No provincial bank should establish branch or sub-branch outside its own province except in the Capital or in other places with special permission. The branches and sub-branches outside the province should confine their business to handling remittances to the province.

4. *Capital.*—In principle, the capital of provincial banks should

be appropriated from the National Treasury. Hsien banks, municipal banks and self-governing groups may also participate in the provincial bank as shareholders.

5. *Business.*—Besides handling deposits, discount, loan extension, domestic remittance, savings and trust, the provincial bank may undertake the business of raising public loans, repaying public loans, paying the interest of public loans and acting as agent of public treasury on instruction of the Government.

6. *Organization.*—Each provincial bank may have a general manager in charge of the administrative affairs of the bank. The directors and supervisors are to be appointed from the candidates selected or recommended by the provincial government and the provincial people's political council.

The Ministry of Finance then instructed all provincial banks to start a reorganization within the period of three months in accordance with the regulations governing the provincial banks.

The provincial banks already in existence are Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Sinkiang, Sikang, Yunnan, Suiyuan, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hopeh, Fukien, Kiangsu, Honan, Chekiang, Hupeh, Hunan, Kansu, Kweichow, Szechuen and Shansi Provincial Banks.

XV. HSIEN BANKS

The Government has paid much attention to the readjustment of local finance and the promotion of economic reconstruction. Since hsien being the unit of carrying out of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's political ideology of Direct Democracy, a

hsien bank is allowed to establish in each hsien to help finance the hsien government towards that goal. The Law Governing the Establishment of Hsien Banks was promulgated by the Government on January 20, 1940. A month later the Ministry of Finance ordered the provincial governments to assist the hsien governments in spreading the program. In December, 1940, the Ministry of Finance further announced a model hsien bank constitution, containing 46 articles, for the reference of hsien governments. But owing to the shortage of personnel and capital, the program has been retarded. For promotion and development of the hsien bank, the Ministry of Finance instructed the Central Bank of China to establish a Hsien Banks Department to direct and supervise the activities of Hsien Banks throughout the country. In the spring of 1945, the Ministry of Finance charged the Financial Department of each province with the direction and supervision of hsien bank business instead of the Central Bank of China. The financial department of each province shall supervise the following affairs of hsien banks:

1. The investigation and approval of hsien banks banking business plan and their execution.

2. The investigation and approval of the extension of loans by hsien banks.

3. The investigation and approval of the daily accounts and reports on deposits, loans and remittances.

4. The supervision of deposit securities of hsien banks.

5. Investigation of accounts of hsien banks with the hsien governments.

6. Investigation of violation of provision by hsien banks.

7. Other affairs on instruction of the Ministry of Finance.

According to the statistics of October, 1945, hsien banks registered with the Ministry of Finance numbered 290, of which 121 are in Szechuen, 56 in Shansi and 49 in Honan. The table below shows the distribution of hsien banks in 15 provinces:

HSIEN BANKS REGISTERED WITH THE
MINISTRY OF FINANCE

Province	No. of Hsien Banks
Szechuen	121
Shansi	56
Honan	49
Hupei	23
Anhui	16
Kiangsi	5
Kweichow	5
Kwangtung	3
Sikang	3
Fukien	2
Yunnan	3
Kwangsi	1
Chekiang	1
Kansu	1
Hunan	1
Total	290

XVI. INSURANCE

Insurance in China has great prospects because of the vast reconstruction program after the war. More rigid state control and supervision will probably be enforced as time goes on.

The Ministry of Economic Affairs had been in charge of the insurance business until 1943, when the government promulgated Regulations Governing Wartime Insurance Business, by which it was put under the control of the Ministry of Finance. Since then, the Ministry of Finance

has enacted and promulgated a series of regulations governing water, fire and life insurance business and ordered the registration of both new and old insurance companies already in existence. The insurance companies must be carefully inspected before a licence could be granted to it. The aggregate capital of 62 old and new insurance companies registered with the Ministry of Finance, of which 42 have got licences, totalled to \$52,500,000.

Soon after the war started, the Chinese Government began the writing of war insurance on transportation risks. At that time, the Government tried fervently to remove the industrial establishments from the coast to the safer interior. It was one of the most effective ways to encourage production and to promote reconstruction in the rear. The Ministry of Finance was ordered to write insurance against all land transportation risks. The Ministry, in turn, entrusted this important task to the Central Trust of China. During these years of war, although payments on losses were equal to the premiums collected, the service on the whole has worked out successfully.

The utilization of insurance funds was not so satisfactory in the last few years. About 47% were deposited in various banks, only 5% were invested in productive enterprises. Insurance business, different from other financial enterprises because of the payment of losses that may happen at any time, must keep a larger operating capital on hand for occasional needs.

LIST OF COMMERCIAL BANKS

(Up to June, 1945)

<i>Name of Bank</i>	<i>Date of Registration</i>	<i>Licence Number</i>	<i>Capital Stock</i>	<i>Paid up Capital</i>	<i>Location of Head Office</i>
Hsin Hwa Trust & Saving Bank ..	Jan., 1932	Yin 111	\$ 2,000,000	\$ 2,000,000	Chungking
Hsin Chang Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1036	3,000,000	3,000,000	Sichang
Chien Tai Yu Reconstruction Bank	Sept., 1944	" 860	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Tsu Chang Bank	Nov., 1944	" 1086	10,000,000	5,000,000	Chengtu
Tze Cheng Bank	June, 1944	" 950	4,000,000	2,000,000	Fuling
Ya Hsi Industrial Bank	July, 1944	" 992	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chungking
Northwestern Tung Chi Trust Co. . .	Dec., 1943	" 778	500,000	500,000	Sian
Cheng Ho Bank	June, 1944	" 942	30,000,000	15,000,000	Chungking
Cheng Tai Bank	Oct., 1944	" 1059	5,000,000	5,000,000	Kiangching
Yunnan Mining Bank	Aug., 1942	" 492	5,000,000	5,000,000	Kunming
Yunnan Yi Hwa Bank	Oct., 1943	" 755	15,000,000	15,000,000	"
Yunnan Industrial Bank	May, 1945	" 1166	10,000,000	10,000,000	"
Yunnan Chuan Yeh Bank	Sept., 1942	" 515	12,000,000	12,000,000	"
Yunnan Hsing Wen Bank	July, 1942	" 481	16,000,000	16,000,000	"
Reconstruction Bank	May, 1944	" 908	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Chien Kuo Bank	July, 1944	" 984	5,000,000	5,000,000	"
Yu Kang Bank	April, 1944	" 380	5,000,000	5,000,000	Kunming
Chu Kang Bank	Feb., 1944	" 482	10,000,000	10,000,000	Kweiyang
Chu Feng Bank	Nov., 1943	" 1069	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Young Brothers Banking Corporation	April, 1943	" 644	10,000,000	10,000,000	"
Chungking Bank	June, 1943	" 670	10,000,000	10,000,000	"
Chi You Bank	Aug., 1943	" 714	4,000,000	2,000,000	Yunan
Shanghai Commercial & Sav. Bank	April, 1936	" 251	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Shanghai Trust Company	June, 1944	" 938	3,000,000	3,000,000	Kunming
Szechuen-Sikang People's Sav. Bank	July, 1944	" 995	50,000,000	50,000,000	Chungking
Shansi Yu Hwa Bank	Sept., 1942	" 740	20,000,000	20,000,000	"
Li Chun Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1040	5,000,000	5,000,000	Kiangching
Szechuen Salt Industry Bank	Mar., 1945	" 1042	40,000,000	40,000,000	Chungking
Chienwei Salt Industry Bank	Mar., 1945	" 1127	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chienwei

<i>Name of Bank</i>	<i>Date of Registration</i>	<i>Licence Number</i>	<i>Capital Stock</i>	<i>Paid up Capital</i>	<i>Location of Head Office</i>
Ho Feng Bank	Oct., 1944	" 1065	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Ho Tung Bank	Aug., 1945	" 1248	20,000,000	20,000,000	Chungking
Ho Cheng Bank	May, 1944	" 909	20,000,000	20,000,000	Chungking
Fu Li Bank	Dec., 1944	" 1090	4,611,000	4,611,000	Chungking
Fu Hwa Bank	June, 1944	" 983	12,000,000	12,000,000	Chungking
Fu Hsin Industrial Bank	April, 1943	" 623	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chiking
Fu Hsin Yi Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1049	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Chi Kank Bank	Aug., 1941	" 366	5,000,000	2,500,000	Yaan
An Kang Bank	June, 1945	" 1193	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chungking
Hung Wen Bank	Feb., 1943	" 609	2,000,000	2,000,000	Luhkien
Yung Li Bank	Feb., 1943	" 603	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Yung Cheng Bank	April, 1944	" 874	12,000,000	12,000,000	Chungking
Yung Feng Banking Corporation	July, 1944	" 1001	10,000,000	10,000,000	
Kiangsi Construction Bank	Oct., 1942	" 529	2,000,000	1,000,000	Kanhsien
Kiangsi Industrial Bank	Jan., 1942	" 409	1,000,000	1,000,000	Chi-an
Fuchow Commercial Bank	May, 1935	" 228	500,000	250,000	Fuchow
Fu Chuan Bank	July, 1942	" 470	5,000,000	2,500,000	Chengtu
Yuan Yuan Chang Bank	July, 1944	" 978	5,000,000	5,000,000	Ningtu
Hui Tung Bank	Oct., 1944	" 1058	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chengtu
K'ang Hui Bank	Feb., 1934	" 258	1,000,000	1,000,000	Chungking
Tung Hui Industrial Bank	Mar., 1941	" 340	3,000,000	3,000,000	Chungking
Chekiang Reconstruction Bank	May., 1934	" 183	4,000,000	4,000,000	Shanghai
Hung Hsin Bank	July, 1944	" 1009	5,000,000	5,000,000	Hengyang
Yu Shang Bank	Jan., 1945	" 1102	10,000,000	10,000,000	Tsukung
Yu Feng Yuan Bank	June, 1944	" 958	2,000,000	2,000,000	Fengtu
Yu Feng Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1047	6,000,000	6,000,000	Chengtu
Ta Hsia Bank	Jan., 1945	" 1099	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Yu Hsin Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1053	10,000,000	10,000,000	Tsukang
Ta Chuan Bank	Fey., 1944	" 1119	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Mao Hwa Commercial Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1043	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Ta Tsu Agricultural and Industrial Bank	Sept., 1943	" 737	2,000,000	1,000,000	Tatsushien

<i>Name of Bank</i>	<i>Date of Registration</i>	<i>Licence Number</i>	<i>Capital Stock</i>	<i>Paid up Capital</i>	<i>Location of Head Office</i>
Ta Lu Bank	May, 1928	" 11	5,000,000	4,000,000	Shanghai
Ta Tung Bank	Jan., 1943	" 586	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Ke Sheng Bank	Nov., 1944	" 1080	10,000,000	7,700,000	Chengtu
Hwa Kang Bank	July, 1944	" 1006	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Hwa Ching Feng Bank	Aug., 1944	" 1026	10,000,000	5,000,000	Chengtu
Hsieh Feng Bank	Dec., 1944	" 1089	5,000,000	5,000,000	Hochuan
Kwa Fu Bank	Dec., 1944	" 1088	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chengtu
Chinese Overseas Associate Bank ..	April, 1943	" 642	10,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Chinese Overseas Industrial Bank ..	Jan., 1943	" 573	8,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Hwa Feng Trust Company	April, 1945	" 1147	1,000,000	5,000,000	Chienwei
Lanchow Commercial Bank	Feb., 1944	" 840	2,000,000	2,000,000	Lanchow
Hwa Wei Bank	Aug., 1944	" 1027	5,000,000	5,000,000	Fuling
Chi Chang Bank	Nov., 1944	" 1078	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chengtu
Tai Feng Bank	Sept., 1944	" 1048	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Tai Yu Bank	May, 1945	" 1182	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chungking
China & South Seas (Chung Nan) Bank	July, 1935	" 232	7,500,000	7,500,000	Chungking
Industrial & Mining Bank of China	June, 1945	" 1215	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chungking
National Industrial Bank of China ..	Feb., 1943	" 607	8,000,000	8,000,000	Chungking
Commercial Bank of China	April, 1937	" 274	4,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Agricultural & Industrial Bank of China	May, 1932	" 114	10,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Manufacturers Bank of China	Nov., 1929	" 30	20,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Overseas Banking Corporation of China	Dec., 1942	" 546	15,000,000	7,500,000	Kunming
National Reconstruction Banking Corporation	June, 1934	" 186	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Chengtu Commercial Bank	Nov., 1943	" 769	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chengtu
Chen Yi Bank	July, 1944	" 1018	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chengtu
Szechuen Reconstruction Bank ..	Feb., 1943	" 611	3,000,000	3,000,000	Chungking
Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Szechuen	May, 1944	" 885	20,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking

<i>Name of Bank</i>	<i>Date of Registration</i>	<i>Licence Number</i>	<i>Capital Stock</i>	<i>Paid up Capital</i>	<i>Location of Head Office</i>
Mei Fong Bank of Szechuen	April, 1943	„ 625	20,000,000	20,000,000	Chungking
Szechuen Industrial Banking Corporation	Aug., 1944	„ 1024	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chungking
Chang Tai Bank	Aug., 1944	„ 1019	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chengtu
Sze Ming Commercial & Savings Bank	May, 1937	„ 279	4,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Kunming Bank	Nov., 1944	„ 1061	21,000,000	21,000,000	Kunming
Yi Li Bank	Oct., 1944	„ 1079	5,000,000	5,000,000	Hochiang
Yan Tzi Industrial Bank	May, 1944	„ 920	30,000,000	30,000,000	Kunming
Ou Hai Industrial Bank	Oct., 1943	„ 795	10,000,000	10,000,000	Yungchai
Tung Feng Bank	Nov., 1944	„ 1084	30,000,000	30,000,000	Chungking
Pa Chuan Bank	June, 1943	„ 667	5,000,000	2,500,000	Tunglang
Ming Feng Bank	Sept., 1944	„ 1050	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chiangchin
Kai Yung Bank	Sept., 1943	„ 744	12,000,000	6,500,000	Chungking
Ting Shing Bank	Nov., 1944	„ 1078	20,000,000	20,000,000	Chungking
Lung Shing Bank	Oct., 1944	„ 1060	10,000,000	5,000,000	Tsukung
Salt Bank	1933	„ 210	10,000,000	7,500,000	Shanghai
Shang Li Bank	Dec., 1944	„ 1092	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Chuang Yi Bank	Aug., 1944	„ 1032	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chiangching
K'incheng Banking Corporation	July, 1935	„ 233	10,000,000	10,000,000	Chungking
Kwang Yu Bank	April, 1942	„ 431	5,000,000	5,000,000	Kunming
Yi Feng Bank	July, 1942	„ 472	5,000,000	2,500,000	Lahsien
Nen Chang Kung Chih Bank	Nov., 1943	„ 764	250,000	250,000	Nanchang
Wangchow Commercial Bank	June, 1935	„ 229	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
	Jan., 1943	Wai 2	400,000	400,000	Chungking
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	Jan., 1943	„ 1	400,000	400,000	Chungking
Total			1,130,361,000	1,037,311,000	

NATIVE BANKS

<i>Name of Bank</i>	<i>Date of Registration</i>	<i>Licence Number</i>	<i>Capital Stock</i>	<i>Capital Paid up</i>	<i>Location of Head Office</i>
Ching Feng Native Bank	Dec., 1942	Yin ,, 256	500,000	500,000	Neikiang
Chu Kang Native Bank	Jan., 1944	,, 812	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
Hsin Chi Chu Cheng Native Bank ..	Aug., 1944	,, 1033	5,000,000	2,500,000	Neikiang
Cheng Ta Native Bank	Jan., 1944	,, 815	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
Tun Ta Native Bank	July, 1944	,, 1003	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
Tien Shun Cheng Native Bank	June, 1945	,, 1196	1,000,000	1,000,000	Sian
Tien Fu Kung Native Bank	Sept., 1944	,, 1050	2,000,000	2,000,000	Tzuchung
Tien Te Tung Native Bank	Mar., 1945	,, 1132	1,000,000	1,000,000	Sian
Tien Fu Kung Native Bank	June, 1944	,, 971	400,000	400,000	Lanchow
Yung Ta Hung Chi Native Bank	Jan., 1944	,, 808	500,000	500,000	Yungchai
Cheng Ta Yung Native Bank	July, 1944	,, 997	4,000,000	4,000,000	Chungking
Hu Hui Native Bank	June, 1943	,, 663	500,000	250,000	Yzuchung
Hou Yu Native Bank	June, 1944	,, 957	500,000	500,000	Fuchow
Chu Hsin Native Bank	Mar., 1944	,, 845	600,000	600,000	Wenling
Yu Sheng Hou Native Bank	May, 1944	,, 919	1,000,000	1,000,000	Loyang
Hsin Li Sheng Chi Native Bank ...	Jan., 1944	,, 816	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
Hsin Fu Chiu Chi Native Bank	Jan., 1944	,, 817	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
Hsin Yuan Native Bank	Aug., 1944	,, 1031	2,000,000	2,000,000	Chungking
Hsin Tung Native Bank	Sept., 1944	,, 1034	5,000,000	5,000,000	Chungking
Hsin Yu Native Bank	Jan., 1944	,, 620	204,000	204,000	Yungchai
Hsin I Yung Native Bank	June, 1945	,, 1192	5,000,000	2,500,000	Neikiang
Yen Chi Native Bank	June, 1945	,, 1212	2,500,000	2,500,000	Sian
Chen Li Native Bank	Oct., 1943	,, 762	2,500,000	2,500,000	Lungchang
Shun Yuang Native Bank	Feb., 1944	,, 863	200,000	200,000	Yungchai
Feng Sheng Chi Native Bank	April, 1945	,, 1153	1,000,000	1,000,000	Sian

CHAPTER XXIX

FOREIGN TRADE

QUO TAI-TSENG (郭泰禎)*

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the middle of last century China's foreign trade has almost invariably presented an unfavorable balance. The undeveloped state of her industries and the unequal treaties imposed upon her by foreign powers resulted in a disadvantageous position in which China found herself in competing with industrialized European and American nations. After the founding of the National Government in 1928, however, there were signs of improvement and progress in political and economic aspects. It was during the early years of the National Government unfavorable clauses concerning customs tariff embodied in these unequal treaties were revised. Government bureaux were then created and commissions appointed to take charge of the growing trade activities, which in less than a decade showed remarkable achievement. Meanwhile the Japanese, fearful of a powerful China, created disturbances and precipitated an undeclared war in 1937, which spelt their own destruction in 1945.

The eight long years of war affected the whole of China's national economy, but its effect

upon her foreign trade was particularly serious. The enemy's blockade of her coastal ports made it increasingly difficult for her to maintain her trade with her friendly nations, and the loss of trade and resources in the occupied areas could hardly be compensated.

To cope with the difficult situation the Government adopted drastic measures to promote the production and trade administration. The introduction of trade and exchange control and the adoption of government purchase and sale of leading exports aimed to meet the exigencies of the war. The barter agreements with the Allied Governments and other measures also helped in securing for China badly needed materials and equipments and at the same time keeping the Allied countries supplied with our agricultural, mineral and other products.

II. ORGANIZATION

A. Wartime Trade Administration—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

*Former Vice-Chairman, Trade Commission.

war footing. To the growing list of war 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 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 name "Foreign Trade Commission."* The principal functions of this newly transferred Commission were:

- (1) to regulate and control the import and export trade,
- (2) to supervise the trading operations under government monopoly,
- (3) to adjust and assist private exporters in the shipment of exports,
- (4) to regulate and control foreign exchange,
- (5) to take charge of government purchase of supplies and equipments and the implementation of barter agreements, and
- (6) to regulate matters related to the supply and demand of various kinds of resources.

The Commission was composed of a certain number of commissioners, appointed by the Ministry of Finance, nine of them forming

the standing committee which had a chairman and from three to five vice-chairman. In addition to the four secretariats, inspecting offices of statistics and personnel there were six departments of import trade, export trade, financial accounting, research and general affairs. Besides, there were 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 the purposes of investigating matters related to trade and commerce, of regulating local trade and of supervising the administration of government trade organizations, the Commission maintained branch offices in a number of provinces, such as Chekiang, Anhwei, Shensi, Honan, Kansu-Ninghsia-Chinghai, Hunan-Kwangsi and Kwangtung. Besides, a resident commissioner's office was established in each of the provinces of Kiangsi, Kweichow and Fukien which were 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.

In the spring of 1945, in order to simplify the organization, the Government ordered for the dissolution of the Bureau of Foreign Trade of the Executive Yuan, whose functions were taken over by the Foreign Trade Commission. At the same time the Foreign Ex-

* It was abolished on October 30, 1945, by an order of the Executive Yuan.

change Stabilization Committee and the Bureau of Transportation under the control of the Ministry of Finance were also dissolved and the administration and regulation of foreign trade, foreign exchange and commercial transactions with occupied areas were also entrusted to the Foreign Trade Commission.

B. Trading Companies — In its early stage, the Commission organized the Fu Hua Trading Company with branches in Hongkong and Shanghai to facilitate the administration of trade. In 1940, the China National Tea Corporation was turned into a government concern under the direction of the Foreign Trade Commission. Meanwhile, the Commission delegated all the business operations to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation and the Fu Hua Trading Company. Since then, the Commission remained purely an administrative organ. With a view to facilitating trading operations, the Fu Hua Trading Company and the China National Tea Corporation were ordered to be merged with the Foo Shing Trading Corporation in 1942 and 1944 respectively. The latter hence became the only affiliated trading company of the Commission. The following is a brief sketch of the organization and the functions of these trading companies:

1.—The China National Tea Corporation—In the pre-war days this corporation was a semi-official concern under the direction of the erstwhile Ministry of Industry. In 1940, the corporation through investment by the Ministry of Finance was converted into a government enterprise under the

direction of the Foreign Trade Commission. The primary functions of the corporation were (a) to increase the quantity and to improve the method of tea production; (b) to establish and equip tea estates and to assist and direct matters related to trade; (c) to give loans to promote tea plantation, and to purchase and transport the product; and (d) to regulate matters of marketing and export of tea. At the head of the corporation was a general manager, assisted by three assistant managers. Under the general manager were the technical departments of general affairs, business, and finance and also an inspector's office. The corporation with its head office at Chungking had branch offices in Chekiang, Fukien, Hunan, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow and Yunnan. In March 1943, the corporation was amalgamated with the Foo Shing Trading Corporation which took over all its functions.

2.—The Fu Hua Trading Company—After the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese hostilities, the Foreign Trade Commission, in order to avoid enemy interference, utilized the name of the Fu Hua Trading Company to carry on its freight transportation from the Yangtze valleys via the Hankow-Canton Railway to Hongkong. The Fu Hua Trading Company was formally organized in May, 1940, as one of the affiliated trading organizations of the Foreign Trade Commission. Its main functions included the purchase and marketing of bristles and other leading agricultural products, and the export of tea and oil.

Besides, it also acted as a purchasing agency for the Government. Its head office was in Hankow with agents in Shanghai, Chungking, Changsha, Canton, Lanchow and Hongkong. In the years of 1940 and 1941 it 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 was organized with a capital of \$10,000,000, after the conclusion of the Wood Oil Loan in December, 1938 with the United States to facilitate the purchase and delivery of the stipulated amount of wood oil each year in fulfillment of the loan agreement. After its amalgamation with the Fu Hua Trading Company in February 1942 by an order from the Government, the corporation's capital was subsequently increased to \$100,000,000, and its work included the purchases and export of all leading agricultural exports under government control, such as wood oil, hog bristles, wool, silk, sheep skins, etc. This corporation has a general manager, an assistant manager and five departments of general affairs trading, finance, account and storage and transportation. Its head office was located at Chungking with branch offices in the Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Hunan, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei-Kiangsu, and Shensi-Honan provinces. After the outbreak of

Pacific War, its Hongkong and Rangoon offices were closed. Meanwhile, following 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 became exceptionally important.

Promotion Commission for the Production and Marketing of Agricultural Exports.—In view of the growing demand of foreign supplies 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 map out schedules for the promotion of the production and marketing of various leading agricultural exports, including raw silk, tobacco, cotton, wood oil, wool, animal products, peanuts, eggs and egg products, hemp and ramie, sesame seeds, stitch work and embroideries, etc. In August 1940, the committee was made a permanent organization under the name "Promotion Commission for the Production and Marketing of Agricultural Exports." It was 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 functions were as follows:

- (1) to map out the promotion programs for the produc-

- tion and marketing of export goods,
- (2) to study, investigate and promote the sale of the export goods,
 - (3) to grant production subsidies,
 - (4) to prepare the budget, examine the reports and audit the accounts of the various promotion work,
 - (5) to send inspectors to visit different project centres, and
 - (6) to extend technical assistances.

Since September, 1941, by order of the Ministry of Finance, three research institutes on tea, silk, and wood oil were established to conduct research and experimental studies of these three commodities.

(a) The Wood Oil Research Institute was located at Chungking and was divided into the following sections: biology, chemistry, mechanical, extension and general affairs. The main research projects included the selection and improvement of better tung seeds, the prevention of insect diseases, and the experimental studies of oil pressing. It had also established working stations and cooperated with local agricultural institutions in putting into effect the various experimental projects.

(b) The Silk Research Institute was located at Nanchung, Szechuen, and was divided into the planning, sericulture, breeding, economic survey and general affairs sections. Its main function was to conduct research on the economic aspect of the raising of silkworms and the manufacture of

silk. Working stations and experimental factories were also established. The institute had also cooperated with local institutes and universities in doing the silk research work.

(c) The Tea Research Institute was located at Chungking, Fukien. Its activities were confined to the investigation and improvement of the method of producing and manufacturing better tea. It had also established working stations and cooperated with local institutes and universities, public and private, in doing the tea research experiments.

III. CONTROL OF WARTIME EXPORT TRADE

Government control of foreign trade, in one form or another, is found in practically all nations of the world during normal times. In wartime, 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. Consequently, the Government, in common with many other belligerent countries, was forced to take immediate steps to bring trade and exchange under effective control.

A. Control of Leading Exports

1. Tea.—Tea was brought under government monopoly by the regulations promulgated in June 1938. In 1939, when the regulations were revised, the export business of tea came under the control of Foreign Trade Commission. Thereafter, the Commission and the respective provisional governments resumed the responsibilities of purchasing and shipping

of tea stocks, adjusting the prices of tea, advancing funds to tea planters and promoting the sale of tea in the world market. The Commission was then ordered to delegate the tea business to the China National Tea Corporation from which it was again transferred to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation in April 1945.

A set of regulations governing the control of tea for domestic consumption was promulgated in April 1940. The regulations were however revised in November, 1941, permitting private merchants to make shipment 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 or the Foreign Trade Commission. But after the outbreak of the Pacific war 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.

As tea market in the Southern Pacific area was active, rules and regulations were promulgated in October 1940 and December 1942 respectively to meet the heavy demands of the Chinese residents there. In January 1944, after due revision had been made the following regulations were enacted.

- (a.) Private merchants were allowed to ship tea to occupied areas or interiors by way of foreign countries provided permits were obtained from the Foreign

Trade Commission. Later, the provision was cancelled in October 1944.

- (b.) Tea destined for foreign countries could be exported freely without the requirement of permits.
- (c.) Tea exported for the consumption of the overseas Chinese should be registered at the Foreign Trade Commission.
- (d.) Before tea was exported, reports were required to be prepared and submitted by the exporters to the China National Tea Corporation for approval.

2. **Bristles.**—In order to meet the heavy demands of the Allies, the export of hog bristles was brought under government monopoly. Measures governing the control of bristles were first promulgated in July 1939. Thereafter revisions were made in 1940 and subsequently in November, 1941. At first the purchase and shipment of bristles were carried out by the Central Trust Company. It was only until February 1940 that the bristles business was transferred to the charge of the Foreign Trade Commission, whence it was later delegated to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation.

According to the measures adopted, all bristle firms, co-operative societies, and dressing plants were required to register with the Commission, and the amount of private stock of bristles was limited to fifty piculs for black bristles and 10 piculs for white bristles while the time of storage was limited to three months.

The outbreak of the Pacific war affected the exportation of a number of agricultural products and consequently caused the Government to mitigate the measures of control. However, as bristles were higher in unit price and smaller in size, it was possible to be shipped abroad uninterrupted 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 although had been once suspended were again put in force.

3. 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 delegated the collection and marketing of this commodity to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, retaining for itself the authority to regulate the trading of wood oil. Under the regulations for the control of wood oil promulgated by the Ministry of Finance in October, 1940, registration was required of all wood oil firms, pressing plants, and cooperatives; all consignments of wood 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 of 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 on this commodity for the purpose of extracting liquid fuel. Consequently, the Government promulgated in July, 1942, provisional measures for the control of wood oil, making a number of revisions of the original regulations. Firstly, the controlled zones were limited to the main producing areas and marketing and transportation centres: Chungking, eastern and middle Szechuen, southern Shensi, northern and western Hupeh, etc. altogether 158 Hsiens. The price of wood oil, the maximum amount of each shipment and the amount of private stocks within the controlled zone were regulated by the Commission. Secondly, in non-controlled zones, the price of the oil was 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. Thirdly, the requirement for registration was limited to firms, plants, and other institutions whose yearly sale or consumption was not less than 100 piculs. Fourthly, for the purpose of adjusting the supply and demand of this commodity, the Commission was authorized to purchase or sell any amount of wood oil in the controlled zones at fixed prices. Public or private re-

fineries were to be supplied by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation with sufficient quantity of wood oil for extracting liquid fuel, provided the amounts requested had been approved by both the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Transport Control Bureau. Meanwhile, these refineries were required to report to the said corporation the amount of oil left over at the end of each month. They were not permitted to make purchases in the market unless they had obtained special permission from the said corporation. Lastly, a transshipment permit was required for shipment of wood oil over 10 piculs of tung seeds, fruits, or nuts over 50 piculs from the controlled zones or by the way of the following Hsiens: Liukwei, Yungyoung, Wanhsien, Fuling and Pengshui. The said permit was 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 was required which was to be applied for at the Commission. In January, 1945 in order to meet the changing conditions, it was decided that permit was required for shipment of wood oil, within the controlled zones.

4. Raw Silk.—In order to meet the urgent need of our Allies for raw silk for military use, the government, in March, 1943, promulgated a set of regulations governing the control of the raw silk, of which the main points were as follows:—

a. **Kinds of Silk Designated:** The improved silk, better than the native silk in quality, was generally exported for military use, while the native silk was mostly assigned to domestic consumption. But the limited quantity of the improved silk was insufficient to meet the huge demand abroad. Thus native silk of superior qualities had also been exported as substitutes. For this reason, the improved silk and the native silk as well were brought under the government control so as to prevent illegal trading or evasion of the regulations. At the same time, selling of silk, not good enough for export, in domestic markets was handed over to the Foo Shing Trading Corporation and other government or private organizations within areas designated by the Foreign Trade Commission.

b. **Area of Control:** Chekiang, Szechuen, Yunnan, Southern Kiangsu and Southern Anhwei provinces.

c. **Official Purchasing Prices:** A committee composed of experts and representatives from organizations concerned under the sponsorship of Foreign Trade Commission was formed to take charge for the regulation of prices.

d. **Shipment of Silk:** Shipment of silk over a picul from the controlled areas was required to be accompanied by an inland transit permit. Permits for cargoes destined abroad was to be applied through the Foo Shing Trading Corporation at the Foreign Trade Commission. The proceeds from the sale of the silk in foreign markets were allowed to be used to buy import goods.

5. **Wool.**—On May 25, 1943, the government promulgated a set of regulations for control of wool, containing the following main points:

a. Area of Control: Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Kokonor, Suiyuan, Szechuen and Sikang provinces.

b. Official Purchasing Prices: Prices of wool produced in various areas were to be fixed by the Foo Shing Trading Corporation on the basis of the cost of production, legitimate profit for the dealers and with due consideration of the market conditions at home and abroad, subject to the approval of the Foreign Trade Commission.

c. Use:—Wool was primarily used for the manufacture of armaments and ammunitions.

d. Transport Permits: The Ministry of Finance was to issue permits to Foo Shing Trading Corporation for export of wool and inland transit permits to the other organizations, merchants or factories shipping wool more than five piculs within China. For shipment of wool within the country border or to any place within a hundred li of enemy occupied area, "domestic consumption permits" were required.

6. **Minerals.**—During the last few years, China had also exported several kinds of mineral products, including tungsten, antimony, tin, quicksilver, bismuth, and molybdenum, which were all essential raw materials for the manufacture of armaments and ammunitions. With the world-wide expansion of war industries, the demand of such strategic resources increased from time to time. In view of this necessity, the Gov-

ernment had, from the very beginning of the war, brought them under effective control. According to the regulations, the control was entrusted to the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs which had a complete monopoly of the purchase and exportation of these minerals. In order to meet the demand of our Allies, these minerals were continuously shipped abroad by means of land and aerial transportations.

B. Control of Foreign Exchange.

—In 1938 the Foreign Trade Commission was ordered to take charge of matters pertaining to foreign exchange control. In October 1941, when the Foreign Exchange Control Commission was founded under the Executive Yuan, the function of control was turned over to the new organization. The latter was again dissolved in April, 1945 thereupon the National Government issued a mandate 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, 1938, the Ministry of Finance 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 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 certificate

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 commodities 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 January, 1942, it included the following 12 groups: eggs and egg products, feathers, animal intestines, skins, hides and leather, dye-stuffs, medical substances, oils and wax, seeds, timber, silk and silk cocoons, and ramie.

In order to encourage exports, a set of rules was promulgated in October 1944, authorizing the exporters to buy the equivalent amount of import goods with the foreign exchange obtained from the sale of export goods.

C. Control of Export Goods.—

After the outbreak of the Pacific War, a number of regulations dealing with import and export control became either unfit or inadequate under the changing conditions. The Government promulgated in May, 1942, regulations governing wartime import and export control, making certain modifications in import and export prohibition. However, the export of war essentials and daily necessities such as ammunition etc, were still absolutely prohibited.

The export of a number of other commodities was allowed with special permission from competent

authorities. The products so affected may be classified into the following five categories:

1. Exports monopolized by Government, such as wood oil, bristles, etc.
2. Exports subject to exchange control, such as eggs, egg products, feather, etc.
3. Exports subject to requirement of special permission and exchange control, such as: animal intestines, buffalo and cow hides, goatskins, silk cocoons, wool, camel wool, vegetable tallow, hemp, jute and ramie. Exporters of these commodities were required to apply first to the Commission which would examine the kind and amount of the product for exportation, and then to the Import and Export License Commission of the Ministry of Finance for a special permit. Besides, they had also to apply to the Exchange Control Commission to pledge the sale of exchange before shipment was made.
4. Exports subject to requirement of special permission, such as: salt, sugar, matches, resins, and living animals. Exporters of these commodities were required only to apply to the Import and Export License Commission for a permit.
5. Exports subject to requirement of special permission of specific controlling organizations 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 were 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. were to be obtained at the Ministry of Finance. Furthermore, exporters of the products under this category were also required to apply to the Exchange Control Commission to pledge the sale of foreign exchange.

All these restrictions were abolished in August, 1945, as soon as the war was concluded. Thenceforth exporters were allowed to export freely provided custom duties were paid.

IV. CONTROL OF WARTIME IMPORT TRADE

In September, 1937, the Chinese Government published the "Production Promotion and Trade Coordination Regulations" by which import duties were to be levied according to the classification of the commodities in question, such as necessities, semi-necessities and luxuries. But, due to international complications, these regulations were not enforced. Restrictions of imports in the past six years can be outlined as follows:

A. Prohibition of Imports from Enemy Areas—To prevent the enemy countries from dumping their manufactures in China, the government promulgated in October, 1938, prohibitive measures applicable to: 1. Merchandise made in enemy countries, their colonies or in their mandatory territories, 2. Merchandise produced by fac-

tories and companies outside of the above mentioned territories but owned or financed by the enemy. 3. Merchandise produced by factories outside of the above mentioned territories but seized or controlled by the enemy.

The above stated prohibitive measures were later cancelled, and a new body of regulations governing wartime imports and exports control was promulgated, in which the former measures were included.

B. Restrictions of Unnecessary Imports—The government published in July 1939 the Wartime Import Restriction Regulations, listing 168 commodities as non-essential and prohibited to be imported except with permission of the competent authorities. For instance, the importation of commodities for the purpose of facilitating the work of price control was permitted. In September, 1940, a new list was published which included only a small number of luxuries as strictly prohibited.

C. Encouragement of Necessary Imports—The control of exchange, put into practice in 1938, was originally intended to lay a restriction on the importation of non-essential commodities. Later on, the circumstances being changed, the original regulations were declared null and void, and a set of new regulations governing the purchase of foreign exchange for imports was promulgated. According to the latter, the importer was to apply to the Foreign Exchange Control Commission of the Ministry of Finance for purchase of exchange for commodities which were not under prohibition and were deemed to be necessities. When authorized, the importers

were allowed to purchase the necessary foreign exchange at the official rate, but he had to pay an "equalization charge" equal to the difference between the bank rate and the official rate.

In September, 1939, all legitimate imports were encouraged by reducing two-thirds of their import duties leviable according to tariff till the end of the war. By 1940, as the importation of strategic resources such as gasoline became increasingly difficult, the Ministry of Finance ordered to permit importation of gasoline free from custom duties. Meanwhile, measures were adopted to permit the importation of essential materials, regardless of the country of their origin. They were sugar, cotton, clothes, iron, steel, silver and metals, machines, communication facilities, cement, gasoline, diesel, lubricate oil, medicines, chemicals, salt, alcohol and stationeries.

D. Control of Import Goods.—

In March, 1942, the Ministry of Finance, in cooperation with the Ministry of Economic Affairs, lessened the prohibition by proclaiming a new set of regulations governing the Wartime Control of the Imports and Exports together with a list of the prohibited commodities in order to secure essential materials and daily necessities. The list of the prohibited commodities was limited to the following:

1. Imports subject to the control of specific authorities, such as: ammunitions, guns, bullets, radios, medical substances.
2. Imports subject to special permissions such as: woollen clothes, coffee, cocoa, chocolate, candies, cigarettes, etc.

3. Imports absolutely prohibited such as: luxuries and goods deemed to be indecent.

V. WAR-TIME FOREIGN TRADE

A. Loans.—Loans were concluded with the United States, the United Kingdom and the U.S.S.R. during the war. In view of the agreement that these loans would be paid back in kinds, various measures were, therefore, adopted by the Government to control the agricultural and mineral products.

1. Loans concluded with the United States—Four loans have been contracted with the United States heretofore for the purchase of agricultural products from that country. It was agreed that the principal and its interest were to be paid back by the proceeds from the sale of wood oil and mineral products such as wolfram antimony and tin exported from China to the United States. Appropriate orders were issued by the Government to the Foreign Trade Commission and the National Resources Commission for the taking charge of the export of wood oil and the abovelisted mineral products respectively. The part of loans to be paid back by the sale of wood oil was cleared up by the end of March, 1942, which was two years earlier than the scheduled date.

2. Loans concluded with the United Kingdom—up to the present time two loans have been concluded with the United Kingdom, totalling £8,000,000. The amount was agreed to be paid back by the Foreign Trade Commission and the National Resources Commission from the sale of the ex-

port goods. These loans commenced in 1939 and had been paid back regularly in installment up to August 1945. The remaining portion is expected to be cleared up within the next sixteen years.

3. Loans concluded with the U.S.S.R.—Heretofore three loans have been contracted with U.S.S.R. for the purchase of industrial products from that country. The sum was agreed to be paid back in installment by the sale of export of agricultural and mineral pro-

ducts. These loans commenced in 1938 and had been paid back regularly up to August 1945. The remaining portion is expected to be cleared up within the next seven years.

4. Loans for the purchase of foreign goods—The amount of money borrowed from the United States, the United Kingdom and the U.S.S.R. was U.S.\$430,000,000 and £28,000,000. The various loans contracted were as follows:

<i>Country Contracted</i>	<i>Number of Loans</i>	<i>Amounts</i>
United States ..	4	U.S.\$180,000,000
United Kingdom ..	3	£ 28,000,000
U.S.S.R.	3	U.S.\$250,000,000

The major part of the loans was used for the purchase of ammunitions, communication facilities and machineries. When the supply of ammunitions was secured by the Lend-Lease Agreement, the money was chiefly used for the purchase of machineries. Heretofore, U.S. \$383,000,000 has been spent. The percentages of the goods purchased are as follows:

Ammunition 55%
 Machineries 8%
 Communication facilities 8%
 Daily necessities 7%
 Aeronautic materials 6%
 Books and medical substances 1%
 Others 15%

B. Promotion for the Production of the Main Agricultural Products—

1. **Wood Oil**—Before the war, the annual production of wood oil in China amounted to 136,000 tons. Although most of the wood oil producing areas were occupied during

the war, the amount of wood oil produced was not much affected because of the assiduous and untiring efforts made by the Government in the interior. Szechuan, Hunan, Kwangsi, Hupei and Kweichow were marked as working areas for the promotion and improvement of wood oil.

Districts were set up: 920,000 mows for the experiment of new tung seed, 23,500 mows for cultivation of better tung seed and 12,000 mows for the plantation of standard tung trees. Further, a wood oil producers' cooperative society was organized, and Chung Hsien was designated as the research and experiment station. It was anticipated that the annual product would amount to 200,000 tons in the near future.

2. **Raw Silk**—Kiangsu, Chekiang, Kwangtung and Szechuan are the silk producing areas in China. Since the advancement of enemy

forces, Szechuan was the only area remained intact. During these years, remarkable progress was made in Szechuan. 42,000,000 mulberry trees were planted; 55,740 sheets of silkworms were raised and 1,900,000 sheets of silkworms were improved. Further, the Silk Research Institute was set up to take charge of the functions of planning, sericulture, breeding, and economic survey of silk. With the capitulation of Japan, China becomes the most important silk producing country in the world and is therefore, expected to export 150,000 quintals of raw silk annually.

3. **Tea**—Tea is produced for home consumption as well as export. The amount of tea exported each year was 1,500,000 to 3,000,000 boxes, being only one tenth of the total production. The exported tea was largely produced in Chekiang, Fukien, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan and Hupei. During the war, the difficulty of transportation seriously affected the export of tea. However, no efforts had been spared in improving and standardizing the quality of tea. Research institutes were set up for the investigation and improvement of the method of tea production, manufacture, storage and management. Further, measures were taken for the improvement of tea trees. The old and insect-infected trees were uprooted for new and better plants. In Fukien, Chekiang, Anhwei, and Shensi, 5,500,000 tea trees were improved and 1,000,000 new trees were planted. It was expected to export 1,000,000 quintals of tea annually in the near future.

C. Promotion of Individual export and import business.—During the war due to the unfavorable conditions, such as the high cost of production at home, the control of foreign exchange and the lack of communication facilities, the volume of foreign trade was seriously affected. With a view of promoting individual export and import business, a set of rules was promulgated in April, 1944, ordering the private companies and firms to register at the Foreign Trade Commission. It was stipulated that the Commission would render the following service to the registered companies and firms: supplying first hand information on the condition of foreign markets, distributing monthly publication of articles, reports and discussions on foreign trade, rendering assistance in affairs concerning shipment and tonnage, and applying for them loans and export certificates. Besides, revisions were made to encourage exporters permitting them to buy import goods with the foreign exchange obtained from the sale of their goods abroad, which had been hitherto, required to be sold to the Government at official rate. With these new provisions, foreign trade was greatly stimulated. The goods exported were chiefly raw silk, wood oil and musk and goods imported were largely cotton, machineries, dye-stuffs, and metals.

VI FUTURE OF FOREIGN TRADE

A Rehabilitation of Foreign Trade—Most of the rules and regulations promulgated during the war for the control of foreign trade were solely for the purpose of meeting the emergency of war

economy. As peace was restored, import prohibition and restriction measures had to be withdrawn, and appropriate revision were to be made to expedite and facilitate the peace-time foreign trade,

B. Foreign Trade Policy—The Chinese Government adopted a free trade policy. It was deemed important to encourage individuals to participate in foreign trade with proper directives from the Government.

1. *Promotion of Export Trade*—As China is on the road towards industrialization, large volume of machineries and industrial materials have to be brought from occi-

al countries. Besides contracting loans it is of vital significance to increase the volume of our exports in order to balance the budget of our foreign trade. Special attention should therefore be devoted to the production of agricultural products.

2. *Encouragement of Individual Export and Import Business*—In view of the importance of individual export and import business, the Government had made decisive steps to encourage individual exporters and importers. It is only on a nationwide scale of foreign trade that our country can be expected to be speedily industrialized.

TABLE 1. PRINCIPAL EXPORTS FROM CHINA, 1937-1944.
(unit: 1,000 C.N.C.)

Goods	1937	1938	1939	1940	*1941	1942	1943	1944
Tea	30,787.00	33,054.00	30,386.00	104,571.00	40,761.00	668.00	5.00	11,785.00
Lung Oil	89,846.00	39,237.00	33,615.00	56,358.00	93,871.00	12,255.00	412.00	2,793.00
Animal hair	23,499.00	11,297.00	6,514.00	18,745.00	12,067.00	—	743.00	17,614.00
Bristle	27,921.00	28,064.00	41,113.00	94,184.00	127,170.00	2,641.00	33,413.00	414,544.00
Cocoon	3,431.00	2,334.00	2,236.00	1,362.00	1,502.00	—	—	—
Raw Silk	53,192.00	37,701.00	142,351.00	280,941.00	232,334.00	13,516.00	68,725.00	221,942.00
Walnut	1,791.00	896.00	2,566.00	4,624.00	634.00	10,541.00	480.00	10,770.00
Sheep skin	19,948.00	4,623.00	6,874.00	17,667.00	14,486.00	—	906.00	19,804.00
Cow hide	12,890.00	4,995.00	2,056.00	5,782.00	12,133.00	282.00	—	—
Casing	12,111.00	7,776.00	14,041.00	11,873.00	10,701.00	—	—	—
Ramie	5,074.00	4,513.00	641.00	7,143.00	3,778.00	10,972.00	1,401.00	—
Cotton	37,556.00	105,769.00	19,042.00	8,462.00	75,900.00	—	—	—
Cotton Yarn	4,845.00	22,883.00	31,767.00	70,780.00	136,741.00	—	—	—
Egg & Egg Pro- ducts	52,813.00	49,275.00	88,313.00	133,156.00	55,528.00	—	4.00	31.00
Feather	9,042.00	6,727.00	8,770.00	16,240.00	21,932.00	46.00	—	1,484.00
Dah Hwang	1,268.00	1,115.00	1,365.00	4,045.00	5,958.00	332.00	538.00	892.00
Tea Oil	6,098.00	2,297.00	1,137.00	3,625.00	908.00	42.00	—	—
Vegetable Oil	1,477.00	46.00	383.00	5.00	—	—	—	—
Coal	13,533.00	14,420.00	29,141.00	68,305.00	100,867.00	—	—	—
Hand Drawn Work Embroidery	40,750.00	37,034.00	49,559.00	76,912.00	76,048.00	—	17.00	88.00
Embroidery Silk	12,589.00	10,533.00	19,842.00	73,003.00	40,461.00	—	—	—
Wolfram	40,759.00	50,492.00	44,675.00	13,616.00	83,736.00	3,305.00	—	41,990.00
Antimony	11,446.00	6,100.00	5,276.00	9,024.00	4,921.00	—	—	—
Tin ingo	39,717.00	35,987.00	32,793.00	38,269.00	00,414.00	16,212.00	—	4,126.00
Braid	1,847.00	1,967.00	5,426.00	5,557.00	2,184.00	—	—	—
Others	284,026.00	243,506.00	413,360.00	895,872.00	1,317,697.00	120,798.00	57,815.00	249,015.00
Total	838,256.00	762,641.00	1,027,247.00	1,970,121.00	2,577,443.00	191,610.00	164,459.00	996,873.00

* From January to October.

TABLE II: PRINCIPAL IMPORTS TO CHINA, 1937-1944.

(unit: 1,000 C.N.C.)

Goods	1937	1938	1939	1940	*1941	1942	1943	1944
Flour	6,185.00	52,985.00	76,817.00	141,801.00	209,043.00	819.00	35.00	95.00
Wheat	6,071.00	—	35,175.00	19,449.00	54,056.00	—	—	—
Rice	40,781.00	58,390.00	55,142.00	171,283.00	276,295.00	218.00	55.00	249.00
Tobacco Leave	19,449.00	19,661.00	30,436.00	41,746.00	22,484.00	—	—	—
Cigarette	1,348.00	1,657.00	3,407.00	4,677.00	4,641.00	3,165.00	1,976.00	2,062.00
Sugar	22,031.00	19,363.00	52,151.00	70,102.00	80,789.00	99.00	1,495.00	2,777.00
Diesel-Oil	14,968.00	10,723.00	10,755.00	13,665.00	17,945.00	392.00	375.00	555.00
Kerosene	47,860.00	30,046.00	30,943.00	49,412.00	41,932.00	1,727.00	1,364.00	350.00
Gasoline	27,613.00	20,528.00	24,760.00	33,148.00	42,707.00	1,210.00	30,556.00	99,724.00
Machine & Tools	64,632.00	56,073.00	60,464.00	75,074.00	53,383.00	17,314.00	73,805.00	124,868.00
Vehicles	40,233.00	32,514.00	45,650.00	45,788.00	53,148.00	10,781.00	38,246.00	62,715.00
Electric Materials	12,253.00	12,051.00	13,814.00	18,074.00	13,261.00	20,685.00	42,436.00	53,833.00
Iron & Steel	108,539.00	52,865.00	62,361.00	108,034.00	35,111.00	37,523.00	94,856.00	115,588.00
Lubricate-Oil	8,724.00	7,824.00	8,868.00	13,860.00	16,318.00	4,642.00	24,593.00	92,901.00
Woollen piece Goods	10,284.00	14,076.00	13,413.00	13,961.00	9,818.00	8,461.00	46,831.00	42,820.00
Cotton Piece Goods	14,669.00	22,540.00	15,598.00	56,464.00	227,106.00	214,282.00	476,018.00	430,945.00
Cotton Yarn	2,696.00	3,312.00	7,166.00	40,939.00	81,488.00	160,210.00	232,062.00	282,546.00
Cotton	16,005.00	12,735.00	172,857.00	261,877.00	240,036.00	4,399.00	10.00	111.00
Rubber & Rubber Goods	17,312.00	11,004.00	16,482.00	27,938.00	34,486.00	32,726.00	155,487.00	348,043.00
Cement	544.00	1,764.00	2,352.00	2,475.00	2,854.00	1,334.00	1,850.00	1,773.00
Coal	4,988.00	20,809.00	25,313.00	49,647.00	26,240.00	7.00	—	136.00
Paper	59,134.00	39,930.00	52,905.00	67,554.00	81,512.00	25,289.00	139,397.00	195,425.00
Accessory	407,069.00	385,350.00	516,373.00	700,175.00	539,043.00	960,012.00	2,022,883.00	2,560,346.00
Total	953,386.00	886,200.00	1,333,654.00	2,027,143.00	2,163,756.00	1,445,285.00	3,384,330.00	4,418,262.00

* From January to October.

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TABLE III: GROSS IMPORTS FROM AND EXPORTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1937-1944.
(unit: 1,000 C.N.C.)

Countries	1937	1938	1939	1940	*1941	1942	1943	1944
IMPORTS								
United States .	188,859.00	151,254.00	214,100.00	435,486.00	425,935.00	216,871.00	590,807.00	749,663.00
Great Britain .	111,695.00	70,606.00	77,860.00	81,609.00	44,001.00	96,985.00	198,557.00	444,021.00
Japan	150,432.00	209,864.00	313,398.00	466,289.00	382,841.00	19,060.00	771,799.00	637,931.00
Hongkong . . .	19,078.00	24,589.00	35,416.00	146,970.00	338,678.00	154,300.00	489,844.00	698,539.00
Indo-China . .	29,991.00	27,351.00	28,508.00	138,126.00	146,059.00	40,782.00	166,095.00	209,212.00
Germany . . .	146,374.00	112,939.00	87,167.00	55,033.00	44,910.00	285,867.00	802,964.00	891,234.00
India	12,467.00	16,215.00	119,439.00	175,275.00	162,172.00	77,374.00	82,025.00	399,348.00
Dutch East Indies	80,718.00	45,744.00	58,350.00	107,504.00	128,503.00	23,769.00	23,518.00	17,963.00
Other Countries	216,620.00	234,938.00	408,780.00	438,073.00	509,080.00	530,277.00	258,721.00	370,351.00
Total . . .	956,234.00	893,500.00	1,343,018.00	2,044,365.00	2,182,180.00	1,445,285.00	3,384,330.00	4,418,262.00
EXPORTS								
United States .	231,449.00	86,853.00	225,873.00	565,669.00	566,179.00	—	37,007.00	147,758.00
Great Britain .	80,380.00	56,769.00	90,863.00	196,798.00	90,252.00	—	—	—
Japan	84,306.00	116,547.00	66,621.00	126,408.00	215,694.00	—	—	—
Hongkong . . .	162,904.00	243,395.00	222,099.00	367,502.00	619,436.00	540.00	412.00	25.00
Germany . . .	72,477.00	56,440.00	45,097.00	4,099.00	19,969.00	—	—	—
Indo-China . .	12,827.00	15,816.00	71,046.00	45,222.00	92,695.00	4,992.00	22,625.00	51,649.00
Soviet Russia .	4,839.00	555.00	5.00	37.00	—	—	58,705.00	185,832.00
Other Countries	189,588.00	187,356.00	308,755.00	670,336.00	982,584.00	186,078.00	45,710.00	611,614.00
Total . . .	838,770.00	763,731.00	1,030,359.00	1,976,071.00	2,586,809.00	191,610.00	164,459.00	996,878.00

* From January to October.

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TABLE IV: NET VALUE OF IMPORTS & EXPORTS, 1937-1944

(unit: 1,000 C.N.C.)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Imports</i>	<i>Exports</i>	<i>Excess of Exports ()</i> <i>Excess of Imports (—)</i>
1937	956,234.00	838,770.00	— 117,464.00
1938	893,500.00	736,731.00	— 129,769.00
1939	1,343,018.00	1,030,359.00	— 312,659.00
1940	2,044,365.00	1,978,071.00	— 68,294.00
*1941	2,182,180.00	2,586,809.00	404,629.00
1942	1,445,285.00	191,610.00	—1,253,675.00
1943	3,384,330.00	164,459.00	—3,219,871.00
1944	4,418,262.00	996,878.00	—3,421,384.00

* From January to October.

CHAPTER XXX

CHINA'S NATURAL RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

WU CHAO-HUNG (吳兆洪)*

I. NATURAL RESOURCES

The natural resources of a nation constitute the basic factor of its economic development. In the case of China, economic progress has, however, been tardy, owing not so much to her relatively low potentiality in natural resources as to her utter lack of productive machinery. According to Eugene Staley, if the amount of machinery per head of population in the industrial countries of Northwestern Europe equals 100, the corresponding index would be 405 for the United States and only between 0 and 1 for China.¹ The sad corollaries of all this for China, which lays claim to a quarter of the world's population, are twofold: very poor living conditions among the Chinese people and military unpreparedness at the early stages of war resulting in great human sacrifices.

Although China had embarked on a nation-wide industrialization project long before 1937, and although wartime necessities have since then generated many an industrial enterprise that was heretofore little heard of in China, her present industrial development

is still backward according to Western standards. However, China looks to the postwar period for the development of her natural resources by means of industrialization, thereby to improve her people's livelihood and to contribute to world prosperity through the channels of foreign trade.

Popular estimates of China's natural resources vary between two extremes, with the one extreme placing them as of unlimited quantities, apparently based on the myth that China is the vastest and richest of all countries, and the other putting Chinese natural resources as hopelessly inadequate for modern industrial development. The results of the latest investigations have exposed the absurdity of these views. It is revealed that China, while not being extraordinarily endowed by nature, nevertheless possesses such natural resources as to make her capable of building a balanced system of modern industry. Fully realizing that China's industrial future depends largely on the development of her natural resources, we attempt hereby a summary of the main items.

* Chief Secretary, National Resources Commission, and concurrently Special Assistant to the Chairman, War Production Board.

1. World Economy in Transition, Council on Foreign Relations, New York, 1939, p. 70.

A. Water Power—Water power has gained increasing importance as a natural resource, as hydraulic projects accounted for 43 percent of the world's electricity generated in 1935. A glance at her topography will show that China is rich in water power, although incomplete surveys make it impossible to arrive at any definite figures for her total water power resources. However, exploitable water power of 10,640,000 Kw. in the Yangtze Gorges alone has been

given by Dr. J. L. Savage, who undertook the investigation in 1944: while water power resources of 64,694,000 Kw. at the minimum flow for the whole of China, excluding Sinkiang, Tibet, and Outer Mongolia, have in recent years been estimated by the Hydro-electric Power Survey of the National Resources Commission. Although neither of these estimates referred to whole China the latter alone is sufficient to give Chinese water power resources a high place among the world's nations.

TABLE 1. THE ESTIMATED WATER POWER RESOURCES OF CHINA EXCLUDING SINKIANG, AND TIBET.*

<i>Regions</i>	<i>000' Kw.</i>	<i>%</i>
Yangtze Valley	38,525	59.60
Southwest International Waterways	13,031	20.10
Pearl River Valley	6,111	9.46
Yellow River Valley	4,485	6.94
Manchuria Waterways	1,192	1.85
Southeast Waterways	997	1.54
Pai Ho Valley	333	0.51
Total	64,694	100.00

* China's water Power Resources and her Prospects of Hydraulic Electrification, by Huang Hwei and Li Hung-ping, Quarterly of National Resources Commission No. 3, Vol. IV, 1944, p.23.

Generally speaking, water power resources are more abundant in South China than in North China. The southern region, through which the Yangtze, the Pearl, and other rivers flow, have over 80 percent of the country's water power resources. In the northern regions, where most of the rivers freeze in winter, and thick loess frequently cover their beds, water power exploitation will have to encounter tremendous engineering difficulties. However, though the north is poor in water power resources, it is where China's coal

reserves are concentrated. Nature has been truly impartial in distributing her natural resources.

China's water power resources however, fall short of ideal in two respects. First is the excessive seasonal changes in the water levels in most of the rivers, the difference between the high and the low water-marks amounting to 20 meters and sometimes over 30 meters. Second is the remoteness of most water power resources from the present industrial centers. The former is an engineering problem of some magnitude;

while the latter, as long as cheap transportation is unavailable, handicaps the establishment of industries near the sources of water power, which must be substituted by steam power to avoid high transmission cost.²

B. Coal—Despite the increasing importance of water power in recent decades, coal remains today an indispensable source of power. While the source of water power is fixed, coal can readily be shipped to where it is wanted, besides supplying coke for metallurgy, the backbone of all industries.

Widely different estimates of China's coal reserves have been made by various geologists, although all agree in crediting her with one of the world's great coal reserves. The estimated reserve of 997 billion tons by N.E. Drake at the International Geological Congress in 1913 was for a time considered the best available, but has subsequently been scaled down by further studies and surveys.³ Another estimate of 216 million tons appeared in Dr. C. Y. Hsieh's "General Statement on the Mining Industry 1918-1925," published by the Geological Survey of China.⁴ Yet another estimate of 246 billion tons was submitted to the Fifth Pacific Science Congress in 1933 by Dr. Wong Wen-Hao, China's leading geologist of today (5).

Dr. Wong's estimate, after repeated modifications by the Geolo-

gical Survey of China, has finally been reduced to 241 billion tons, which represents the latest official figure. This places China's coal reserve the fifth in the world, being next to those of the U.S.A., Russia, Canada, and Germany respectively, but greater than either that of the United Kingdom or those of India, France, Japan, and Italy combined.⁵

Distribution of China's coal reserves per province is shown in the following table. (*See Table 2*).

From the table it can be seen that 211 billion tons or 87 percent are in the five northern provinces of Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Hopei, and Shantung. Shansi alone has 127 billion tons of coal reserve, almost eight times that of France. In Liaoning, Manchuria, where the bulk of China's iron ores is concentrated, the coal reserve is estimated at 1.8 billion tons.

The coking coal resources in China generally have the disadvantage of being too far from the iron reserves. The chief coking coal deposits are in Shensi, Hopei, and Shansi, with respective reserves at 3,000, 1,800, and 7,600 million tons; while lesser reserves, ranging from 800 to 100 million tons and of various grades, are located in Fushan and Penchihiu in Liaoning, Anyang and Sinan in Honan, Tungshan in Kiangsu, and Pinghsiang in Kiangsi.

2. 盧鉞章, "中國之燃料資源及火力發電展望" 資源委員會季刊 China's Fuel Resources and her prospects of Electrification, by Lu Yueh-chang, Quarterly of the National Resources Commission No. 3, Vol. IV, 1944. pp. 31-32.
3. Foster Bain, "China's Coal Reserves," Foreign Affairs, No. 3, Vol. 6, 1928. pp. 493-500.
4. Dr. C. Y. Hsieh is at present the Director of the China Mineral Exploration Bureau of the National Resources Commission.
5. The China Year Book, 1945-36, p. 195.
6. Magnitude of reserves of various countries except Russia are based upon the estimates of the 12th International Geological Congress, that of Russia is based on the 14th International Geological Congress.

TABLE 2. THE ESTIMATED COAL RESERVES OF CHINA
(Unit: 000,000' metric tons)

	<i>Anthracite</i>	<i>Bituminous</i>	<i>Lignite</i>	<i>Total</i>
Shansi .. .	36,471	87,985	2,671	127,127
Shensi .. .	750	71,200	—	71,950
Honan .. .	4,455	3,309	—	7,764
Szechwan .. .	225	5,761	—	5,986
Sinkiang .. .	—	—	—	5,000
Hopei .. .	981	2,088	2	3,071
Yunnan .. .	11	946	1,384	2,341
Liaoning .. .	187	1,649	—	1,836
Hunan .. .	1,043	721	—	1,764
Shantung .. .	26	1,613	—	1,639
Kansu .. .	—	1,500	—	1,500
Kweichow .. .	784	622	—	1,370
Kirin .. .	2	986	156	1,143
Heilungkiang .. .	6	619	392	1,017
Kiangsi .. .	216	776	—	992
Jehol .. .	2	573	38	614
Sikong .. .	3	501	27	531
Chahar .. .	17	487	—	504
Chinghai .. .	—	—	—	500
Ninghsia .. .	166	322	—	488
Suiyuan .. .	58	396	22	476
Hupei .. .	160	280	—	440
Kwangtung .. .	50	371	—	421
Fukien .. .	291	105	—	396
Anhui .. .	60	300	—	360
Kwangsi .. .	114	186	—	300
Kiangsu .. .	25	192	—	217
Total .. .	46,089	183,566	4,692	240,547

China's coal reserve should be ample enough for her industrialization, for even assuming the rate of consumption the same as that of the United States in 1939, China would have enough coal to last for a century. In view of the fact that China's coal fields are widely scattered, their development will depend to a very large extent on the availability of modern transportation facilities at low cost.

C. Oil—A third vital source of power is oil. China is generally believed to be deficient in oil resources.

The search for petroleum in China dated back to the late Ching Dynasty, but not until the first years of the present Sino-Japanese War has any serious survey been undertaken. Even today there is no agreed estimate regarding the Chinese petroleum reserve. According to Mr. C. Y. Lee, director of the Geological Survey of China, the estimated petroleum reserve is 206 million tons, and if another 315 million tons be taken to represent the inferior sources of oil shale, the total oil reserve would be 521 million tons.⁷ The distribution of China's oil reserves is shown in the following table:

7. 李春昱, 國防與礦產, 商務, 1944, p. 45. Li Ch'un-yueh: Mining and National Defence, published by the Commercial Press, 1944, p. 45.

TABLE 3. THE ESTIMATED OIL RESERVES OF CHINA
(Unit: 000' metric tons)

	<i>Petroleum</i>	<i>Shale Oil</i>	<i>Total</i>
Shensi	20,000	117,900	137,900
Liaoning		130,900	130,900
Sinkiang	120,000		120,000
Kwantung		65,000	65,000
Kansu	60,000		60,000
Chinghai	5,000		5,000
Szechwan	1,000	150	1,150
Kwangsi	800		800
Total	206,000	314,750	520,750

Although this total of 521 million tons, or 3,645 million barrels, will be sufficient to meet China's pre-war annual requirement of 6.8 million barrels for more than 500 years, yet obviously it will not last long if China is going to use it on a level with the industrially advanced nations. The reserve will last a little over 5 years at the 1938 per capita-consumption rate of the United Kingdom, 11 years at that of Soviet Russia, 40 years at that of Japan, and not even two years, at that of the United States of America.⁸

The difficulty of access to China's existing oil fields is the main obstacle to the development of her petroleum industry. The leading oil regions of the North Shensi Basin, Kansu, and Sinkiang will not be accessible for large-scale commercial development before cheap means for oil transportation are available.

D. Iron—Iron is the basic mineral for machine civilization. Two decades ago, Mr. F. R. Tegengren described China's iron ore resources

as "very modest," or even "scant."⁹ Subsequent surveys have made some slight upward revisions of Tegengren's figure, but have not altered the view that China is poor in iron, according to Western standards. Mr. C. Y. Lee recently estimated China's iron ore resources at 1,503 million metric tons, a figure which is admitted to contain certain over-estimates as well as under estimates, but believed to be a fair approximation.¹⁰ This means that the iron ore per head of population in China is three tons, which compares most unfavorably with the corresponding figure of 780 tons in the United States and of 270 tons in the United Kingdom.

TABLE 4. THE ESTIMATED IRON RESERVE OF CHINA
(unit: 000' metric tons)

Liaoning	873,000
Hupeh	143,500
Chahar	90,000
Fukien	57,000
Hopei	40,000
Sikong	31,000
Suiyuan	30,000
Kweichow	29,000

8. Cf. Department of Public Relations, American Petroleum Institute, *Petroleum, Facts and Figures*, 6th. Ed., 1939, pp. 8-9.

9. F. R. Tegengren, *The Iron Ores and Iron Industry of China*, Peiping, National Geological Survey of China, 1921-24.

10. 李春昱, Li Ch'un-yueh, op. cit. pp. 153-65.

Hunan	27,000
Szechwan	23,000
Anhwei	20,000
Kiangsi	15,000
Sinkiang	15,000
Shantung	14,000
Honan	13,000
Yunnan	12,000
Jehol	11,000
Shansi	10,000
Shensi	10,000
Kirin	10,000
Other provinces	29,000

Total 1,503,000

It is unfortunate that not only the total estimated reserve is limited but much of it may be unworkable, owing to the low iron contents and the dispersion of mines. Sizeable reserves are found only in Liaoyang, Penchi, and Hsuanlung. In Liaoyang of Liaoning Province, the Anshan iron mine of 400 million tons reserve bears low grade hematites and magnetites, containing 30-35 percent iron, while the same is also true of Kungchangling iron mine, whose reserve is estimated at 270 million tons. The Penchi reserve in Liaoning Province totals 200 million tons, of which the good ores are over 70 percent pure and the poor ores over 30 percent pure. The Hsuanlung mine reserve excels both in quantity and in quality, having an estimated reserve of 90 million tons and iron ores of 40-62 percent purity and being low in sulphur.

Most of the other mines are smaller and scattered. Of about 50 mines of over 1,000,000-ton reserve each, the best known is the Tayeh iron mine in Hupeh, which contains 27 million tons of good hematites and magnetites with iron content over 60 percent and being low in silicon and sulphur.

Being situated along the Yangtze River with good water and rail transportation facilities, and accessible to both coking and bituminous coal from nearby mines in Hunan, Honan, and Anhwei, the Tayeh iron mine has every advantage for development.

China's iron reserve, small though it is in comparison with other more fortunate countries, will nevertheless be able to meet her postwar requirements for many years to come. On this point, Dr. H. D. Fong, a noted Chinese economist of today writes:

"China proper during the five-year period 1930-34 had on average annual pig iron production of 148,000 metric tons, while Manchuria during 1936, the prewar year, had one of 647,000 metric tons. Allowing for wartime increase in production in Manchuria, occupied China, and Free China, . . . as well as the need for increased production during the postwar period in the event of an allied victory when the whole of China including Manchuria will be placed completely under Chinese sovereignty, it may not be unreasonable to assume an annual pig iron production of over one million tons to meet China's postwar needs for industrialization. In that case the Chinese iron ore reserve, which is estimated at around 440 million metric tons in terms of metallic content by Wong but can be raised to a higher figure, say 600-700 million tons, in the light of recent discoveries in Manchuria and southwestern China, would supply the domestic needs at its present rate of operations for another 600-700 years."¹¹

11. H. D. Fong, *The Post-war Industrialization of China*, U.S. National Planning Association, 1942. p. 7.

Dr. Fong may have been too conservative in his estimates of annual iron consumption in post-war China but even if his estimated amount is doubled or tripled, China's iron resources will have a long way to go before they are exhausted.

E. Copper, Lead, and Zinc—China has very little reserve of copper, which is indispensable to the manufacture of high-tension wires for power transmission and other industrial uses. Reliable estimates of reserves are not yet available, although important reserves are generally known to be in the southwestern provinces. Elsewhere there are also reserves, of little or no economic value, owing to low copper content. The sixth issue of the General Statement on Mining Industry, published by the Geological Survey of China, estimates the total of copper reserves in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, and Sikong at 2,600,000 tons of pure copper; but according to Mr. C. Y. Lee, the estimated figure for Sikong is over-optimistic.¹²

Among China's copper reserves, that to the west of Hweitsai in Yunnan is worth mentioning. Its exact quantity is still a guess, but the best ore there is believed to contain almost 20 percent copper. Yungsheng and Imen are two other important copper sources in Yunnan. The Tungan deposit of Hweili in Sikong is extremely promising, with probable reserve estimated at 600,000 metric tons and average copper content at 18 percent. Another important but smaller and poorer deposit in Sikong is

that in Luchang of Hweili, where the probable reserve is 186,000 tons with copper content at 2.3-5.4 percent.¹³

Of the lead resources in China, no authoritative estimates have so far been made. The National Resources Commission, by compiling data from various sources, places the reserves of China Proper at the tentative figure of 2,695,000 metric tons in terms of metallic content. Other lead reserves are, however, known to exist in Manchuria, not mentioning Formosa.

Hunan has been the leading lead-producing province in China since the present war broke out. The Shuikoshan reserve in Hunan has been exploited for years while much lead is also produced in other districts of the province. Yunnan, Sikong, and Kweichow also have important reserves, but only Yunnan produces any considerable amount.

Zinc is often jointly produced with lead. The zinc reserves of China Proper have tentatively been estimated by the National Resources Commission at 155,000 metric tons of metallic content. However, reserves from which zinc comes out as the more important mineral than lead are in the four southwestern provinces of Hunan, Sikong, Yunnan, and Kwangsi.

The lead and zinc mine in Shuikoshan produces several hundred tons of zinc annually. A mine in Hweili, having an estimated reserve of 40,000 metric tons of metallic content, and ores of 18-40 percent in content, annually produces 300 metric tons before the war interrupted its normal

12. 李春昱, Li Ch'un-yueh, op. cit., p. 205.

13. Ibid., pp. 201-202, passim; also, Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry," 6th Issue.

operation. Several hundreds of metric tons are also annually available from various mines in Yunnan. The sphalerite ore near Kweiling are known for their rich content.

F. Aluminium—China is believed to have fairly abundant aluminium resources, although their exact quantity is still unknown. Bauxite deposits have long been known to exist in the coal districts of Shantung, forming a rich source of aluminium, with aluminium shale totalling 271 million metric tons, or 68 million metric tons of aluminium metal at the average content of quarter percent.¹⁴ An important wartime discovery is the bauxite reserves in Kweichow and Yunnan where good ores containing from 60 to 70 percent aluminium oxide have been estimated by the National Resources Commission at tens of million metric tons. The Kweichow reserves are promising for development, because of their proximity to sources of water power. Bauxite reserves have also been found in Liaoyang, Liaoning, and are estimated by the Japanese at 110 million metric tons, with the ores containing 40-58 percent aluminium oxide. Other promising bauxite reserves are also found in Fukien, Anhwei, and Chekiang.

With the progress of industrial arts, aluminium and its alloys are being used more widely, and in many fields the metal makes a good substitute for copper. If China can produce aluminium at low cost, her rich aluminium resources will make good to some

extent her poverty in copper resources.

G. Tungsten, Antimony, Tin, and Mercury—Mainly on the exportation of these minerals, China has been relying for the repayments of the foreign loans in recent years. Known from World War I as having the world's largest tungsten reserve, China produced half of its tungsten during the interwar period. The Chinese tungsten reserves, totalling 5 million tons of ore, are distributed primarily in the four provinces of Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Hunan and Yunnan.¹⁵

China also leads the world in antimony reserve. Ascertained Chinese antimony reserves are in the provinces of Hunan, Kweichow and Yunnan, but the existence of the mineral is also reported in other provinces. In 1937, China produced one third of the world's antimony.

Of China's tin reserves, that in Kochiu, Yunnan, is the most important and estimated at 367,000 metric tons, while lesser reserves with an estimated total of some 200,000 metric tons are distributed in Kwangsi, Hunan, and other provinces. The exploitation of the Kochiu tin mines dates back to the early Ching Dynasty, and even now Kochiu retains its superiority over other tin mines discovered in recent decades.¹⁶ Kochiu produces refined tin of 99.0-99.9 purity, and this together with the production from native furnaces total seven to ten thousand metric tons annually.

14. Cf. 王竹泉, "山東博山淄川鉛礦研究," 地質彙報 No. 18, 1932.

15. Total amount of reserves are tentative estimate compiled by the National Resources Commission.

16. Ibid.

Fourth among what are called export minerals in China is mercury. The Chinese mercury reserves, though not as important as any of the foregoing export minerals in global comparisons, is nevertheless an important source to the world's mercury production. In 1937, China ranked sixth among the mercury-producing countries in the world. The mercury mines of Kweichow and Hunan have long been renowned in China. Other Chinese mercury reserves are in Szechwan, Sikong, and other provinces.¹⁷

H. Sulphur, Phosphorus, and Salt—China's sulphur resources cannot be regarded as plentiful, but are conveniently situated in different provinces. The reserves are mainly of pyrites, whose quantity has not been ascertained. The larger reserves, according to geologists, are probably those of Fukien, Kwangtung, and Szechwan in the south, and of Honan in the north.¹⁸ China's prewar annual output of sulphur was 5,000 metric tons, but her annual production has now declined to less than 2,000 metric tons, owing to the occupation by the enemy of many producing areas.

Records on Chinese phosphorus resources were confined to the reserves in Kiangsu and Kwangtung, with an estimated total of about 2,200,000 metric tons. New reserves have in recent years been discovered in Yunnan by the Geological Survey of China, and proven fields there have added to China's phosphorus reserve by at least 20,000,000 metric tons.¹⁹

17. *Ibid.*

18. 李春望, Li Ch'un-yueh, *op. cit.*

19. *Ibid.*

Over 3,000,000 metric tons of salt were produced in China annually before the war. Of this amount, 85 percent from coastal provinces, and the balance from the rock salt reserves of Szechwan, Yunnan, and also from the salt lakes in the northwestern provinces.

Among China's other chemical resources, nitrate is worth mentioning. Liaoning, Shantung, Hopeh, and Honan are important nitrate-producing provinces, while high quality nitrate salt is also found in Kiangsu, Kansu, and Ninghsia. The annual production of Chinese nitrate in recent years has been estimated at 6,500 metric tons, and annual importation before the war at 3,000 metric tons.

I. Forestry—Estimates on the forestry of China vary considerably. An estimated 9,108,789,450 ares was made by the former Ministry of Industries early in 1935, as against a later figure of 1,173,214,000 shih mow, (市畝) or 7,821,817,738 ares given by the present Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, while 229,800,000 acres, or 12,132,606,200 ares, is the most quoted figure, estimated in 1936 by Mr. D. Y. Lin, director of the Central Forestry Bureau.

Although there was considerable difference between the estimate of the Ministry of Industries and that of Mr. Lin, yet, because there was also difference between their conceptions of the total land area of China, they gave approximately the same proportion of forest to the total land area, that is 8.97

percent and 8.4 percent respectively. Either estimate, however, shows that China is poor in forests, as the corresponding figure is 13.1 for British India, 16 for Italy, 27.2 for Germany, 31.9 for the U.S.A., and 56.6 for Japan Proper.²⁰ China owes her poverty in forest to long years of neglect and destruction.

With regard to the distribution of China's forest resources, as shown in all the three above estimates, Heilungkiang has the most forests among the provinces, with Szechwan being second. According to Mr. Lin's figures, the seven regions having each a forest area of over 10 million acres, or 404,469,000 acres, are Heilungkiang, Szechwan, Yunnan, Sinkiang, Kirin, Mongolia, and Hunan.

The Chinese forestry statistics do not make a very encouraging picture, but there is much land suitable for afforestation, which has been estimated by Mr. Lin at 872,100,000 acres, or 31 percent of the total land area. Of this amount, Sinkiang, Mongolia, and Manchuria have each over 100,000 acres.

II. PREWAR INDUSTRIES

Despite repeated attempts at industrialization, China's economic make-up remains to this day predominantly agricultural. Around 80 percent of her population is rural, and her national income lists only a negligible part from industrial fields.

Chinese factories registered with the Ministry of Economic Affairs

numbered under 4,000, employing altogether 450,000 workers and having \$337,000,000 of investment. In a country of 450 million inhabitants, this means one factory for every 100,000 persons, one factory hand among every 1,000 persons, and only \$0.8 of industrial investment per head of population. Industrial China was therefore in no way comparable to the highly developed countries of the West. In this respect she even lags behind Japan, which, being one-fortieth the size of China, with a population equalling only 15 percent of China's, and possessing much fewer natural resources, had in 1937, 106,005 factories and 2,937,000 factory workers. In the development of mining industries, China was as backward, employing in the main native methods and operating only in places with easy access to markets.

Thus China is mainly agricultural and even today her industrial system is still in its infancy, owing to the lack of capital, technique, and modern transportation for industrialization. All these factors should be remembered in connection with the following brief survey of the principal Chinese industries in the immediate prewar days, which is meant to show basically the state of development of China's natural resources.

A. Electric Power—The development of electric power in prewar China was in limited areas and on small scales.

In 1936, public utility power plants in China Proper had a total capacity of 631,165 Kw. and

20. D. H. Fong, *op. cit.*

21. J. L. Buck, *Land Utilization in China*, University of Chicago Press, 1937 Vol. I. pp. 33. 172.

produced altogether 1,724,305 Kw.H., of which 47 percent was for industrial uses.²² At the same time, industrial power plants had a combined capacity of 241,649 Kw. with total generation at 701,632 Kw.H. Most of the power plants were of small capacities; of the 460 Chinese public utility power plants, 15 were above 10,000 Kw. each, 40 ranging individually from 1,000 Kw. to 10,000 Kw., and 304, or 70 percent, under 100 Kw. apiece.

The development of a country's power industries is a fair measure of its degree of industrialization. China's economic backwardness is seen in the fact that the total capacity of her public utility power plants amounted to less than two percent of that obtainable in the United States during 1935. The capacity of the public utility power plants in China Proper was distributed nearly 80 percent in the coastal industrial centers, 34 percent in Kiangsu, 14 percent in Shantung, 12 percent in Kwangtung, 11 percent in Chekiang, 9 percent in Hopei, and only less than 2 percent in the hinterland provinces of Szechwan, Sikong, Kweichow, Yunnan, and Kwangsi. The concentration of Chinese industries in the coastal areas, has often been criticized, a problem to which we shall return later.

China possesses enormous water resources, but they were hardly tapped in prewar days. In 1936, her hydro plants had a total capacity of 3,200 Kw., or less than 0.5 percent of the total electric capacity in China Proper.

B. Fuel—Among the widely scattered coal fields in China, those with easy access to markets through water and rail transportation facilities produce the most coal. This can be gathered from Table 2 in conjunction with Table 5. Of the 1936 national coal output of 34.3 million metric tons, about 20 percent was produced in Hopeh, a coastal province having convenient water and rail transportation facilities but only 1.23 percent of the country's coal reserve; while less than 9 percent was attributed to the secluded provinces of Shansi and Shensi, which possess between them 82 percent of the national coal reserve. The nine provinces of Manchuria, having only 2 percent of the country's coal reserve but a comparatively better rail system, produced 35 percent of the national coal output, most of which was credited to Liaoning, the center of the Manchurian transportation system. In South China, of the four provinces leading in coal reserves, only Hunan had an output of 919,000 metric tons, or less than 3 percent of the national coal production.

TABLE 5. COAL PRODUCTION IN CHINA, BY PROVINCE, 1936
(unit: 000' metric tons)

Manchuria	12,000
Hopei	7,575
Shantung	3,988
Shansi	2,800
Honan	2,266
Anhwei	1,010
Hunan	919
Szechwan	663
Hupei	563
Kiangsi	346
Kwangtung	351

22. Figures on China's power industry, except otherwise noted, are from The National Reconstruction Commission, Statistical Report on Electric Utility in China, No. 7, 1937, covering only China Proper, with Manchuria excluded.

Kiangsu ..	367	Joint Administration in Honan; their respective outputs in 1934 were 8,671,033 tons, 4,754,815 tons, 1,311,708 tons, and 909,600 tons. Thirty other organizations in China produced each over 100,000 tons a year, with eight in Manchuria, 18 in North China, and four in Central China.
Charhar ..	247	
Chekiang ..	242	
Shensi ..	200	
Yunnan ..	123	
Kansu ..	100	
Sinkiang ..	100	
Kwangsi ..	160	
Kweichow ..	80	
Suiyuan ..	72	
Fukien ..	50	China's prewar production of mineral oil was chiefly from oil shales, which are regarded as inferior sources of oil and scarcely exploited in such a country as the United States. Of the total Chinese mineral oil output of 677,481 barrels in 1934, about 3 percent was produced as a by-product from coke-ovens, and only a negligible .001 percent from the regular petroleum fields.
Ninghsia ..	15	
Total	34,250	

Source: Directorate-General of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, Statistical Abstract of the Republic of China, 1940, p. 65.

There are four leading coal-producing organizations in China: the Fushun Colliery in Liaoning, the Kailan Mining Administration in Hopei, the Chunghsing Company in Shantung, and the Chungfu

TABLE 6. PRODUCTION OF MINERAL OIL IN CHINA, 1936
Unit: Barrel (42 gallons)

CHINA PROPER	2,613	estimates by-product from coke-oven,
Yenchang, Shensi	288	
Kansu, Szechwan, Sinkiang	400	
Chinghsing Mining Administration, Hopei	1,925	
MANCHURIA	674,868	shale-oil by-product from coke-oven,
Fushun	650,000	
Penchihu	4,868	
Anshan	20,009	" "
TOTAL	677,481	

Source: Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry in China," 5th Issue, pp. 158-9.

Prewar China had to import large quantity of oil from abroad, as her annual consumption of 68 million barrels, which amounted to only .006 percent of the U.S. consumption in 1936, vastly exceeded the Chinese domestic oil output. In Manchuria, nine-tenths of the production from oil shales in Fushun went to feed the Japanese navy to fulfil the very purpose for

which they were developed, leaving the domestic consumption to rely on imported oil. Petroleum, which was produced in Kansu, Sinkiang, and Szechwan partly from salt wells as a by-product and partly from oil fields by local inhabitants, served the local consumption, mainly as lamp fuel.

Prospecting of oil fields in Shensi was carried out in 1934 under

the joint auspices of the National Resources Commission and the Provincial Government of Shensi, and the drilling test was reported satisfactory. However, the work had to be suspended the following summer, owing to local conditions. Oil was also known to exist in those fields of Kansu and Sinkiang now under exploitation, but no testing work was then undertaken.

C. Metals, Mining and Metallurgy

1. **Iron and Steel**—No reliable estimate on China's iron industry of the immediate prewar days can be made, owing to the paucity of appropriate data. The 5th issue of the "General Statement on Mining Industry in China," published in 1935, puts the production of Chinese iron ore in 1934 at about 2.5 million tons, including 2 million tons from modern mines which were located in the two principal iron-producing districts, Liaoning and Yangtze Valley and 400,000 tons of estimated output from various native mines as shown in Table 8.23

TABLE 7. PRODUCTION OF IRON ORE
BY THE PRINCIPAL MINES IN
CHINA, 1934
Unit: metric tons

CHINA PROPER	950,000
Yangtze Valley	932,000
Hanyehping Co., Hupeh	382,000
Hsiangpishan, Hupeh	70,000
Taochung, Anhwei	280,000
Paohsing Co., Anhwei	80,000
Fulimin Co., Anhwei	120,000
Shansi	
Yangchuan	18,000
MANCHURIA	1,185,031
Miaoerkou, Liaoning	230,031
Anshan, Liaoning	950,000
Total	2,135,031

Source: Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry in China," 5th Issue, pp. 158-9.

23. Ibid. pp. 181-3.

TABLE 8. ESTIMATED ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF IRON BY NATIVE MINES IN CHINA, 1934
Unit: metric tons

	Iron Ore	Pig Iron
Shensi	180	50
Shansi	180,000	60,000
Honan	25,000	8,000
Chekiang	300	100
Fukien	3,000	1,000
Hunan	12,800	5,652
Szechwan	60,000	20,000
Kwangtung	30,000	9,000
Kwangsi	11,500	3,350
Kweichow	300	75
Yunnan	1,500	500
Others	80,000	30,000
Total	409,580	138,727

Source: Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry in China," 5th Issue, pp. 182-3.

The surprising fact about the principal Chinese iron mines is that their outputs were almost exclusively for the Japanese steel industry to be transformed into armaments that equipped Japan's aggression on the Chinese mainland. While iron ores produced in Liaoning were as a matter of course smelted in the Japanese puppet state of "Manchukuo" by the two iron and steel plants, the Penchiu Co. and the Showa Steel Works; iron ores from the Yangtze Valley were regularly exported direct to Japan Proper, more or less through ordinary trade channels.

Most of the iron plants early erected in China failed during the early nineteen twenties, following the cessation of orders for iron products from world war I. Of the 7 plants that existed in

China during World War I, only 2 remained in 1936. The two were the Liuhokow Co. in Hupeh with a 100-ton daily capacity and the Paochin Iron Works in Shansi with a 25-ton daily capacity. Both of them had to labor under difficult conditions, and the latter could operate only occasionally. Besides, there existed in 1936 two iron plants in Shanghai, the Shanghai Iron Works and the experimental plant of the Academia Sinica, but their capacities were so small that they played an insignificant part in the actual development of China's iron resources.

The pig iron production of China Proper in 1936 approximated 155,640 tons, with 16,960 tons from Liuhokow, 3,680 tons from Paochin, and around 135,000 tons from native furnaces. In that same year, Manchuria had a pig iron output of 475,000 tons, solely from the two plants in Liaoning. Indeed, while the smelting plants in China Proper were having a severe depression, the two plants in Liaoning enjoyed a great boom. During the 1932-4 period, the Penchiho Co. expanded its annual production of pigs from 81,357 tons to 153,400 tons, and the Showa Steel Works, from 287,124 tons to 322,400 tons.²⁴

Even less can be said about pre-war steel production in China Proper. The estimated annual output was 50,000 tons, as produced by a steel plant each in Shanghai, Taiyuan, and Shansi, and by various arsenals.²⁵ Plans for the erection of a steel plant each in Central, South, and Northwest China failed to materialize because the war broke

out. In Manchuria, the Mukden arsenal produced some steel, but the capacity is still unknown.

The largest iron and steel works ever built in China was the Hanyehping Co., which strange to say, though equipped with six furnaces of a total daily capacity of 1,550 tons, had never been a successful enterprise. Originally, a site in Kwangtung was proposed in the last years of the Manchu Dynasty for the erection of the plant; but later when its sponsor, General Chang Chih-tung, then Governor of Kwangtung, was transferred to the governorship of Hupeh and Hunan, all the plant's equipment went with him to Hupeh. Hanyang was then chosen as the site for the plant, merely because, as was said, of the convenience it provided for the new Governor to get a good view of the plant from the window of his office across the Yangtze River in Wuchang. There was no consideration for the supply of either iron ore or coal, and it was an act of Providence that iron reserve of Tayeh was discovered in time. When the plant began operation in 1885, coke had to be hauled over a distance of 500 miles from Kaiping in Hopei. Not until the discovery and exploitation of the Pinghsiang coal reserves in Kiangsi during 1889 did the long haulage of coke cease.

With Tayeh and Hanyang being 80 miles apart, and Pinghsiang and Hanyang 325 miles apart, tremendous cost had to be borne for transporting both iron ore and coal to the smelter. Coal shipments were made by rail to Wuchang,

24. Ibid., pp. 183-6.

25. 申報年鑑, 1936, p.709. The Shun Pao Year Book, 1936, p. 709.

whence by junk to Hanyang. The production of coke by the Hanyang plant cost US\$14 per ton, about thrice the then coke price in Pittsburgh.

To yield 1 ton of pig iron required about 2 tons of Tayeh iron ore of 60 percent purity, and to smelt 2 tons of iron ore would, according to the then coking conditions, need 4 tons of coal. Since raw materials were much more costly to transport than the finished products, Hanyang was apparently a badly chosen site for the iron plant. In 1923, the Han-

yehping Co. began to operate a plant in Tayeh, which certainly was a better site than Hanyang, as there was no necessity to transport iron ore, although coal had still to be hauled over a long distance.

Wrong choice of location was the most obvious but not the only factor that caused the failure of the Hanyehping Co. Additional factors were the lack of modern technique and inefficiency in management, both contributing to the high cost of production. The selling prices of the Co.'s products

TABLE 9. PRODUCTION OF COOPER IN CHINA, 1930-34

Unit: metric tons

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Hweitseh, Yunnan . . .	186	248	420	473	431
Penghsien, Szechwan . .	25	25	20	10	—
Weining, Tating, etc., Kweichow	8	23	—	—	—
Total	219	296	440	483	471

Source: Geological Survey of China, General Statement on Mining Industry of China, 5th Issue, p. 222.

TABLE 10. PRODUCTION OF LEAD AND ZINC IN CHINA, 1932-34

Unit: metric tons

	1932		1933		1934	
	Lead	Zinc	Lead	Zinc	Lead	Zinc
Shuikoshan, Hunan . .	5,320	*4,450	5,068	*4,014	6,460	*4,778
		**5,432		**6,038		**8,068
Hweitseh, Yunnan . . .	221	80	—	152	190	153
Hweili, Szechfan . . .	20	300	20	300	20	300
Kangting, Sikong . . .	15	—	10	—	—	—
Kwangsi		322	—	61	—	—
Total: Ore	5,576	10,584	5,302	10,565	6,670	13,299
Metal	2,728	27	3,844	147	1,665	136

*Lump zinc ore **Dust zinc ore

Source: Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry of China," 5th Issue, pp. 227-8.

could not be freely raised to cover their costs, owing to opposition on the part of its foreign investors. When the Hanyang plant closed in 1922, the price of its steel rail was said to be at US\$71 per ton as against the US\$50 per ton of U.S. made, procurable in Shanghai, and even at the much higher selling price, the local product had to bear a loss.

2.—Copper, Lead, and Zinc.—

Although copper had been widely demanded for various purposes in China, the domestic production was much below the annual consumption of about 6,000 metric tons. The outstanding center of copper production during the immediate prewar years was Hweitsch (Tungchwan) in Yunnan, with an annual output of some 400 metric tons. The yearly production in Penghsien of northwestern Szechwan amounted to 100 metric tons in the earlier days, but declined to only 10 metric tons in 1933. Some 25 metric tons were also produced in various places of Kweichow, and sundry copper products were turned out by small-scale copper works in Shanghai;

but all of them were petty industries which made no notable contribution to the quantity or the metallurgical technique of China's prewar copper production.

For the production of China's lead and zinc ores, the primary center was Shuikoushan in the Changning district of Hunan, where the 1934 output was 6,460 metric tons of lead ore and 12,846 metric tons of lump and dust zinc ores; while secondary centers were Hweitsch in Yunnan and Huili in Szechwan, which in 1934 produced between them 210 metric tons of lead ore and 453 metric tons of zinc ores. The lead ores from Shuikoushan were largely treated in the copper smelting plant in Changsha, which produced 2,475 metric tons of lead in 1933.

3. Tungsten, Antimony, Tin, and Mercury.—

Notwithstanding the frequent disturbances over her richest tungsten district in southern Kiangsi, China was able to lead the world in tungsten ore production before the war. Over 40 per cent of the world's annual tungsten ore production was mined in China.

TABLE 11. ANNUAL PRODUCTION TUNGSTEN ORE IN CHINA, 1931-36

Unit: metric tons

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Kwangsi . . .	3,500	230	3,550	4,480	7,000	7,000
Hunan . . .	550	180	230	455		
Kwangtung . . .	2,500	1,800	1,868	1,320		
Kwangsi & Others	30		50	50		
Total . . .	6,580	2,210	5,698	6,305	7,000	7,000

Source: Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry in China", 5th Issue, pp. 207-8.

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The bulk of Chinese antimony was mined in Hunan, with Sinhwa being the leading producing center, and Anhwa second. Yunnan, Kwangtung, and Kwangsi also produced a small amount each. Since antimony had very little use in China, almost the entire output was exported.

Owing to international competition, antimony production in China slumped from 19,058 metric tons in 1925 to slightly over 10,000 tons in 1932; but thereafter there was a marked recovery. Conditions in the immediate prewar years were as follows:

TABLE 12. PRODUCTION OF ANTIMONY IN CHINA 1932-36

Unit: metric tons

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Regulus	11,410	11,112	13,615	14,000	13,000
Crude	1,287	1,727	1,807		
Oxide	1,408	1,327	914		

Source: Geological Survey of China, "General Statement on Mining Industry in China," 5th Issue, pp. 267-8.

Antimony content averaged 99 percent in regulus, 70 percent in crude, and 50 percent in ore.

Tin was produced primarily from the Kochiu district in southern Yunnan where cassiterite is obtainable from both superficial deposits and rock ores. Much smaller

quantities were also mined in Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwantung, and Hunan. A modern tin smelter was established in Kochiu in 1932 with an annual productive capacity of 2,500 metric tons. Production in various provinces during the first five prewar years was as follows:

TABLE 13. PRODUCTION OF TIN IN CHINA, 1932-36

Unit: metric tons

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Yunnan (Kochiu)	6,744	7,431	6,941	—	—
Kwangsi (Hochi, Fuchwan, etc.)	302	375	313	—	—
Kiangsi (Tayu)	—	360	600	—	—
Hunan (Kianghwa, Linwu)	61	56	92	—	—
Kwangtung (Tienpo, etc.)	145	138	50	—	—
	7,254	8,358	8,004	9,000	11,000

Source: The Chinese Year Book, 1936-37, 2nd Issue, p. 1373, also League of Nations, Statistical Year Book, 1939.

Mercury was produced chiefly in Kweichow and Hunan. Formerly, China was well known for her mercury, but the output decreased steadily. There are no easily ascertainable production figures for the immediate prewar years. The estimation of the League of Nations was 46 tons in 1933 and 73 tons in 1937.

D. Machine Industry.—In 1936 were concentrated in the leading Chinese cities of Shanghai, Wusih, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Hankow, etc. about 400 machine shops. Most of them were on a small scale, capitalized at \$1,000-\$500,000, and virtually repair shops and assembly works. The main products included gins, looms, spindles for the textile industry, reeling machines for the silk-reeling industry, and various kinds of machineries for the knitting, printing, rubber, floor, vegetable oil, tobacco, and rice-milling industries. Although agricultural implements, pumps, lathes, drills, planers, and steam and petrol engines were also produced in good quantity, the heavier types of machinery were largely neglected.

Shipbuilding in China has already had a history of half a century; but up to the eve of the war, while small steam boats had been built now and then, the main line of business remained to be repairing. In 1936, the number of such works as represented by Chinese investment totalled 55, of which the largest were the Kiangnan Shipbuilding Works in Shang-

hai and the Yangtzekiang Machine Works, with paid up capital at \$20,000,000 and Tls. 10,000,000 respectively. In addition, six works of British interests were distributed among Shanghai, Tientsin, and Kowloon, with the largest capitalized at Tls. 5,520,000 and the smallest at \$500,000.

Besides the regular machine shops and shipbuilding works, there were some 40 factories set up by the railways at important stations for general repairing and the manufacturing of car bodies. All of them were small; the biggest was that at Tangshan on the Peiping-Mukden Railway, with power equipment of 1,680 H.P., and the smaller ones were each equipped with 5 to 20 H.P.

The manufacture of electrical machinery and appliances may also be mentioned under the present category. The majority of such works were in Shanghai. According to a report by Dr. D. K. Lieu, it had 44 electrical manufacturing factories, with paid up capital totalling \$3,770,244 and sales of generators, motors, bulbs, wires, batteries, and various other appliances aggregating \$10,000,000 in 1932.²⁶

E. Chemical Industry.—Among the Chinese chemical industries before the war, while the production of daily articles like matches, bakelites, cosmetics, etc. was expanding rapidly, industries of the basic chemicals, acids, alkalis, and nitrogen products were not well developed and remained young, owing to their comparatively recent growth.

26. 劉大鈞，中國工業調查報告，軍事委員會資源委員會參攷資料第二十種，二十六年二月，中冊

A Survey of China's Industries, by Dr. D. K. Lieu, Monograph published by the National Military Council. Feb., 1937.

The domestic demand for chemicals consisted mainly of acetic, sulphuric, hydrochloric, and nitric acids. But China's chemical industry was so backward generally that her demand for these acids formed a very small proportion of that in the industrially advanced countries. Moreover, even this small domestic demand was beyond the productive capacity of China, as over 100,000 piculs of acids had to be imported annually before the war. Of the 12 acids works in

1936, the three largest were the Lien-Kwang Sulphuric Acid Works, the Tien-Li Nitrogen Works, and the Po-Hai Chemical Works, with paid up capital at \$1,200,000, \$1,000,000, and \$500,000 respectively.

Alkali works of some scale and comparatively modern design numbered 6 of which the Yung Li Chemical Works in Tangku was the oldest and the largest, and owned over 70 percent of the total capital in the alkali industry. In

TABLE 14. ACID, ALKALI, AND NITROGEN PRODUCTS

	Locality	Number of Factory	Paid up Capital (CN\$)	Products and Annual Capacity (piculs)
ACID	Hopei	3	750,000	Hydrochloric acid 10,000
				Sulphuric acid 24,310
	Shanghai	5	2,650,000	Hydrochloric acid 50,880
				Sulphuric acid 112,500
				Nitric acid 34,450
				Acetic acid 4,380
				Bleaching powder 60,000
				Caustic soda lbs, daily
				6 tons daily
	Kwangtung	1	631,852	Nitric acid 75,600
ALKALI	Kwangsi	1	1,200,000	Sulphuric acid 43,200
				Nitric acid 3,000
	Shensi	1		Sulphuric acid 4,000
	Shensi	1		
	Tungku (Hopei)	3	4,550,000	Soda ash 600,000
				Caustic soda 33,000
				Sodium silicate } 70,600
				„ sulphide }
	Shanghai	12	875,000	Caustic soda 40,500*
				Sodium sulphide 25,200*
NITROGEN PRODUCTS				Sodium silicate 34,600*
	Szechwan	2	100,000	Soda ash 13,000
	Shantung	1	100,000	Caustic soda
	Shensi	1		Sodium sulphide
	Yunnan	1		
	Shanghai	1	1,500,000	Liquid ammonia 19,000
				Nitric acid 32,200
				Ammonium nitrate 18,600
				Calcium nitrate 3,220
				Ammonium sulphate 2,700
	Liuho (Kiangsu)	1 (Un-finished)	8,000,000	Ammonium sulphate 840,000

addition, there were about 14 factories for the manufacture of alkali products, but such factories were very small and had each a paid up capital of only \$3,000-40,000.

Although nitrogen fixation is indispensable to the production of fertilizers and munitions, and thus to China, whose population was about 80 percent rural, and who was constantly threatened by a persistent aggressor; China had in 1936 only one nitrogen works, which was located in Shanghai, produced various nitrogen products, and had one year's history, although 4 or 5 other chemical works also produced among other things nitric acid. At the outbreak of war, there was under construction a new nitrogen works of larger size, with a paid up capital of \$8,000,000 and a projected annual capacity of 840,000 piculs of ammonium sulphate.

F. Textile and Food Industries—

The present discussion has thus far been of those industries, whose products are for other industries rather than the final consumers. Actually, China's pre-war industrial development was concentrated in the production of consumption goods. Of the 4,000 factories registered with the Ministry of Industries at the end of 1937, over 80 percent may well be placed under the category of the consumption goods industries. Most prominent among them were the textile and food industries, the combined paid up capital of which amounted to 55 percent of the total for all factories registered in 1937.

In was in cotton textile that China first embarked on her modern industrial development.

Since China's first cotton spinning and weaving factory was erected in Shanghai in 1892, the Chinese cotton textile industry has shown a slow but steady progress. When war broke out in 1937, there were in China, including Manchuria, 5,100,000 spindles and 50,000 power looms, which produced approximately 2,100,000 bales (one bale=420 pounds) of yarn and 30,000,000 pieces (One piece=40 yards) of cloth respectively. Raw cotton for the spinning industry was partly imported from the United States but mainly drawn from Kiangsu, Hupeh, Shensi, and North China provinces, while markets for the products covered the whole of China and the South Seas Regions. For the weaving industry, the finer yarns were mostly imported. In Shanghai the better equipped and larger factories had an extensive marketing area, although most of the production was for local and nearby consumption.

Over 80 percent of China's spindles and power looms was in the coastal districts. Of the total number of spindles, Kiangsu alone had over 60 percent, which showed concentration in Shanghai, while 28 percent was distributed among other textile-producing cities like Wusih, Hankow, Tientsin, Tsinan, and Tsingtao.

The cotton textile industry of Shanghai merits special attention. Not only did it represent the concentration of about half of the country's cotton textile industry, but it owned one-third of the paid up capital of all factories in Shanghai, employed one-third of their labor, and furnished one-fourth in value of their output as well.²⁷

The two largest Chinese owned cotton mills in Shanghai were the Wing On Textile Manufacturing Co. and the Sing Sing Cotton Mill. The former, comprising in all 4 factories, had a paid up capital of \$12,000,000, possessed 233,240 spindles, and produced 138,045 bales of yarn and 1,048,164 pieces of cloth during 1934; while the corresponding figures for the latter, which had 9 factories in Shanghai, were \$10,000,000, 449,000 spindles, 244,386 bales of yarn, and 1,607,950 pieces of cloth. Shanghai also had British and Japanese cotton mills, but the British mills were much fewer in number. The largest British mill in Shanghai was the Ewo Cotton Mills Ltd., which had 3 separate factories and was equipped with 184,908 spindles in 1934.

Japanese investment in the Chinese cotton textile industry was noteworthy. In the 1919-1933 period, while the number of spindles in Chinese mills increased threefold, in the Japanese mills in China increased sixfold. with the result that in 1933 the amount of Japanese investment in the industry nearly caught up with the total Chinese investment. During 1933 the output of yarn and cloth by Chinese and Japanese mills in Shanghai were respectively 158,809 bales and 9,039,987 pieces, and 575,802 bales and 12,584,968 pieces.

Silk-reeling was of second importance in the Chinese textile industry. Chinese silk used to enjoy a world-wide market, with the export of raw silk reaching the peak of 115,000 quintals in 1928 but thereafter showing a sharp decline. Before the war, silk-reeling fac-

tories confirming to the Factory Law, numbered 137, producing about 60,000 quintals of raw silk a year. (28). Of the silk-reeling machines in China Proper, over 95 percent was distributed among the coastal silk-producing centers; and respecting distribution by provinces, Kiangsu had 63 percent and Kwangtung 25 percent.

In China, far less important than silk-reeling was silk-weaving, which employed in the main hand processes. The silk-weaving factories were unequally distributed among Chekiang, Kwantung, Szechwan, and Kiangsu; and, with a few exceptions, catered for markets that were not much wider than the individual localities.

Woolen and worsted manufacture in China was not so well developed as her cotton textile industry. For wool spinning, prewar China had only 26,478 spindles; while a large portion of the wool produced had, for reasons of inferior quality, to be exported in the form of raw wool and rugs.

Jute manufacture in China was even less important. Before the war, she had only two gunny bag mills; one in Kwangtung and the other in Hupeh.

Most important among the food industries in prewar China was flour manufacturing, whose paid up capital amounted to one-third of that for all food factories in China Proper that conformed to the Factory Law. There were altogether 66 flour mills in the country, having a total annual capacity of 65,000,000 bags of flour; while the distribution of the flour industry was similar to that of the cotton textile industry, with

Shanghai, Tientsin, Wusih, Tsinan, and Hankow as the important centers.

One may expect flour manufacturing to be a leading line of industrial development in China, which is recognized as an agricultural nation; but production statistics show that that flour mills in prewar China produced at a rate of less than 20 percent of the country's annual consumption. The fact that since 1903 not a single year has passed without importing considerable flour from abroad is one of the numerous instances indicative of the under development of her natural resources.

Other branches of food manufacturing, like oil pressing, rice milling, egg freezing, etc. were generally characterized by smallness of capitalization and scale. Of the different cities among which these industries were distributed, Shanghai invariably was the most important.

In the foregoing brief account of China's industries we have reviewed only those being either basic to a modern industrial system or comparatively more developed and important to the Chinese economy, leaving out other sundry industries, of which the relatively more important were tobacco, tea, paper, matches, leather and hides, rubber products, glass, bricks and earthenwares, and woodwork. However, in studying the development of China's industrial resources, it should be noted that industrial activity was not confined to the modern or semi-modern industries, and that no small part of it was performed in the household, sometimes along the line of what is

called the putting-out-system. Such a system had numerous instances in the jute and textile industries, salt production, making of gun powder, etc.

Two distinct features marked the Chinese industrial system under review. First was its general backwardness, for not only the totality of Chinese industry was meager, but also over half of it belonged to classes calling for neither huge capital nor high industrial technique. Second was the uneven distribution of industries between the coastal and interior provinces, as seen in the fact that, of the 4,000 factories registered with the Ministry of Industries at the end of 1937, over 30 percent was in Shanghai and over 50 percent in other coastal districts.

Many have advanced bitter criticisms against the over-concentration of Chinese industries in the coastal provinces, and in the main their reckoning is quite correct, since 80 percent of China's industries along the coast were lost following the outbreak of the war. Where rigid state control is absent, the localization of industries is largely determined by economic factors, and it must be said that such coastal cities as Shanghai and Tientsin have their economic advantages.

Before the war, Chinese industries concentrated in the coastal areas comprised mainly of cotton spinning and weaving, silk-reeling, flour milling, machine making and repairing and power generation. While their concentration was greatest in Shanghai and Tientsin, it must not be forgotten that Hankow, though not a coastal city, was an important center for those

industries. Reference to their localizations is to start with the cotton textile industry.

In 1937, China's spindles were distributed over 60 percent in Kiangsu, with Shanghai alone having more than 40 percent, and over 10 percent in Hankow. Kiangsu and Hupeh were among the cotton-producing provinces, but, owing to the concentration of cotton mills, these two provinces were short of raw cotton, large quantities of which had to be imported from the northern provinces, India and America. Such has long been regarded by textile experts as a maladjustment.

In the highly industrialized countries, the labor source is sometimes an important factor in determining the localization of industries. But in China, where cheap labor is available almost everywhere and the period of training workers is shortened by the comparatively low level of technique, labor market conditions have little influence on industrial localizations.

Yarn converted from cotton weighs only a little less than the latter, which is especially true in China, where, because of the crudeness of the yarn produced, the loss in weight amounted to only 15 percent. Thus the proximity of cotton mills to markets or to cotton-producing areas makes little difference to transportation cost. However, in China unit transportation cost of yarn often exceeds that of cotton. Moreover, as textile manufacturing is a light industry difficult to monopolize and producers must act according to market conditions, the nearness of mills to markets is all important, since their is convenience in secur-

ing the latest information. The coastal cities of Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, etc., and the transportation center of Hankow were all leading marketing centers for cotton yarn.

Transportation and marketing apart, a third reason for the pre-war localization of Chinese cotton mills is the supply of motive power. In Shanghai, for example, they could obtain cheaper power from the public utilities than by operating separate power plants, which even if needed would certainly be more conveniently installed in cities possessing good transportation facilities.

Thus the localization of cotton mills in Shanghai and Hankow was economical, despite the necessity of using cotton which had to be transported over long distances. Cotton weaving was, in most cases, undertaken together with spinning, and both had the same marketing centers. To operate weaving in the same location as spinning would provide economy in avoiding transportation cost of yarn and cloth as well as in securing power and other supplies.

As in the case of cotton mills, the concentration of flour mills in the leading Chinese cities necessitated the transportation of large quantities of wheat from distant provinces and even from foreign countries. Regarding markets, the flour mills in Tientsin and Hankow supplied local consumption, and those in Shanghai supplied the coastal ports, East China and the South Seas Regions. The loss in weight from converting wheat into flour approximates 30 percent. But as two-thirds of the loss com-

prise husks, which have many uses in China, the net loss in weight amounts to only 10 percent or less. Before the war, 60 or 70 percent of the husks was exported to Japan and the rest for local consumption. Thus the prewar location of the Chinese flour mills was clearly justified by their proximity to markets. There were, of course, other contributing causes for this, which included power supply, sources of materials, financial facilities in the cities, etc.

As to the machine industry, the main line of business of which, as previously mentioned, was repairing and assembling, the question of lost weight was obviously insignificant, so that it served the industry well in being near markets of products, power supply, and other facilities. Regarding shipyards, to be at the sea ports was a matter of course.

Silk-reeling represents a different type. Excluding silk-reeling by native methods, prewar Kiangsu and Kwangtung had three-fourths of the Chinese silk-reeling industry, as measured by the number of reeling machines. To produce one pound of raw silk, six to ten pounds of cocoons are required. As cocoons are bulky and costly to transport, it would be convenient for silk-reeling to be located where silkworms are raised.

Nearly 80 percent of prewar China's electric generating capacity was in the coastal cities. As hydraulic power was neglected and long-distance transmission was not well developed, steam power would inevitably be located where industries and other electricity consumers were concentrated. At the same time, the industrial centers along

the coast were also transportation centers with easy access to coal supplies.

The geographical distribution of prewar China's chemical industry also showed concentration in the coastal areas.

Owing to the fact that raw materials for making sulphuric acid are easy to transport and that pyrites are available in almost every province of China, sulphuric acid works were built in consumption centers. On the other hand, as soda is easier to transport than salt, China's soda works found it more economical to be located at the sea coast.

III. WARTIME INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

A. Industrial Migration —

Though well located for economic considerations, the industrial centers of prewar China were in regions exposed to the danger of enemy occupation. Shortly after the Lukouchiao Incident, when the battle of Shanghai was looming large, the Government ordered the factories in the coastal regions to move inland. August, 1937, marked the beginning of the most dramatic page in China's industrial history. Hotly pursued by the enemy and sadly lacking in transportation facilities, large quantities of industrial equipment and materials, accompanied by thousands of workers, headed west. The exodus, under tremendous difficulties and hardships, was the prelude to unprecedented industrial development in the hinterland.

The industrial migration had several stages. From August to

December, 1937, it was mainly from Shanghai to Hankow, whither were shipped over 14,000 tons of equipment and materials, a considerable part of which resumed operation. In July, 1938, when Wuchang and Hankow were threatened by the enemy, the factories there whether indigenous or newly removed from Shanghai, betook themselves further westward; and during the July-October period of 1938, equipment and materials moved from Wuchang to Hankow and its neighboring districts to the interior weighed 51,000 tons. The third stage, from October, 1938, to June, 1940, saw Ichang become the main center of transportation, through which 45,200 tons of equipment and materials reached Szechwan. Whereas before the end of 1938, forwarding of equipment and materials was mainly from Wuhan to Szechwan, after that it was the transportation of what was evacuated from Chekiang and Kiangsu to Free China. The fall of Ichang marked the epilogue of the industrial migration, but did not stop the piecemeal migrations that continued for a long time thereafter.²⁹

The Government played an active part in the industrial migration. A special committee, jointly organized by the Ministry of War, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Industries and the National Resources Commission, was responsible for the removal of Shanghai factories to Wuhan; while towards

the end of 1937, the migration was entrusted to another committee organized by the National Military Council, the Ministry of War, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Industries, the National Resources Commission and other government organs. During the following spring, when the government administration was reorganized, the latter committee was combined with the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Commission of the National Military Council to form the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration administered under the Ministry of Economic Affairs. This new organization not only took over the work of directing and assisting the refugee factories, but also became a directing, assisting and controlling agency to private industries during wartime economic reconstruction.

Government assistance to factories removed to the interior included: financial grants for migration, exemptions from certain taxes, reduction of transportation charges, appropriation of expenses and allotment of land for building plants in the interior, guarantee of bank loans, etc.

Excluding government plants, there were moved into the interior 639 factories, 463 of which, or 70 percent, resumed operation in 1940, together with 116,000 tons of equipment and materials and 12,164 skilled workers.³⁰

29. Cf. 經濟部後方工業概況統計, 1943 and also 林耀庸, 工廠內遷紀略.

1942. Cf. Ministry of Economic Affairs, Statistics of Industries in the Hinterland Provinces, 1943 and also Lin Chi-yung, Industrial Migration to the Interior, 1942.

30. Cf. *ibid.*, also China Handbook, 1943.

TABLE 15. MIGRATED FACTORIES AND WORKMEN

<i>Industries</i>	<i>No. of factories</i>	<i>No. of Workmen</i>
Iron and steel	2	360
Machine-making	230	5,968
Electrical manufacturing	41	744
Chemical	62	1,408
Textile	115	1,688
Food	46	580
Educational Supplies	81	635
Mining	8	377
Others	54	404
Total	639	12,164

Source: China Handbook, 1943

TABLE 16. DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRATED
FACTORIES IN INTERIOR PROVINCES

Szechuen ..	254
Hunan ..	121
Kwangsi ..	23
Shensi ..	27
Others ..	214
Total	639

Source: China Handbook.

B. Industrial Reconstruction in Free China — Free China until it was known as such in wartime had been mainly agricultural, possessing less than 1 percent of China's total industry, measured by the number of factories, or by the amount of paid up capital, or by the number of workers. Before the war, it did not have a single blast furnace, nor did it possess any coal mine capable of producing over 100,000 tons of coal in a year. Of spindles for cotton spinning, Free China had only 17,000, compared with 5,100,000 for the whole of China; and of the 1934 national electricity consumption, only 2 percent, or

14,000 Kw. H. was in Free China which used 410 Kw. H. for industrial purposes. The so-called large-scale factories in Free China included merely one power plant, one cement mill, five flour mills, one paper mill and two machine shops in Szechwan; one cotton mill and two flour mills in Shansi; one paper mill in Kweichow; and one machine shop in Kiangsi.³¹

Right after the war broke out, Free China, however, embarked on industrial reconstruction by means of the refugee factories from the coastal regions and additional equipment and materials ordered from abroad. The period from the start of war to mid-1942 was one of industrial expansion and prosperity. According to the Ministry of Economic Affairs, Free China in 1942 had 3,758 factories, employing 241,662 workers and 143,916 H. P. of power capacity. Among the state-operated mines, 3 coal mines produced each 100,000 tons of coal

31. Cf. 經濟部 Cf. Ministry of Economic Affairs. op. cit.

annually, and two iron mines produced together 27,000 tons of ores in a year. Mining statistics of the Ministry of Economic Affairs for 1943 showed that during that year Free China had 473 mining districts, covering 7,400,000 ares of land, 44 percent of which represented government mines. Notable improvements in industrial technique were reflected in the 336 patents granted to new inventions during the 6-year period of 1938 to 1943, which number, though very small to highly industrialized countries, was significant for industrially backward China, which had granted only 257 patents on inventions in the 27 years from 1911 to 1937. Even more important was the erection in the interior of many a plant of new design, a subject to which reference will be made later.

In the wartime industrial development of Free China, should not be ignored was the role played by the Government, which owned 69 percent of the total paid up capital for all the factories in the interior during 1942. Several government organs operated their subsidiary production plants, yet the main responsibility for the positive participation of the Government in industrial development was perhaps laid on the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

The National resources Commission was set up in April, 1935, as a result of the reorganization of the National Defense Planning Committee. The latter was found-

ed in November, 1932, under the National Military Council and with the duty to investigate the nation's natural resources and to formulate policies pertaining to national defense. After the reorganization, it was renamed the National Resources Commission and was put under the Ministry of Economic Affairs when the latter was inaugurated in January, 1938. According to its organic law, the Commission was to develop the nation's basic and other important industries through positive participation in the industrial field.

After its establishment, the Commission expanded its sphere of activities quickly. In 1937, it had only 23 working units, but before the end of the war, the number increased to 130. Its field of operation included electricity generation by steam and water power, coal mining, administration of export minerals, production and refining of petroleum, mining and metallurgy of various metals, manufacturing of general machinery and electrical appliances, processing of basic chemicals, etc.

On the other hand, the Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs encouraged and assisted private industries through financial aids, technical advices, facilities of raw material supplies and direct investments and so forth. The Administration was absorbed by the War Production Board upon its inauguration in 1944.

TABLE 17. NUMBER OF FACTORIES REGISTERED WITH THE MINISTRY
OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS.

(By Province)

Up to June, 1945

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Government</i>	<i>Private</i>
Chungking	1,624	62	1,562
Szechwan	1,096	57	1,039
Sikong	12	8	4
Kweichow	216	28	188
Yunnan	212	31	181
Kwangsi	384	41	343
Kwangtung	72	7	65
Fukien	62	14	48
Hunan	941	65	876
Kiangsi	154	47	107
Chekiang	139	53	86
Kiangsu	43	—	43
Anhwei	34	15	19
Shensi	388	45	343
Kansu	247	29	218
Ningsha	3	1	2
Suiyuan	7	—	7
Hupei	31	11	20
Honan	39	5	34
Shansi	21	15	6
Total	5,725	534	5,191

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

TABLE 18. NUMBER OF FACTORIES REGISTERED WITH THE MINISTRY OF
ECONOMIC AFFAIRS.

(By Industry)

Up to June, 1945

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Government</i>	<i>Private</i>
Metallurgical	207	62	145
Machine-making	1,047	55	992
Metal tools	345	11	334
Electrical Appliances	134	20	114
Chemical	1,624	184	1,440
Textile	1,088	155	933
Ornaments & Clothing	184	9	175
Food	816	13	803
Printing & Stationery	160	12	148
Miscellaneous	120	13	107
Total	5,725	534	5,191

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

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TABLE 19. NUMBER AND AREA OF MINING DISTRICTS

(By

	1938		1939		1940	
	Number	area	Number	area	Number	area
Szechwan ..	175	316,914.25 ares	161	208,285.46 ares	233	357,120.71 ares
Hunan	21	+115,757 M. 158,672.10 ares	32	+4.081 M. 144,618.95 ares	26	332,025.60 ares
Kwangtung .	95	309,677.46 +16,616 M. in length	27	291,808.13 ares	32	218,879.37 ares
Kwangsi ...	40	235,949.18 ares	16	97,071.89 ares	13	98,912.00 ares
Yunnan	6	3,079.72 ares	11	+3,009 M. 140,533.08 ares	34	66,419.72 ares
Kweichow ..	10	31,581.23 ares	12	50,021.07 ares	8	22,338.40 ares
Kiangsi	6	166,322.17 ares	10	154,993.76 ares	3	22,338.40 ares
Shensi	7	7,228.24 ares	9	128,101.27 ares	17	371,220.79 ares
Honan	4	34,346.72 ares	5	22,622.94 ares	1	4,148.70 ares
Chekiang ...	1	33.77 ares	4	1,167.76 ares	7	2,600.06 ares
Anhwei	1	3,880.00 ares	—	—	2	5,716.53 ares
Hupei	5	30,138.87 ares	—	—	—	—
Fukien	1	326.81 ares	1	846.03 ares	—	—
Sikang	1	2,392.43 ares	—	—	—	—
Ninghsia ...	9	8,075.75 ares	—	—	—	—
Kansu	—	—	2	11,299.24 ares	1	354.97 ares
Total	382	1,308,618.70 ares +132,373 M. in length	290	1,251,189.58 ares +7,090 M. in length	377	1,501,752.92 ares

Source: Department of Mining,

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REGISTERED WITH THE MINISTRY OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

Province)

1941		1942		1943		1944	
Number	area	Number	area	Number	area	Number	area
190	503,423.00 ares	272	895,796.62 ares	164	1,004,733.83 ares	270	1,488,928.10 ares
48	326,430.16 ares	78	921,785.98 ares	161	1,670,490.64 ares	58	943,598.25 ares
41	206,748.84 ares	24	215,016.69 ares	7	31,468.67 ares	5	9,616.33 ares
	+11,435 M. in length		+125.50 M. in length				
25	196,377.51 ares	67	379,198.54 ares	44	364,560.91 ares	41	401,302.44 ares
	+3,631 M. in length		+16.33 M. in length				
25	55,738.33 ares	28	88,182.38 ares	25	205,701.62 ares	16	60,432.30 ares
24	188,718.17 ares	27	272,354.91 ares	22	356,241.57 ares	34	260,444.42 ares
2	5,585.66 ares	2	95,278.60 ares	3	5,490.05 ares	2	3,505.84 ares
17	66,779.16 ares	20	173,924.41 ares	15	174,238.64 ares	8	149,424.59 ares
5	13,770.50 ares	1	2,012.31 ares	3	51,616.53 ares	4	31,439.05 ares
—	—	1	172.05 ares	—	—	—	—
2	1,626.10 ares	1	1,359.22 ares	2	1,949.72 ares	—	—
	+3,959 M. in length						
—	—	—	—	—	—	1	296.00 ares
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	6,109.42 ares	1	47,364.04 ares	—	—	2	1,097.77 ares
	+18,532 M. in length						
—	—	—	—	1	2,818.00 ares	2	2,142.42 ares
3	2,707.58 ares	6	37,885.40 ares	14	158,874.21 ares	11	81,526.76 ares
384	1,574,074.48 +37,561 M. ares in length	530	3,130,339.38 ares +17,997 M. in length	454	4,040,265.52 ares +542.9 M. in length	457	3,453,853.67 ares

Ministry of Economic Affairs.

TABLE 20. INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION
(Monthly Average, 1938=100)

	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944 Jan.-June	1944 Jul.-Dec.	1945 Jan.-Mar.	1945 Apr.-June	1945 July-Sep.
General index (*)	130.57	185.85	242.96	302.17	375.64	372.44	333.07	332.90	343.50	320.47
(†)	133.46	214.45	275.56	372.93	520.41	521.27	470.12	474.42	488.26	458.05
Producers' goods	129.66	181.13	230.61	272.12	316.07	334.97	319.42	331.76	345.11	323.35
Power	135.88	205.01	261.04	291.65	340.77	375.60	389.33	352.98	363.09	347.53
Coal	109.15	119.50	169.87	207.10	213.96	209.37	87.93	141.66	155.02	142.50
White iron	116.67	150.00	106.50	82.00	56.84	56.68	66.68	40.00	35.72	27.64
Grey iron	118.75	648.63	1,299.75	3,134.25	4,058.21	1,725.37	3,532.83	2,486.57	3,302.99	4,273.13
Steel	211.11	350.56	875.00	2,214.44	4,973.33	6,520.00	9,113.33	12,426.67	12,520.00	11,260.00
Electrolytic copper	100.00	283.75	159.50	127.23	122.22	236.11	155.55	175.00	180.56	102.78
Machine tools . . .	204.52	296.39	367.47	340.66	514.29	514.29	314.29	350.00	325.00	225.00
Steam engine . . .	100.00	492.32	747.25	581.15	464.00	414.00	788.00	394.00	258.00	214.00
Internal combustion engine . . .	151.09	529.09	706.36	715.09	504.35	604.35	393.48	304.35	339.13	306.52
Generator	71.18	1,217.47	1,809.61	1,747.16	2,466.67	4,516.67	2,650.00	3,275.00	4,925.00	3,475.00
Motor	10,360.71	14,820.24	26,059.52	12,332.14	13,628.57	7,600.00	7,114.28	5,714.29	12,171.43	9,828.57
Transformer	81.78	127.31	236.04	351.16	271.80	251.70	235.77	174.15	368.15	266.58
Cement	230.80	246.50	124.18	193.83	173.65	222.07	182.97	192.94	285.91	191.44
Soda ash	132.42	115.57	66.95	160.06	248.10	332.91	454.43	356.12	257.27	250.25
Caustic soda	—	100.00	300.48	359.81	441.18	488.24	855.88	776.47	529.41	423.53

Bleaching power .	—	100.00	348.30	448.98	425.00	400.00	700.33	883.33	541.67	508.33
Sulphuric acid .	72.94	251.76	367.65	391.76	371.43	550.00	364.29	378.57	185.71	50.00
Hydrochloric acid .	72.93	152.53	131.31	181.82	387.50	387.50	475.00	450.00	425.00	337.50
<i>Consumers' goods</i>	145.63	306.27	404.07	658.88	1,010.61	990.79	849.94	833.95	849.04	797.51
Gasoline .	103.96	1,669.23	4,029.46	37,679.17	65,496.54	68,377.37	97,930.25	59,021.71	105,339.72	100,822.63
Alcohol .	264.71	1,489.77	1,767.37	2,566.43	2,427.22	2,102.51	2,825.82	4,148.57	6,440.89	6,409.95
Cotton yarn .	124.37	277.25	387.52	718.97	734.92	780.05	672.56	521.39	428.65	427.06
Wheat flour .	127.29	214.09	298.08	322.54	272.97	227.92	214.14	184.16	153.07	107.15
Soap	120.69	341.34	489.02	390.24	430.75	403.95	167.35	208.30	221.45	147.64
Match .	101.05	123.51	126.51	488.96	69.77	76.53	69.17	47.20	54.67	47.57
Paper .	106.83	134.06	257.47	691.06	582.98	644.88	613.32	637.41	751.22	722.93
Leather .	107.42	122.61	140.87	281.25	330.06	298.68	228.29	242.51	240.02	225.02
Lamp bulb .	295.29	998.96	897.56	1,252.86	2,043.06	2,781.41	1,985.74	1,582.92	1,716.41	1,351.14
Printing ink .	727.05	2,795.29	2,952.94	2,941.18	4,829.52	2,412.29	2,354.09	1,465.54	1,756.07	1,694.92
Pencil .	124.94	121.16	80.20	92.28	131.24	148.39	125.82	53.87	112.88	21.47
Cigarette .	194.82	1,058.75	1,072.86	2,142.86	20,123.40	19,431.91	14,185.10	15,800.00	14,185.11	12,936.17
<i>Minerals for export</i>							16.61	9.24	12.41	5.81
Tungsten ore .	91.65	75.98	98.69	95.06	71.32	51.25	0.29	—	—	—
Antimony regulus	140.21	103.70	97.63	56.64	7.83	4.07	—	—	—	—
Tin .	94.49	629.60	1,600.34	1,328.06	712.50	232.29	466.67	210.42	295.83	141.67
Mercury . . .	100.00	70.59	71.77	95.88	71.43	64.23	64.28	50.00	42.86	14.29

Note: General Index (*) includes producers' goods, consumers' goods, and minerals for export.
 (†) excludes minerals for export.

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

The prominence of state-operated industries, established during the war, has been a distinguished feature of the industrial development in recent years. As has been pointed out, 69 percent of the industrial capital in 1942 represented state-operated industries, including factories and mines owned by government organs, while the National Resources Commission had influence over all the basic industries. It was also notable that the state-operated plants were of relatively large scales; since they had an average capitalization at 10 times that of the private-operated factories and employed twice as many workers.

The development of the capital goods industry was another important feature of Free China's wartime industry. Before the war, consumption goods formed the main field for industrial development; but after the war started the capital goods industry expanded quickly and in 1942 accounted for more than half of the paid up capital for all registered factories.

The industrial expansion during the 1937-43 period, especially the great prosperity enjoyed by the capital goods industry, which deeply impressed economists, can be explained in two respects.

The first was the increase in demand arising from such factors as the increased population in the interior, the rising need for war supplies, the difficulty in acquiring imports, with the resultant protection of domestic industries. The Government lost no time in building up industries themselves and in encouraging private in-

dustries. The wartime demand was in essence for more capital goods. The outstanding prosperity of those industries producing them was caused by the Government's deliberate policy to develop heavy and basic industries and also by the scarcity of imports, which having been the main source of capital goods to China's prewar industries, raised the demand for capital goods from domestic sources. Perhaps even more important was the inherent characteristic of the economic expansion. When production is stable, capital goods, being more durable than other goods, are required to the extent of replacing the worn out ones, which form a small portion of the existing capital goods in use; but when production swings upward, more capital goods than for replacement purposes are required to equip the newly erected factories. Thus, in an expanding economy, the demand for capital goods will always be at a higher rate than that for consumption goods, a point which was well illustrated by Prof. D. H. Robertson in 1926. (32).

Besides the changes in fundamental data together with the technical factor inherent in the modern system of machine production, there is the monetary factor. Since the outbreak of war, financial difficulties had brought about currency inflation in China. The price-level showed a mild increase during the first two war years, but soared considerably from 1939 onwards owing to increasing financial deficits and the

general expectation of yet higher prices. Since 1939, the increase in the interest rate lagged behind that of the price-level under conditions of a rising note issue and of the Government's policy to keep down the rate of interest which, for good or evil, aimed at the encouragement of industries. From 1939 to 1942, the rise in wages also lagged behind that in the price level. Therefore, in the course of the monetary expansion prices rose faster than costs, with a continued enlarging margin of profit. Trade was brisk, and production expanded, resulting in an industrial boom. However, it is a well-established economic fact that during an inflationary process with prices rising at a higher rate than interest rate, that is when the cost of hoarding stocks is smaller than the revenue derived from their disposal, profit from hoarding will be higher than that from manufacturing, and speculation will be encouraged. So it was with wartime China. A great number of factories erected during wartime actually made their profits from the lengthening of the input-output period. Such factories no doubt possessed equipment, materials and labor, which could otherwise be better utilized. The fact that from 1938 to 1942 the number of registered factories increased more than five fold coupled with only a threefold increase in the production index prepared by the Ministry of Economic Affairs shows that expansion was more with respect to factories than to production.

With interest rates lagging behind prices and with the lengthening of the input-output period becoming more profitable, the process of production tends to be prolonged. In other words, the demand for the instruments of production is greater than that for their products, so that more and more round-about methods of production will be encouraged. Such was the manner in which the monetary factor brought about the extraordinary prosperity of the capital goods industry.

C. Industrial Difficulties and the War Production Board—Commencing the fall of 1942, difficulties spread over the industrial field, especially among the capital goods industry. Gradually aggravating, those difficulties resulted in a so-called trade depression, shrinking demand for capital goods, increasing shortage of circulating capital, heavy losses incurred by most factories, and a rising number of industrial failures.

The capital goods industry, true to literature on the trade cycle, was the first to face difficulties. During 1942, the demand for several kinds of productive instruments weakened, the prices of capital goods, which had been rising at a higher rate than their production costs, were now more than overtaken by the latter, and more circulating capital was needed to finance the rising wages. According to the production index compiled by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, although general production increased by 39 percent during the 1942-1943 period, there was a decline in the production of

many kinds of capital goods, like machine tools, steam engines, generators and motors.

From 1943 onwards, the depression first experienced by the capital goods industry became widespread, with a steady decline of production in general, tight money markets, and the closing down or partial operation of many factories, especially those manufacturing capital goods. Industrial production, having reached its peak, began to go downhill.

The lack of modern equipment in Free China before the war and the wartime difficulty in its re-production and importation brought about within a short period a scarcity of productive equipment in China. The fall of Burma in early 1942 added difficulty to the transportation of essential equipment and materials for war production from abroad. With the increasing application of labor to a fixed quantity of equipment, production will, according to the law of diminishing returns, soon reach the scale beyond which further expansion of production becomes unprofitable or impossible. It is true that there might exist the condition of wages rising more slowly than the product price, in which the continuous lowering of the real wages will compensate the force of diminishing returns, and production will be able to expand beyond what is profitable under normal conditions. But very soon the real wage will resist further cuts; because, on the one hand, the state of full employment created by the increasing demand for labor has made the further supply

of it unavailable without a rise in the real wage, and, on the other hand, the minimum requirement of living has made any further lowering of the real wage impossible. When it becomes no longer possible to make gains from the lowering of real wage, producers will find their outputs over-reaching the limit of profitability. Industries will, therefore, suffer from over-production and therefore losses. The resultant struggle for markets will cause the failure of selling prices to cover production costs. In such a situation the manufacturing industries will naturally seek capital replenishments, thus creating a heavy demand for working capital. This demand causes the rate of interest to rise and results in tighter markets. The rise in the rate of interest is also due to the general reluctance to make proper depreciation charges, which should be in accord with the replacement cost at the rising price-level rather than on the basis of the original value of any equipment. Thus when replacement is made, there will be an additional demand for capital. Both the rise in wages and that in the rate of interest are depressing factors to industries.

In booms and depressions alike, the capital goods industry is more affected than the consumption goods industry. The reasons are in the first place, as has been previously mentioned, that the fluctuations of demand for capital goods are always greater, and secondly, that during a boom the capital goods industry is over-expanded most.

During the 1939-1941 period, industrial wages in Free China rose more slowly than the prices of consumption goods, and yet more slowly than the prices of capital goods. This trend was reversed during 1942, with industrial wages and the prices of consumption goods rising at about the same rate and the prices of capital goods lagging behind, which means that real wages ceased to fall, and the capital goods industry faced the problem of marginal costs rising more rapidly than selling prices.

According to the Ministry of Economic Affairs, but contrary to our price and production analyses, the index for capital goods production rose from 272 in 1942 to 316 in 1943, and that for consumption goods production, even more from 659 to 1,011 during the same period. The former remained at an even level later on, while the latter fell only after 1943.

The above divergence, however, may have three explanations. In the first place, the rise of the production index for consumption goods was due to the two-fold increase in the production of both gasoline and lamp bulbs from 1942 to 1943, while the production of other consumption goods declined slightly. The domestic production of gasoline increased sharply because of the blocking of international transportation routes, causing the demand to depend on domestic sources and enabling domestic oil plants to enjoy extraordinary prosperity. At the same time, there began the operation of some newly completed iron and steel plants, chemical works, and other in-

dustrial establishments, which were mainly government-owned, and for which profit was obviously not the only consideration. Among the 18 items classified as capital goods in the index of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, only gray iron and steel showed a definite increase in output, owing, as revealed by further analysis, to the operation of the newly erected iron and steel factories, which, though struggling to the best of their abilities, were nevertheless suffering from lack of markets and shortage of circulating capital. During the first half of 1943, industrial difficulties were frequently reported. It appeared that the newly erected factories somewhat obscured the state of the depression, but did help raise the gloom of the then industrial system.

In the second place, there was the effort of the Government to encourage wartime production through the granting to essential industries of financial assistance, including special loans at lower than the market interest rates. Many factories undoubtedly were helped to some extent, for at least they could be wholly or partially spared of the rise in interest. Government aids were granted to the basic industries, composing mainly of the capital goods industries, the production of which was, therefore, kept at an even keel and prevented from falling below the expected lower level.

In the third place, producers generally reckon their profits in terms of money rather than its purchasing power. The latter, during an inflation, continues to fall, so that the expanded money profit

may actually represent a lesser purchasing power. The slow realization of this fact by producers in general led to the continued expansion of production, which would be unprofitable as measured by real profits or purchasing power.

From 1943 to 1944, difficulties in the industrial system were aggravated: with a steady increase in gasoline production, the production index of the Ministry of Economic Affairs still showed a decline; the production index of capital goods also fell from the first half to the second half of 1944; report on industrial failures increased; and the struggle for markets and capital intensified. There was a general clamor for a way out, which led to the setting up of the War Production Board of China.

This Board was set in operation in November, 1944, after Mr. Donald Nelson and his Mission had twice visited China and discussed with the Chinese authorities on the problem of industry and production. Empowered with functions to obtain maximum production for war and essential civilian needs, and to direct, supervise and coordinate the war production organizations, both government and private, the Board held complete authority over the work of war production, under the broad policies and plans of the Executive Yuan and the National Military Council. The activities of the Board from December, 1944, to June, 1945, can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Direct Assistance to Industries:—Under this category, it

can be included such functions as issuing of orders to factories, allocation of raw materials, technical advice by experts employed by the WPB, financial assistance, etc. The WPB distributed orders for military supplies to government and private factories, according to requirements planned by the Ministry of War. Such orders were issued in four lots, which included motor shells, bayonets, entrenching tools, and other kinds of simple weapons, and of which the first lot, issued in early 1945, totalled \$2,526,405,-528 at the then prevailing price-level. The supply and demand problems of industries were investigated and discussed by Chinese and American experts, after which appropriate plans were mapped out to encourage production. The WPB also gave assistance in purchasing, transporting and allocating various kinds of raw materials on credit basis; examples of the raw materials were native iron, ferro manganese and ferro alloys for the iron and steel plants, brass and copper coins for the copper refineries, and native lead and zinc for lead and zinc works. Installation of essential equipment was encouraged, like rolling and casting equipment in steel plants. A furnace for refining 300 tons of zinc a year was planned in Kochiu, Yunnan, while oil tanks, boilers and various other kinds of equipment were installed in factories. Loans and subsidies were granted to many mining organizations for the erection of essential transportation facilities, and in several occasions existing transportation was transferred from its original

owner to others for more efficient use. Also of great assistance were the technical improvements initiated by the American experts, after having investigated the technical processes and production managements in the factories and mines. Among those technical improvement, the two worthy of mentioning were the Beehive coke oven erected in the coal mines, which shortened the coking period from one week to 48 hours, besides economizing the use of coal and improving the quality of coke; and an alcohol fermentation equipment, which was designed to convert native wine into industrial alcohol at the maximum rate of 500 gallons per 24 hours, but weighed only three tons, could be carried on a single truck, and could be set up within 3-4 weeks. Financial assistance was of various forms, including loans for acquiring necessary equipment and raw materials, loans for supplementing circulating capital, and subsidies. Of the 10 billion dollars of credit, which the WPB had obtained immediately after its inauguration from the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Central Trust and the Postal Remittance and Savings Bank, more than 78 percent was up to the end of June, 1945, used exclusively for the purpose of increasing war production.

2. Purchase and Transportation of Essential Equipment and Materials from Abroad: As China needed to import many kinds of essential equipment and strategic materials from abroad, the WPB screened the requirement lists submitted by various industrial plants, with a view to arranging

their priorities, negotiating the approved purchases and transportation, and taking care of the financing operations. The procurements thus far undertaken can be classified into three categories:

The first was under lend-lease terms and composed of three programs. At the beginning of 1945, a list of 100,005 tons of industrial equipment and materials needed for the year ending June, 1945, was approved by the WPB and sent to the United States for application. Of this list, 37,095 tons was approved as lend-lease materials, 11,166 tons was transformed into cash purchase, and the rest was undergoing the process of application and other procedures. Another list, consisting of trucks and parts, was also prepared and sent to the United States for application, while a third list to cover 1946 requirements was also furnished.

With the Chinese Government seeing the approach of the final stage of the war and foreseeing the necessity of acquiring additional supplies for conducting a general counter-offensive against the enemy and rehabilitating the areas to be liberated, the WPB again prepared two lists, bearing the respective names of "Port Program" and "Liberated Area Program."

Totalling over one million tons, the "Port Program" was sent to the United States for final approval.

The latter program, which was also on lend-lease terms and expected to be completed in August, 1945, was prepared on the

lines that it would supplement the "Port Program" and not be in conflict with any preceding procurement lists, that it would strengthen the war effort, that transportation and managing personnel would be available, and that the supplies under the "Liberated Area Program" would be utilized at the end of the war. The three geographical divisions of the program were the South China Area, the North China Area, and the Central China Area. Owing to the impossibility of forecasting accurately the sabotage that would be done during the last phase of the war in Manchuria and Taiwan, they were tentatively left out of the program.

The foregoing programs did not represent all of China's wartime procurements through lend-lease, under the terms of which there were sundry procurements of military equipment, communications equipment, industrial equipment and materials, cloth, and medicine and medical appliances.

The second category of procurements was loan purchase. Of the £50,000,000 of credit extended to China by the United Kingdom in 1944, there was a certain portion placed by the Ministry of Finance at the disposal of the WPB for the purchase of supplies needed by various organizations. A compiled list of tons of needed equipment and materials was passed by the WPB and sent to the United Kingdom for the consideration of the British Government. However, except a small portion with which was financed the purchase of miscellaneous supplies in India, the British

credit was hardly utilized in any material manner.

The third category of procurements was cash purchases, which had to be authorized by the WPB. Up to the end of June, 1945, the approved cash purchases totalled 8,877 tons.

The WPB, through its transportation Priority Committee, also controlled the transportation of supplies into China. The Committee met monthly to decide on transportation quotas for various organizations and other related matters. The transportation was exclusively by air and effected in the main by the cargo planes of the China National Aviation Corporation, a Sino-American concern, although army transports of the ATC were sometimes requested to help carrying urgently needed supplies.

It is encouraging that since the establishment of the WPB, industries have been on the up-grade. Comparing the production in November, 1944, with that in June, 1945, iron increased by 100 percent, steel 4 percent, coal 12 percent, electric power 6 percent, and various kinds of liquid fuels, excepting gasoline - substitutes which fell slightly, from 10 to 30 percent. Among the chemical industries, portland cement leaped by 190 percent, and soda ash rose by 6 percent, and although caustic soda and various acids decreased, yet it must be noted that during 1945 they had dropped to very low levels in February and March, but were gradually recovering for the period ending June. During the first six months of 1945, compared with the cor-

responding period in 1944, the production of machine tools and machineries was up, but that of motors was down, while that for electrical appliances showed a general decrease.

The various improvements mentioned above cannot be regarded as a fundamental solution of the industrial depression. No recovery of general economic prosperity would be possible, as long as the enemy blockade reduced the importation of essential equipment and strategic materials to tiny proportions, and even such had to be transported exclusively by air. Nevertheless, industries would have shown signs of slow recovery, should the WPB carry on its good work of improving the industrial system and technique, coordinating supply and demand conditions, and effecting high outputs from the same amount of production factors. However, the plan for large-scale importation of supplies from abroad did not materialize, for their presence in China would, by replenishing the scarce stocks of essential equipment and strategic materials, break the bottlenecks in production and make a full recovery possible.

D. Important Industries Analyzed

1. **Electric Power**—whereas before the war Free China had but a few electric plants, with capacity totalling only 17,000 Kw., during the war many new ones were constructed, raising the total capacity in 1944 to 48,637 Kw. of which 7,000 Kw. was hydro power. Of the 27 principal electric plants which Free China had in 1944, 20

were erected and operated by the National Resources Commission under wartime limitations and difficulties. The aggregate capacity of these 20 plants was 26,000 Kw., which served largely the following principal cities:

Ipin	3,840 Kw.
Luhshien	2,000 "
Changshou	2,576 "
Wanhsien	992 "
Kunming	4,340 "
Kweiyang	840 "
Liuchow	2,330 "
Sian	2,275 "
Lanchow	974 "

In addition, the Commission had under construction new plants and extensions of a total capacity of 17,000 Kw., only a part of which could come into operation when the war ended in 1945.

The largest of the private owned electric plants in Free China was the Chungking Power Co., with generating capacity at 11,000 Kw. Although this was much exceeded by the local demand, yet the plant sustained considerable operational losses during the latest war years from Government's policy of maintaining cheap electric power supply, for which the Company received some sort of subsidy from the government.

Another noteworthy private electric company was that serving the commercial section of Kunming, with two hydro power stations built before the war and totalling 2,500 Kw. The industrial area of Kunming was served by two steam power plants of 2,000 Kw. each, which were operated by the National Resources Commission. One of them was unique in being an

entirely sheltered station in the dugout. In Chengtu, electric power was supplied by a private plant of 3,000 Kw.

Industrial power plants also increased with the rising number of factories in Free China during the war years. In 1944, the total capacity of such plants was 37,000 Kw., or seven times the prewar figure. Of the increased capacity, 56% was contributed by the Government.

The southwestern provinces of China are mountainous and rich in water power. Investigations and surveys by the National Resources Commission in 14 provinces have led to the discovery of over 200 localities with development possibilities. Several hydro power stations were built by the Commission during the war, but some others were not completed when the war ended. Among those completed, the most notable were the two stations at Changshou, 50 miles downstream of Chungking. While both were designed and built by Chinese engineers, one of them was equipped with machinery manufactured in Chungking. These two stations offered the cheapest power in Free China, which strongly explained the transformation of once barren Changshou into an industrial center. Under construction is a station of 3,000 Kw. in Shiuwen, about 16 miles west of Kweiyang, where abundant bauxite reserve was found.

Since the closure of the Burma Road, the inefficiency and obsolescence of machinery have frequently been reported in Free China, with general increases in fuel consumption, maintenance expenses, deterioration of the distribution system and consequent

heavy losses. The need for power was great but nowhere adequate. Power shortage has created a bottleneck in many an industrial production.

TABLE 21. POWER GENERATION
IN FREE CHINA, 1940-44
Unit: Kwh.

	Government	Private	Total
1940	31,924	54,336	86,260
1941	38,931	65,767	104,698
1942	46,691	90,133	136,824
1943	43,838	103,593	147,431
1944	64,131	106,466	170,597

2. Coal and Petroleum—Of the total coal reserve in China, about one-twentieth is in the southwestern provinces unaffected by the war. In 1944, there were in those provinces 316 coal mines, covering 2,657,703 acres and producing 5,502,000 tons, which were distributed as follows:

Szechwan	2,700,000	M.T.
Shensi	650,000	"
Hunan	550,000	"
Honan	300,000	"
Yunnan	260,000	"
Kweichow	250,000	"
Kwangsi	200,000	"
Ningshia	140,000	"
Kiangsi	123,000	"
Kansu	110,000	"
Kwangtung	100,000	"
Hupei	40,000	"
Fukien	30,000	"
Anhui	20,000	"
Chekiang	2,000	"

Total... 5,502,000 M.T.

About one-eighth of the total coal production was from mines operated by the National Resources Commission.

Industrial coke, used in Free China mainly for iron smelting and foundry purposes, was prepared in native coke ovens and then washed. In order to improve the quality of coke, research and experiment were made during wartime for the removal of sulphur and ash from coal. Excepting the Tatukou Iron and Steel Works, all iron smelters were too small to justify the installation of by-product coke ovens. Coke was generally made by native process near the coal mines. The most notable coking improvement was the Beehive oven, which, as previously mentioned, was designed under the auspices of the WPB.

The coal mines were hard hit by the industrial depression. Despite Government subsidies, which were, perhaps, larger than those to any other individual industry, and Government loans at low interest rates, many coal mines still suffered losses, while others had to reduce their production. It was only after the establishment of the WPB, when it helped introduce better management and more efficient production technique, adjustment of supply-demand relations and various other devices, that the plight of the coal mining industry was improved.

TABLE 22. PRODUCTION OF COAL AND COKE IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944
Unit: Metric Tons

	COAL			COKE		
	Government	Private	Total	Government	Private	Total
1940	464,181	4,343,933	4,807,114	17,829	229,565	247,394
1941	828,267	4,476,702	5,304,969	41,510	276,935	318,445
1942	1,122,565	4,529,817	5,652,382	100,747	287,987	388,734
1943	1,471,921	4,518,823	5,990,744	95,399	280,925	376,324
1944	—	—	5,502,000	74,886	227,580	302,466

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

The liquid fuel in China, after the closure of the Burma Road, came from three main sources: oil fields, alcohol distilleries and vegetable cracking plants; of which the first, representing a natural and predominant source of fuel, will now be discussed, leaving the last two sources to be included under the category of chemical industries.

There were before the war two oil wells in the northern Shensi oil fields, respectively at Yen-

chang and Yungping, the total daily output reached 7,000 catties. Large scale petroleum production in China began only after the outbreak of war, when the National Resources Commission exploited the Kansu oil field, which proved to be a vital source of oil supply following the closure of the Burma Road and the fall of Hongkong.

Situated in the western portion of the Kansu-Valley-basin extending from the north of Lanchow for

about 560 miles in a northwesternly direction to the border of Sinkiang and Kansu provinces, the Kansu oil field was surveyed in 1934-1937, with prospecting and drilling started respectively in 1938 and 1939. The vein lying between Yumen and Yungteng on the northern foot of the Kien-shan range was known to be capable of largescale development. The work was entrusted to the Kansu Petroleum Production and Refining Administration, a subsidiary unit of of the National Resources Commission. During 1944, seven wells which had been sunk by the Administration were producing oil in great quantity. The decreased oil imports, especially after the closure of the Burma Road and the fall of Hongkong, encouraged and protected domestic production, and the gasoline, kerosene, diesel oil and various other petroleum products from Kansu supplied all markets in Free China. During the industrial depression, the Administration though fortunate like a few other domestic enterprises, was not free from difficulties. Among them, lack of necessary equipment was serious, but even worse was the transportation problem. The oil field is 524 miles from Lanchow, the capital of Kansu province, and 1,600 miles from Chungking, the chief distributing and consuming center. As the only means of oil transportation was by trucks, a round trip between the field and Chungking, owing to the poor conditions of both trucks and highways, often required as long as 14 weeks. Transportation was also limited by the available oil drums, which could not be made in China and were gradually deteriorating through rough travel-

ing. The limit set by the transportation factor on production was exemplified by the fact that during the first six months of 1944 about 2,200,000 gallons of oil was shipped out from the field, while at the end of September 1,000,000 gallons of oil got accumulated there waiting for shipment. It appeared that but for these transportation difficulties, the wartime petroleum production would have shown more encouraging expansion.

TABLE 23. PETROLEUM PRODUCTION
IN FREE CHINA, 1940-44

Unit: gallon

	Gasoline	Kerosine	Diesel Oil
1940	73,453	32,335	61,535
1944	210,024	112,591	141,872
1941	1,902,374	601,263	68,756
1942	3,036,549	469,183	103,779
1943	4,047,940	2,160,641	157,118

3. Metals, Mining and Metallurgy

a. **Iron and Steel**—The 44 iron mines in Free China in 1944, were generally very small, and occupying altogether 7,461 acres. The iron ore deposits in Szechwan and Yunnan, totalling a few million tons in each province, were mostly hematites. Siderites had a widespread distribution in Szechwan, but the deposits were very thin and had practically no economic value. Among the important iron reserves in Free China, the biggest and best was lately discovered in Weining of Western Kweichow, and estimated at 53,000,000 tons, which, owing to transportation difficulties, has not been developed.

Regarding metallurgy in Free China, except some native smelt-

ing furnaces and one incomplete steel plant erected after the outbreak of war largely with equipment either removed from Shanghai and Wuhan area or manufactured in Chungking, most of the blast furnaces and Bessemer converters were made of shipwreck plates, with old marine engines and boilers converted into prime movers. It was with such poor equipment that Free China met the requirements of her iron and steel industries.

For iron smelting, there were used in Free China two kinds of processes: one being the usual blast furnace and the other the native smelting furnace with cold blast. Should all the blast furnaces operate fully at their rated capacities, 119,000 tons of iron would annually be produced. Actually, many of them were lying idle, owing to the depression that set in after 1941. Pig iron for machinery works and foundries was produced by most blast furnaces, and Bessemer or basic pig iron for steel making by a few. The native white pig iron was often mixed with grey pig for various purposes and used for the manufacture of domestic utensils and agricultural implements by old Chinese methods.

As mentioned before, coke was produced mainly by native process near the coal mines. In Szechwan, the coal layer is very thin and good metallurgical coke scarce, besides the transportation difficulties. Most of the native smelting furnaces employed cold blast and charcoal as fuel. Limestone abounds everywhere in China, while manganese ores are found only in Western Hunan and Kweichow, and the ores produced in

Tsunyi of Kweichow, about 200 miles from Chungking by highway, were used by most iron works in Szechwan and Yunnan.

The steel works of Free China in 1944 had five open hearth furnaces, 11 Bessemer converters and 13 electric furnaces, with the maximum annual capacity at 30,000 tons, 42,000 tons and 23,100 tons respectively, making an aggregate capacity of 95,100 tons. But during that year, only a small portion of those furnaces was in operation.

All the open hearths were of cold charge and ore-pig process. Both chromium bricks and magnesite were imported. Supply of gas coal for producer's gas was always insufficient.

The composition of pig iron in Szechwan was such that the phosphorous content ranged from 0.20 to 0.70%, which was too high for acid bessemer and too low for basic process. Metallurgists in China have tried with success in dephosphorising the iron and steel in molten state and in bringing the phosphorous content down to 0.08 percent. The Bessemer converters furnished a large portion of mild steel for the market demand.

There were in 1944 nine plants manufacturing ferrosilicon and ferro-manganese in small quantities. Tungsten and molybdenum are among the richest ores in Free China, and are concentrated in Southern Kiangsi. Although for experimental purposes Tungsten was prepared by chemical methods in the metallic state of 98 percent purity, and molybdenum in both metallic form and in calcium molybdate. They were used in crucible steel making. Ferro-tungsten and ferro-molybdenum were also produced by the Elec-

tro-Chemical Metallurgical Works in Chikiang, a plant of modern design operated by the National Resources Commission.

The manufacture of refractory materials was much influenced by the production of iron and steel. There were in 1944 about 15 plants, making common fire-bricks, and a few of them made silica bricks, but chromium or magnesium bricks were not produced for lack of materials. These plants had a total maximum capacity of 9,040 tons, but operated only at half capacity in 1944, owing to the lack of demand.

In 1944 there were 21 sets of hot working rolling mills of 10 "30"

rolls, which, if given ample power supply and operated on three shifts daily, could produce 238,000 tons a year, but were actually working at 25 percent of the rated capacity during that year.

Forging shops were attached partly to steel works and partly to machine works. Capacity of hammers was limited to light forging pieces of 0.5-2.0 tons. Iron foundries from modern shops to native foundry shops for making domestic utensils could be found almost everywhere in China. The biggest capacity was to cast a single piece of 22 tons, while a dozen shops were able to cast single pieces of 5-10 tons.

TABLE 24. PRODUCTION OF IRON AND STEEL IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944

Unit: Metric Tons

	I R O N			S T E E L		
	<i>Government</i>	<i>Private</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Government</i>	<i>Private</i>	<i>Total</i>
1940	3,179	52,003	55,182	560	804	1,364
1941	9,479	53,357	62,836	981	830	1,811
1942	19,871	57,626	77,497	3,657	876	4,533
1943	45,714	38,623	84,337	9,527	903	10,430
1944	—	—	40,134	—	—	13,361

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

b. Copper, Lead and Zinc—

Wartime consumption of these metals was mainly by the Ordnance Department and factories manufacturing electrical appliances, drawn wires and batteries and cells for military use.

Since the outbreak of war, copper was derived from two sources: production from the Tungchuan copper mine in Yunnan; and collection of old copper coins and

utensils. In 1944, Free China had two refineries making electrolytic copper, one in Chungking and another in Kunming.

The Tungchuan copper mine, having been in operation for a century, was still along traditional lines of mining and melting as the ores were melted in the native furnaces with charcoal. There is in the vicinity of the mine no coal deposit but a promising water

power site, which can easily be developed in the future. Owing to the existence of mountain ranges separating the highway and the mine, transportation from it in the initial stage had to be effected by pack-horses or mules. After 1941, when money wages were soaring more rapidly than before, transportation cost as well as production cost was far out of proportion to the market price for copper.

At the Tungchuan mine, lead and zinc were produced together with copper, with maximum annual production, of lead at 500 tons and of zinc at 200 tons. The 1944 production, however, was only a small proportion of these maxima. The main center of production of lead and zinc was Shui-

koushan, in the Changning district of Hunan, where mining and smelting had been carried on for many years, and whence some amount was exported before the war. Another zinc-producing center was Tienpaoshan, in the Huili district of Sikong, where the mine was operated by the National Resources Commission, with production averaging 20-30 tons a month. A part of the output was turned into electrolytic zinc at the Kunming Copper Refinery, also a subsidiary unit of the National Resources Commission. It was estimated that the zinc output could be raised to 100 tons per month, if there had been additional equipment, including one set each of gas producers and roasting equipment and a few trucks.

TABLE 25. PRODUCTION OF COPPER, LEAD AND ZINC IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944
(unit: Metric Ton)

	Copper (Refined)			Lead (Refined)			Zinc (Refined)		
	Govern- ment	Private	Total	Govern- ment	Private	Total	Govern- ment	Private	Total
1940 ..	1,492	—	1,492	1,337	—	1,337	122	—	122
1941 ..	817	—	817	1,422	119	1,541	230	—	230
1942 ..	724	—	724	1,136	179	1,315	343	—	343
1943 ..	533	—	533	999	180	1,179	559	—	559
1944 ..	258*	—	258*	646	—	646	331	—	331

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

C. Aluminium—Of the several bauxite deposits discovered in Free China during wartime, the two near Kunming and Kweiyang respectively were regarded by geologists as very promising. A pilot plant, erected in Kunming by the Kunming Copper Refinery, adopted the Bayer's process, and used local anthracite and flourspar

for making electrodes and synthetic cryolite respectively. The experiment was a success, but large-scale production had to await abundant cheap power supply. In this respect, the Lauxite deposit near Kweiyang, where ample water power can be developed, is more promising.

TABLE 27. MACHINERY PRODUCTION

	1940			1941		
	Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
<i>Machine tools</i>						
Lathe pc.	125	741	866	273	1,351	1,624
Shaper "	21	73	94	40	288	328
Drilling machine "	26	83	109	44	425	469
Milling machine "	—	66	65	18	129	147
Sawing machine "	—	—	—	—	10	10
Grinding machine "	—	—	—	—	12	12
Boring machine "	—	—	—	—	7	7
Miscellaneous "	—	9	9	—	18	18
<i>Tools</i>						
Vise "	476	805	1,281	439	3,217	3,706
Plier "	—	—	—	—	93,150	93,150
Hand drill "	—	308	308	121	40	161
Hand sheaving machine "	—	—	—	—	6	6
Bench grinder "	2	—	2	14	13	27
File "	—	—	—	78	27,513	27,596
<i>Prime movers</i>						
Boiler "	5	18	23	21	16	37
Steam engine "	2	51	53	—	47	47
Gas engine "	42	34	76	—	192	192
Gas producer "	24	1,464	1,438	289	1,066	1,352
Diesel engine "	27	21	43	2	11	13
Water turbine "	—	3	3	1	35	36
Miscellaneous "	20	66	86	—	180	188
<i>Industrial machinery</i>						
Blast furnace "	—	2	2	—	8	8
Steel furnace "	—	2	2	—	1	1
Cupolas "	—	5	5	—	11	11
Draft fans "	2	239	241	92	575	667
Dust separator "	—	—	—	—	3	3
Water pump "	154	772	926	247	1,081	1,328
Cranes and hoists "	—	1	1	—	10	13
Coal pulverizer "	—	1	1	—	16	16
Rock crusher "	1	3	4	—	7	7
Sand miller "	—	—	—	—	5	5
Perforatory machine "	29	—	29	200	5	205
Crushing machine "	—	—	—	7	—	7
Ball mill "	1	5	6	4	6	10
Clay preparation mach. "	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nail making machine "	—	—	—	2	7	9
Wood saws "	—	—	—	—	2	2
Wood planing machine "	—	—	—	—	108	112
Oil refining oven "	8	—	8	4	51	51
Oil press "	—	—	—	—	—	5
Oil cracking mach. "	—	—	—	5	—	5
Distiller "	—	30	30	4	1,499	1,503
Condenser "	—	5	5	—	8	8

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IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944.

1942			1943			1944		
Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
233	1,083	1,316	481	947	1,428	340	909	1,249
49	252	301	150	199	349	89	100	189
75	241	316	177	217	394	87	147	234
49	83	132	51	125	176	34	74	108
—	4	4	6	12	18	4	12	16
19	21	40	30	6	36	35	8	43
—	1	1	—	22	22	—	46	46
3	35	38	2	52	54	2	42	44
830	2,839	3,669	319	1,301	1,620	155	1,500	1,655
—	34,660	34,660	—	—	—	—	—	—
120	290	410	285	52	337	270	81	351
—	4	4	—	1	1	—	—	—
14	13	27	—	14	14	—	12	12
375	143,001	143,376	26	46	72	1,824	40	1,864
40	49	89	49	37	86	29	48	77
7	34	41	—	34	34	35	26	61
39	142	181	5	32	37	4	49	53
1,147	735	1,882	184	314	498	212	234	446
7	13	20	9	9	18	2	13	15
—	2	2	2	35	37	2	93	95
21	43	64	22	56	78	15	40	55
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	2	11	6	4	10	11	8	19
49	282	331	9	125	134	14	108	122
—	4	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
371	622	993	280	412	692	172	555	727
—	6	6	1	22	23	2	45	47
—	12	12	—	—	—	—	—	—
15	36	51	10	20	30	8	14	22
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
115	1	116	—	27	27	—	24	24
9	—	9	14	—	14	5	8	13
1	3	4	5	2	7	6	4	10
4	—	4	3	—	3	3	—	3
—	1	1	—	2	2	—	11	11
—	16	16	1	3	4	1	4	5
—	—	—	—	2	2	—	2	2
14	20	34	5	15	20	9	17	26
10	14	24	15	7	22	13	11	24
275	—	275	787	—	787	650	—	650
5	38	43	3	—	3	1	—	1
1	6	7	—	1	1	10	1	11

TABLE 27. MACHINERY PRODUCTION

	1940			1941		
	Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
Centrifuge pc.	—	2	2	2	47	49
Sugar making mach. "	4	6	10	—	15	15
Paper machine "	1	6	7	—	44	44
Tanning machine "	—	11	11	—	9	9
Soap machine "	—	—	—	—	6	6
Match making mach. "	—	—	—	—	9	9
Cotton spinning mach. "	—	—	—	—	—	—
a. Standard mach. .. set	—	3	3	—	—	—
spindles	—	15,350	15,350	—	—	—
b. Minature mach. .. set	3	1	4	—	3	3
c. Multi-spindle wooden	—	—	—	—	—	—
mach. "	186	1,021	1,207	—	1,237	1,237
spindles	—	—	—	4,227	—	4,227
Reeling machine pc.	—	—	—	—	61	61
Doubling machine "	—	—	—	10	28	38
Foot power weaving mach. .. "	—	254	254	25	879	904
Sewing machine "	—	30	30	—	201	201
Knitting machine "	—	151	151	—	2,130	2,130
Cotton ginning mach. "	—	600	600	—	31	31
Cotton opening mach. "	8	1,079	1,087	5	1,275	1,280
Wool opening "	—	8	8	—	25	25
Starching machine "	—	—	—	—	6	6
Baling machine "	—	—	—	—	62	62
Flour milling mach. "	—	20	20	—	75	75
Noodle making mach. "	—	316	316	—	927	927
Pill making mach. "	—	—	—	—	4	4
Rice mill "	11	27	38	—	613	613
Cigarette machine "	—	3	3	—	15	15
Printing Machine. "	22	188	210	—	539	539
Type making mach. "	—	—	—	—	3	3
Typewriter "	—	—	—	—	18	18
Fire machine "	—	394	394	—	1,092	1,092
Miscellaneous "	83	144	227	72	523	595
Transportation equip.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ship built "	1	11	12	2	15	17
Ship repairing "	25	239	264	70	283	353
Horse cart "	—	—	—	1,400	25	1,425
Spares ton	—	319	319	12	3,687	3,699
Others	—	—	—	—	—	—
Siren pc.	—	168	168	—	47	47
Safe "	2	310	312	—	226	226

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

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IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944. (continued)

1942			1943			1944		
Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
14	37	51	31	33	64	73	4	77
—	18	18	—	7	7	—	1	1
—	133	133	—	11	11	—	8	8
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	16	2	18	13	10	23
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	1	10	7	7	14	6	1	7
500	1,189	1,689	—	—	—	—	—	—
5,740	8,700	14,400	752	8,152	8,904	650	4,864	5,514
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20	639	659	25	284	309	—	371	371
—	35	35	1	524	525	2	1,223	1,225
—	347	347	12	784	796	10	228	238
66	7	73	101	20	121	—	13	13
279	772	1,051	282	851	1,133	216	390	606
—	33	33	—	80	80	—	99	99
—	9	9	—	10	10	—	10	10
—	7	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	82	90	10	104	114	46	63	109
—	147	147	—	184	184	—	113	113
—	9	9	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	340	345	36	113	149	67	117	184
7	5	12	—	19	19	30	17	47
37	233	270	27	176	203	6	100	106
—	12	12	—	19	19	—	14	14
17	8	25	17	5	22	10	10	20
—	305	305	—	45	45	—	198	198
49	213	262	213	395	608	1,036	730	1,766
7	9	16	—	22	22	—	27	27
61	212	273	23	266	289	18	291	309
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
7.15	31.6	38.75	131	316	447	656	630	1,286
—	4	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	280	280	—	7	7	—	—	—

d. Tungsten, Antimony, Tin and Mercury—All these four kinds of so-called "export minerals" were under the control of the National Resources Commission, which was responsible for their deliveries in fulfillment of international obligations. After the loss of Hongkong and Rangoon, delivery had to be made either by air with the help of American transport planes or through a land route of about 3,000 miles to Russia. The production of these metals was affected primarily by international transportation conditions and production cost.

Tungsten was produced in large quantities in Southern Kiangsi, and in similar quantities both in Southern Hunan, Northern Kwangtung and eastern Kwangsi. It was produced and exported in the form of ores. After the fall of Hongkong and Rangoon, production showed signs of decline. At the same time, production cost was rising at a greater rate than ever before.

The center of antimony production was in Central Hunan, particularly the Hsinhua district. Owing to technological improvements, the importance of this metal as a war

material was considerably reduced. Besides, new sources of supply were discovered. In the second half of 1944, China was informed by the Allies that they were not anxious to receive Chinese antimony. In consequence, the Chinese antimony production, which had already been facing transportation difficulties and rising cost, slumped sharply.

The three tin-producing regions in Free China during wartime were Eastern Kwangsi, Southern Kiangsi extending to Northeastern Kwangtung, and Southeastern Yunnan, the last of which, or the Kochiu district, was by far the most important. Although modern mining methods were introduced, production came largely from native mines which depended mainly on human labor.

Mercury was produced during wartime in the region bordering on Hunan, Kweichow and Szechwan. Since the war started, the production fell short of the demand, which necessitated the collection by the National Resources Commission from hoarded stocks, part of which was held by the people.

TABLE 26. PRODUCTION OF "EXPORT MINERALS" IN FREE CHINA, 1940-41
Unit: Metric Ton

	<i>Tin</i>	<i>Tungsten Ore</i>	<i>Antimony</i>	<i>Mercury</i>
1940	2,323	9,579	8,469	91
1941	12,414	7,929	121	121
1942	5,729	12,055	3,510	163
1943	7,205	8,985	614	114
1944	2,195	3,233	203	105

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

4. **Machine Industry**—Excluding factories manufacturing electrical appliances, the machine works in Free China during the war can be broadly classified into two groups, organized plants of permanent nature and small jobbing shops. The former group consisted of about 30 plants, distributed among the principal cities, while the latter group was almost ubiquitous.

Probably largest of its kind in Free China was the Central Machine Works of the National Resources Commission in Kunming. It was equipped with over 200 modern machine tools, supplemented by 400 local makes. It possessed an up-to-date equipment to undertake, in addition to ordinary machine shop operation, more specialized activities, such as steel foundry, heat treatment, tool and gage department, precision inspection laboratory, gear department, automatic screw machine department. Its production list included water tube boilers up to 2,000 Kw., stationary Diesel engines of 300 H.P., water turbine of 100 H.P., electric generators of 500 K.V.A., various kinds of machine tools, and measuring instruments and apparatuses. It also accepted orders for industrial equipment and parts, including automobile parts.

Besides the Central Machine Works, the National Resources Commission operated four machine shops; the Ipin Machine Works at Ipin, Szechwan, which manufactured portable gas engines and pump for irrigation, machine tools and some paper-making machinery parts; the Kansu Machine Works at Lanchow, Kansu, which produced woolen preparation and pro-

cessing machinery for the Northwest, and also some machine tools for local use; the Kiangsi Machine Works in Kiangsi, which built small gas engines and some machine tools; and the Kiangsi Ship and Vehicle Works, also in Kiangsi, which constructed small river launches, small boilers and steam engines.

Of the several works specializing in the making of automotive parts, such as pistons, piston pins, bushings, valves, bolts and nuts, repair hand tools and spring from plate, the largest was the Central Automotive Parts Manufacturing Works of the Ministry of Communications, which had four shops around Chungking and employed altogether 400 workers. Other large transportation organizations of the Government also possessed their truck parts manufacturing plants near their operating centers.

Generally of lesser scales were the private owned machine shops, of which the leading ones, distributed among the principal cities in Free China, included the Ming Sun Machine Works in Chungking, undertaking ship building and repairing, the manufacture of boilers and steam engines of several hundred H.P., and also some machine tools and industrial equipment; the Shanghai Machine Works in Chungking, making water turbines and pumps; the Yu Hsing Iron and Steel Works, also in Chungking, specializing in heavier equipment and machine tools; the Sing Chung Engineering Company at Chiyang, Hunan, making automotive engines and some kinds of machine tools; and the Sun Sing Textile Manufacturing Works, a subsidiary of some cotton mill, specializing in textile machinery and parts.

Regarding the manufacture of electrical appliances in Free China during the war, attention should be directed mainly to the Government works. The biggest in this field was the Central Electrical Manufacturing Works of the National Resources Commission, with the original site of its various factories in Hsiangtan, Hunan, which, on account of the war, had to be removed to the interior. In 1944, its Central Office was in

Kunming and the various factories were distributed as follows: First Factory (Wires and Cables) in Kunming; Second Factory (Vacuum Tubes and Lamp Bulbs) in Kweilin; Third Factory (Telephone Equipment) in Kunming; Fourth Factory (Power Equipment) in Kunming and Kweilin; and three smaller branch factories in Chungking and Lanchow. The annual production capacities of the Works were:

Bare copper wires and cables	2,000 m. tons
Insulated wires and cables	200 m. tons
Magnet wires	25 m. tons
Field telephone wires	1,000 m. tons
Vacuum tubes	35,000 pcs.
Lamp bulbs	1,000,000 pcs.
Telephone sets	10,000 sets
Telephone switchboards	10,000 lines
Motors	12,000 H.P.
Generators	5,000 K.V.A.
Transformers	43,000 K.V.A.
Switches, meters, etc.	5,000 pcs.
Lead accumulators	2,000 pcs.
"A" batteries	180,000 pcs.
"B" batteries	40,000 pcs.
Unit cells	50,000 pcs.

Another noteworthy organization in the electrical manufacturing field was the Central Radio Manufacturing Works, jointly owned by the National Resources Commission, the Central Broadcasting Administration and the Hunan Provincial Government. From its main factory in Kweilin and branch factories in Chungking and Kunming, this Works turned out principally radio transmitters and receivers for the Army and Air Forces, and some broadcasting receivers, hand-driven generators, portable gasoline engines for current supply of military radio sets and the modern walkie-talkie sets on ultra short waves.

Also contributing much to China's war effort were two elec-

trical insulator works operated by the Government, with the main and branch factories in Szechwan, Hunan and Kansu.

Of the private works manufacturing electrical appliances, the two biggest were the Wha Sung Electrical Manufacturing Company and the Wha Chang Electrical Manufacturing Company, which, after having been evacuated from Shanghai on the outbreak of war, were operating during 1945 in Chungking and Hengyang respectively. The principal products of these two companies were motors, generators and transformers.

In manufacturing the instruments of production, the machine

industry in Free China keenly felt the difficulties which spread over the industrial field after 1941. The shortage of certain essential equipment and strategic materials, which could not be had after the closure of the Burma Road, made the prices of machineries in the Chinese markets too high to justify their production on previously planned scales. With wage cost pressing heavily on production, less than half of the rated capacity of the Central Electrical Manufacturing Works was in actual operation during 1943.

5. Chemical Industry—As the pre-war production of heavy chemicals had no extensive development in China, those chemical works erected for serving the country's wartime needs cannot but be regarded as pioneering.

Szechwan, with rich deposits of rock salt, became the wartime production center of caustic soda, bleaching power, hydro-chloric acid and potassium chlorate, using the electrolytic process. Some of the caustic soda and hydrochloric acid were produced by the causticization of soda ash and the Hargreave process respectively. They were merely emergency devices, and later on discontinued because of high cost and low efficiency.

Owing to the shortage of power supply from outside sources and the lack of necessary equipment to generate additional power in the producing districts, the output of chemicals gradually dropped after 1942. The 1943 production of the electrolytic chemicals in Free China amounted to half of the rated productive capacities.

Three calcium carbide plants existed in Free China during wartime, with total rated capacity at

1,500 metric tons per year, only less than half of which was in operation during the 1943-1944 period, owing to difficulties common to the chemical industry.

With the loss of the soda ash plant, using the Solvay process, in Tangku, following the Japanese occupation of Hopei after the outbreak of war, attempts were made, to erect a similar plant on a smaller scale in Free China. After the closure of the Burma Road, the Le Blanc process had to be restored to, using sodium sulfate as raw material, which is abundant in Szechwan. During 1944, nine factories employing the latter process had a total rated capacity of 4,260 metric tons a year, but were actually producing much below capacity.

The manufacture of sulphuric acid is usually an appended item in factories using considerable amount of this cheap material. However, nine of the 10 sulphuric acid plants in Free China during 1944 were separate establishments, using the Chamber process. The other sulphuric acid plant, using the Contact process with vanadium catalyst, was situated near a mining field and constructed primarily for metallurgical purposes. In 1943, the 10 factories had a total capacity of 1,010 tons, but their output was only 620 tons.

The heavy demand for liquid fuel in Free China after the outbreak of war, especially following the closure of the Burma Road, which cut off all foreign supplies, was responsible for the mushroom growth of alcohol distilleries as well as the setting up for the first time in China of vegetable oil cracking plants.

TABLE 28. PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL

	Unit	1940			1941		
		Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
Electric machine							
Generator . . .	set	47	80	127	71	129	200
	(K.V.A.)	(1,287)	(1,520)	(2,539)	(1,522)	(3,090)	(4,612)
Hand generator .	set	91	620	711	112	585	697
Portable genera-							
tor	"	—	—	—	—	35	35
Motor	"	—	—	—	543	1,999	2,542
	(H.P.)	(1,522)	(7,066)	(8,618)	(3,852)	(7,477)	(11,329)
Motor starter . .	set	—	—	—	—	343	343
Telephone exchange	"	—	—	—	—	—	—
Radio transmitter	"	—	—	—	—	—	—
receiver	"	1,315	437	1,752	1,866	514	2,380
Radio telephone							
trans. and re-	"	—	—	—	—	—	—
ceiver	"	—	—	—	—	—	—
Telephone receiver	"	4,818	81	4,899	4,529	230	4,759
Radio receiver . .	"	186	—	186	551	5	556
Broadcast trans-							
mitter	"	—	—	—	12	11	23
Loudspeaker . . .	"	22	—	22	—	—	—
Transformer . . .	"	—	537	537	46	2,062	2,108
	(K.V.A.)	(1,647)	(2,180)	(3,827)	(6,979)	(9,646)	(13,625)
Battery charger .	set	—	—	—	4,350	1,280	5,630
Rectifier	"	1,768	10	1,778	109	240	349
Electric meter . .	pc.	26	—	26	—	304	304
Switch	"	13,124	5,000	18,124	9,252	23,603	32,855
Lamp bulb	"	259,264	428,901	688,165	226,425	300,000	526,425
Wire	ton	265,976	—	265,976	656,000	60,500	716,500
	(yard)	461,400	—	461,400	2,747,890	—	2,747,890
Battery							
Storage battery .	pc.	187	—	187	709	3,053	3,762
ABC battery . . .	"	165,984	3,594	169,578	204,538	7,914	212,452
Unit cell	doz.	20,770	188,168	208,938	52,607	230,513	283,120
Insulator	pc.	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source: Ministry of

Although the distilleries were widely scattered, the center of alcohol production was the sugar-producing region of Szechwan, accounting for probably more than 80 percent of the total alcohol production. In this region which was between Chungking and Chengtu

along the To River, with the districts of Niekiang, Tzechung, Tseyang and Chienyang as important producing areas, there were more than 60 distilleries at the height of the expansion in alcohol production. After 1942, when the prices of molasses and raw sugar

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APPLIANCES IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944.

1942			1943			1944		
Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
88	63	151	113	47	160	83	25	108
(4,745)	(3,018)	(7,763)	(5,740)	(4,665)	(10,406)	(4,116)	(3,788)	(7,904)
1,080	94	1,174	2,094	52	2,146	382	48	400
—	38	36	—	28	28	—	32	32
1,046	515	1,561	720	633	1,353	1,025	265	1,290
(6,951)	(3,251)	(10,202)	(6,680)	(5,280)	(11,960)	(4,194)	(2,102)	(6,296)
—	162	162	2	82	84	3	25	28
509	35	544	349	55	404	334	48	382
1,617	255	1,872	2,234	13	2,247	957	126	1,083
163	—	163	14	—	14	—	—	—
1,373	—	1,373	4,051	711	4,762	5,027	50	5,077
334	—	334	636	—	636	714	—	714
1	—	1	5	—	5	31	—	31
22	—	22	22	—	22	42	—	42
263	6,106	6,369	244	2,237	2,481	264	2,106	2,370
(10,228)	(13,073)	(23,301)	(4,334)	(9,710)	(14,044)	(4,745)	(13,453)	(18,198)
—	19	19	—	14	14	—	—	—
4	3	7	23	315	338	22	284	306
427	255	682	783	300	1,083	1,104	647	1,751
2,607	12,944	15,551	1,370	10,491	11,861	200	50,116	50,316
633,403	2,437	635,840	685,906	617,928	1,203,834	892,533	917,233	1,746,755
570,090	40,000	610,090	372	—	372	267	—	267
3,482,093	—	3,482,093	3,350,700	—	3,350,700	5,908,200	—	5,908,200
1,063	6,934	7,997	1,513	16,644	18,157	1,803	12,374	13,177
209,367	16,076	225,443	—	16,464	16,464	153,453	11,496	164,929
40,416	104,231	144,647	76,661	203,817	280,478	86,238	224,349	310,587
2,441,930	397,769	2,739,699	1,802,155	973,173	2,775,328	2,130,701	850,000	3,980,701

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increased sharply along with rapidly rising wages, a number of distilleries suspended operation. However, the actual production was not adversely affected, because the productive capacity at the height of growth had much exceeded the supply of raw materials.

Of the many distilleries set up in places other than the sugar-producing region, especially along the highways, a certain number were originally designed to use cereals or potatoes as raw materials, but later had to resort to native wine, on account of the difficulty

TABLE 29. PRODUCTION OF CHEMICALS IN

	Unit	1940			1941		
		Gov't.	Private	Total	Gov't.	Private	Total
Nitric acid . .	carboy (=40 kg.)	1	145	146	8	180	188
Sulphuric acid .	"	5	6,227	6,242	93	4,512	4,510
Hydrochloric acid . . .	"	—	5,875	5,875	18	3,622	3,640
Caustic soda . . .	"	4	6,616	6,620	4	10,119	10,123
Soda ash . . .	picul (=50 kg.)	360	20,934	21,344	—	26,674	26,634
Sodium sulfide .	Kg.	—	21,000	21,000	26,945	32,886	59,833
Bleaching powder . . .	case	—	2,269	2,269	—	10,296	10,296
Alcohol . . .	gallon	1,143,976	2,715,406	3,859,382	1,652,610	4,504,662	6,156,612
Vegetable oil							
gasoline substitute . . .	"	13,787	8,159	21,937	38,374	71,548	109,922
Kerosene sub.	"	—	19,000	19,000	3,600	73,875	77,475
Diesel oil sub.	"	108,620	37,500	145,120	369,916	367,556	737,472
Machine made paper . . .	ream	15,872	31,102	46,974	85,143	155,777	240,920
Tanned leather . .							
Heavy leather	Kg.	4,267	93,868	98,135	89,650	758,257	847,907
Light Leather	cu. ft.	87,571	613,306	700,877	113,283	594,600	707,880
Match . . .	box (=7200 cases)	2,265	36,719	38,981	10,536	51,258	61,794
Soap . .	box (=15-20 kg.)	562	229,590	230,152	2,443	359,314	361,757

Source: Ministry of

in collecting a large stock of cereals or potatoes, the sensitiveness of their prices to large-scale purchases, and difficulties in their transportation and storage.

The alcohol distilleries of Free China, both Government and private owned, made valuable contribution to the war effort, as highway transportation south of Chengtu depended chiefly on alcohol as fuel, while the gasoline production of the Kansu oil field went largely to the Commission on Aeronautical Affairs, the Trans-

portation Department of the Ministry of War and the Northwest Highway Administration, leaving little for other purposes.

An experimental plant to distill liquid fuel from rape seed oil and tung oil was erected in 1938 by the National Resources Commission in Chungking, using a pipe still continuous thermal cracking process and machinery designed and made locally. After much trial and error, the process became a real success. Later on, this pioneering vegetable oil cracking plant was also able to

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FREE CHINA, 1940-1944.

1942			1943			1944		
Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private	Total
25	258	286	75	386	461	97	536	433
715	5,927	6,642	719	5,899	6,618	770	7,145	7,915
74	5,064	5,138	111	4,071	4,182	134	10,044	10,178
234	12,114	12,353	933	37,093	38,026	1,247	44,913	46,160
2,505	34,038	36,543	3,154	66,850	70,004	6,290	37,605	93,895
19,181	27,100	46,281	--	106,706	106,700	383	76,529	76,915
—	15,318	15,318	--	14,205	14,205	—	22,376	22,376
3,517,228	5,835,001	9,352,229	4,551,456	6,163,552	10,715,109	4,520,197	5,212,474	10,730,671
204,496	73,515	278,013	440,907	210,307	642,214	407,993	156,666	564,659
17,177	86,791	103,968	50,589	126,700	177,289	87,276	74,761	162,037
189,153	362,998	552,151	726,495	499,415	1,225,640	561,805	360,098	921,903
61,072	121,230	182,302	103,953	153,893	257,846	105,451	154,244	259,695
143,210	632,503	775,713	150,683	1,140,962	1,291,345	130,966	1,023,854	1,154,820
1,956,782	686,147	2,642,929	2,077,173	1,514,319	3,591,492	2,266,450	1,992,092	4,258,542
6,945	46,792	53,737	6,941	72,282	79,223	6,252	74,767	81,025
13,611	402,531	416,142	56,905	401,241	458,146	73,123	363,946	437,070

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involve other processes, namely, the Batch process, the pressure cracking and the cracking of lime soap.

In addition, the plant succeeded in developing a process for making synthetic lubricants from tung oil, with their output in 1944 averaging 1,000-2,000 tons a month. This process consisted mainly in the cracking of tung oil and the polymerizing of the unsaturated hydro-carbons in the cracked distillates by means of anhydrous aluminium chloride or concentrat-

ed sulphuric acid. By utilizing the by-products derived from various processes, the plant also produced acrolite molding power, insulating varnish and other products to meet the requirements of domestic industry.

On the heels of this successful plant, now known as the Tung Li Oil Works, there were established especially after the closure of the Burma Road, by the Government and private interests many vegetable oil cracking plants, the majority of which were on a small

scale and equipped with primitive outfits, and producing gasoline of different quality.

The gasoline substitute had the same characteristics as genuine gasoline, with the exception of having a higher gum content and being yellowish, while the Diesel oil was of good quality and always enjoying a non-competitive market. The light Diesel oil with an acid number of about 0.5, produced by the Tung Li Oil Works, was satisfactorily used by a certain arsenal for over two years on a high-speed Diesel oil engine, working 14 hours per day. A special grade of light Diesel oil was produced to satisfy the requirements of the U.S. Army in China.

Shortly after the Tung Li Oil Works was established, the price of rape seed oil, owing to the increased demand for edible oils, jumped so high as to render its industrial use uneconomical. Tung oil became then the only raw material for the vegetable oil cracking plants. But, with their demand for tung oil increasing, it became an object of speculation and hoarding, which accelerated the rise in its price, and the supply had to be controlled.

In 1944, there were 35 registered vegetable oil cracking plants in Free China, with annual capacity totalling 580,000 gallons of gasoline and 425,000 gallons of Diesel oil, which ratio could be freely adjustable to changing demands. However, owing to industrial difficulties, only 12 plants could continue to operate during that year and even on a reduced scale. The entire industry keenly felt the weakening of market demand, the inability of price to cover cost,

sharp increases in wages and the lack of working capital to finance increasing cost of operation.

The production of portland cement, owing to its increasing importance in wartime, may be mentioned here in passing. Of prewar China's eight cement mills, with five in the coastal areas, two in Shensi and Hupeh respectively and one in Chungking, all were lost during the war, except the one in Chungking, the limited capacity of which, at 50,000 metric tons per year, was left to fulfill the wartime needs. The cement mill in Tayeh, Hupeh, after being partially dismantled and re-erected in Chensi, Hunan, had an annual capacity of 30,000 tons, but was not ready to produce until 1939. As a result, many shaft kilns had to be resorted to and erected at various places in Free China, bringing the total capacity to 116,300 tons a year, not counting the numerous other attempts at manufacturing hydraulic lime, natural cement and possolan cement for construction works of less strict requirements. During the wartime industrial depression, the cement industry also suffered from shortage of working capital, weakened demand and other difficulties.

6. Cotton Textile and Flour Industries—In 1944, of the 305,000 spindles in Free China, 50,000 belonged to the mills originally located there, 227,000 were what had been evacuated from Hupeh and Honan and 33,000 represented new installation in wartime, the last group of which was about evenly divided between the regular mill size and the small sets (Ghosh type and the like). The

number of power looms in Free China during the war was so small, probably not exceeding 300, that weaving could be regarded as being done entirely on hand looms. Hand spinning in Free China is also a big factor in her yarn production.

TABLE 30. PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARN AND PIECE GOODS IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Gov't.</i>	<i>1940 Private</i>	<i>Total</i>
Machine spun yarn . . .	Bale	21,640	27,276	48,916
Factory-made piece goods	pc.	241,115	1,442,403	1,683,518
Machine spun yarn . . .	Bale	49,499	39,495	88,994
Factory-made piece goods	pc.	653,798	1,968,511	2,622,309
Machine spun yarn . . .	Bale	66,612	35,924	102,536
Factory-made piece goods	pc.	850,746	1,945,911	2,796,657
Machine spun yarn . . .	Bale	72,032	55,893	127,927
Factory-made piece goods	pc.	849,560	1,484,406	2,333,966
Machine spun yarn . . .	Bale	67,823	53,217	121,040
Factory-made piece goods	pc.	607,617	1,458,235	2,065,852

* (=37 meters)

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

At the end of 1943, there were in Free China 42 flour mills. They were all comparatively small, with the biggest mill producing some 5,000 bags a day and four or five mills having a daily capacity each of 2,000-3,000 bags.

TABLE 31. WHEAT FLOUR PRODUCTION IN FREE CHINA, 1940-1944.
Unit: Bag = 23 kg.

	<i>Gov't.</i>	<i>1940 Private</i>	<i>Total</i>
Wheat flour	14,400	3,777,083	3,791,483
Wheat flour	130,853	3,798,652	3,929,505
Wheat flour	341,012	3,505,364	3,846,376
Wheat flour	945,659	3,194,134	4,039,793
Wheat flour	446,364	3,032,877	3,478,241

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs.

IV. POSTWAR INDUSTRIAL RECONSTRUCTION

From our above analysis it is quite obvious that the natural resources of China had not been well developed before the war, and that what was achieved through wartime efforts, though commendable, was none the less very meager. The bitter experiences and the extreme hardships sustained throughout the war years have driven home to the public the urgent necessity of postwar industrialization, not only to improve the existing standard of living of the Chinese masses but also to help maintain the peace of Far East.

Clearly foreign capital will be needed for China's postwar industrialization, inasmuch foreign capital was utilized to aid the initial industrialization of the United States and Canada. The national income of China during the immediate pre-war years has been estimated by the Central Planning Board—actually a re-estimate of one previously made by Dr. D. K. Lieu—at an annual average of of \$3,300,000,000 in terms of Chinese national currency during the first half of 1937; while national savings has been put at 10 percent of the total income. Capital formation has been estimated by the Board at the annual rates of 13, 15, 17, 19 and 21 percent of the national savings respectively for the first five-year period of postwar reconstruction. Assuming the national savings and income be approximately the same in the immediate prewar and postwar years, the amount of capital available from domestic sources for the first five postwar years will probably be

nothing more than \$1,265,500,000, or US\$400,000,000, of prewar value. This figure, even with the most liberal allowances for probable improvements in the banking and credit system, higher efficiency in public finance and increase of the national income during industrial reconstruction, may not be raised by ten-fold.

The total capital needed for the first five years of China postwar reconstruction has, on the other hand, been estimated by Dr. Wong Wen-hao at \$30,000,000,000, in terms of prewar value. All the foregoing figures must necessarily be rough estimates, but the inescapable fact is that a wide gap exists between China's financial resources and her reconstruction requirements.

Any attempt by China to raise the needed reconstruction fund of 30 billion dollars herself would call for the freezing of the Chinese living standard at extremely low levels, through the drastic curtailment of general consumption and the large-scale channelization of forced savings into capital accumulation, which will be increasingly difficult as general productivity and per capita income rise with the progress of reconstruction work. Such measures, if possible at all, would mean a strict regimentation of the whole economy by means of rationing, government allocation of all resources, investment control, burdensome taxation, forced savings, and even a complete control of foreign trade, all of which, while distasteful to Chinese instincts, will certainly not be in accord with the ideals of democracy.

It appears that as some industrially advanced countries, notably

the United States will after the war have to devise measures for the disposal of their surplus war properties and even more for finding outlets for their over-expanded production capacities in order to maintain full employment in their own countries, a solution could be found in the granting of credits by the industrially advanced countries to the would-be industrialized countries like China, since such credits would answer the needs of both parties and would be mutually beneficial, besides being self-liquidating in so far as they are used to increase the productive power of the latter countries. This form of international investment along the line of helping one-self by helping others, which has long been the favourite subject of speeches by political and economic leaders of the world, is sure to have the widest scope for development as well as the biggest chance for realization in such a country as postwar China.

From foreign countries, Chinese postwar reconstruction will need not only financial assistance but also technical aids. While the many valuable technical solutions contributed by American experts to China's wartime industrial problems will be given their due importance in the annals of Chinese industrial development, still greater technical assistance during the postwar period is anticipated. Contracts for technical co-operation have already been entered into by the National Resources Commission and many leading industrial concerns in the United States. Some of these contracts provide merely the exchange of technical informations, but others include agreements on such mat-

ters as designs, installation of equipment, engagement of consulting engineers and even initial operation of plants that require highly advanced technique.

In the planning of the postwar reconstruction program, the first step was taken in 1943, when a committee of Chinese experts, organized jointly by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Ministry of Education, completed the preliminary draft of the "First 5-Year Industrial Reconstruction Plan." Since then continuous study has been made, and the final draft under preparation by the Central Planning Board is expected to be completed soon. Another 2-year plan, based on the above-mentioned preliminary draft and bearing the title, "Guide to the Industrialization of China," but subsequently popularly known as the Taub Plan, was prepared in 1945 under the auspices of Dr. Alex Taub, chief engineer of the Foreign Economic Administration of the United States. While the Taub Plan was receiving the keenest attention of the Chinese authorities, the National Resources Commission gave birth to a plan for its own industrial and mining works, including a proposed program for the completion of certain government enterprises within the first three years of industrial reconstruction.

It is essential to remember that the various industrial reconstruction programs are only guiding plans and subject to changes under the prevailing economic conditions in China, since her economic system is not a planned economy in the strict theoretical sense of the term.

Among the numerous new enterprises contemplated under the var-

ious industrial reconstruction programs, one of the most important is the proposed Yangtze Gorge Project. This project was investigated by Dr. J. L. Savage, world-famous hydraulic engineer, who, at the invitation of the National Resources Commission, made a survey of the Yangtze Gorges in 1943, and concluded that the proposed project near Ichang should have an installed capacity of about 10,560,000 Kw, average annual output having over 83,000,000,000 Kw.

II. The whole project, by far the world's largest, would require about 10 years to complete, but at the end of the sixth year of construction, about 2,000,000 Kw. would be available. U.S.\$1,300,000,000 will be needed to finance the construction, apart from transmission. The gigantic multiple purpose project in central China, when completed, would serve most of modern China with cheap and abundant power. Besides its contribution to industrialization, the project would offer extensive flood control; greatly improve navigation to Chungking; and allow irrigation of more than 60,000,000 Shih mow (10,000,000 acres) of land. At present, Dr. Savage is engaged in preparatory designs for this project based upon surveys, exploration and planning now being accomplished by the National Hydraulic Engineering Bureau, which is a Branch of the National Resources Commission.

Legislation on industrialization has also been in progress. According to the "Guiding Principles of Economic Reconstruction in China," adopted by the Supreme National Defence Council in December, 1944, the industrial development of China will be

carried out along two lines; by private enterprises and by state enterprises. While Government monopolies will only be limited to such fields as principal service and tele - communications, arsenals, mints, principal railroads and largescale hydraulic power plans; private capital may engage in a y enterprise other than state monopolies, in so far as it does not endanger the public welfare. Besides, various means will be devised to attract foreign capital, and regulations restricting the percentage of foreign share of capital in any Sino-foreign enterprise or confining the General Manager to Chinese nationals were abolished. At present, all regulations like the Old Company Law which do not fit in with the spirit of fostering international economic cooperation are under revision, and a series of new regulations with the aim of facilitating foreign investment on the basis of equality and reciprocity are expected to be promulgated in the near future.

With recognition of the fundamental necessity of industrialization, with foreign assistance in capital and technique, and with industrialists decided to see a better China through industrial reconstruction, the natural resources of China, though in no sense highly gifted by Nature, could be expected to be faster and more highly developed than was ever done in her recent history. Only then, will China be able to contribute to the economic welfare of the human race and to help maintain world peace and prosperity.

CHAPTER XXXI

AGRICULTURE

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

The Chinese agricultural administration may be better understood if we divide it into three sections, namely, central, provincial and *hsien*.

A. Central — The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry which came into being on July 1, 1940 is the highest organization of agricultural administration in the country. Besides mapping out a feasible post-war plan for rural rehabilitation and agricultural reconstruction, the Ministry engages itself in the work of increasing food production and promoting agricultural and forestry industry. The internal organization of the Ministry consists of five ad-

ministrative departments, namely, general affairs, agricultural affairs, rural economy, forestry administration, and fishery and animal husbandry. In addition, there is a number of offices and commissions, including the counselors office, the advisers and experts office, the secretariat, the accounting office, the statistic office, etc. Furthermore, the Ministry maintains a considerable large number of subordinate organs for field work, which spread all over the country.

B. Provincial — The Provincial Agricultural Improvement Bureaus which are the highest organs in the provinces for experiment, research and extension activities, are as follows:

1.	Szechuen Provincial Agricultural Improvement Bureau	Chengtu
2.	Kweichow	"	"	..Kweiyang
3.	Hunan	"	"	..Leiyang
4.	Sikang	"	"	..Kangtin
5.	Shensi	"	"	..Sian
6.	Kan'ü	"	"	..Lanchow
7.	Hupeh	"	"	..Enshih
8.	Honan	"	"	..Iusnan
9.	Chekiang	"	"	..Yunhwo
10.	Suiyuan	"	"	.. - -
11.	Shansi	"	"	.. - -
12.	Anhwei	"	"	..Lihuang
13.	Kwangsi Agricultural and Forestry BureauLiuchow
14.	Kwangtung	"	"	..Kukong
15.	Ninghsia	"	"	..Ninghsia
16.	Kiangsi Agricultural BureauTaiho
17.	Fukien Agricultural and Forestry BureauYungan

Provincial agricultural organs are under the direction of the provincial governments and the guidance of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

The main functions of the provincial agricultural organs are agricultural administration, research and extension works. Under the provincial organ are several agriculture and forestry experimental stations and manufacturing factories, such as the factories for manufacturing serums, farming implements, bone-dust, etc.

C. **Hsien** — The agricultural organ in a *hsien* is the *hsien* agricultural extension bureau which is under the direction of the *hsien* government and the provincial agricultural organization. Its main function is to accelerate the multiplication of improved seeds of various crops and the breeding of draft animals of superior stock by scientific

methods. Under the *hsien* agricultural bureau are the experimental stations for agriculture and forestry, and seed gardens.

II. AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

A. Increase of Food Production

—During the later stage of the war, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry laid strong emphasis on the increase of food production by means of improving the productivity per unit area and extending the acreage. The acreage for the production of principal food crops (including winter and summer crops) in 1943 was 682,067,000 *shih mow* with a yield of 1,581,301,000 *shih piculs*. In 1944 an additional acreage of 36,694,046 *shih mow* was cultivated and the total output was increased by 36,992,659 *shih piculs*. The details of the extensions of acreage and increase of yield are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. INCREASE OF FOOD PRODUCTION BY PROVINCE, 1944

Province	Acreage Extended (in <i>shih mow</i>)	Increased Yield (in <i>shih picul</i>)
Szechuen	2,437,515	2,270,991
Shansi	262,596	228,957
Kweichow	49,459	42,527
Yunnan	565,311	375,516
Kwangsi	4,250,871	3,930,245
Hunan	4,278,626	3,434,921
Kwangtung	50,173	20,787
Kiangsi	5,886,846	7,963,044
Fukien	7,691,831	7,702,742
Chekiang	1,695,665	1,650,907
Anhwei	368,138	277,759
Shensi	4,051,025	2,238,116
Hupei	2,770,673	3,045,028
Kansu	3,809,369	1,431,479
Sikang	117,203	108,805
Honan	1,167,273	2,104,749
Ninghsia	241,469	166,086
Total	39,694,043	36,992,659

B. Increase of Cotton Production

—In 1944, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry rendered its assistance to the interior provinces for the increase of cotton production in the form of increase of cotton production loans, encouragement for the enlargement of cotton fields, improvement of cotton

seeds and the extension of acreage. Such measures enabled the various provinces to increase 1,910,431 *shih mow* of cotton fields, to improve cotton seeds in an area covering 626,490 *shih mow*, and to accumulate 391,317 *shih piculs* of peel cotton. A detailed account is given in Table II.

TABLE II. COTTON FIELD ACREAGE AND PEEL COTTON PRODUCTION BY PROVINCE, 1944

Province	Cotton Field Acreage (in <i>shih mow</i>)	Production (in <i>shih picul</i>)
Szechuen ..	2,580,000	412,500
Shensi ..	2,079,346	434,142
Honan ..	1,136,674	113,667
Hupei ..	205,397	21,233
Hunan ..	944,596	183,919
Kiangsi ..	300,189	50,589
Chekiang ..	202,944	36,454
Kwangsi ..	636,397	
Yunnan ..	232,103	36,157
Sikang ..	9,846	2,996
Kansu ..	115,510	28,351
Ninghsia ..	8,000	2,400
Fukien ..	12,060	2,231
Sinkiang ..	790,937	222,311
Total ..	9,253,989	1,552,450

C. Increase of Silk Production.—

The Ministry gave considerable attention to the various provinces of Szechuen, Sikang, Sinkiang, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Honan in the increased production of silk eggs and mulberry varieties. Farmers were given financial and technical aids by the Ministry to extend the cultivation of mulberry trees and the hatchery of silkworms. Statistics indicate that the

increase of silk production in 1944 amounted to 1,799,973 mulberry sprouts and 717,968 silk-worm species capable of producing 30,000 *shih piculs* of silk.

III. FISHERIES AND ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

A. Promotion of Fresh Water Fishing Industry.—In 1942, the Ministry accomplished much in the promotion of fishing industry.

A total of 823,183 fish fries was turned out from the various fresh water fish hatcheries. 2,051 *shih mow* of model fishing ponds and 107,600 *shih mow* of model rice fields for fish breeding were established. 37,500 Hunan fish fries were transferred for breeding, and 4,350 *Cheng* and *Chin* fishes

raised. The Ministry also rendered its guide to the Sikiang fishermen to collect 7,164,000 fish fries.

B. Improvement of Animal Husbandry Breeding.—In 1944, the Ministry established numerous breeding stations for the raising of horses and cows. A wool improvement center was also set up.

TABLE III. ANIMAL HUSBANDRY ORGANIZATIONS AND HEADS OF CATTLE MAKING CROSS TEST AND FOR BREEDING

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Heads of Cattle making Cross Test</i>	<i>Heads of Cattle for Breeding</i>	<i>Cross Test Stations</i>
Nanchuan Cow Breeding Station, Szechuen . .	1,794	295	5
Mitan Cow Breeding Station, Kweichow . .	2,456	318	9
Lingling Cow Breeding Station, Hunan . . .	332	189	4
Paochi Cow Breeding Station, Shensi . . .	67	15	3
Shensi 1st Horse Breeding Station	1,542	96	5
North-west Wool Improvement Center . .	1,950	1,193	3
Total			29
Cow	4,649	813	
Horse	1,542	96	
Sheep	1,950	1,193	

C. Prevention of Epizootic Disease.—To maintain the livestock in good condition through the prevention of epizootic disease, the Ministry established a number of Epizootic Prevention Centers and Animal Husbandry Experimental Stations with preventive serum factories, veterinarian stations and prevention units

as its subordinate organizations. Much effort was devoted to the prevention of rinder pest, the cure of veterinary diseases for stage transportation animals, the manufacture of preventive serums, and the training of veterinarians. In 1944, 90,717 heads of cattle were under treatment and cured with 1,196 c.c. serums.

TABLE IV. EPIZOOTIC PREVENTION ORGANIZATIONS, MANUFACTURE OF SERUMS, AND HEADS OF CATTLE FOR PREVENTION, 1944

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Serums Manufactured (in c.c.)</i>	<i>Heads of Cattle for prevention</i>
Northeast Veterinary Disease Prevention Center	608,490	79,097
Chinese Veterinary Disease Prevention Center	220,757	7,354
Honan Veterinary Disease Prevention Center	21,940	44
Southeast Veterinary Disease Prevention Center	30,140	2,170
Sichang Animal Husbandry and Reclamation Experimental Station	17,820	2,052
National Animal Husbandry Experimental Bureau	297,474	
Total	1,196,621	90,717

IV. FORESTRY DEVELOPMENT

A. Promotion of Forestry.—The following is a detailed account of the forestry organizations and their contributions in 1944:

TABLE V. FORESTRY ORGANIZATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS, 1944

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Number of Sprouts Planted</i>	<i>Number of Trees Planted</i>
National Forestry Experimental Bureau	533,937	30,119
Chinling, Shao River, Tatu River, Chlien Mountain, Chinsha River, and Yalung River Forest districts	3,438,580	1,400,760
Shuiyuan Forest Districts	320,800	2,700,000
Kweichow, Kwangtung and Kwangsi Economic Forestry Station	1,166,413	144,480
People's Forest Supervisory and Experimental District, Hung River, Hunan	1,010,200	2,747,900
Total	6,489,930	7,023,259

B. Supervision of Forest and Sprout Planting in the various Provinces.—In the field of forestry in recent years, the Ministry laid emphasis on the extensive planting of trees and sprouts possessing economic value, and the encouragement of plantation by the masses in the various provinces. Table VI gives the details of the work in 1944.

TABLE VI. PROVINCIAL FOREST PLANTING AND SPROUT PLANTING, 1944

Province	Number of Sprouts Planted	Number of Trees Planted
Szechuen	13,388,264	7,996,341
Shensi	4,382,564	9,822,042
Ninghsia	2,220,000	694,986
Kiangsi	9,387,141	6,057,302
Kweichow	25,998,355	18,360,508
Yunnan	3,399,489	17,526,429
Kansu	3,966,604	3,321,221
Shansi	58,400	164,000
Anhwei	5,437,610	3,145,780
Hupei	1,799,210	563,517
Total	70,027,637	67,652,126

V. THE RECLAMATION OF WASTE LAND

A. Investigation on the Reclamation Work.—An investigation on the reclamation work was undertaken in 1944 by the Ministry to ascertain the activities carried out by the various national, public, and private reclamation organizations. Reports made indicate that 82 units of reclamation organizations were established in Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Szechuen, Hupei, Hunan, Yunnan, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu, and Ninghsia, the total area of land reclaimed increased to 129,666 *shih mow*, the number of reclaimers raised to 18,180 (4,179 families), and the total amount of food production was 144,680,027 *shih piculs*.

B. Promotion of National Reclamation Districts.—Reclamation districts under the direction of the Ministry included: (1) West-east Mountain Colonization and Reclamation District, Szechuen; (2) Yungchang Reclamation District, Kansu; (3) Pinhai Reclamation District, Fukien; (4) Sichang Reclamation and Animal

Husbandry Station, Sikang; (5) Chinfu Mountain Reclamation Experimental District, Szechuen; (6) Lulung Mountain Reclamation District, Kweichow; (7) Taining Reclamation District, Sikang; and (8) Kwanwai Reclamation District, Kansu. In 1944, 752 reclaimers and 463 crippled soldiers were recruited in these districts, and a total area of 39,451 *shih mow* was reclaimed.

C. Supervision of Reclamation Work in the Various Provinces.—The Ministry appointed a number of technicians in 1944 to the various provinces of Kiangsi, Anhwei, Fukien, Chekiang, Hunan, Kwangtung, Shensi and Honan, which were drawn up into 5 supervisory districts. Each supervisory district was represented by a number of supervisory specialists and technicians who would be responsible for the administrative and technical work in the various provinces within that district. As a result, the total area of waste land under reclamation reached 500,000 *shih mow*.

TABLE VII. PROVINCIAL RECLAMATION ACREAGE, 1944

<i>District</i>	<i>Reclamation Land (in shih mow)</i>	<i>Area Reclaimed (in shih mow)</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Kiangsi and Anhwei ..	110,000		No report submitted owing to the war situation
Hunan and Kwangtung .	160,000		
Fukien & Chekiang ..	80,000		
Shensi ..	100,000	115,675	"
Honan	50,000	39,410	
Total ..	500,000	155,085	

VI. THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL ECONOMY

A. Improving Farm Management and Promoting Rural Reconstruction.—Instructions were given by the Ministry to the Farm Management Supervisory Commis-

sioners' Offices in the various locations to undertake the work of directing the farmers to improve the management of their own farms and to promote rural reconstruction. Table VIII gives a detailed account of work accomplished.

TABLE VIII. ACHIEVEMENT ON FARM MANAGEMENT, 1944

<i>Kind of Work</i>	<i>Results Achieved</i>
Directing farmers to organize farm management and improvement organizations.	37 farm management and improvement societies including 1,056 family memberships were established in (1) Huayang, Pa Hsien, Szechuen; (2) Nancheng, Kiangsi; (3) Chunyi, Kweichow; (4) Yeh Hsien, Honan; and (5) Chingyang, Shensi.
Introducing low-interest loans.	\$7,718,500 were allotted to farmers as Farm Management Loan through the recommendation of the various offices established by the Ministry.
Promoting the use of improved seeds and scientific methods of farming.	48,000 shih catties of rice and wheat seeds, 62,000 sprouts, and 52,062 fish fries were improved.
Assisting the farmers in preventing farm diseases and insect-control	48,000 <i>shih mow</i> of rice were free from caterpillar destruction, 1,325 <i>shih piculs</i> of wheat seeds treated with hot bed, and 403 heads of cattle inoculated against rinder pest.
Supervising water conservancy work	42,290 <i>shih mow</i> of rice field were irrigated.
Directing cooperative farming	33,510 <i>shih mow</i> of rice field were brought under cooperative farming.

B. Promoting Cooperative Farming.—In 1944, the Ministry made great effort in the establishment of cooperative farms. Two experimental districts at Peipei

and South Bank in Chungking and three offices for promoting cooperative farms at Suining in Szechuen were set up.

TABLE IX. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE COOPERATIVE FARMS, 1944

<i>Kind of Work</i>	<i>Results Achieved</i>
Expanding cooperative farms.	8 cooperative farms with 752 family memberships and 8,528 <i>shih mow</i> of land were organized.
Introducing cooperative loans.	\$4,966,300 were loaned to the farms by 3 cooperatives.
Directing cooperative farming.	Cooperative farming districts were set up at Suining and South Bank for fruit and vegetable plantations.
Assisting cooperative transportation, sale, and purchase	730 <i>shih piculs</i> of wheat and bean, 6,000 pounds of milk, 14,000 sugar canes, and 3,970,000 <i>shih catties</i> of vegetables were transported and sold; 14,250 <i>shih catties</i> of oil cakes and 12,112 <i>shih piculs</i> of fertilizers were purchased.
Assisting cooperative grazing	94 cows, 45 oxen, and 333 pigs were raised; a model animal husbandry station and a pig feeding station were set up.
Promoting domestic animal insurance	436 domestic animals, including cows and pigs, were insured through the Bank of China and the Farmers' Bank.

VII. POST-WAR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

With a view to carry out post-war agricultural development, the Ministry took great pain to deal with the agricultural problems in the reconversion period and the agricultural measures undertaken by the Puppet Government in the occupied areas. The general principles formulated by the Ministry are as follows:

A. National Reconstruction Program:

1. The National Agriculture, Forestry, and Animal Husbandry Experimental Bureaus are to be expanded.
2. The Marine Products Experimental Bureau and Agricultural Economics Research Bureau are to be established.
3. The country is to be divided into 9 agricultural districts as illustrated in Table X.

TABLE X. NINE AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS

<i>District</i>	<i>Provinces</i>
Northeast	Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and Jehol.
Yellow River Plain . .	Hopei, Shantung, Shensi, Honan and Chahar.
Mongolia	Mongolia.
Yellow Soil Plateau . .	Suiyuan, Ninghsia, Kansu, Chinghai, and Shensi.
Sinkiang	Sinkiang.
Lower Yangtze River . .	Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei.
Southeast Sea Coast . .	Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien and Taiwan.
Southwest	Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan, and Kweichow.
Tibet Plateau	Tibet.

In each district there shall be set up a large-scale farm and, if possible, an agricultural station, a forest station, and an animal husbandry station to promote the various work. A water and soil conservancy district will also be established.

4. 7 large-scale reclamation centers (in Northeast, Yellow Soil Plateau, Mongolia, Tibet, Southwest Sea Coast, Southwest, and Sinkiang), 4 Ocean Fishing Supervisory Districts (in Pe, Yellow, East, and South Seas), fishing ports and fish markets are to be established for reclamation work and development of fishery.
5. As soon as circumstances permit, the following factories are to be established in the 9 agricultural districts, namely, fertilizer, agricultural implement, insects control medicine and instrument, serum manufacturing, agricultural product, cattle product, sea product, fishing boat building, fishing instrument making, woodenware manufacturing, and dry distillation timber factories.
6. The National Extension Organization is to be enlarged.
7. The enterprise and management of government-owned forest are to be promoted.
8. Farm improvement work is to be strengthened.
9. Small-scale farm irrigation work is to be expanded.
10. The promotion and management of agricultural product markets are to be carried out.

B. Provincial Reconstruction Program:

1. Provincial, district, hsien, and village farms are to be established.
2. Provincial, district, hsien, and village extension and administrative organizations are to be strengthened.
3. Land registration and investigation on the relationship of the landlord and the tenant are to be undertaken.
4. Fishing districts and fishing grounds are to be redistributed.
5. Land surveying, land fertilization, and farm improvement are to be undertaken.
6. Full utilization of waste land, application of science for improving quality, employment of machine for the reduction of production cost, promotion of water conservancy for the prevention of drought and flood are to be attended to. The production of food, clothing and blanket materials, cattle products, sea products, woodenware, and horticultural products are to be encouraged.
7. Transportation facilities, warehouses, market management and sale system are to be established.
8. The supply of war material and the storage of food for the Army are to be increased.
9. The supply of industrial raw material is to be considerably increased.
10. Agricultural products and commercial commodities are to be improved.

The above-mentioned plan is formulated along the blue-print of the Post-war Twenty Year Agricultural Plan and in accordance with the principles laid down in the Ten Year Reconstruction Plan of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Program of Industrial Reconstruction Commission and the Five Year Reconstruction Plan of the Economic Planning Assembly. The objective of the plan is to bring about agricultural reconstruction in several stages during which industrial and mineral enterprises will be incorporated.

VIII. OTHER RELATED MATTERS

A. The Establishment of Extension Organizations.—The Ministry of Agricultural and Forestry, besides rendering assistance to Szechuen, Shensi, Kwangsi, Kansu, Honan, Hupeh, Hunan, Kweichow,

Fukien, and Chekiang provinces in the promotion of agricultural extension organizations, allotted subsidies for the establishment of agricultural extension and supervisory districts at Huayang and Pihian, Szechuen; Hanyang, Shensi; and Tiensui, Kansu. Other achievements of the Ministry included the setting up of 592 agricultural promotion bureaux in various *hsien* and assistance rendered to the agricultural extension experimental *hsien* of Huisui, Kweichow, Yungan, Fukien; Yunho, Chekiang; and Paishi, Kwangsi.

B. The Development of Small-scale Farm Irrigation.—The Ministry, with a view to prevent drought and flood for the increase of food production, adopted active measures to develop small-scale farm irrigation. A detailed account of the work is given in Table XI.

TABLE XI. ACHIEVEMENTS OF PROVINCIAL SMALL-SCALE FARM IRRIGATION PROJECTS, 1944

<i>Province</i>	<i>Project Engineering</i>	<i>Number of Project</i>	<i>Irrigated Area (in Shih Mow)</i>
Szechuen	reservoir, well, embankments and water-pump	9,000	450,000
Hunan . . .	reservoir and embankment	10,000	780,000
Kiangsi . . .	reservoir and embankment	4,000	140,000
Hupei . . .	reservoir and well	50	60,000
Chekiang . .	reservoir, embankment, and dike	500	100,000
Kwangsi . . .	reservoir	2,000	40,000
Shansi . . .	reservoir, well, and embankment	852	21,700
Fukien . . .	reservoir, well, and embankment	—	140,000
Anhui . . .	reservoir, embankment, and well	50,000	500,000
Kwangtung .	reservoir, embankment, well and sluice	4,000	200,000

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Shensi . . .	reservoir, well, dyke, and water wheels	5,460	170,000
Yunnan . . .	reservoir and embankment	—	50,000
Honan . . .	reservoir, well and gutters	—	20,000
Kansu . . .	reservoir and well	—	70,000
Kweichow . . .	reservoir and embankment	—	20,000
Sikang . . .	reservoir and embankment	—	30,000
Ninghsia . . .	gutter and embankment	—	10,000
Sinkiang . . .	gutter and embankment	—	10,000
Suiyuan . . .	gutter and embankment	—	10,000
Total . . .			2,841,700

C. The Manufacture of Insect Control Medicine and Implement.

—The insect control medicine and implement manufacturing and experimental factory of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry produced 20,352 *shih catties* of arsenic acid, calcium arsenic acid, aluminium carbonic acid, barium sulphuric acid, chrysanthemum powder and insect

glue besides 662 kinds of rat traps, pruning scissors, and sprinklers.

D. The Establishment of Bone-dust Manufacturing Factory.—The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in cooperation with the provincial governments established a number of Bone-dust Manufacturing Factories which produce 422,581 *shih catties* of bone-dust fertilizers.

CHAPTER XXXII

FORESTRY

D. Y. LIN (凌道揚)*

In the last edition of the China Year Book, 1943 the author pointed out the importance of forestry for the reconstruction period of China. He is now in a position to emphasize that far greater importance and emphasis must be placed on this national responsibility as China sets out to concentrate her efforts in rehabilitating her agricultural industries and rebuilding the nation as a whole. Real and long-term interest must be stirred up afresh in the formulation of a national forestry policy. In forest administration new projects will of necessity have to be planned. Reforestation should be undertaken as quickly as possible in war-devastated areas and in areas of long-time enemy occupation, where forests have been completely denuded by the Japanese, or depleted by the excessive drain on the immediate local sources due to lack of transportation and enemy restrictions in bringing in fuel from outside sources. Further, negligence and indifferent control by local authorities during the period of occupation too has meant wide-scale losses of young trees.

In this issue of the Year Book it is intended to review briefly, under the following headings, all

phases of the development of policy and administrative measures with regard to forestry instituted shortly before the end of the War by the National Government.

- I. Policy and Administration.
- II. National Forestation Work.
- III. Soil and Water Conservation.
- IV. Provincial and Private Forestation Work.
- V. Laws and Regulations of Forestry.
- VI. Some Statistical Data on Forest Resources.

I. FORESTRY POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in Chungking, in order to meet the needs of war and at the same time continue to strengthen the work of reforestation and protection of forests, took up the control and management of all natural forests and forests of strategic importance. At the same time the Ministry encouraged private enterprise in the development of hilly terrains and the reclamation of bare lands making them more suitable for forestation.

The Ministry took an interest in research into the properties and possible uses of the principal pro-

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ducts and by-products of various kinds of trees. It also encouraged private organizations to develop forests for fuel supplies. Detailed programs had been worked out, and most of the items were progressing smoothly in continuation of the work done in 1944. During the period of 1945, the most important activities of the Central Forest Research Bureau covered the following fields:

1. Cultivation and plantation of national economic forests.
2. The germination test of imported seeds and grafting.
3. Researches in entomology.
4. Researches on the working stresses and physical properties of timber and chu (bamboo).
5. Researches on the structure of timber and artificial means of seasoning and dehydration of timber.
6. Researches on the fibre structure of timber and chu (bamboo).
7. Experiments on tung oil and rubber.

Satisfactory preliminary results were obtained in the above experiments and researches. Forestation work that had actually been done included 533,936 seedlings raised and 47,508 trees planted, while 373,284 seedling for forestation extension work were also raised.

II. NATIONAL FORESTATION WORK

In this field, the Ministry endeavoured to improve upon the work of the previous year to draw up new schemes for greater efficiency in forest administration.

The following is a brief account of the work of the Ministry toward national forest administration under the headings.

A. Protection and Management of National Forests.

—Under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, there were originally eight national forest administration centers. In the present year one of these at Ya Lung Kiang (雅龍江) was dissolved. Meanwhile, the centers at Min Kiang (泯江) and Ching Yi Kiang (青衣江) respectively were combined into a single administration station to be established at Ta Tu Ho (大渡河). These are some of the more notable results accomplished by the various administration centers as given in the report issued by the Ministry.

Reconnaissance of 3,308,000 shih mow (市畝) of forested area has been completed with an estimated stumpage of 2,222,453,728 cubic shih chih (市立方尺). Private ownership of forests, which has been resumed, includes an area estimated at 1,998,137 shih mow. One thousand two hundred and five permits to private organizations or persons for cutting, and 89 more for charcoal-making, have been granted. Eight private timber trading firms have been registered in the archives of the Ministry. Inspection of 4,153,940 cubic shih chih has been undertaken, besides the raising of 4,350,510 seedlings and the forestation in areas of 6,205 shih mow.

It is evident that the figures given above do not include those in the Japanese occupied areas and that data relating to private organizations that have not been re-

ported to the Ministry have also been excluded.

B. Protection and Management of Economic Forests.—There were four economic forest centers under the management of the Ministry. In the present year the second center was amalgamated with the one at Chin Ling (秦嶺) to form a new working station. When the Japanese made further headway in their drive into the interior during the last months of the War, the third and fourth economic forest centers also fell into their hands, which was a heavy loss to our forestation in the year.

Achievements made in connection with the work done in economic forest centers may be summarized as follows:

1. Raising of 1,166,413 seedlings in nurseries.
2. Plantation of 1,350.7 shih mow.
3. Distribution of 37,912 seedlings for the encouragement of forestation work.

III. FOREST SOIL AND WATER CONSERVATION

The work of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry with respect to forest soil and water conservation has only just been initiated. The activities in this connection are therefore limited to experiments and demonstrations with the help of the technical services of American experts. Up to the present, one experimental center in Tien Shui (天水) and two work stations in Ping Leung (平涼) and Lang Chow (蘭州) have been established, while another work station at Si Kiang (西江) and a demonstration station at Chungking are

being organized. Let us make a brief review of their respective work.

The experiments so far conducted by the Tien Shui Soil and Water Conservation Experiment Center are:

A. Propagation of Soil-holding Plants.—Studies were made of distribution, manner of growth, immunity from cold and drought and from erosion, of trees. Altogether 137 species of grass seeds, both domestic and American, were propagated, and 34.45 shih sha (市石) of grass seeds were collected, and 1,345 seedlings of fruit trees raised.

B. Soil and Water Conservation Experiment for Slope Land.—Experiments as to the extent to which slope lands may be utilized, and plans to turn such areas into fertile fields with drainage from ditches, so as to increase production of crops, were effectively carried out.

C. Selection of Terrace Areas for Erosion Experiment.—On slope land of different grades various crops were planted and results compared to find out the factors which individually and collectively made up the effect of erosion. Nineteen reservoirs and two precipitation ponds were built this year. Five sets of records were obtained from the experiments carried out at different times.

D. Drainage Control.—The drainage system in areas where water tended to collect or overflow was regulated. Eighty-five earth dykes, on which 1,580 willow trees and a considerable quantity of grass seeds were planted, were constructed.

E. Afforestation on Barren Hills.—Trees were selected and planted on barren hills, and the results from the different species compared. Private afforestation work on such barren land was also encouraged.

F. Retaining Silt with Willow Hedges.—An effective means was sought to hold the speed of the current in rivers, especially at high tide, and to facilitate the accumulation of silt and sand. The economical and simple method of afforestation of willow trees on sandy shoals, which may also create new tracts of low land with fertile soil, was used.

G. Afforestation on River Banks.—It was decided to plant trees on river banks in order to check the broadening of river beds. During the present year, 30,280 trees were planted for this purpose.

Some remarkable work was done in the Soil and Water Conservation Experiment Center in Si Kiang, with the assistance of some American experts. In continuance of the valuable work so far advanced by Dr. W. C. Lowdermilk,* an expert on soil and water conservation, and adviser to the Executive Yuan, who had done so much in the reconnaissance and design of the Si Kiang, the Chinese

TABLE 1. NATIONAL FORESTRY WORK 1940-1944

Name of Organization	Year	Nursery (mow)	No. of Seedlings in Nursery	No. of Seedlings Planted in Area	No. of Seedlings Extended	Remarks
1st Forest center	1942	140.18	241,642	58,703		
	1943	140.18	317,000	72,480		
	1944	140.18	334,860	70,260	30,790	
2nd Forest center	1941	25.00	89,985		32,100	This center was dissolved in March, 1943 and its work has been taken over by the Chin Lin Forest center.
	1942	353.00	737,990	23,743	125,975	
	1943	353.00	2,204,207	173,885		
3rd Forest center	1941	129.00	205,260			
	1942	174.60	443,519	406,682	2,358	
	1943	201.60	759,433	415,973	42,191	
	1944	263.86		330,300	12,346	
4th Forest center	1941	147.00	3,880,000	1,589,151		
	1942	152.00	24,000	16,448		
	1943	160.20	20,000	13,715		
	1944	169.35	19,166	1,900		
National Forestry Research Bureau	1942		10,371		69,981	
	1943	144.60	1,643,904	900	80,880	
	1944	144.60	1,155,877		296,671	
Total	1941	301.00	4,175,245	1,589,151	32,100	
	1942	819.78	1,457,522	505,576	198,314	
	1943	999.58	4,944,544	676,953	123,071	
	1944	719.99	1,509,903	403,360	339,807	

* President of the American Geophysical Union; Vice-Director, U.S. Soil Conservation; and world authority on forest, soil and water conservation.

TABLE 2. PROVINCIAL

<div> <div>Year</div> <div>Description</div> </div> <div>Provinces</div>	1942			1943	
	Nursery (mow)	No. of Seedlings in Nursery	No. of Seedlings Planted	Nursery (mow)	No. of Seedlings in Nursery
Shensi . . .	3,587.77	28,683,133	33,314,125	1,621.29	7,993,529
Ninghsia . . .	895.00	23,653,670	21,547,255	238.00	360,595
Hunan . . .	4,512.00	88,197,819	110,083,187	2,560.00	24,000,000
Hupei . . .	1,152.00	3,647,820	14,469,990	610.00	1,881,920
Kiangsi . . .	53,447.20	120,629,000	22,307,000		9,362,000
Kweichow . . .	5,485.00	32,270,604	21,123,989	5,486.00	17,594,693
Yunnan . . .	1,828.10	11,194,852	200,132,295	653.10	3,035,750
Chinghai . . .		6,663,350	6,663,350	293.00	3,086,168
Kwangtung . . .	5,878.00	5,278,050	17,559,587		
Fukien . . .	1,314.33	47,559,693	156,857,790		2,032,600
Kansu . . .	3,259.07	3,755,232	5,392,026	5,415.90	3,901,369
Shansi . . .	271.00	221,400	269,655	61.00	54,500
Honan . . .	14,195.94	26,063,368	47,376,557		659,893
Szechuen . . .	3,329.00	22,048,909	9,965,155	1,880.00	12,163,077
Chekiang . . .	826.27	22,195,319	1,310,325	301.85	4,051,871
Kwangsi . . .	3,937.00	144,266,995	118,424,570		55,903,687
Anhui . . .	1,336.20	9,653,639	8,835,041	767.10	6,433,390
Sikang . . .	160.00	458,000			
Sinkiang . . .					180,705
Suiyuan . . .					
Total . . .	105,413.38	595,440,763	796,632,797	19,887.84	152,695,752

Government invited Dr. Donald V. Shuhart to come over to China. Dr. Shuhart, accompanied by members of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, made visits to the southern provinces during the period from March to August, 1945. With the data thus gathered Dr. Shuhart undertook to design some soil and water conservation projects and to prepare an experiment center in the Si Kiang basin with a temporary office at Weishui (惠水) in Kweichow, which was to be removed to Liuchow (柳州) in Kwangsi after the evacuation of Japanese.

Dr. Shuhart also took up another soil and water conservation project for which he was preparing to set up an experiment center in Chungking somewhere at Koloshan. This center is to be under the direct supervision of the Central Forest Research Bureau.

IV. PROVINCIAL AND PRIVATE FORESTATION WORK

The Department of Forest Administration of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry made every effort to supervise and advise on the forestation work in the unoccupied provinces. Meanwhile,

FORESTRY WORK 1942-1944

1944					Total	
No. of Seedlings Planted	Nursery (mow)	No. of Seedlings in Nursery	No. of Seedlings Planted	Nursery (mow)	No. of Seedlings in Nursery	No. of Seedlings Planted
8,571,425	961.69	4,338,564	9,822,042	6,170.85	41,059,226	51,707,592
372,088	183.00	2,220,000	694,986	1,316.00	25,234,265	22,614,329
11,196,448				7,072.00	112,197,819	122,179,635
8,400,000	616.00	1,799,210	704,336	2,372.00	7,328,950	23,574,386
5,178,485			3,654,329	53,447.20	129,991,000	31,139,814
19,681,414	11,281.00	25,998,355	18,360,508	22,252.00	75,863,652	59,165,911
57,364,809	1,040.00	3,390,489	17,526,429	53,321.20	17,630,091	275,024,133
3,086,168				22,293.00	9,749,518	9,749,518
				5,878.00	5,278,050	17,559,687
17,918,996				1,314.33	49,592,203	174,776,786
5,163,162	10,129.60	3,956,604	3,321,221	18,804.57	11,613,205	13,876,409
287,498	65.00	58,400	164,000	397.00	334,300	721,359
9,483,778				14,195.94	26,723,266	56,860,335
5,472,945	2,104.00	13,388,264	7,996,341	7,313.00	47,600,250	23,434,441
4,250,244				1,218.12	26,247,190	5,560,569
20,999,260				3,937.00	200,770,682	139,423,830
5,851,280	675.00	5,437,610	3,145,780	2,778.30	21,524,639	17,832,101
				160.00	458,000	
7,686,433					180,705	7,686,443
166,812						166,812
191,131,245	27,055.29	60,646,496	65,390,032	224,150.51	809,477,011	1,053,054,274

private persons and organizations were encouraged to develop existing forests and to utilize bare land for forestation purposes.

The results achieved in this connection are given in the following tables. Comparison of the figures for the past three years, 1942-44 (Table 2) shows a drastic fall in the totals for 1944. The author believes that this is mainly due to the effect of the Japanese occupation of some of the forest areas, of which the statistical data would naturally be excluded.

V. LAWS AND REGULATIONS OF FORESTRY

It is now more than a decade since the promulgation in 1934 of the national laws and regulations relating to forestry in China. The rapid change in the economic and social conditions of the country because of the war makes it evident that most of the old laws and regulations have become obsolete and should be thoroughly revised. Although a revision of some of these laws and regulations has been made and proclaimed by the National Government, the author

nevertheless believes that this modified forestry code is still inadequate to cope with the future development of forestation work. Because of the coming of peace this work should now make rapid progress, whether through national, provincial, or private endeavour.

Besides the national forest code, there are supplementary forestry laws and regulations formulated by the different provinces to suit their own respective needs. These of course, agree in principle with the national code, but are more flexible in application, and up to date.

TABLE 3. PRIVATE FORESTRY WORK

<i>Province</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Seedlings Planted</i>
Shensi	up to 1941	9,389,396
"	1942	8,133,886
"	1943	5,940,447
Kwangsi	1941	20,387,695
"	1943	12,004,323
Hupei	1942-1944	5,038,434
Hunan	1943	11,579,309
Ninghsia	1942	6,080,526
Honan	1942	2,388,460
Kansu	1943	1,287,344
Total		82,229,820

TABLE 4. FORESTATION WORK IN MANCHURIA
(From the Japan-Manchuria Year Book, 1936)

<i>Forest Centers</i>	<i>Area of Plantation (in hectaire)</i>	<i>Stumpage (in cu. m.)</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Yalu Basin	662,733	86,904,000	
Tumen	825,685	116,871,422	
Sungari Basin	1,424,969	242,890,008	
Luilin	628,598	83,536,164	
Sansing	5,247,281	72,075,390	
Shuifen	2,415,084	149,726,442	
Greater Khingan	13,884,343	1,556,800,000	
Lesser Khingan	9,917,388	973,000,000	
Total	25,006,081	3,281,803,426	

- NOTES:—1. 1 hectaire=15 shih mow.
 1 cu. m.=27 cubic shih chih.
 2. The forest areas on the west of the Northern Manchurian Railway have not been taken into account.
 3. The stumpage figures were estimated in 1927

VI. SOME STATISTICAL DATA ON FOREST RESOURCES

The author would like to give as an appendix to this chapter some statistical facts in forestry gathered from two important sections of the nation, Manchuria and Formosa,

formerly under the Japanese occupation. The reader may have a glimpse of the development in forestry of these two large natural forest areas which will certainly play a very important part in providing materials required in post-war reconstruction.

TABLE 5. FORESTED AREAS IN FORMOSA
(From Japanese Agriculture Year Book, 1936)

<i>Centers</i>	<i>Forest and Pasture Areas (in 0.6988 hectaire)</i>			<i>Needle- leaf Type (in 1,000 koku)</i>	<i>Broad- leaf Type (in 1,000 koku)</i>	<i>(in 1,000 koku)</i>
	<i>Forest</i>	<i>Pasture</i>	<i>Total</i>			
Northern Formosa (Taihoki)	582,210	56,745	640,955	65,047	239,654	194,701
Central Formosa (Taichu)	270,474	142,459	412,933	89,285	86,395	175,680
Southern Formosa (Tainan)	401,027	226,644	627,671	32,153	105,197	137,350
Eastern Formosa (Karenko)	587,254	172,718	759,972	68,314	170,343	238,657
Total	1,840,965	600,566	2,441,531	254,799	491,589	764,388

Notes: 1 Koku=10 cu. Japanese feet.

It is worthwhile to note that out of the total area of 3,627,333 cho in Formosa, the forest and pasture areas are estimated to be 2,482,871 cho, comprising 68% of the whole area of the Island. Taking one thousand Formosians as a basis, the forest and pasture area allotted them is 541 cho. The forest and pasture areas are shown divided in three categories, namely, national, public and private, in the table.

TABLE 6. PERCENTAGE OF FOREST
AND PASTURE AREAS IN FORMOSA

<i>Classifi- cation</i>	<i>Areas (in cho)</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
National .	2,218,756	89%
Public . .	16,918	1%
Private .	247,197	10%
Total .	2,482,871	100%

Note: 1 cho=100 Japanese acres
or 2.45 acres.

CHAPTER XXXIII

WATER CONSERVANCY

HSUEH TU-PI (薛篤弼)*

Realizing the importance of developing a nation-wide hydraulic system which would be indispensable to national reconstruction, the Executive Yuan of the Chinese National Government in 1941 organized the National Conservancy Board. The primary purpose of the Board was to concentrate efforts on improving and developing irrigation canals so as to increase agricultural production for army as well as civilian consumption, to maintain navigable waterways in serviceable conditions to facilitate river transportation, to regulate river course and erect dykes to minimize dangers of flood and similar catastrophe, and to give particular attention to the hydraulic works in the various northwestern provinces. These efforts were doubled in the year of 1944. The following is an annual report, as done in the previous years, on the accomplishments for the current year.

I. DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURAL IRRIGATION

What left uncompleted during the preceding year was continued in 1944, during which twenty up-to-date irrigation systems were installed, with a capacity of irrigating 288,178 mow of land. Redred-

ging of ninety-seven existing canals in Kansu Province made irrigation of 740,164 mow of land possible. Similar measures were adopted in Suiyuan, Ninghsia, and their neighboring provinces. Summaries on works accomplished in the various provinces are enumerated below:

A. Szechuen Province—In addition to the four unfinished irrigation canals started in the previous year, the Conservancy Board planned to construct in 1944 another eight irrigation systems. Seven were completed, namely the Chengtsehyen Canal, the Hungjenyen Canal, the Newtaoyen Canal, the Siankiouyen Canal, the Chingshuichi Canal, the Chingliu Canal and the Yangsugyen Canal. The work of the remaining five, namely, the Liantan Canal, the Shabopo Canal, the Daokiangyen Canal, the Daweipa Canal and the Liupa Canal, is still in progress.

B. Sikang Province—Two irrigation systems were completed this year, including the Choukung Canal which began its construction in the previous year. The Tientsuan Canal drains an area of 4,700 mow.

*Chairman, National Conservancy Board.

- C. **Kweichow Province**—The work of the Board in Kweichow Province was to continue the construction of the three existing canals and a new irrigation system. The Kweifangwoo system was completed in June, 1934, irrigating 4,200 mow of land. Work on the Lieng Canal, the Chungchowtze and the Poltanhaitze systems is still in progress.
- D. **Kwangtung Province**—Among the three irrigation systems to be constructed, the Chihuanhsiang Canal was completed, irrigating 14,840 mow of land. Work on Funghan-shui Canal and the Shihshanwei Canal is still in progress, which, when completed, will irrigate 130,600 mow of land.
- E. **Yunnan Province**—A project on the irrigation system of the Chalicek Canal was instituted, which when completed, will irrigate 46,000 mow of land.
- F. **Kwangsi Province**—No effort was spared in the construction of the eight irrigation systems in Kwangsi, which, when completed, will irrigate 230,556 mow of land. Three systems, namely the Puluho, the Shihkiang and the Haiyuan, were completed, irrigating 64,300 mow of land. Work on the Kingi Canal, the Kangtang Canal, the Fengshan Canal and the Napo Canal was suspended because of the proximity of enemy forces.
- G. **Chekiang Province**—The construction of the Lukiang system was completed, irrigating 1,060 mow of land. The work of the partly constructed Wupinyen was continued, which, when completed, will irrigate 60,000 mow of land.
- H. **Anhwei Province**—Due to the shortage of manpower and material, the construction of the Shuhwei Canal was delayed, which, when completed, will irrigate 100,000 mow of land.
- I. **Fukien Province**—The construction of the Chotienhsiang irrigation system was continued, which, when completed, will irrigate 3,450 mow of land.
- J. **Hunan Province**—The construction of the Yunglou Canal was started, but was later suspended owing to the extension of military hostilities to that area. The Yunglou Canal, when completed, will irrigate 16,500 mow of land.
- K. **Hupeh Province**—Work on the four irrigation systems, namely, the Taohui, the Chingchen, the Shaoyang and the Tienhui, was continued. The Taohui system was completed, irrigating 1,400 mow of land, while the work of the remaining three is still in progress.
- L. **Honan Province**—Owing to the extension of hostilities into the province, the construction work on the Tuanhui Canal, the Yungsing Canal, the Minglou Canal, the Paihui Canal and the Yutung Canal was suspended. The work, when completed, will irrigate 327,510 mow of land.
- M. **Shensi Province**—The tunneling and drilling work on the Lohui irrigation system was continued, which, when completed, will irrigate 400,000 to 500,000 mow of land. How-

ever, the Kanhui Canal was completed, draining an area of 3,000 mow. Six additional canals, namely, the Hanhui, the Hsuhui, the Lihui, the Tinghui, the Paohui and the Loochui, were under construction.

N. Kansu Province—The construction work on the Ching-feng Canal, the Yunglo Canal, the Yungfeng Canal, the Lang-feng Canal and the Sufeng Canal was in progress. The irrigation systems of the Tao-hui Canal, the Puchi Canal and the Juihui Canal were completed, irrigating a total area of 80,000 mow. Ninety-seven old canals were redredged, draining an area of 740,164 mow.

O. Suiyuan Province—The construction of the Fusing Canal was started, which, when completed, will irrigate 225,000 mow of land.

P. Ninghsia Province—A special survey party was dispatched to the province to investigate the conditions of the old canals so as to make recommendations for further hydraulic engineering improvement.

Q. Chinghai Province—The project of the Tsochiapo Canal was instituted, which, when completed, will irrigate 13,000 mow of land.

R. Sinkiang Province—A special survey party was sent to study the hydraulic conditions of this province.

II. REGULATION OF RIVERS

In addition to the continuation of regulation programs left over in 1943, new engineering works

were performed between Shufu and Chungking section of the Chwan River and between Kwang-yuan and Bah Sui Kiang Tsung section of the Kialing River. Works on Sah Chee and Tsing Kiang were completed. Details of the various works accomplished are given below.

A. Golden Sand River.—The Golden Sand River flows through Yunnan, Sikiang and Szechuen provinces, and is known as the Yangtze after reaching Ipin where it meets with the Min River. The regulation and improvement work on the first section of the Golden Sand River, between Ipin and Mengku, covering a distance of 513.5 kilometers, was completed in July, 1941. An engineering bureau was set up to take charge of the conservancy and survey work. It was planned at that time to resume the work after the war with the assistance of foreign capital. In view of the urgent need for direct navigation between Ipin and Chingkiangchei, several survey parties were, however, organized in 1944 to study the numerous treacherous rapids and reefs of that section so as to make recommendations for further regulation work.

B. Kialing River.—The Kialing River flows through northern Szechuen, stopping at Chungking where it empties into the Yangtze River. The regulation work on the Chungking-Kwangyuan section of the Kialing River, covering a distance of 740.5 kilometers, had been successfully conducted since the water-rising period of 1943. The Chungking-Hekiang section was rendered navigable to shallow-draft steam boats all the year

round. The Hekiang-Nanche section was proved navigable by the Ming Sung Company, thus extending the navigation line to an additional 200 kilometers. Even during minimum level period, the Chungking-Kwangyuan section is navigable to 10 metric-ton junks, the load-carrying capacity being greatly increased.

The regulation work on the 198-kilometer section between Kwangyuan and Paisui and Kiangcheng was planned and will commence in the near future.

C. Min River—The Min River traverses the western Szechuen basin and meets the Golden Sand River at Ipin. The regulation work on the Loshan-Ipin section of the Min River, covering a distance of 160 kilometers, was continued as scheduled. Sixteen out of the twenty-two reefs and rapids along this line were improved. In order to study the results of the improvement, the Conservancy Commission, in conjunction with the Ming Sung Company and other relevant concerns, organized a number of survey parties in February, 1944, which carried out its work along the line from Ipin. It was reported that the minimum water level is 1.3 meters, navigable for steam boats of 3-foot shallow-draft all the year round.

D. Ipin-Chungking section of Chuenkiang—The Ipin-Chungking section of the Chuenkiang, covering a distance of 378 kilometers, was rendered unnavigable by the presence of numerous silts and treacherous rapids. However, in August, 1944, improvement work was undertaken on the three most treacherous places, namely, the Shawnanhai, the Lengshihtan, and the Chiuchihpei.

E. Chikiang—The Chikiang 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 Chikiang. The Chikiang flows northwestward 135 kilometers to Kiangching hsien of Szechuen where it empties into the Yangtze. The improvement work on the Sanchi-Wucha section of the Chikiang, covering a distance of 45 kilometers, remained unfinished. However, the work of the installation of the Dashing, the Dali and the Daming locks was resumed in September, 1944, and was completed by the end of the year.

F. Wukiang — The Wukiang traverses Szechuen and Kweichow and empties into the Yangtze at Fuling hsien, its total length being 601 kilometers. After several years of regulation and improvement work, the 135-kilometer section between Payling and Pounshui has been rendered navigable for steam boat; the 54-kilometer section between Pounshui and Kungtan navigable for junks; and the 195-kilometer section between Kungtan and Suan navigable for 20-tin junks. Regulation and improvement work has continued in order to facilitate direct steam boat navigation between Payling and Kungtan.

G. Chihshui River—The Chihshui River flows through Szechuen and Kweichow provinces and empties into the Yangtze at Hokiang hsien of Szechuen, having a total length of 210 kilometers. It is one of the four main transportation routes for Szechuen salt destined for Kweichow. The re-

gulation and improvement work on the 58-kilometer section between Chihshui hsien and Dayuen-hoa was completed and Dayuentan, once unnavigable, was rendered serviceable, thus greatly facilitating the transportation of salt. As scheduled, the first stage in the regulation of the 12-kilometer section between Yuenhoa and Too-cheng was completed, and navigation was possible. A project to regulate the section between Erlangcheng and Masongbing was instituted.

H. Shachi—The regulation and improvement work on the 147-kilometer section between Yunan and Nanping of the Shachi was started in the spring of 1942 and was completed before the water rising period of 1944. After a trial trip undertaken by the Communication Bureau of the Fukien Provincial Government with a charcoal-powered boat, the 30-kilometer section between Shashen and Siangyun was proved navigable and work performed on the other sections was found to be likewise satisfactory.

I. Huangshui—The regulation and improvement work on the 66-kilometer section of the Huangshui, between Shiantanhsia and Dachachuen, was started in July, 1943 and by the end of 1944, the four major rapids were regulated while work in the other six places was in progress.

J. Tao Ho—The work of regulation and improvement on the Tao Ho was started in May, 1943 and by June, 1944, the Newbihsia section was completed. The river was proved navigable, but several parts of it still required improvement.

K. Tsiang Kiang—The regulation and improvement work on the 35-kilometer section of the Tsiang Kiang between Lianghokoa and Enszu was continued in 1944 and was completed by the end of the year. It is now navigable to five to ten tons steam boats all the year round.

III FLOOD PREVENTION

Flood prevention in the form of repair and construction of dykes was confined to the Yellow River, Yangtze River, and Pearl River regions and areas along the Han River in Hupei Province.

A. Yellow River—A special engineering bureau was organized by the Yellow River Conservancy Board and the Honan, Shantung, Kiangsu and Anhwei provincial governments to take charge of the dyke-repairing and bank-protection work of the Yellow River after the water rising period of 1943. The work of the bureau was classified into fifteen categories and divided into three stages. By the end of March, 1944, the dyke-repairing work at Yungtsun, Sung-sangkua, Shihpokuo and Gishaloo as well as two-thirds of the bank-protection work were completed. The flood-retention, anti-erosion and soil conservation work at Gilikang would have also been completed had not the enemy troops crossed the Szu River. The work was, however, continued by the local municipal government with the cooperation of the local troops.

The dyke-repair, bank protection and sluice-gate building work was carried out in several stages, and by the end of 1944, 40 sluice-gates were installed over a total area of 28,350,320 cubic meters,

with a beneficial value estimated to be approximately \$11,825,650,000.

B. Yangtze River and Han River—The conservancy work of the Yangtze River was suspended because of the proximity of enemy forces, while that of the Han River was continued according to plan. During the flood water season in 1943, breaches occurred in the Han River region at the section between Louloanmiao and Wanshan, covering a distance of 1,900 cubic meters. Thanks to the unceasing efforts of local troops and civilians, the situation was saved. Work on the dyke-breaks was started immediately. In September, 1944, bank-protection work was completed for a distance of 700 meters and six new dykes were built.

C. Pearl River—The dyke-repair and bank-protection work on the East River, the North River and the West River of the Pearl River was started in March, 1944, and the major part was completed in May. In June, precaution was taken against the water-rising period. But the water-rising period came earlier than it was expected and the West River registered an alarming rise at two points. The water level was only 60 cm lower at Kaoyaoshui and 20 cm lower at Kaomingho than the highest records of 1915. Thanks to the timely efforts of the local population, no damage was caused. However, several breaches at Dasha and Honshin caused heavy damages. Repair work was rendered extremely difficult by the proximity of enemy forces.

CHAPTER XXXIV

LAND ADMINISTRATION

CHENG CHENG-JU (鄭震宇)*

The land Administration in China has, at present, two main tasks: firstly, the registration of land ownership so as to facilitate land taxation; and secondly, the extension of protection and assistance to the tenants and to the self-farming land-owners in achieving the goal of "land for every tiller." The activities of the National Land Administration, since its inception in June, 1942, were mainly conducted on these two lines. During the period under review, (January 1944 to June 1945), the work of the National Land Administration can be summarized in six items, namely, Consolidation of Land Administration Organs, Registration of Land Ownership, Enforcement of Land Assessment, Levy of Land Tax, Assistance to the Self-farming Land Owners and Protection of Tenants. The following sections will deal with each item separately.

I. CONSOLIDATION OF LAND ADMINISTRATION ORGANS

With a view to ensuring the proper implementation of its land administration, the National Land Administration undertook to re-organize all land administration organs. Bureaus of land administration were inaugurated in

Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Kweichow, Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Chinghai and Yunnan and the city of Chungking. Divisions of land administration incorporated in the Bureau of Civil Affairs were established in Chekiang, Sikang, Hupeh, Anhwei and Honan. Land administration in the hsien is under charge of a Land Ownership Identification Office and a Land Registration Office. Up to June 1945, the N.L.A. listed 37 land ownership identification offices, 27 land registration offices, 132 divisions of land administration and subdivision of land administration in various provincial and hsien governments.

II. REGISTRATION OF LAND OWNERSHIP

After the establishment of the National Land Administration in June 1942, the work of registration of land ownership was continued in those provinces where such work had already been started. In the latter half of 1942, ownership registration was begun in ten provinces, i.e., Szechuen, Shensi, Kansu, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Hunan and Kiangsi.

* Director-General, National Land Administration.

TABLE I. SHOWS THE WORK OF LAND OWNERSHIP REGISTRATION BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN THE LATTER HALF OF 1942

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. of Urban Districts</i>	<i>No. of rural Districts</i>
Kiangsi . .	4	18
Hunan . .	12	28
Szechuen . .	14	
Shensi . .	4	
Kansu . .	4	
Fukien . .	4	
Kwangtung . .	6	
Kwangsi . .	3	
Kweichow . .	4	15
Total . .	55	61

The National Land Administrative Conference held in December 1942 adopted a resolution to continue the work of land registration in the interior provinces in 1943. The project covered a total of 854 urban and rural districts.

TABLE II. SHOWS THE PROGRAM OUTLINED BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION FOR LAND OWNERSHIP REGISTRATION IN 1942

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. of Urban and Rural Districts</i>
Szechuen . .	121
Kwangtung . .	100
Hunan . .	100
Kweichow . .	80
Shensi . .	80
Kwangsi . .	60
Kansu . .	60
Kiangsi . .	50
Fukien . .	50
Yunnan . .	40
Chekiang . .	40
Honan . .	20
Hupeh . .	15
Ninghsia . .	10
Suiyuan . .	10
Anhui . .	10
Sikang . .	4
Chinghai . .	4
Total . .	854

All these provinces listed above had completed the work as planned, except Yunnan, Honan, Chinghai, where the delay is said to be due to the lack of adequate personnel and proper equipment.

TABLE III. SHOWS THE WORK OF LAND OWNERSHIP REGISTRATION BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1943

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. of Urban Districts</i>	<i>No. of Rural Districts</i>
Chekiang . .	29	14
Anhui . .	5	9
Kiangsi . .	45	5
Hunan . .	37	295
Sikang . .	2	—
Hupeh . .	—	2
Szechuen . .	54	60
Shensi . .	56	27
Kansu . .	33	8
Fukien . .	21	48
Kwangtung . .	51	49
Kwangsi . .	35	39
Kweichow . .	15	11
Suiyuan . .	6	4
Ninghsia . .	9	4
Total . .	398	575

TABLE IV. SHOWS THE REGISTRATION OF LAND OWNERSHIP IN URBAN AND RURAL DISTRICTS BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1944

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. of cities</i>	<i>No. of districts</i>
Szechuen . .	24	13
Kweichow . .	18	15
Kiangsi . .	20	31
Kansu . .	2	4
Yunnan . .	10	4
Kiangsi . .	7	3
Fukien . .	10	1
Chekiang . .	1	8
Sikang . .	5	2
Anhui . .	7	5
Hupeh . .	14	2
Honan . .	3	9
Total . .	121	97

LAND ADMINISTRATION

The year 1944 was marked by the great progress made in urban land ownership registration which was carried out in Szechuen, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kansu, Chekiang, Sikang, Anhwei, Honan and in Hupeh. All these provinces except Fukien where the work was hampered by war, completed their work as planned.

The projected plans for the registration of land ownership in rural districts in 1944 were estimated at 4,500,000 mow in Szechuen; 1,000,000 mow in Kweichow; 1,500,500 mow in Kwangsi; 2,000,000 mow in Honan; 3,500,000 mow in Kwantung; 5,000,000 mow in Shensi; 2,500,000 mow in Kansu; 2,500,000 mow in Kiangsi; 1,500,000 mow in Fukien; 750,000

mow in Chekiang; 2,000,000 mow in Suiyuan; 400,000 mow in Honan and 800,000 mow in Hupeh.

In 1945, the National Land Administration extended its work of rural land ownership registration to the interior provinces with a view to pushing ahead the New Hsien System and paving the way for local self-government. A total of 25,000,000 mows in Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Fukien, Shensi, Kansu, Suiyuan, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Hupei, Chekiang, Sikang, Anhwei, Hunan and Honan was earmarked for identification. All but Honan where war hampered its work, completed their project as planned. Up to June 1945, the work may be outlined as follows:

TABLE V. WORK OF CITY LAND OWNERSHIP IDENTIFICATION BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1942, 1943, AND 1944

Provinces	In the latter half of 1942		in 1943		in 1944		Note
	Areas for land surveying (mow)	Area of land registration (mow)	Areas for land surveying (mow)	Area of land registration (mow)	Areas for land surveying (mow)	Area of land registration (mow)	
Szechuen	69,241 (including 8 counties of peipei)	97,125	97,510	101,810	23,357	22,663	
Yunnan					5,356	3,222	
Kweichow	30,814	16,873	36,361	24,002	45,950	36,563	
Fukien	15,574	16,197	69,525	135,311	14,217	17,255	
Shensi	176,902	36,692	83,073	56,118			
Kansu	47,207	17,451	286,962	60,427	28,330	10,886	
Suiyuan			23,904	17,161			
Kwangtung	13,133	136,775	158,659	676,062			
Kiangsi	8,778	14,397	92,440	115,720	13,389	17,051	
Hupeh			800	4,369	11,194	5,596	
Chekiang			60,228	93,737	15,150	31,885	
Sikang			6,531	3,290	15,598	6,198	
Anhwei			10,450	12,423	17,223	No report available	
Hunan	50,634	39,215	158,561	152,216			
Kwangsi	8,308	14,313	99,183	106,305	47,016	45,937	
Honan					16,426	*	
Ninghsia			12,463	6,959			
Total	420,591	389,044	1,196,655	1,395,910	253,206	177,261	

*Work discontinued due to war.

As regards the work of land ownership registration in Peipei, statistics tabulated as follows:

<i>Localities</i>	<i>Areas surveyed (mow)</i>
Tsaoyangcheng . .	19,528,062
Wangkuccheng . .	35,139,722
Lungfenghsiang . .	34,569,145
Chingonhsiang . .	22,017,213
Chenkiangcheng . .	67,447,903
Erhaihsiang . .	23,948,141
Peimiaohtsiang . .	13,444,194
Wenhshihsiang . .	22,949,608
Total	239,043,990

III. ENFORCEMENT OF LAND ASSESSMENT

Land assessment is an essential to land taxation and fixation of

land prices. It is executed in accordance with the Wartime Regulations Governing Land Prices. The Wartime Regulations for Land Ownership Registration provide that the price of land should be fixed after the surveying and registration are completed. After the first assessment of land is made, if the price of land suffers a large fluctuation from the original price, there may be a re-assessment of the same land. From June 1942 to June 1944, 1093 cities have completed the work of land assessment and 72 cities the work of reassessment. A total of 1,560,000 mows valued at \$19,863,104,000 was levied. The work of land assessment and land reassessment in the years 1942-1944 may be outlined as follows:

TABLE VI. SHOWING THE LAND ASSESSMENT BY NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1942

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. of cities completing the work of land Assessment</i>	<i>Areas of land taxation (mow)</i>	<i>Total price of land (National currency)</i>	<i>Rate of Taxation</i>	<i>Land tax levied (National currency)</i>
Szechuen	14	41,000	373,888,000	1.6%	5,838,000
Kwangsi	3	7,000	22,862,000	Improved land 1.5% unimproved land 2% barren land 3%	514,000
Hunan .	12	45,000	181,167,000	1.5%	2,690,000
Kwangtung	6	13,000	74,287,000	2 %	1,845,000
Kiangsi .	4	8,000	62,073,000	1.5%	931,000
Shensi .	4	16,000	20,594,000	1.5%	308,000
Fukien .	4	12,000	84,088,000	2 %	1,681,000
Kweichow .	4	23,000	167,633,000	1.5%	2,514,000
Kansu .	4	21,000	53,256,000	Improved land 1.5% unimproved land 2% Barren land 3%	895,000
Total . .	55	186,000	1,039,848,000		17,216,000

LAND ADMINISTRATION

TABLE VII. SHOWS THE WORK OF THE LAND ASSESSMENT BY THE
NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1943

Provinces	No. of cities completing the work of land Assessment	No. of cities having sent their reports on this work	Areas of land taxation (mow)	Total price of land (National currency)	Rate of Taxation	Land tax being levied (National currency)
Kwangsi	74	74	80,000	336,149,000	improved land 15% unimproved land 2% barren land 3%	5,205,000
Kwang-tung	100	100	178,000	2,337,918,000	2%	46,458,000
Hunan	248	248	145,000	1,624,725,000	1.5%	24,246,000
Kiangsi	50	50	93,000	485,505,000	1.5%	7,275,000
Szechuen	114	114	69,000	704,327,000	1.6%	11,783,000
Shensi	83	83	75,000	107,729,000	1.5%	2,707,000
Fukien	69	69	60,000	576,263,000	2%	11,425,000
Chekiang	43	41	56,000	333,319,000	2%	6,666,000
Suiyuan	10	9	16,000	668,000	3%	20,000
Ninghsia	13	13	12,000	3,962,000	1.5%	59,000
Kansu	41	41	131,000	452,074,000	improved land 1.5% unimproved land 2% barren land 3%	6,831,000
Sikang	2	2	6,000	96,155,000	1.5%	1,442,000
Anhwei	14	14	9,000	34,541,000	1.5%	518,000
Kweichow	26	26	21,000	284,145,000	1.5%	4,262,000
Hupei	2	2	6,000	29,455,000		441,000
Total	889	883	985,000	7,496,495,000		129,338,000

TABLE VIII. SHOWS THE WORK OF LAND ASSESSMENT BY THE NATIONAL
LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1944

Provinces	No. of cities having sent their records of land assessment	areas of land taxation (mow)	Total prices of land (National currency)
Szechuen	33	13,000	382,760,000
Kwangsi	42	30,000	208,440,000
Kweichow	31	30,000	437,653,000
Kiangsi	10	10,000	70,308,000
Kansu	7	10,000	49,484,000
Fukien	4		46,617,000
Chekiang	10		94,936,000
Sikang	5	5,000	51,070,000
Hupei	7	3,000	62,175,000
Yunnan	6	5,000	635,733,000
Total	155	106,000	2,039,176,000

LAND ADMINISTRATION

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TABLE IX. SHOWS THE WORK OF LAND REASSESSMENT BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1944

Provinces	Cities having sent their records of land assessment	Area of land taxation (mow)	Total price of land (National currency)
Szechuen . . .	52	90,000	3,949,656,000
Shensi . . .	3	40,000	1,242,960,000
Kansu . . .	2	17,000	243,094,000
Total . . .	57	147,000	5,435,710,000

According to the plan outlined by the National Land Administration in 1945, ten provinces including Szechuen, Kansu, Shensi, Kweichow, Sikang, Chekiang, Fukien, Suiyuan, Ninghsia and Kiangsi were chosen to begin the work

of land re-assessment. Up to June, 1945, 10 cities of Kansu including Lanchow, 2 cities of Sikang have begun this work, and the rest are being urged and directed to carry out such.

TABLE X. SHOWS THE PLAN OF LAND REASSESSMENT BY THE NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION IN 1945

Provinces	No. of cities designated to begin the work of land reassessment	Name of cities
Szechuen	28	Hungya, Longchung, Wuhsien, Chiehwei, Tungliang, Tachun, Anyao, Hsuyung, Lochih, Shehung, Chuhsien, Nanpu, Pengshan, Kikiang, Tahsien, Nanchung, Changming, Kwangan, Tanlen, Pengchi, Hokiang, Chingtang, Chunghsien, Laichih, Fuling, Loshang, Chungning, Kwangan.
Kansu	10	Lungsi, Kanku, Chingan, Changyi, Wuwei, Lintao, Chinchwan, Mapowchuan, Hweihhsien, Lanchow.
Shensi	9	Weinan, Lintung, Chenku, Tali, Hanyang, Fenghsiang, Kaoling, Hufeng, Wukung.
Kweichow	6	Tsangyi, Chincheng, Anshun, Lungli, Tungchih, Kweichu,
Sikang	2	Kanting, Yaan.
Chekiang	3	Yunho, Kingyuan, Lungyu.
Fukien	6	Changting, Lungai, Kienchen, Lungchi, Shima, Shenpa.
Suiyuan	1	Shenpa.
Ninghsia	1	Capital of Ninghsia.
Kiangsi	16	Kian, Kishui, Anfu, Yunghsia, Fengchen, Hsinking, Yungfeng, Nanfeng, Hsinyu, Chinkiang, Hsiakiang, Chinhhsien, Tung-hsiang, Changshucheng, Fenyi, Ichun.
Total	82	

IV. LEVY OF LAND TAX

Land tax is being levied in all provinces which have completed the work of land registration, land surveying and land assesment.

TABLE XI. SHOWS THE LEVY OF LAND TAXATION BY NATIONAL LAND ADMINISTRATION

Localities	No. of cities	Note
Chungking .	1	Counties Having levied land tax included.
Szechuen .	79	
Kweichow .	19	
Kwangtung .	14	
Kwangsi .	37	
Hupei .	19	
Hunan .	65	
Kiangsi .	32	
Fukien .	22	
Shensi .	16	
Kansu .	28	
Ninghsia .	11	
Suiyuan .	5	
Anhwei .	6	
Total . . .	354	

V. ASSISTANCE TO SELF-FARMING LAND OWNERS

Tentative measures have been taken in certain provinces to assist the self-farming landowners. There are the direct and the indirect methods: The direct method consists in Government requisition, and renting it to the farmers. The indirect method consists in loaning money to the farmers thus enabling them to rent or to buy land for themselves. In 1944 certain provinces as Kiangsi, Fukien, Szechuen, Ninghsia and Suiyuan were chosen to adopt the direct method. In 1945, several provinces in Southeastern China adopted this policy. In Suiyuan, besides the establishment of co-operative farms at Yungkang,

Yungtai and Taizen etc. a plan for assisting 800 households with farming area totalling 40,000 mow was formulated. Moreover, Holo and Yungning in Ninghsia, and Jenshu, Lopiang, Chengtu, Chulai, Chienyang, Suanglia, Miengyang, Hsientsin, Taii, Kwanghan Loshan and Chihkung in Szechuen were selected as model districts for assisting self-farming landowners. The 25th pao of Chienkiangcheng in Peipei was also assigned to do this work. There are at present 79 Hsien plus Wanghuischu performing this experiment. And a total of 14,582 households was assisted with farm area equal to 321,584 mows.

TABLE XII. SHOWS THE WORK OF ASSISTING SELF-FARMING LANDOWNERS

Provinces	No. of holds	farm areas (in mow)
Chekiang .	65	1,000
Kiangsi . .	600	16,799
Hunan . .	600	13,100
Szechuen .	901	44,522
Fukien . .	10,375	54,607
Kwangsi .	730	5,722
Kansu . .		75,854
Anhwei . .		
Hupei . .		
Kwangtung .		
Shansi . .	142	1,866
Suiyuan . .		96,611
Ninghsia .	230	11,500
Total . . .	13,643	321,581

VI. PROTECTION OF TENANTS

Measures to limit the maximum rate of land have been taken for the protection of tenants. It was enforced in accordance with the Regulations for Farm Tenancy in Land Law. Special Rules were formulated in each province to meet the special circumstances: (A) Measures for Enforcing Re-

gulations of Farm Tenancy in Land Law in Kwangsi, (E) Measures for Lowering Rate of Rent in Hupeh, (C) Temporary Measures for registering Tenancy contract in the Lienhsien Experimental District of Land Administration in Kwangtung, (D) Measures for the protection of Tenants in Kiangsi, (E) Rules for the Protection of Tenants in Suiyuan, (F) Measures for the Protection of Tenants in Shen-

si, and (G) Measures for the Protection of Tenants in Paihsien, Szechuen. Besides, the Hupeh Provincial Government undertook the work of lowering land rent in the 2nd Administrative District including Yinshan and Lotien and in the 6th Administrative District including Yuanan, Changyang, Wufeng, and Itu. Their main features can be summarized in the chart on the next page.

Provinces	Names of the Regulations	Main points of the Regulations	Enforcement of the Regulations
Hupei	Measures for lowering the Rate of rent	<p>(1) Rate of rent is fixed according to land law Art 177.</p> <p>(2) Lessor and lessee ordered to report the rate in time for registration.</p> <p>(3) Work of propaganda and direction needed for registration</p> <p>(4) Protection of tenancy contract after its registration</p> <p>(5) Procedure for handling cases of tenancy</p>	<p>The whole province was divided into districts for completing the work of lowering land rent in periods within five years. The 7th and 8th Administrative Districts had accomplished such work, while the 5th and 6th had performed the work of propaganda, investigation, registration, inspection and issuing of rental note. all went on smoothly.</p> <p>Furthermore, the Provincial Government Promulgated an outline for lowering Land Rent in 1945 and published a notice for the reference of <i>Hsien</i> in doing this work.</p>
Kwangtung	Temporary Measures for registering Tenancy Contract in Lienhsien District of land administration	<p>(1) All housing land and farm for rent must be registered irrespective of its having tenancy or not.</p> <p>(2) Lessor or Lessee must have his tenancy contract registered.</p> <p>(3) Hsien government issued a registration table containing names and addresses of lessor and lessee; location, area, and produce of land; kind and rate of rent; time for paying land rent; and others stipulated willingly by them.</p> <p>(4) Any change in the tenancy contract after registration must be registered.</p> <p>(5) After the completion of registration follows the work for inspection and statistics. The work must also be reported to the Bureau of Land Administration for approval.</p>	<p>Lienhsien began the registration of tenancy contract from November 1940, and completed it by June 1941. At present, Nanhsiung, Kiukiang, Juyuan, and Shih-sing are following its precedent and their work is to be finished within 6 months.</p> <p>To facilitate the work, each <i>Hsien</i> was divided into 2 or 4 districts according to its area, and one inspector, one chief register and several temporary clerks were appointed to each district for performing the work under the direction of the Section for Land Administration under Hsien Government.</p>

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>Names of the Regulations</i>	<i>Main points of the Regulations</i>	<i>Enforcement of the Regulations</i>
Kiangsi	Measures for protection of Tenants	<p>(1) The highest rate of land rent must not exceed the maximum rate fixed according to the Land Law (177) and the outline (6) of Wartime Land Policy.</p> <p>(2) Form of tenancy contract issued for registration.</p> <p>(3) Registration of tenancy contract was enforced by Hsiang or Cheng Office under the direction of Hsien Government.</p> <p>(4) Tenancy contract becomes effective upon registration, and its violation is deemed lawless and leads to sanction.</p> <p>(5) All tenancy contracts that have not been registered during the time for registration are invalid. Persons holding unregistered contract are not punishable.</p> <p>(6) Procedure for settling disputes of tenancy.</p>	The enforcement of limiting the rate of rent for the protection of tenants was carried out in accordance with these regulations.
Szechuen	Measures for protection of tenants in Paohsien	<p>(1) Rent in advance and deposit are prohibited. The maximum rate of rent is 37.5% of the principal production, or 10% of the price of land, provided rent is to be paid in National Currency.</p> <p>(2) On occasion of poor harvest reduction of rent may be agreed upon according to the local tradition. If the principal production is short of 30% of the normal crop, the tenant has to pay only the amount equal to half of the land tax in that year.</p> <p>(3) Tenancy contract must be registered according to these measures and the contract will come into effect upon registration.</p> <p>(4) Conditions available for depriving the tenants' right to rented land are restricted and the tenant's right protected.</p>	Protection of tenants in this Hsien was carried out according to these measures.

Provinces	Names of the Regulations	Main points of the Regulations	Enforcement of the Regulations
Kiangsi	Measures for enforcing regulations of Farm Tenancy in land law	(1) Defining the meaning of farm land tenancy (2) Tenancy contract must be made in folded paper, and rules for it are prescribed. (3) Former tenancy contract must be replaced by a new one after the enforcement of these measures. (4) Tenancy contract inconsistent with these regulations is invalid. (5) Rate of rent must be fixed according to land law (177). (6) Deposit for rent must be refunded to the lessee one month after conclusion of new contract. (7) Regulating time and method for paying rent. (8) Regulating owing of or exemption from rent for scanty harvest. (9) Regulating conditions and limitations for owing rent. (10) One can't depend upon his being one member of a clan to claim back the right of cultivation of the land belonging to his ancestral temple. (11) Regulating the organization and function of committee of various grade for enforcing the tenancy regulations. (12) Regulating procedure for mediating issues about tenancy.	These measures are guiding principles to limit the rate of rent for protecting the tenants.

CHAPTER XXXV

COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION

H. H. LING (凌鴻勳)*

I. THE ORGANIZATION

The Ministry of Communications comprises the secretariat, technical experts, counsellors, and the departments of railways, telecommunication, supplies, finance, navigation and civil aviation, general affairs, personnel, accounts and statistics. Each department has, under its control, various auxiliary organizations throughout China which are responsible for local communication and transportation. Besides these departments there are the Planning and the Supervising Commission, the Rehabilitation Commission and the Technical Standard Commission.

II. RAILWAYS

On account of the skyrocketing of prices of commodities in recent years and the shortage of materials and funds, progress made during the past year has not entirely measured up to our expectation. The fighting which devastated Honan, Hunan, Kwangsi and Kweichow during 1944 has wrought untold damage to our railway property and obstructed the construction of new lines. Despite almost insuperable obstacles, the repair of old lines and the construction of new ones have been carried on apace.

The Paoki-Tienshui Railway, which is nearing completion, is beset by numerous engineering difficulties. It runs for the most part through mountainous and rocky terrain. Eighty-one bridges and one hundred and twenty-nine tunnels have to be constructed; but these difficulties fade into insignificance compared to the problems of labor and the scarcity of materials. Part of the line is already in operation and the whole line is expected to be completed by the end of 1945.

The Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway was extended from Tushan to Tuyun during 1944. Towards the end of last year the whole line with a distance of 466 kilometers was damaged by enemy action, but as the war progressed in our favor, no time was wasted in putting the section between Tuyun and Nantan back into working condition. The section between Tuyun and Nantan will shortly be reopened.

The Chikiang Railway which runs between Kiangkow and Wucha Szechuen, covers a distance of 39 kilometers. With the exception of a few bridges, the line has been completed and will be open to traffic very shortly.

The Szechuen-Yunnan Railway, making use of the railway material

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salvaged from the disused Changpo-Anning section, was extended from Kutsing to Chanyi. The whole line between Kunming and Chanyi covers a distance of 171 kilometers.

A. Removal, and Destruction of Railways.—The extent of damage caused by enemy action in Honan, Hunan, Kwansi and the Kweichow border during 1944 is listed below:—

The Lunghai Railway: When the area between Chenghsien and Loyang fell into Japanese hands last year, the rails were removed from the section between Loyang and Wentichen for the use of other lines.

The Canton-Hankow Railway: In June 1944 when the area between Siangtan and Chaolinshi (昭陵市) was occupied by the Japanese, all the rails and accessories between the two towns was salvaged. The line between Kuentien (淦田) and Chifengtui was totally removed. The section between Lochang and Kukiang was like-wise completely salvaged. The line between Chifengtui and Lochang was still in operation as late as January 1945 when this section was occupied by the Japanese, so that the rolling stock, rails, accessories had to be dynamited.

The Hunan-Kwangsi Railway: The whole area fell into Japanese hands and the entire line had to be destroyed.

B. The Surveying of New Lines.—The preliminary survey for the following new lines has been completed:—

The Szechuen-Kweichow Railway, when completed, will run from Chungking to Kweiyang. It

will also connect Chuyangchi with Kweiyang and Lungchang with Kweiyang. Both sections will form a link with the projected Chungking-Chengtui Railway.

The Yunnan-Kweichow Railway will, upon completion, connect Kunming with Kweiyang. The construction of this line will be carried out by the gradual extension of the existing railway.

The reconnaissance for the following new lines has been completed:—

The Kwangyuen-Shangyang Railway will run from Yang-pingkwang to Laohokow.

The Chungking-Tzeyang Railway will run from Chungking to Tzeyang.

The Suchow-Wusu Railway will run from Suchow, Kansu, to Wusu, Sinkiang, in the North-West.

Surveying work along a few other suggested lines is now under consideration.

Railways in operation up to June 1944 in Free China total 2,238 kilometers. Since the battles in Hunan and Kwangsi last year, the Canton-Hankow, Hunan-Kwangsi, and Kwangsi-Kweichow Railways have fallen into Japanese hands one by one, so that the total length of railways still in operation adds up only to 1,208 kilometers. The above-mentioned railways run through the provinces of Hunan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Kweichow, and served as outlets for those provinces as well as facilitated the transportation of troops and war materials. The seriousness of the loss of those lines to the Japanese is almost impossible to estimate.

Railway materials, salvaged from the Lunghai Railway in Honan, were removed to Wentichen and Paoki. The Szechuen-Yunnan Railway, running from Kunming to Changyi and from Kunming to Changpo, has a total mileage of 196 kilometers. The Yunnan-Indo-China Railway, which joins Kunming with Pishichai, covers a distance of 287 kilometers. The section between Shangyao and Kiangshan of the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway is 85 kilometers in length.

C. Railway Mechanical Engineering Work.—The chief concern of the Ministry of Communications in this respect throughout 1944 and 1945 has been the hastening

the repair of locomotives and railway carriages, the setting up of coal supply depots, and the standardization of railway equipment. However, hostilities in Hunan and Kwansi have rendered it impossible to carry out our plans with entire success.

D. Repair of Locomotives and Carriages.—Realizing the difficulty of receiving railway materials and equipment from abroad during wartime, the Ministry of Communications hastened to increase the capacity of its repair shops so that the maximum number of locomotives and carriages might be kept in active service. The following table shows the work done in this field from August 1944 to March 1945.

	<i>The Lunghai Line</i>	<i>The Szechuen-Yunnan Line</i>	<i>The Yunnan-Indo-China Line</i>	<i>Total</i>
Locomotives	Major repairs 22	7	10	39
	Ordinary repair 9	10	2	21
	Minor repair 423	112	7	542
	Total 454	129	19	602
Coaches	Major repair 50	6	12	68
	Ordinary repair 85	26	2	113
	Minor repair 276	16	1	293
	Total 411	48	15	474
Freight cars	Major repair 82	11	9	102
	Ordinary repair 228	92	16	336
	Minor repair 1217	128	33	1378
	Total 1527	231	58	1815

E. Supply of Coal.—A coal supply depot has been set up in the Southeast to ensure the adequate supply of coal to railways operating in that area. Mining companies have been asked

to cooperate by increasing the production of coal.

F. Establishment of Railway Central Works.—In May 1944 all machine workshops under the Ministry of Communications and

some of those maintained by the different railways were amalgamated into Railway Central Works. Under its control are the Chenchung, the Liuchou, and the Kweilin Workshops, the Chuanchow Iron Works, the Hsingan Locomotive and Carriage Repair Yard, the Chuanhsien Carriage Depot, the Chuchow Office for the Administration of Machine Workshops, and the Kweilin Supplies Depot.

Since the Japanese invasion of Hunan and Kwangsi, most workshops and depots have been removed or concentrated at some point less vulnerable to Japanese attack and efforts are made to restore their working efficiency.

III. HIGHWAYS

Originally highway administration was under the direct control of the Ministry of Communications. In January 1945, the Government decided, for the sake of expediting transportation in wartime, that highway administration should come under the control of War Transportation Board of the National Military Council. Engineering and Transportation, which have hitherto functioned separately, were thus put under one control. Under the control of the War Transportation Board are the following bureaus:—The Southeast, Yunnan, Northwest, Southwest, West Szechuen-Yunnan, East Szechuen-Yunnan, Szechuen-Sikang, Szechuen-Shensi, Szechuen-Hunan, and Szechuen Highway bureaus.

A. Engineering Work. — New highway constructions during 1944 include: (a) The section, 410 kilometers in length, running

from Kantze to Hsieh of the Sikang-Chinghai Highway. This section was opened to traffic in October 1944. (b) The Hwanghoyen to Yushu section of the Chinghai-Tibet Highway, 334 kilometers in length, and opened to traffic in September 1944. (c) The section of the Stilwell Road running from Myitkyina to Paoshan. The Chinese section was completed in December 1944, and the Burmese section was opened to traffic in February 1945. (d) The Kansu-Ninghsia Highway, 544 kilometers in length, stretching from Lanchow to Ninghsia. The Kansu section, 250 kilometers in length, has been completed, while the work of surveying has been completed for the other section in Ninghsia. (e) The Mienhsien-Hsiu Highway, 242 kilometers in length, was completed in November 1944. (f) The Manfeng-Shaowu Highway, covering a distance of 214 kilometers, is still under construction. (g) The Nanfeng-Lichuan Highway, 53 kilometers in length, was opened to traffic in April 1945. (h) The Chiangshan-Changshan Highway, 22 kilometers in length, was completed in January 1944. (i) The Huangping-Chiuchow Highway, 20 kilometers in length, will be completed by the end of the year.

The total length of these nine highways amounts to 2,228 kilometers.

In addition to these new constructions, many bridges have been strengthened and facilities at ferries improved. And several sections of Highways in the Southeast, Southwest, and Northwest area have been improved and reconditioned.

Before the end of the Sino-Japanese war, many highways close to former battle fronts will be repaired and the resumption of traffic will be made possible shortly.

B. Bridges — Important bridge constructions include the rebuilding of 56 bridges from Kutsing to Tuyun along the Southwest Highway, capable of withstanding the maximum weight of 20 metric tons. Along the Northwest Highway, six large bridges have been rebuilt, while along the Szechuen-Shensi Highway 22 big and small bridges have been rebuilt, all withstanding the maximum weight of 15 metric tons.

The work of increasing ferry facilities and introducing night ferry service is in progress at rivers and fords along the East Szechuen-Yunnan Highway and the Szechuen-Kweichow Highway.

C. Transportation. — Owing to the pressing need of delivering military equipment to the fighting forces on the Southeastern front, a commission was set up in Kweiyang to command every available truck for the transportation of military equipment from air bases in the Southwest to the Southeastern front. The commission was later dissolved when the military situation took a better turn.

In May 1944, a Traffic Control Station was set up at the important highway junction at Kucheng to regulate both Government and private owned trucks for special duties. The Control Station was later removed to Chanyi where increased air traffic made the change necessary.

Stations have also been set up in Kunming, Kucheng, Chengtu and Liangshan to assemble trucks for carrying materials brought in by air to nearby highway bureaus for redistribution to various parts of the country.

D. Production and Supply of Motor Parts. — The majority of motor accessories, including rubber tyres and lubricating oil has been supplied by America under the Lend-Lease agreement. From October 1943 to September 1944, 729,626 tons has been brought in by air. These materials were earmarked for the use of military and Government transportation organizations, Allied military and Government establishments, and those commercial trucks commandeered by the Government. The total value of these supplies amounts to NC\$35,830,000.

Regarding the repairing of old trucks, two repair shops have been set up in Chungking and Kunming. The Sichang repair shop has been removed to Kweiyang. The Yilung workshop has been loaned to the American Army. A Tyre Retreading Factory was set up in Kweiyang in August 1944 with J. R. Mcfall, an American expert, as head of the factory.

The difficulty of securing raw materials has made it necessary to close all oil refineries. However, three factories are still operated by the War Transportation Board for the refining of wood-oil.

IV. STAGE TRANSPORTATION

A. Organization and Network of Roads. — up to June 1944, there were five main routes open to traffic, namely, the Szechuen-

Yunnan route, the Szechuen-Kweichow route, the Szechuen-Shensi route, the Kansu-Sinkiang route and the Sinkiang route. These five main routes were controlled by five administrative districts. Besides these five administrative districts was the Chungking Stage

Transportation Service. The total mileage in operation is as follows:—main routes, 6,689 kilometers; auxiliary routes, 2,481 kilometers.

The following table shows the starting points and the termini and mileage of the most important stage routes in operation.

Main routes	Sze-chuen—Yunnan	Sze-chuen—Kweichow	Sze-chuen—Shensi	Kansu—Sinkiang	Sinkiang	Chungking	Total
From	Luh sien	Chungking, Luh sien	Kwang-yuan	Lanchow	Singsing-sha	Chungking	
To	Kunming, Chengtu	Tushan, Chungking	Tienshui, Paoki, Chengtu	Singsing-sha	Hoerh-kwosze	Paimuchen	
Distance in kilometers (main lines)	1,378	937	1,738	1,548	847	241	6,689
Distance in kilometers (auxiliary lines)	110	705	155	321	1,166	24	2,481

Up to June 1944, branch lines were in operation in 12 provinces. Distance covered by main and auxiliary lines total 21,319 and 12,934 kilometers respectively. The provincial Government is responsible for the administration of

stage routes in Chekiang, Kiangsi, Szechuen, Sikang, Honan, Fukien; Kwangsi, Yunnan and Chinghai.

During 1944 the following two new international routes were opened.

Name of route	Sinkiang-India	Sikang-Tibet-India	Total
From	Yehcheng	Kangting	
To	Liehcheng	Korenpu via Lhasa	
Distance in kilometers	1,005	2,501	3,506

The Directorate-General of Stage Transportation was incorporated with the War Transportation Board in January 1945.

B. Stage Transportation In The Northwest.—The Northwest Stage Transportation Service Station operates from Kwangyuan to

Hami, a distance of 2,322 kilometers. Local provincial Governments are responsible for the maintenance of sub-stations, and efforts are made to provide food and lodging for passengers.

V. WATER TRANSPORTATION

Since beginning of the Sino-Japanese War, the blockade of the sea coast and the disruption of road traffic have placed an added burden on inland water traffic. To meet wartime demands, much attention has been paid by the Government to build new ships and to repair old ones and to fasten river navigation by encouraging private enterprises and to train naval personnel.

A. Building and Repair.—The China Merchants Steam Navigation Company was ordered by the Ministry of Communications in 1945 to repair and put into commission with the least delay six large river steamers, namely, the Kiangshun, Kiangnan, Kiangsin, Kiangnan, Kianghua, and the Kiangchien. Repair work is expected to be completed by October 1945. River steamers, now in use, include the Kiangchi, Chengping, and the Anhua. As soon as all of the six vessels are repaired, river traffic is expected to be greatly increased.

At present in Szechuen along, 4,529 kilometers of waterways is navigable by wooden vessels while 1,229 kilometers is navigable by river steamers, and there are 313 steamers in service.

The up river regions are abound in rapids and sandbanks. To ensure the safety of passengers and car-

goes, pilot services have been established along important rivers in Szechuen, Hupeh, and Hunan. Most creditable is the pilot service rendered at Chuankiang, Chingtan, and Sehtan where vessels up to 3,000 tons may be safely towed.

To encourage private steamship companies to repair old vessels in order to increase the capacity of water traffic, the Ministry of Communications has petitioned the Government to subsidize the Minsung Steamship Company to a sum of \$182,300,000. The Minsung Company expects to complete repairing eight river steamers before the end of September 1945.

B. Water and Air Transportation Service.—Between Chungking, Suifu and Tingkiang, an important international water and air transportation service has been inaugurated. The China Merchants Steam Navigation Company and the China National Aviation Corporation are jointly responsible for handling all goods coming in and out of China. The volume of goods handled in 1945 shows an increase of 50 percent over that 1944. A new airfield has recently been built in Luhsien where the China National Aviation Corporation has set up an oil depot, a hangar and a hostel. The China Merchants Steam Navigation Company has also set up warehouses, wharves and lighters to facilitate air and water transportation.

C. Training of Navigation Personnel.—Attention has been paid to the training of navigation personnel to meet wartime and postwar demands. Apart from

sending naval personnel and technicians abroad for further studies and research, other senior naval personnel and harbor pilots are being registered and will be put through a course of training.

VI. AIR TRANSPORTATION

Until recently, the only means of importing materials from abroad has been the Calcutta-Kunming air route via Tingkiang. To facilitate the redistribution of goods to other places, the Ministry of Communications ordered the China National Aviation Corporation to open a new route from Tingkiang to Suifu in Szechuen, a distance of 927 air kilometers. This route has been opened to traffic since October 1943.

Another new route links up Tingkiang with Luhsien in Szechuen for the use of transport planes. Materials flown to Luhsien are then diverted to Chungking by water.

To increase internal air traffic, the China National Aviation Corporation opened new routes linking Chungking with Lanchow and Lachow with Hami in March 1945. At the same time air traffic between Chungking and Chengtu, Chungking and Kweiyang, and Chungking and Kunming was resumed.

The following charts show the increase of passengers and freight carried by China National Aviation Corporation and Central Air Transportation Corporation from January to May in the years 1944 and 1945.

<i>Time</i>	<i>Jan. to May 1944</i>	<i>CNAC</i>	<i>CATC</i>	<i>Jan. to May 1945</i>	<i>CNAC</i>	<i>CATC</i>
Passengers . .	15,687	15,641	46	16,665	16,363	302
Luggage in tons	136,252	135,387	865	252,697	245,322	7,375
Freight in tons	9,009,632	9,007,205	2,427	12,108,406	12,122,840	85,566
Mail in tons .	39,799	38,754	1,045	51,336	50,685	651

The International Civil Aviation Conference: China was represented by Chang Kia-ngau and Mow Pang-cho at the International Civil Aviation conference in Chicago. China is a signatory to the International Civil Aviation Charter, the International Civil Aviation Pact (temporary) and the International Air Transportation Pact. However, paragraph three of the Fourth Article of the International Air Transportation Pact will not become valid until the International Civil Aviation Charter is approved.

VII. TELECOMMUNICATION

A. Organization.—The Directorate-General of Telecommunications was set up under the supervision of the Ministry of Communications in April 1943 to direct all telecommunication operations in the country. Five administrative districts were set up to direct the work. The International Radio Stations in Chungking, Chengtu and Kunming are also managed by the Directorate-General of Telecommunications.

B. Lines and Circuits.—Up to June 1944, there were 51,698 kilo-

meters of telegraph lines and 43,668 kilometers of long distance telephone lines in the country, making a total of 95,366 kilometers.

The International radio circuits are shown below:—

Chungking-San Francisco (2 circuits)

Chungking—Los Angeles (also radio photo)

Chungking—Irkutsk

Chungking—Calcutta

Chengtū—London

Chengtū—San Francisco (2 circuits)

Chengtū—Bombay

Chengtū—Sydney

Chengtū—Geneva

Chengtū—Teheran

Kunming—San Francisco (2 circuits)

Kunming—Calcutta

VIII. POSTAL OPERATION

Up to October 1944, there are 2,021 post offices, 11,326 agencies, 8,743 box offices, 6,992 postal stations and 1,114 stamp-sales agencies.

A. New International Mail Routes—Since march 1944, ordinary mail is sent abroad via either Puli in Sinkiang and Russia or India. Air mail destined for Russia is flown by way of Hami. Air mail destined for America is first flown to Calcutta, then transmitted by the Imperial Airways to Lagos in West Africa and then re-transmitted by the Pan American Airlines to U.S.A. for delivery. Air mail destined for England is first flown to Calcutta and then trans-

mitted by the Imperial Airways to destination.

In China a total of 400,826 kilometers of postal routes is under operation.

B. Resumption of International Parcel Post—On account of transportation difficulties, incoming and outgoing parcel post was suspended since 1941. However, after consultations with Russia, India, England, America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, an agreement was reached and parcel post was resumed as from August 1944.

C. Expansion of Army Post-office Activities—Since the beginning of hostilities, army post-offices have been inaugurated close to the battle fronts, so that the regular flow of news between the front and the rear might not be interrupted. A special rate for letter mail parcels, and money order is available for the average fighting man.

D. Postal Savings And Remittances—Postal savings, ordinary life insurance and cash remittance all show marked increases in recent years. For example, in April 1945, postal savings amounted to \$3,923,000,000 an increase of more than one thousand million dollars over the amount for August the previous year. Cash remittances also rose from \$1,900,000,000 to \$2,500,000,000 monthly.

IX. MISCELLANEOUS

A. Production of Transportation Equipment—As the inflow of material from abroad dwindled, China started to produce some of the equipment required for trans-

portation purposes. An impetus was given to those factories that have been removed to the interior, and the Government is giving them every support.

The Central Automobile Parts Manufacturing Factory has done a creditable job in turning out motor spare-parts and tools for repair work. Business transacted between October 1943 and September 1944 amounted to \$69,695,207. In all it has produced 104,677 spare parts, 3,607 pieces of repair tools, 36 pieces of machinery and 61,928 other various parts and 56,859 kilograms of finished steel products.

The Central Insulator Manufacturing Works, under the joint direction of the Ministry of Communications and the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs produces insulators of all types. Up to September 1944, business transacted amounted to \$38,774,513. The number of insulator produced came to 1,549,702.

The Central Electrical Battery Factory, operated jointly by the Ministry of Communications and the Engineering College of the University of Nanking, specializes in the production of batteries for the use of telecommunication. Up to September 1944, business transacted amounted to \$9,703,394. In all it has produced 40,000 porous pots, and 36,351 pieces of zinc bars.

The Kansu Cement Works, financed jointly by the Ministry of Communications, the National Resources Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, the

Kansu Provincial Government and the Bank of China, produces cement solely for the work of construction in the Northwest. From October 1943 to September 1944, business transacted amounted to \$38,625,515.

The Northwest Forestry Corporation is jointly operated by the Ministry of Communications, the Kansu Hydro-electric Power, Forestry and Cattle-raising Corporation and the Bank of Communications. It specializes in the production of railway sleepers and telegraph poles for the use of railways and telegraph offices.

The Luhsien Telecommunication Equipment Factory has a capital of \$4,060,000 and employs 239 people. From July 1943 to July 1944 it has produced 2,336 pieces of telegraph and telephone equipment, amounting to \$11,156,000 in value.

The Chungking Iron and Steel Fitting Manufacturing Works has a capital of \$1,300,000 and employs 268 men. From July 1943 to July 1944 it has produced about 90 tons of metal parts, amounting to \$2,500,000 in value.

The Kweilin Railway Equipment Manufacturing Works began with the capital of \$12,300,000 and employs 52 men. From July 1943 to April 1944 it has produced about 500 tons of steel accessories, amounting to \$25,250,000 in value.

The Kweilin Telephone and Telegraph Manufactories started with the capital of \$1,500,000 and employs 86 men. From July 1943 to March 1944 it has produced 10,750 batteries of all kinds and 37 sets of machinery, amounting to \$820,000.

B. The Training of Personnel—

China has long been laboring under the lack of technical men. This lack will be more keenly felt now that the war is over. During the past two years, the Ministry of Communications has sent 487 men abroad for practical training. Of these, 240 will concern themselves with railways, 89 with highways, 72 with postal and telegraphic services, 72 with supplies and accountancy. In addition to these, the Ministry has also sent out 30 technical experts for further research.

A big quota of trained personnel will be required for the work of communication in postwar years, for this purpose, besides sending men abroad for practical experience and further research work paving the way for further international cooperation in the technical field, the Ministry is doing its best to train different kinds of personnel it requires. The Ministry is working hand in hand with the China National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, and plans to absorb a large number of refugees for the work of railway repair and construction.

CHAPTER XXXVI

FOOD ADMINISTRATION

HSU KAN (徐堪)*

China being an agricultural country, the supply of food and fluctuations in food prices tell her people's livelihood and social stability in a way quite different from what happens in industrial countries. In the first place, from time immemorial, China has attached special importance to the problem of food. As the saying goes: "A nation draws life from its people, and the people from food." Hence she has always been able to maintain an equilibrium between supply and demand in food production and has always been self-supporting. Besides, there has been the practice of "buffer stock." Except in years of widespread famines, there has always been a surplus in annual production to be stored up against rainy days. This precautionary measure has been the nucleus of China's policy of food administration. In the second place, as China is self-sufficient in food, nothing like shortage or scarcity of food is felt even in times of war. In the present war, although the war-zones have extended over a great part of the land and the means of transportation have been rendered extremely difficult and human labour scarce while the demand for military provisions has

gone up by leaps and bounds, thus seemingly affecting the equilibrium between supply and demand, yet throughout the eight years of the war of resistance little has happened in the food situation to arouse anxiety. This has all been due to the efforts of the Government along three lines; (1) War-time collection of land tax in kind and government purchases of food at prescribed rates; (2) the carrying-out of increased food production and (3) the supply and distribution of military and civilian provisions. In the third place, although in some localities the price of food has soared as high as 500 times above the pre-war level, from which a cursory observer may picture to his mind multitudes of hunger-stricken people helplessly groping for a bare existence, yet in point of fact 80 per cent of China's population is directly engaged in farming and they are not only unaffected, but even benefited thereby. The rest, whether they are the salary-earning government officers or employees in factories and business firms, are also well provided for. Then again, the rise in the price of food is far less and far slower than in the prices of other

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commodities. The situation is thus different from that in industrial countries where most of the population belongs to the salary-earning classes.

It must be explained at the outset that in China the term "food" is used to denote rice, wheat, barley, kaoliang (sorghum) corn, potatoes and other similar crops containing starch. Of these, rice and wheat, being the commonest in use and the most essential, are called major crops; whereas the others, either because their production is limited in certain area or because their consumption is limited to certain localities, are regarded as supplementary food, and are generally called miscellaneous crops. These (both the miscellaneous and the major crops) constitute the daily food of the Chinese population and are therefore called staple food. Meats, vegetables, oils, fats, salt and sugar, although equally essential from the viewpoint of nutrition, are regarded as subsidiary foodstuffs and called secondary food. Long usage limits the term "food" to the so-called staple food only, exclusive of the secondary food and the review that follows will deal with food in this approved sense.

I. CHINA'S SELF-SUFFICIENCY IN FOOD

Chinese farming consists mainly in the production of cereals. Areas actually tilled extend over 30 per cent of tillable land. Such a ratio is hardly seen in any European or American country. In addition to this, Chinese farmers carry on farming almost entirely by themselves, each family a

unit, cultivating a small tract of land and having, therefore, no fear of shortage of labor. For this reason, food is produced throughout the length and breadth of the country. Then again, as China's territory is extensive, having varied climate, varied topography and varied soil, the food produced covers a wide range of varieties, each adapted to the local conditions where it is produced. Even if there is shortage of a particular kind of crop in a locality during a particular season owing to flood, drought or pest, it seldom tends to have far-reaching consequences, if other kinds of crops in other localities during other seasons are or have been plentiful. Taking the nation as a whole, there is never any fear of food shortage. The following table shows the average annual production of the whole country of ten kinds of foodstuffs based on the statistics of the last ten years:

Kind	Amount (in Chinese piculs)
Rice	932,927,000
Wheat	434,617,000
Barley	176,768,000
Kaoliang	224,381,000
Corn	169,246,000
Millet	183,062,000
Proso-millet	30,735,000
Oats	18,753,000
Sweet potatoes	397,387,000
Soya beans	209,033,000
Total	2,776,909,000

From the above figures, it will be seen that each one of China's 450 millions may be allotted more than six piculs of food every

year. In other words, the annual production is not entirely consumed and there is always a surplus.

As has been said above, rice and wheat are the commonest used foodstuffs in China. Statistics of the last five years show that, on an average, of all the foodstuffs consumed 51.9 per cent is rice, 13 per cent is wheat and the remaining 35.1 per cent is miscellaneous foodstuffs. Whether China's food supply is sufficient or not can be judged by taking into consideration the figures showing the production and consumption annually of rice and wheat only. Although conditions vary in different provinces, statistics of the recent years show that on the whole there is every year a surplus of 37,093,000 piculs of rice and 19,284,000 piculs of wheat, totalling 56,377,000 piculs. This proves China's self-sufficiency in food.

But one may ask: "If China is truly self-sufficient in agricultural products, why should she have to import foreign foodstuffs annually?" According to the statistics of the Customs during the four years previous to the war (1934—1937), China imported annually 6,195,365 kilograms of rice, 2,402,285 kilograms of wheat and 2,501,614 kilograms of flour. For these imports, however, there were external reasons as set out below:

(1) Inadequate means of inland transportation retarded free flow of food from producing centres to such coastal ports as Canton, Shanghai and Tientsin which, being accessible to foreign ports by sea route, used to resort

to foreign food, usually cheaper and more easily transported.

(2) Imported rice and wheat used to be exempted from import duties, thus encouraging them to dump the Chinese market. Import duties were first introduced in 1933, but the rates were so low that the importation of foreign food was in no way checked.

(3) As rice and wheat producing areas used to vary greatly in climatic and topographic conditions, the crop yielded varied in degree and quality. Primitive implements and methods were employed in food production and food manufacturing, and so the quality of farm products was far from uniform. This accounts for the fact that they could not find a ready market and the food dealers were only too glad to carry on transactions in imported food having a standardized quality.

Taken all in all, the importation of foreign rice and wheat was never due to insufficient supply of native food, but proves on the other hand that there was always a surplus in the interior. 80 per cent of the imported rice, for example, was consumed in Kwangtung where food production used to be less than consumption. Although there was always a surplus in the two neighbouring provinces of Kwangsi and Hunan, lack of adequate means of transportation kept it from flowing into Kwangtung. Since the completion of the Canton-Hankow railway, food has begun to be transported from Hunan into Kwangtung and the amount of imported rice has steadily decreased. Blockade of the Chinese coast by the enemy in the early stages of the present

war cut short the supply of imported rice and wheat, and yet did not reduce the latter province to starvation.

II. SUPPLY OF FOOD IN WAR-TIME

Since the outbreak of hostilities in July, 1937, vast tracts of food-producing areas, especially in the coastal provinces, have fallen into enemy hands. The war has called away large numbers of farmers from the fields. Means of transportation have been rendered more difficult than ever. All these have resulted in decreased production. On the other hand, as the war-zones extend in area, the demand for military provisions increases, innumerable civil officers and civilians and men engaged in industrial, mining and communication enterprises having migrated into Free China. In this situation, all measures of food administration in war-time have been directed to production, collection and distribution in the following ways:

A. Increased Production of Food in War-time.—The program of increased production formulated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry comprises more than thirty items, the outstanding ones being: 1, increased production of wheat and miscellaneous crops. 2 increased production of rice and 3, loaning of improved seeds to farmers on credit. As a result, in 1942 farm land increased by more than 64 million *mows* and farm crops by more than 55 million piculs; in 1943, the increase was more than 58 million *mows* and more than 42 million piculs respectively.

B. Collection of Food in War-time.—In order to have an adequate control of food to meet the demands for military and civilian provisions, the Government has adopted various measures for collection of land tax in kind and for compulsory purchases at prescribed prices and compulsory borrowing from land-owners. These constitute the main sources of food under government control. In addition, the government has resorted to rush purchases in war-affected zones, ordinary purchases and purchases by means of government bonds being proportional to land tax in kind for district government functionaries.

Immediately upon its inauguration in July 1941, the Ministry of Food formulated a set of regulations governing the collection of land tax in kind in war-time and set about the task. According to the stipulations of these regulations, the standard for collecting land tax in kind should be calculated at the ratio of 4 *tou* (or 40% of a picul) of paddy or 2 *tou* 8 *shen* (or 28% of a picul) of wheat to one dollar national currency, as fixed for the regular tax, and surtax to be levied for the fiscal year 1941. In other words, the estimated amount of food to be so collected for that year should be 22,938,496 piculs, 33,341,450 piculs for the year 1942, and 33,609,170 piculs for 1943. The total amount of production in the year of 1943 was 1,222,904,956 piculs. That is to say, the estimated amount of land tax for the same year was only 2.96% of the total production. Neither the land-owners nor the farmers have

excessive burden to bear in consequence of the adoption of the measure.

Collection of land tax in kind alone, however, was not sufficient to meet the demand for military and civilian provisions. Except Hupeh, where all surplus food was bought over by the government, and Kweichow, where purchases were made from large landowners, in other provinces purchases were made proportional to land tax in kind. The food so purchased was partly paid for in cash and partly in food bonds or savings bonds. For instance, at the very beginning, 30% was paid in cash and 70% in bonds in the province of Szechuen. Later, in view of national financial stringency, it was deemed unwise to over-burden the national treasury for cash payments. As a result such purchases began to take the form of borrowing to be paid for with government bonds in total in the provinces of Szechuen, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Sikang Fukien, Kansu, Shensi and Chekiang.

During the last three years the return from collection of land tax in kind and from various forms of government purchases were as follows: (1) Return of 1943. The quota of land tax in kind, compulsory purchases, compulsory borrowing and voluntary contribution for the year of 1943 was originally fixed at 63,168,670 piculs of paddy and wheat. The actual amount collected was 64,780,678 piculs. (2) Returns of 1944. The original quota for 1944 was 84,950,000 piculs. However, on account of military operations and reported famine which affect-

ed many provinces, the actual collection was 65,090,395 piculs. (3) Returns of 1945. The quota for 1945 was originally fixed at 60,933,000 piculs, the figure being based upon the actual collection of the previous year. However, on account of the Japanese surrender, the National Government with a view to lessening the burden of the people, issued on September 3 an order to the effect that provinces which had been occupied by the enemy were exempted from paying the land tax for the current year. As the quota for the occupied provinces was originally fixed at 23,933,000 piculs, the actual return of collection was 37,090,525 piculs.

C. Distribution of Food in War-time.—The food collected through land tax in kind and government purchases has been used for three purposes: to supply military needs, to supply the needs of those in government service and to regulate civilian provisions. These will be dealt under separate headings:

1.—*Military Provisions.* In the early stages of the war military provisions were supplied by the Commissariat of Military Supplies and military supply stations through direct purchases from the farmers. What was paid for these purchases was deducted from the budgeted allowance of each army. In 1940, this system was modified and the major provisions were supplied to the army in kind, calculated according to the actual needs, so that the livelihood of the officers and soldiers might not be affected by fluctuations of prices on the food

market. This new system was carried out by degrees, from one war-zone to another and from one stage to another. The provisions were collected through purchases by War Zone Commander's Offices, by the provincial governments and by military provisions supply stations instituted for the purpose; and then distributed to the army or armies stationed therein. Since its inauguration in July, 1941, the Ministry of Food took up the task of supplying military provisions in kind with food under its control. Food has been distributed by the Ministry to the armies stationed in different war-zones according to actual needs through the provincial food administrative organs out of what has been collected for land tax in kind and government purchases. No shortage or delay, has ever occurred since then. In 1941 the appropriations of military provisions were based on the military register, provided by the Ministry of War with 10% extra as reserve food. Altogether 10,329,792 bags of rice and 7,355,667 bags of wheat, each weighing 200 catties were so distributed. In 1943 when there was a surplus left over from the previous year, it was decided to supply military provisions at the ratio of 90% in kind and 10% in money subsidy as to enable the army to make purchases in the area where it was stationed. The food distributed in that year amounted to 10,507,500 bags of rice and 7,081,394 bags of wheat.

2.—*Provisions for Government Officers.* These have been appropriated according to the following standards:—

(a) Provisions for men and their families in the central government: The standard of appropriating these provisions has undergone modifications. At present, the rations for those in the service of the central government and the professors and teachers in government institutions and their families are fixed at one picul, $4/5$ of a picul or $3/5$ of a picul of rice per capita for each month, varying according to age. In provinces like Szechuen, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Kwangtung, Fukien, Ninghsia, Kansu, Suiyuan, etc., they are to be supplied with food in kind. In localities such as Kweichow, however, where food is not plentifully produced, they are given a money subsidy either in part or in whole to enable them to make purchases on the spot. For every one of them and their families living in Chungking is given $1/5$ of a picul of rice each month. The amount so appropriated in 1943 totalled 5,521,008 piculs of rice and 318,880 piculs of wheat, apart from money subsidies.

(b) Provisions for men in the service of provincial and local governments: These are classed into provisions for those in provincial governments and provisions for those in local governments (or hsien governments). With regard to the former, their rations are fixed at the same rate as those in the central government, with the exception of students who receive 0.23 piculs each month and those of the police force who receive $25/16$ catties each day at the same rate as military provisions. As re-

gards the latter, since most of them are native people and produce food themselves, their ration is fixed at 5 piculs for each family per month.

3.—*Regulation for Civilian Provisions.* To adjust civilian provisions, use has been made of any surplus in land tax in kind and government purchases after making appropriations for military and government needs. Only in a small number of densely-populated consumption centres the need of such adjustment arises. In other parts, and especially in rural districts, where food is produced there has been no such need. But as the amount needed in the larger consumption centres is quite enormous, the surplus under government control has often been found insufficient to meet the purpose. For this reason, the Ministry of Food has instructed provincial and local food administrative organs to make timely investigations into the amount of food in the hands of large landowners so as to tighten the string of control. The landowners are ordered to offer their holding for sale from time to time to steady the food market. Then again, the food administrative organs have been instructed to look after the registration of food-dealers and reorganization of food-dealers' guilds and to give aid and encouragement to the dealers in their transactions and transportation. These measures have helped a great deal to maintain equilibrium between stations in the more important consumption centres, whose task it is to store up food from time to time for regulation purpose.

III. STORAGE OF FOOD-STUFFS AND TRANSPORTATION

A. *Storage of Foodstuffs.*—The storage of foodstuffs by the Government has been a long-practised system in China. As a rule, after the autumn harvest each year, a certain amount of foodstuffs is collected from those people who have 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. Every year, old rice is sold or loaned out and in its place new rice is stored in the granaries. This measure which provides food 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 importance of storage of foodstuffs is fully recognized by the Ministry of Food. In the past several years, the Ministry has spared no effort to store enough foodstuffs in the various localities. The total quota for 1944 was 11,019,641 piculs and the total quota for 1945 was 10,000,000 piculs. It is the policy of the Ministry that within a few years a sufficient amount to meet the demand of the entire population for a period of six months may be accumulated. In order to facilitate the task of storage of foodstuffs, the construction and repairing of granaries become

necessary. In 1943 and 1944, granaries with a total capacity of storing two and half millions of piculs were constructed and repaired. In 1945, the figure even reached seven millions piculs.

B. Transportation.—The inadequate means of transportation is one of the main factors which causes the deficiency of foodstuffs in China. The Ministry of Food, ever since its inception, has paid much attention to this problem. At present the Ministry adopts three measures to meet the situation. Firstly is to increase the means of transportation. By this measure, the Ministry has provided all sorts of means of transportation to the various provinces and municipalities suitable for their particular requirement. The means of transportation are cart, hand cart, truck, wooden boat, etc. Secondly is to readjust the transportation charge in the various provinces. Usually the wages paid to the workers in the various provinces were very low. The new rate of wages, after readjustment, is given in accordance with that prescribed for the conscripted labor with due regard to the cost of living. Thirdly is to strengthen the transportation control. With a view to strengthening the transportation control, the Ministry established the Szechuen Food Storage and Transportation Bureau and Trucks and Wooden Boats Control Office so as to increase transportation efficiency. Inspection offices are also established in various districts for that purpose.

IV FOOD CONTROL

Enforcement of Food Control:—For a complete solution of the war-time 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 foodstuffs are required to register with the Government. Licenses are issued only when they have met the requirement as provided in the regulations. Up to the end of 1944, registration of food merchants had been carried out in eighteen provinces and 354 cities covering Chungking, Szechuen, Hupeh, Hunan, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Honan, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Kansu, Fukien, Chekiang, Suiyuan, Shensi, Kwangtung, Yunnan, Sikang, and Ninghsia. A total of 24,972 food merchants had received their licences. During the first six months of 1945, 854 more licences were issued which makes a grand total of 25,826. Food merchants after registration must 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 increase in food prices. With regard to the food price, there is no denying that since the outbreak of hostilities food prices have risen considerably. But the fluctuations in food prices have not followed the same tendencies as the prices of other commodities. And even when there are fluctuation in food prices, they

may be easily checked, because in the first place, since the outbreak of the war there have been good harvest in the main food-producing provinces, and in the second place, the measures adopted by the Government for food collection, food distribution and increased production have been effective and lastly, the Government has adopted effective measures for the control of food price.

CHAPTER XXXVII

CHINESE INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES

CHANG F'U-LING (張福良)*

The Chinese Industrial Cooperative Movement is a wartime child. It was conceived in the minds of a number of Chinese and foreign enthusiasts in Shanghai during the winter of 1937 and was born in Hankow in the summer of 1938. Its mission is to increase production of daily necessities for both military and civilian uses, to introduce suitable machinery for handicraft industries, and to establish a cooperative basis for small industries to be scattered throughout the country. It is a social organization, non-political and non-partisan.

I. ORGANIZATION

The highest governing body of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives is the Board of Directors, of which Dr. H. H. Kung is the Chairman and since last February Dr. T. V. Soong has been serving as the Acting Chairman. Acting on behalf of foreign donors there is the International Committee of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, of which Bishop R. O. Hall is the chairman. In charge of actual administration is the Central Headquarters which is under the direction of a General Secretary, and which is divided into departments of field work, finance and general affairs. The

execution of policy is in the hands of a National Coordinating Committee composed of Secretary-General and heads of the field work and finance.

The direction and supervision of the cooperatives in the various provinces have been placed in the hands of three regional headquarters, namely:

1. Northwest:—Comprising Shensi, Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai, Hupeh, Shansi and Honan.
2. Southwest:—Comprising Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan and Kweichow.
3. Southeast:—Comprising Hunan, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang and Anhwei.

During the last few months the Southwest and Northwest Regional Headquarters were abolished and in their places supervisory circuits and the Northwest Supervisory Committee have been set up so that a larger measure of decentralized administration and centralized responsibility, and of economy both in men and in money, may be secured. The Southeast Regional Headquarters has been left alone due to the war situation which made communication very difficult.

* Secretary-General of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, known as CIC for abbreviation.

The cooperatives are encouraged to organize themselves into a federation which handles the supply and marketing as well as education and general welfare for the member cooperatives with the help of the regional headquarters. Local federations are expected to form regional federations, and from the regional federations a National Federation may be established. The National Federation will then take over the functions now performed by the Central Headquarters of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, thus bringing to a full realization of the highest ideal of the industrial cooperative movement, namely, self-government of the co-

operatives through their own federation.

II. THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHINESE INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES

There were 1,274 industrial cooperatives with a total membership of 17,281 at the end of March, 1944. This registered a decrease of 318 societies as compared with 1943, and a decrease of 126 societies as compared with 1942. The decrease was largely due to continual readjustment and reorganization which have been going on since June, 1941. In addition, military operation often resulted in the wiping out a number of societies and causing some to move to safer places.

TABLE 1. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE C.I.C. (December, 1938-March, 1945)

Year	No. of Societies	No. of Members	Share Capital		Loans standing \$	Monthly Production \$
			Subscribed \$	Paid-up \$		
1938	69	1,149	16,292	10,206	202,400	281,632
1939	1,284	15,625	416,208	236,122	2,607,362	2,666,493
1940	1,738	25,682	1,219,347	843,245	6,088,830	10,456,248
1941	1,626	22,545	2,562,503	1,972,204	13,973,370	20,638,104
1942	1,400	18,681	6,616,502	—	21,522,766	35,072,269
1943	1,302	17,886	11,267,252	—	30,958,188	51,099,114
1944	1,274	17,281	—	—	71,165,681	68,600,215
1945 (Mar.)	1,066	17,260	21,935,725	18,551,349	53,941,964	74,791,387

Source: The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives.

TABLE 2. CLASSIFICATION OF THE C.I.C. BY REGION (March 1945)

Region	No. of Societies	No. of Members	Monthly Production
Northwest	310	4,347	\$28,050,935
Southwest	303	6,245	23,053,357
Southeast	453	6,668	23,687,085
Total	1,066	17,260	\$74,791,377

Source: Chinese Industrial Cooperatives

TABLE 3. CLASSIFICATION OF THE C.I.C. BY INDUSTRIES (March 1945)

<i>Industries</i>	<i>No. of Societies</i>	<i>No. of Members</i>	<i>Monthly Production</i>
Machine and Metal Works ..	63	1,087	\$ 7,123,578
Mining	15	283	420,286
Textile	424	8,388	26,890,579
Tailoring	89	960	5,493,711
Chemical	242	3,526	17,475,816
Food	35	457	2,876,478
Stationery	34	677	2,992,589
Carpentry and Masonry ..	70	757	2,581,250
Transportation	3	37	193,360
Miscellaneous	91	1,088	8,743,740
Total	1,066	17,260	\$74,791,387

Source: Chinese Industrial Cooperatives.

However, every cloud has a silver lining. The losses in property suffered by the industrial cooperatives were much less than those suffered by private or government factories. At least half of the cooperative properties were moved out to safer places, and that which could not be moved out were buried in the ground. In all evacuations of the industrial cooperatives the workers' possessive interest and responsibility in safe caring and keeping of the property was a feature much appreciated by the communities in which they were located.

Recent communications, prior to the unconditional surrender of the enemy, from Fukien, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Hunan all had this to say, that the cooperatives having moved to the new localities were doing well, that the local governments and military authorities and bankers encouraged the C.I.C. to work by placing large orders and arranging loans, and that the only limitations were the uncertain

situation in some localities and the inadequacy of loans given by the Farmers' Bank. The C.I.C.'s needs must be supplemented by loans from the Central Headquarters.

III. FINANCIAL CONDITIONS

The finance of the C.I.C. can be divided into three main categories, namely, government appropriations, loans, and contributions.

Up to March 1945, a total amount of \$84,000,000 had been appropriated by the Government to the C.I.C., of which \$18,185,367 was paid to the Northwest Regional Headquarters, \$18,849,180 to the Southeast, \$18,268,610 to the Southwest, \$1,039,279 to the defunct Marketing and Supply Office, Chungking, and \$9,980,698 to the Allied Forces Service Department of the Southeast Regional Headquarters, totalling \$66,323,134.

The C.I.C. arranged with the Farmers' Bank of China for a total credit of \$100,000,000, of which \$40,000,000 was loaned to the Northwest Regional Headquarters, \$40,000,000 to the Southwest and \$20,000,000 to the Southeast. Up to

March, 1945, a total of \$48,500,000 was loaned out to the different cooperatives.

In addition, loans to the extent of \$65,155,255 were also made to the cooperatives from Amindusco contributions, making a total of \$179,178,389 loaned out to the cooperatives from all sources, in March, 1945. The distributions of these loans were as follows:—

1. Northwest \$75,181,367
2. Southwest 51,887,865
3. Southeast 41,049,180
4. Marketing and Supply Office 1,039,279
5. The Allied Service Department of the Southeast Regional Headquarters 9,980,698

The C.I.C. received from June 3, 1943 to March 31, 1945 a total of \$140,804,859.45 in the form of donations. Of this amount \$118,230,417.25 came from Amindusco. New York, \$22,179,999.97 from the British United Aid to China Fund and \$394,442.23 from miscellaneous sources.

During the later part of the war inflation greatly hampered the work of the C.I.C. resulting in under-capitalization of most of the cooperatives. Contributions from abroad were mostly spent in training, industrial experimentation, research, welfare and promotion; only one third of them was allotted for loans to cooperatives and federations. Although the credit from the Farmers' Bank has recently increased from 50 to 100 million dollars, yet it is still insufficient for the need of the cooperatives. The loans from commercial banks are also being used by

some cooperatives but the interest charges are prohibitive, varying from 8 to 20% per month. The Central Government contributes to the C.I.C. \$95,000 per month for current expenses and such contribution will be discontinued at the end of this year. During my trip last spring to the S-E and N-W as well as from recent letters from the S-E, all industrial cooperatives and federations were urgently in need of more financial credit to meet the tidal wave of inflation. There was plenty of work for industrial cooperatives to do, but due to insufficient working capital to buy enough raw materials in advance, the rising cost of which was much faster than that of finished products, every advance order became a liability. While still suffering from the effects of inflation, the industrial cooperatives like all other industrial firms have found no market for their products as a result of Japan's unconditional surrender. The C.I.C. has suffered even more. Factories may discharge their workers, and stop production but the cooperatives must go on producing since the workers and owners are one and their livelihood must be maintained by employment. Undercapitalized as the cooperatives are they have been hard hit by both war and period of great changes, each co-op needs at least the working capital for three months. Estimating the monthly needs of all our cooperatives to be 100 million dollars we need a working capital, under the existing conditions, of 300 million dollars. There is an urgent need for some banking system for the C.I.C. movement so that the C.I.C.

may be self-supporting and self-providing.

IV. EDUCATION AND WELFARE

Educational and welfare features industrial cooperatives from ordinary factories. Members of the cooperatives and their families are taught to be self-reliant, self-respecting and efficient workers. The C.I.C. depots sponsor programs of general and cooperative education and give technical training to applicants, especially refugees, preparatory to organizing them into cooperative societies. Youngsters between 12 and 16 are recruited and trained especially as technicians. Primary schools are opened for the children of the cooperative members with a view to training them as cooperators.

Welfare features of the C.I.C. include the establishment of nurseries, hospitals, clinics, schools, consumers' cooperatives, and recreational centers. A typical industrial cooperative community is composed of, among other things, a recreational hall, a library or reading room, a nursery, one or two primary schools and a clinic. Full-fledged C.I.C. hospitals are found at Paoki, Lanchow, and Hanchung.

C.I.C. CONTRIBUTIONS

One of the biggest contributions of the C.I.C. in war efforts is the making of blankets for the army. At the beginning of the war, soldiers had blankets made of waste cotton, imported from abroad at \$5 per blanket at that time. After careful investigation that C.I.C. workers found that a woollen blanket of four catties in weight could be made out of

native wool in the N-W or S-W at \$6, which had been in pre-war times sent to the mills on the coast. With a great deal of energy this work has been pushed ahead to supply the urgent needs of the Chinese army. To date 2½ million blankets have been made for the army.

The C.I.C. movement has succeeded in increasing wartime production, estimated to be worth about 100 million monthly. It has introduced a number of suitable machinery and improved methods for handicraft industries such as the HF Woollen Set, the Gosh Cotton Spinning Set, the Machine Shop, improved looms for weaving, paper making, tanning, etc. Finally it has inculcated into the minds of its members the cooperative principles. Although the membership of industrial cooperatives in China is only 17,260, yet their influence is by far greater than their number indicates. The general comment on the C.I.C. by the enlightened public is that the C.I.C. loans really go to the cooperatives, that the individual members are in control of each society and that, in short, the C.I.C. has the beginning of a genuine cooperative movement in China.

V. WHAT OF THE FUTURE

Following the unconditional surrender of Japan, China has before her an unprecedented opportunity for national reconstruction. China's national policy for economic development will follow, in accordance with one of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's famous Three Principles, that of People's Livelihood, the cooperative system, the middle way between capitalism and communism.

State ownership of heavy industries, especially those for national defence and those of communications, and private ownership of light industries in supplying consumers' goods will continue. Meanwhile, the government will pursue a definite policy of promoting through its agencies the cooperative society and by favorable legislation encouraging its growth as a chief means of economic development.

About 80 per cent of China's population are rural; the arable land per capita is very small, being 3-5 acres in North China and much smaller in South China. There is a large surplus of manpower, both yearly and seasonal, lying idle in the countryside. At the same time exports to cities and abroad consist of almost entirely raw agricultural products. All these indicate the absolute necessity of promoting rural industries, chiefly in processing agricultural products, and of improving handicraft industries in order to raise the low standard of living of the vast rural population. The C.I.C. in promoting small industries on a co-operative basis will find even a larger field of service in peace than in war.

Due to limited resources and facing a realistic situation, the C.I.C. policy for postwar work

gives priority in the following order:—

1. Conserving and strengthening the existing good cooperatives and federations, and helping them pass through the present period of hardship, such as those cooperatives and federations in the Northwest.

2. Reviving and strengthening those good cooperatives and federations in liberated areas, which the C.I.C. formerly had before their occupation by the enemy, such as those in Kwangsi, Hunan, Kwangtung, Kiangsi and Honan.

3. Organizing new cooperatives and federations in liberated areas including those in South, East and North China and Manchuria and also in the border regions of West China.

A long-view program consisting of two three-year plans is being prepared for the realization of the ultimate objective of the movement, namely, self-government of the cooperatives through their own district, regional and national federations. When that time comes, the industrial cooperative movement will indeed be a movement of the members, for the members and by the members. Those of us who sponsor and who promote this work from outside will, then, find the fructification of our efforts and satisfaction of accomplishment.

PART VII
CULTURAL AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS

CHAPTER XXXVIII

EDUCATION

HAN LIH-WU (杭立武)*

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Years Preceding the War—

The establishment of the National Government in 1927 in Nanking marked the beginning of a period of rapid educational growth and scientific advancement in China which was abruptly brought to an end in 1937 by the Japanese war. This period of ten years saw the growth of schools of all grades, especially universities, and the establishment of the Academia Sinica and the National Academy of Peiping for the promotion of scientific research, resulting in the raising of the standard of education in all categories and the popularization of science. Government appropriations for higher education rose from seventeen million dollars per annum to nearly forty million. This period of ten years can be considered the most fruitful decade since the modernization of Chinese education some fifty years ago.

B. Eight Years of War—The war disrupted the whole educational program. More than eighty-three institutions of higher learning had to evacuate from their premises to the interior, some of them having to move as many as seven or eight times covering great

distances as the Japanese continued to advance. Much valuable equipment had to be left behind which was either looted, destroyed or damaged. The Ministry of Education was confronted with the great task of housing and feeding hundreds of thousands of refugee students and faculty members and of maintaining a standard of education to the best of its resources. Scientific research in common with the school work, suffered from lack of facilities, reading material, equipment, etc. as a result of the blockade.

Looking back, it is a remarkable fact that educators in China were able to carry on educational work, with the number of middle schools and colleges and students increased by nearly 50% in 1944 over the pre-war figure. Take, for instance, the number of colleges and universities which in 1936 was 108 with an enrollment of about forty thousand; in 1945 there were 145 such institutions with an enrollment of seventy-nine thousand. In elementary education, the number of students remained about the same, but it must be remembered that this number includes only Free China. Children of elementary school age in occu-
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* Vice-Minister of Education.

ed areas, unlike students of middle school and college age who could leave their families, were not able to travel into the interior.

Another step forward in education which must be cited is that in 1940, the Government, realizing the importance of mass education in the promotion of local government and principles of democracy, decided on a five-year program to wipe out illiteracy. Enormous sums of money were spent on mass education, and according to reports, up to 1944, millions have received an elementary education.

C. Future Program—According to estimates as to personnel necessary for China's political and economic reconstruction in the next five years, millions of trained personnel will be required to execute the projects which are being mapped out. The Ministry will, therefore, first popularize and spread education among the masses; second, popularize the study of science and scientific knowledge; and third, encourage research and intellectual freedom.

D. International Cultural Cooperation—The importance of international cultural understanding and cooperation has always been fully appreciated in China. This can be witnessed by the number of cultural organizations which are interested in the promotion of cultural relations between China and various countries. The Ministry of Education and the Academia Sinica, the official organs of the National Government, are taking great interest and active steps in furthering such relations, with special emphasis on the understanding of the culture of other peoples and the interchange of cultural and scientific knowledge.

II. HIGHER EDUCATION

Before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937, there were one hundred and eight institutions of higher education in the whole of China. According to the nature of those institutions, they could be classified under three categories—universities, forty-two in number; independent colleges, thirty-four; and the technical schools thirty-two. Among the universities, sixteen were national; seven, provincial; and nineteen, private. Among the independent colleges, five were national; eight, provincial; and twenty-one private. Of the technical schools, six were national, sixteen, provincial or public; and ten, private. From these figures it is to be noted that universities occupy the greatest number and the technical schools, the smallest. This was the state of affairs in 1936. After war broke out, things changed. The number dropped. From statistics taken in 1937, there were ninety-one institutions of higher education with a total enrollment of 31,188 students.

By 1944-1945, however, the number of the institutions had increased to one hundred and forty-five with the total enrollment also increased to 78,909. In other words thirty-seven new institutions of high education were established, showing an increase of 39%, and 47,721 more students were added to the pre-war enrollment, showing an increase of 88%. Of those newly-established institutions, the majority was technical schools and small independent colleges. As to universities, the number was reduced from 42 to 40. The enrollment of students in different universities increased rapidly year after

year, showing that the program for higher education and for the establishment of educational institutions is well under control.

Prior to the war, most of the institutions of higher education were located in large cities in the coastal area or along big rivers or near communication centers. During the war, these cities were seized by the enemy, and those institutions moved westward before then occupation. Ninety percent of those educational institutions shared the same fate of moving from one place to another, some of them moving once or twice, while there were others who moved more than five times. In the past, higher education in the north-western and the south-western provinces of China was not well-developed, but now we can find many technical schools in those provinces. While most of the universities and colleges now in the interior will move back to their original places, some of them will remain to develop higher education in the interior provinces of China, this remedying the mistake of the past of concentrating educational institutions in big cities along the coast or along the great rivers.

During the year from August, 1944 to July, 1945, the work accomplished in war-time higher education may be briefly stated as follows:

A. Replenishing of Books and Laboratory Equipment — Ever since the outbreak of the war, it has been the deliberate purpose of the Japanese to bomb and to destroy the Chinese educational institutions. The loss in school buildings, books, laboratory appara-

tus and equipment is too great to be estimated. Meanwhile what remained of books and equipment dwindled into nothing after they reached the interior for most of them were either damaged or lost on the way. When they settled down in the interior these universities and colleges had nothing or very little and could buy nothing because of the lack of funds and transportation difficulties.

This shortage of books and laboratory equipment constituted the most serious handicap to the higher education of war-time China. Nevertheless the Ministry of Education has tried in every way possible to replenish the various colleges and universities with books and equipment by purchasing from abroad and at the same time encouraging home manufacture.

Books and equipment that have reached China and have been distributed to various educational institutions have already exceeded two hundred and ten boxes. Another thirty odd tons are in India waiting for transportation. From Britain alone the Ministry has purchased more than two hundred thousand pounds' worth of books and equipments while in America, the Ministry has spent four hundred and thirty thousand U.S. dollars for the same purposes. And there are some other things which we can manufacture ourselves. For example the Ministry of Education in 1944 ordered 200 microscopes from the National Peiping Institute of Research for the use of various universities. Recently, the Ministry of Education started the publication of a number of reference books on all branches of study for university

students which are being compiled and translated by the National Translation and Compilation Bureau. Eleven sets of these books have already appeared while twenty-nine are in the process of printing, 108 are in the process of being revised and 170 have been assigned to various specialists.

B. Raising the Standard of the Teaching Staff—With the view of standardizing the rank and treatment of the teaching staff of universities and colleges, the Ministry of Education has issued three sets of regulations in 1940 concerning the examination of those who teach in colleges and universities and the amount of their salaries. They are adhered to in every institution.

Regarding the rank of teaching personnel in universities and colleges, it is specified that they be classified under four different grades—professors, associate professors, lecturers and instructors—to be done by the Ministry in accordance with their qualifications. To this end the Ministry has created a special Commission viz. Commission on Examining Scholastic Attainments. Those who are in the faculty of any university and college have to send in their names and testimonial to the committee and be given a certificate in accordance with their ranks after an examination by the commission. After serving a certain number of years, they may apply for a promotion of rank from the Ministry. This standardization work has been successfully carried on since 1940. Almost all of the teaching personnel of different universities and colleges have been examined and classified.

In November, 1945, the number of professors, associate professors, lecturers and instructors was 6,773. The work is expected to be completed by the end of 1946.

To respect learning and to encourage higher study among the teaching staff, the Ministry has created a number of Chairs in different universities and colleges. They are allotted to competent professors selected and appointed by the Commission on Examining Scholastic Attainments of the Ministry. In 1942, they were thirty in number, while in 1943 the number was increased to 45. Another work to promote the spirit of higher study and research is to select a certain number of professors each year, granting them a leave of absence of one year for research work. In 1940 ten professors were given this opportunity, 20 in 1941 and 1942, and 30 in 1943 and 1944.

C. Student Relief and the Organization of Student's War-time Service.—Soon after the war broke out in 1937 the Ministry ordered all colleges and universities located outside of war zones to admit to the fullest possible extent the students coming out from war areas. In Nanking, a committee to register all students coming from war areas was established immediately. The Educational Department of each provincial government was ordered to set up a similar organization. With war spreading over wider areas which forced more educational institutions to evacuate from their original places, the Ministry in March 1938 issued a set of rules governing the registration and distribution of all students coming from war-stricken

zones. They were to register either at the Ministry or at the Provincial Department of Education in each province and to be distributed among different colleges or universities. In the summer of 1939, one registration committee was set up in Kunming in view of the fact that most of the students coming by sea to the interior had to pass through that city. In January of the following year, one representative was sent to Hongkong to similar work. In the same year committees were set up in Chungking, Lo-yang, King-hwa and other cities to register all students coming from war zones, to oversee their work and to provide food and lodging for them, numbered 10,476 between 1937 and 1944.

To meet the need of the country, the Ministry now and then has had to call the students from school to go in for special war-time services. For example, immediately after war broke out, a group of graduates from medical school were assigned work by the National Health Administration Bureau of the Ministry of War. In January 1941, when urgent engineering work was being done in Szechuen and Kiangsi provinces 180 senior students from engineering and business schools and 11 instructors were sent to the work on the highway. In September of the same year, more than seventy junior and senior students of the Foreign Language Department were assigned as interpreters for American airmen. In 1944, besides medical school graduates who were given work by the Ministry of War, senior students from medical schools were called to take charge of nursing and other medic-

al jobs. Law students were also sent to the army to serve as judges, and more interpreters were gathered from universities in Szechuen, Kweichow and Yunnan.

D. Replenishing of Research Institutes.—The highest organs of research work in China known to foreigners have always been the National Central Research Institute or Academia Sinica and the National Research Institute of Peiping. But since 1929 the Ministry has announced in its program for promoting higher education in China that besides these two institutes of research, there might be more institutes of the same nature attached to all national universities. In August of the same year, the National Government issued orders to the same effect. National Chung-Shan University at Canton and Yen-ching University immediately started preparatory work for founding research institutes. In 1935, the National Government promulgated a set of regulations governing the awarding of M. A. degrees, setting two years as the required period of study for M. A. candidates. In that year, probably all rules that concern the establishment of research institutes had been completed.

According to statistics, there were twelve universities with 26 research institutes prior to the war, which offered post-graduate study in 45 different departments. As the war broke out their work had to be discontinued for some time. But most of them started their work again when the storm was over. A fund of \$3,460,000 was appropriated for that purpose, while later in 1944 another \$10,000,000 was added to the ap-

propriation exclusively for the replenishment of equipment. The number of research institutes was increased to 65 with 86 different departments of study. Since 1943, those who have received M.A. degree number 72.

E. Improvement on the Existing Condition of Sending Students Abroad for Further Study—Ever since June 1938, the Ministry of Education, in compliance with an order of the Government, has limited the number of students going abroad for further studies. Only government students studying military science, engineering, medicine and other branches of science were allowed to go abroad. Private students, e.g., those who wished to study at their own expense, were not allowed to do so unless they had adequate foreign exchange. Under these circumstances, the number of those students going to study abroad decreased to 91 in 1938; 65 in 1939; 86 in 1940; 43 in 1941. But since January 1943, the Ministry acting according to the idea of educating and developing more of China's youths, as set forth by the Generalissimo in "The Destiny of China," has lifted the restrictions on sending students abroad. The number of those who going abroad reached 136 in 1942. In December 1943, for the first time an examination for private students was held. The 326 successful candidates who passed the examination went abroad in September of the following year.

As to government students, nine research students and 31 apprentices were sent to England at the kind invitation of the British Government in 1942. In 1943 the British Government invit-

ed another 65 research students and 69 apprentices. From America 20 scholarships for Chinese students were offered by the International Harvester Cooperation. Massachusetts Institute of Technology and five other universities also invited 41 research assistants from China. To allow more private students to go abroad, the Ministry held an examination in December, 1944, simultaneously in the following seven cities of Chungking, Kunming, Chengtu, Kweiyang, Sian, Lanchow and Kien-yang. Out of the 1842 students who took part in the examination, 195 qualified. Beginning from January 1945, the Ministry has organized short term training courses during which lectures were opened by noted authorities to increase the students' knowledge of their mother country and to better prepare them for studies abroad. They are expected to leave China in July 1945. These will leave for America by sea in 1946 owing to the shortage of air transportation.

F. Promotion of International Cultural Cooperation.

1. *Exchange of Professors.*—In the spring of 1941, Prof. Kuo Jen-yuan (郭任遠) was invited by the British and the American Governments to lecture in England and in the United States and to discuss various problems relating to cultural cooperation. In September of 1941, Prof. Hsu Hsien Kun (徐啓恭) was invited by the Burman Government to lecture in Burma. In 1942 and 1943, three professors came from England to lecture in various universities. They were Prof. E. R. Hughes, Dr. Joseph Needham of Cambridge, and Prof. E. R. Dodds of Oxford.

Coming from the United States were Prof. Frank N. M. Brown, an aeronautical engineering specialist, Prof. Roy G. Johnson, cattle raising specialist, Prof. Paul B. Eaton, mechanical engineering specialist, and Prof. Fred O. McMillen, electrical specialist. From India was Sir S. Rhadkrishnam.

Among the Chinese Professors going to lecture abroad were Prof. Chow How-fu (周厚復) in 1943 and Prof. Fan Chuen-chung (范存忠) and four others in 1944 to England; Prof. Chou Hung-ching (周鴻經) and four others to India. Invited to lecture in America by the State Department were Prof. Chang Chi-ying (張其昀) and five others in 1943. Prof. Wang Ching-hei (汪敬熙) and five others in 1944, and Prof. Mei Yi-pao (梅貽寶) and four others in 1945.

2. *Exchange of Publication:* The usual channel for exchange of publications was through the International Publication Exchange Department of the Central Library. Besides this, the Chinese Government presented a set of books on Chinese literature to the University of Peru and the University of Chile. Pamphlets were also sent to the headquarters of British and Allied forces in Italy. A book entitled the "History of Chinese Culture" compiled by the National Translation and Compilation Bureau has been translated into English.

3. *Founding of Fellowships on Chinese Culture:*—Beginning in 1944, the Chinese Government established various fellowships on Chinese culture at Oxford, Cambridge and London Universities in England and at Harvard, Yale,

Columbia and Stanford Universities and the Universities of Chicago, Michigan, California, Southern California and Washington, in the United States and in the International and Calcutta Universities in India. Each carries with it an annual stipend of \$1,500 U.S. currency. Up to July 1945, the number of fellowships available was seventy.

4. *Participation in the United Nations Educational Conference:*—The Chinese Government appointed Drs. Wu Shih (胡適), Cheng Tien-fang (程天放), Lo Chia-luen (羅家倫), Chao Yuan-jen (趙元任), Li Shu-hwa (李書華) and others to represent China at the United Nations Educational Conference held in London on November 1 to 16, 1945. The Conference passed the resolution of forming a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization with headquarters at Paris.

G. *Encouragement of Writing, Invention and Artistic Production*—For promoting higher education and culture, the Ministry organized in the spring of 1940 a Council for Higher Learning. One of its purposes was to encourage writing and scientific, technical and artistic inventions. Up to July 1945, four examinations have been held for these works and numerous prizes have been awarded ranging from \$10,000 to \$50,000, classified in 3 grades. Two-thirds of the prize winners were teachers in technical schools. In 1945, after a careful consideration of those works, two first prizes, 17 second prizes and 47 3rd prizes were awarded. Another big group is awaiting judgment. Seventy-four persons have won prizes for their discoveries. This awarding

of prizes has been a great encouragement and incentive in the field of literary, artistic and scientific production.

H. Rehabilitation of the Institutions of Higher Education—Following the Japanese surrender in August, 1945, the Ministry convoked a nation-wide Education Relief and Rehabilitation Conference, at which many important resolutions were passed. As to the distribution of post-war universities and colleges, it was decided to place them in the large cities in accordance with their population, communication, economic and cultural situation, at the same time paying due regard to the establishment of the educational and cultural centers in other parts of the country and the equal development of regions. By the summer of 1946, all these institutions of higher education are either to remove to their respective destinations or to remain in the interior. Those universities and colleges controlled by the enemy or the puppet governments in the once occupied territories are to be suspended or to be taken over by the Ministry. At Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tsingtao and Wuhan, temporary universities are to be opened for these students to receive short-term training in subjects they failed to learn during the days of occupation. Those who taught in such institutions have to be examined and if found free from the crime specified in the regulations governing the punishment of traitors, may be reappointed.

III. SECONDARY EDUCATION

In secondary education, the Ministry has paid special attention to the balanced development of the middle school, the normal school and the vocational school. The program for normal education this year is a big one and is, therefore, to be treated in a special chapter. Here follows a brief review of secondary and vocational education.

A. Advancing Secondary Education in Every City and Province—The program for secondary education this year is still progressing according to the old plan of proportional distributions of middle schools over all provinces in accordance with population, communication, economic and cultural conditions of each province with a view to giving to the people of different places the same opportunity of attending middle school education. In 1942, the Ministry supplemented the order with new regulations specifying definite proportion between the middle, normal, and the vocational schools according to the ratio of 6:3:2. In other words, if there are six junior middle schools in a province, there should also be three junior normal schools and two junior vocational schools. For the senior school the ratio is 2:1:1. That is if there are two senior middle schools in a province, there should also be one normal school and one senior vocational school. This policy is aimed at the building up of a group of middle school graduates to meet the urgent needs of the province.

B. Replenishing the Equipment of Schools.—As a result of the

war, every school is lacking in books and equipment. To remedy this situation, the Ministry has carried out two kinds of work.

The first is the compilation of textbooks according to the new standard laid out by the Ministry and their printing. The latter has been done since 1943 by seven book shops designated by the Ministry and with all facilities supplied. For the use of junior middle school, these shops have turned out thousands of volumes along such lines as Chinese Literature, Chinese History, Chinese Geography and national science. Those for the use of senior middle school are already on the press.

The second is to increase the manufacture of those scientific apparatus and models which were difficult to purchase abroad. In 1944, the Manufactory of Scientific Apparatus and Equipment of the Ministry has turned out 196 sets of equipment for laboratory use in both senior and junior middle schools, besides 30 sets of microscopes and 10 sets of very accurate scales. The National Research Institute of Peiping has also turned out 50 sets of microscopes. Models of living animals for biological study have also been made under the direction of Ministry.

Before the war the Academia Sinica had ordered from abroad more than 2,000 sets of scientific apparatus for the middle schools. A part of them was distributed in the early part of the war, but more than 1,000 sets were still stored in Shanghai without any means of being shipped inland.

Fortunately, they were not destroyed and the Ministry will be distributing them among various middle schools.

When the war was over, the Ministry consulted with the Ministry of Economic Affairs and other offices for transferring some of small scale factories taken over from the enemy or puppet governments to the students of vocational schools for practice and experiment. The Ministry of Communications also transferred part of the ships taken over from the enemy or puppet governments for the use of navigation and fisheries schools and the like.

C. Improving Method of Teaching and the Curricula—Secondary education in China in the past has always suffered defect, that is, emphasis was laid on classroom lectures other than student activity, self-study and practice. This year the Ministry has paid special attention to students' self-teaching. Every school is therefore authorized to hold, as many contests as possible in public speaking, essay writing and manual labouring service. With the teaching method in mind the Ministry has produced 14 sets of reference books for the use of all middle school teachers setting down sound advice and many guiding principles.

As to the curricula, the Ministry has also tried to effect improvements. In 1944, all specialists in secondary education in China were invited by the Ministry to hold a conference in which standard textbooks for the use of vocational schools of all types was discussed. Fifteen sets of regulations were agreed upon and

have been sent to the prominent educators of this country for final approval. A new system of shortening the period of secondary education from six years to five is being experimented on by the National Third and 14th Middle Schools.

As to the teaching method the Ministry is making every effort to promote, especially such courses as Chinese, English, Mathematics, history, geography, etc. Different commissions on improving the teaching method and research work are to be formed. The Commission on English teaching in the Middle School was first formed in the autumn of 1945.

As to educational films, the Ministry has produced four sets up to the end of 1944. They are about the geographic conditions of Chungking, Szechuen, Kweichow and Kansu. Another set illustrating local self-government is in the process of being produced.

D. Encouragement of Research work among Teachers—The usual procedure of giving teachers leave of absence for them to do research work has not been carried out since the war on account of a shortage of teaching personnel. In the end of 1944, however, the Ministry adopted a rule to allow them to carry on with their teaching while they engaged in research work. Subsidies were also granted and annual rewards for middle school teachers have been increased both in amount and in number. Taking into consideration the high cost of living in war-time,

the Ministry has also granted all middle school teachers living allowances, on the same scale as that received by government employees. Teachers' salaries have been increased; the system of increase according to age and merit has also been introduced. In general, all teachers' salaries have been raised to the same level as that of teachers of private schools.

E. Relief of War-Zone Students—Since 1944 when war spread over more provinces such as Hunan and Yunnan, the number of refugee middle school students has increased rapidly in number. To cope with this situation, the Ministry ordered the various national middle schools to open more classes. More than 220 additional classes were opened in the two semesters of 1944, admitting over 14,000 students. At the same time the Ministry petitioned to the Executive Yuan for more funds for the relief of these students and teachers. Temporary classes for refugee students were also established in various provinces in the interior—20 in Kweichow, 5 in Honan, 8 in Shensi, 14 in Hunan, allowing for more than 2,400 students. An additional sum of \$1,000,000 was appropriated by the Ministry for relief work among war-zone students in Kiangsu and Kansu alone.

F. Rehabilitation of Post-War Secondary Education—Since the Japanese surrender in August, 1945, the Ministry has instructed all provincial departments of education or bureaux of education to restore order in all schools and colleges so that the students could

continue their studies as usual. Sets of regulations governing the discrimination and examination of teachers and students have been announced. All who taught in the schools controlled by the enemy or puppet governments are allowed to continue teaching with the exception of proved traitors. Students, after being examined for classification, may also be recognized as registered. As a result of this, all the middle schools in the once-occupied territories are able to continue without interruption. Students unable to enter school have been helped to matriculate by the government.

IV. NORMAL EDUCATION

In normal education, the effort of the Ministry has been directed along two lines—the ordinary normal education and the higher normal education.

A. Ordinary Normal Education.—The Ministry of Education has always stressed the importance of normal education. Nevertheless, there has been an obvious shortage of teachers in this country since the war, for war has caused many of the teachers to join the army, others to give up teaching for other work. Therefore, in 1941 when the Ministry started a nation-wide program for people's education, it felt an acute need for well-trained teaching personnel. During these years, therefore, the Ministry, besides carrying out the two programs for normal education which have already been put into effect, laid out eight other guiding principles to be worked out. They are

1. Every province is to be divided into a certain number of districts, and each district to have at least two provincial schools of normal education. Every hsien is to have one school of elementary normal education.

2. There must be schools of normal education for both men and women.

3. There must be some special schools to train teachers along special lines of study, such as handicrafts, music, physical education, drawing and painting and boyscouts, etc.

4. More national normal schools are to be established to take care of students from war areas and to provide for teachers in post-war time.

5. The training method for students of normal schools is to be improved; curriculum of normal schools is to be revised. The teaching method in normal schools is to be bettered. As the securing of qualified teachers is a great problem confronted by the Ministry, the Ministry plans to increase the classes in the different normal schools by five hundred and to take normal education as the most important work to be done this year.

6. The salaries of the normal school graduates who are in the teaching profession are to be raised.

7. Research work among the teachers of normal school is to be encouraged.

8. The normal schools of every district are to assist the local education of that place.

The number of students in normal schools has increased

rapidly. In 1936, it totalled 87,902, but immediately after the war in 1937, it dropped to 48,793. In 1944, it was 130,995, and the following year, it was 160,000.

According to the plan in the program for people's education, 2,960,000 teachers are needed. The students of the normal school now total only 160,000 and the teachers already at work number but 700,000. The shortage of teaching staff in the work of people's education is obvious. The Ministry, therefore, has doubled its effort in the higher normal education.

B. Higher Normal Education.—

In 1938, the Ministry started new normal colleges to train teachers for secondary schools. They are to be independent institutions supported by the government. During these years six of these independent colleges have been established, while five others function under some universities. The first group of graduates coming out from them numbered 1,310. In addition, four schools of special normal study to train teachers of junior middle schools have been founded—two provincial and two national. The number of those who have received the higher normal education training totalled 6,376 in 1943, an increase of more than one thousand over the number of the previous year. Those who graduated from education department of different universities totalled 2,428. Recently, the Ministry drew up the following regulations relating the improvement of normal education and they are as follows:

1. The period of study in the independent normal colleges is four years, to be followed by one year of practical experience. The degree of B. A. and the teacher's certificate are not to be given until after four years of study and one year of practical experience have been completed.

2. In each national university, there are to be a department of education and a department of physical education, Chinese literature, geography, history, mathematics and science are to be taught in the school of arts and science. But normal students have to register for certain special subjects of study.

3. Before a university has a normal college, there must be a department of education in the school of art and science.

4. Whether it be a normal college or a department of education in the school of arts and science, there must be a controlling committee attached to it to see to the various matters concerning special training of normal education.

5. Thirty credits, i.e., 30 hours per week are to be required by students of normal education in any school—22 in the study of the fundamentals of education and eight in the study of teaching methods and practice.

6. Students of any normal school must have one year of teaching experience after graduation before they get their degree and teacher's certificate.

7. University graduates who wish to teach in secondary schools must have one additional year of

normal training to be followed also by one year of experience as teachers before they get their certificates.

8. Students studying normal education as their major subject have to select two other minor subjects of study to meet their need of teaching in a secondary school.

9. Students of normal education are to study at government expenses.

V. POPULAR EDUCATION

A. The Meaning and Purpose of Popular Education.—In 1941, the Ministry started what is called the popular education. The nature of the work is twofold, free education for all children over six years of age and education for illiterate adults. According to the regulations promulgated, it is planned that every boy or girl over six years of age is

to enter a popular school and to study for four years. Those illiterates between 15 and 35 years of age are to enter special classes in the popular school for elementary education. With the help of this program, every citizen of this country will be provided with a means of study. Hence it is called the popular education. Its purpose is to train the youths of China to be fit citizens of a democratic nation, to teach them the principles of local self-government and to understand the San Min Chu I laid out by Dr. Sun Yat-sen. The essence of this program may be summed up in four objects—to discipline, to teach, to cultivate and to safeguard.

B. Reports on the Work of Popular Education.—The program for the popular education is divided into three parts to be worked out over a period of five years. The following table illustrates this work.

<i>Period</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>Percentage of Pupils to the number of Children over 5 years old</i>	<i>Percentage of adults to the number of Illiterates</i>
I	Jan. 1941- Dec. 1942	1 <i>Chungshin</i> popular School for every village and 2 popular school for every 2 Pao	65%	30%
I	Jan. 1943- Dec. 1944	1 Popular school for every 2 Pao	80%	50%
III	Jan. 1945- Dec. 1945	1 Popular school for every Pao	90%	60%

During these years this program was spread over all the 19 provinces of Free China. The situa-

tion in the latter part of 1944 may be seen from the following table.

<i>Type of Schools</i>	<i>Popular School</i>	<i>Chung Hsin People's School</i>	<i>Other Primary School</i>	<i>Total</i>
No. of Schools . . .	234,796	29,494	37,479	301,769
No. of Children . . .	10,150,041	6,531,263	2,956,442	19,637,746
Students Adults . . .	6,017,543	2,469,255	—	8,486,798
No. of Teachers . . .	3,800,935	197,067	664,922	1,242,924

From the Statistics, it can be seen that generally speaking, there is one *Chung Hsin* popular school in every village, besides which there are two schools in every three Pao. This shows better result than the original plan of having one popular school for every two Pao. The percentage of the pupils to the children over six years old is more than 73. But in the field of illiterate adults' education, there is still much to be done, for the people's war-time service, the high cost of living and the shortage of teachers have combined to interfere with the expectation of the plan. To remedy this situation, the Ministry has promulgated another set of plans to wipe out illiteracy which is scheduled to begin from 1946.

C. Finance—Funds for carrying out the program of popular education, are drawn from different sources as shown hereunder:

1. Subsidies from the Central Government	\$ 32,412,380
2. Local Support	
From Provincial Government . . .	37,910,040
From District Government	414,853,020
Total	\$485,176,340

3. Private Foundation Fund of different schools (up to April, 1944) is \$1,038,180,333.

D. Teaching Staff.—The teaching staff necessary for carrying out the program of popular education is indeed very large for as the number of schools increases the number of teachers must likewise increase. Other than opening more normal schools, the Ministry sees no other way to solve this problem. For this reason, junior middle students are often sent out as teachers of the popular school after a short period of training.

Meanwhile, these teachers have to be with means to further their education. Therefore, vocational lectures were organized in 1944 for them. These teachers attending the lectures numbered 10,691. A research institute for these teachers was also established with a large membership of 93,097. The salary of these teachers has been increased to \$150 per month, in addition to which receive \$200 for living subsidy, and 7 tou of rice as food subsidy.

E. Teaching Material.—Standard books and maps for every popular school are provided by the Ministry, but each school in the cities or villages is ordered to produce supplementary materi-

al, to meet the need of the students.

VI. SOCIAL EDUCATION

In view of the fact that China's population is so great and her territory so vast, the Ministry of Education has always laid special emphasis on special education in order to raise the intellectual standard of the people. The war of armed resistance of 1937 has made it even more important than usual, for to arouse people's patriotism there is no better method than social education. Much has been done along this line under the following classification:

A. Training of Personnel for Social Education—As social education is of special importance to this country, the Ministry finds it essential to have a school for training staff to carry out that work. A national college of social education was established, and in the middle school attached to it, a class of social education was added to the curricula. Every city was ordered to have a school of social education or, at least, to have a class of social education attached to a normal school. These schools or classes are to be subsidized by the Ministry.

B. Supplementary Education—In view of the fact that popular education has a great task eradicating illiteracy, the Ministry finds it necessary to give some supplementary education for those who are not totally illiterate but who have lost their chances of further study. In 1944, a detailed set of regulations was announced by the Ministry, and a special

committee was set up to see to its execution. In the same year, a school of supplementary education was established in Chungking, and Chengtu, Kunming, and Kweilin were also ordered to set up supplementary schools for their workers.

C. Improvement of Popular Educational Hall.—Directly under the control of the Ministry of Education, there have been set up various popular educational halls to coordinate all activities concerning social education. In Chungking there are National Central Popular Education Hall and Tsing-Mu-Kuan Popular Educational Hall. More than 1,100 institutions of this type have been established in different localities. Their work is to assist the local government in the physical training of the masses, the education of the illiterate, and the holding of public lectures. Excellent results have been obtained. Meanwhile, the Ministry has announced a three-year plan with the object of founding a popular education hall in every hsien.

D. Replenishment of Public Libraries.—The ravage of war has reduced the number of national public libraries to three. During these years, therefore, the Ministry has devoted most of its work to the establishing of public libraries which now number over a thousand in different localities. Home of the libraries in the small districts are attached to the popular educational hall. In smaller village or town, only reading-rooms are set up. These libraries and reading-rooms receive from the Ministry both books and funds.

E. Promotion of Kuo-yu or Vernacular Education:—The purpose of *kuo-yu* or vernacular education is to enable the illiterate to read elementary books within a short period of time and to enable them exchange thoughts and ideas with people speaking dialects other than their own through the common medium of *kuo-yu*. To effect this staff has to be properly trained and reading material provided. To train the teaching staff, the Ministry has ordered the establishment of *kuo-yu* classes for the teachers of primary schools. To provide them with reading materials, the Ministry has printed over 10 kinds of common readers. In Chungking and Lanchow the Vernacular or *kuo-yu* Weekly and the daily paper "One Thousand Chinese Vernacular Words" continue to be published. The Ministry has also ordered the manufacture of moulds of different *kuo-yu* alphabets in No. 4 and No. 5 types to facilitate the printing of *kuo-yu* or vernacular alphabets.

F. Visual Education:—The cinema and radio are the most effective means of social education. The Ministry, therefore, has tried its best to develop them in spite of transportation difficulties and the lack of proper equipment.

In 1944, there were still 38 units of volunteers for visual education in Free China. Radio broadcasting stations have been increased to 710. Two special classes for cinematographical training have been set up together with the Central Educational Film Manufactory. The latter has turned out 15 sets of projectors besides many copies of film of geographical and historical interest.

G. Promotion of Artistic Education:—Even in war-time, the Ministry has continued to promote artistic education. Besides the National Arts' School, special musical and dramatic schools have been established. There is also a department of art in each of the different popular education halls. Under the auspices of the Ministry, travelling groups have also been organized to tour the various provinces, especially the North-West for things of artistic value. And, cooperating with the Department of Political Administrations, the Ministry of Education has produced various kinds of artistic productions such as paintings and drawings which are to arouse people's patriotism. These things have been circulated among the provinces of Free China for the purpose of public exhibition.

VII. EDUCATION FOR THE FRONTIER DISTRICTS

Education for the frontier districts is a special kind of work for the benefit of the Chinese who live in the border regions of this country. The Ministry therefore, has to devise special methods to suit the needs of the people in the different frontier localities. Along this line, the recent efforts of the Ministry have assumed the following aspects.

A. Founding of More Primary Schools:—As the main purpose of education for the frontier districts is to wipe out illiteracy and to raise the intellectual standard of the people, the first step is naturally to establish more organs of elementary education, and that means more primary schools. It is planned by the Ministry to establish one primary school in every banner in Mongolia and in

every league in Tibet, Sikang and other of the Chinese South-western provinces. To provide these schools with proper staff, the Ministry has increased the number of classes in different normal schools of these regions.

E. Increasing the number of schools in the Frontier District:—

After years of work in the frontier districts, the Ministry has increased not only the primary and the normal schools, but also colleges and secondary schools. At present, besides the schools established by the local government, national schools number 51—2 technical schools, 3 secondary schools, 10 normal schools, 8 vocational schools, 15 primary schools, and 15 more attached to various secondary and normal schools.

C. Emphasis on the "Adaptation Policy":—

As the customs and habits of the frontier districts differ from each other any educational system applied to them must differ from the ordinary principles of education. Ever since 1945, it has been the policy of the Ministry to employ the principle of adaptation in planning education for these districts. For example, all normal schools in these districts have to shorten their period of study to four years, and primary schools attached to them have to organize themselves into smaller groups to be scattered among the most densely populated places. The departments under a vocational school have also to adjust themselves to the need of the locality so as to enable the people to support themselves.

D. Enlargement of the Scope of the Education for the Frontier

Districts:—In the past, the education for the frontier districts was mainly confined to the North-western and the South-western provinces of China. Now a gradual extension over the South-eastern provinces bordering the sea is planned. To meet the urgent educational needs of these South-eastern localities after the war, the Ministry has founded in Sien-yu of Fukien a special training school for teachers, so that, as soon as the war ended, there would be proper men to take care of these sea-bordered provinces.

E. Change of Method of Vernacular Education in the Frontier Districts:—

Formerly, education in the frontier districts emphasized the teaching of the Chinese language and the mandarin dialect or *kuo-yu*, but this policy never produced satisfactory results. On the other hand, people often shunned from entering schools. Recently, the Ministry has revised its policy to give the students free choice, the teaching of the Chinese language and *kuo-yu* being no longer compulsory. Textbooks are to be written in the local dialect and *kuo-yu*. Some books in natural science for primary school students have been translated into Tibetan and Mongolian dialects.

VIII. EDUCATION FOR THE OVERSEAS CHINESE

In view of the fact that part of the Chinese people are scattered all over the earth, especially in the islands of the South Seas and America, and these people speak and write a different language other than their mother tongue,

the Ministry has found it unusually important to educate them and their children in their own language. Various Chinese schools have been founded in every foreign country where a large number of Chinese people live. On account of the war, the effort of the Ministry in the education for the overseas Chinese has suffered a great setback. Nevertheless, the following work has been done.

A. Investigation and Supervisory Work:—Before the war, most of the overseas Chinese were able to establish and support their own secondary and primary schools, but during the war, these schools in occupied territory were practically all destroyed by the Japanese. The Ministry, therefore, in cooperation with the Overseas Affairs Commission sent out in 1941, various representatives to different lands to make a study of the educational situation of these areas and to direct the re-building of the education for the overseas Chinese. According to the latest reports, this type of work has made progress in India and Burma, where various schools have started their work again. Where the representatives of the Ministry have not been sent, the consuls of these places have been instructed to undertake this kind of work on behalf of the Ministry.

B. Relief of the Returned Overseas Students:—Soon after the Pacific War broke out, thousands of China's youths in the overseas areas returned to this country, homeless and destitute in their homeland. To remedy this situation, the Ministry, in cooperation with the Overseas Affairs Commission, organized in

Chungking a reception committee for the returned overseas Chinese who wished to continue their studies. This institution has taken care of hundreds of students and has provided them with food and lodging as well as educational help and guidance.

Also for their exclusive training, the Ministry has established three secondary schools and two normal schools. Meanwhile, a special class for the overseas students was set up in the National Fu-Tan University to prepare them for higher study in the college.

C. Training of Special Teaching Staff for the Overseas Students:—In view of the fact that the overseas schools in foreign countries require a large number of teachers, the Ministry has set up two National Overseas Normal Schools and one Institute of Eastern Languages. This year, these three schools have been greatly expanded. Besides, the departments of education in various universities and the normal school of every province have been ordered to admit more overseas students. In July 1945, a conference was held for the teachers who would shortly be sent to the South Sea Island to serve in primary and secondary school.

D. Compilation of Textbooks for the Overseas Chinese:—The textbooks for the overseas Chinese have always been prepared by the National Translation and Compilation Bureau. Besides the books on Chinese literature, history and geography, the various overseas schools have been recently ordered to print their supplementary books to suit the needs of the locality and political situation.

IX. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

In view of the fact that the Chinese people are physically weaker than other races, the Ministry has recently laid special stress on the development of physical education in China. In 1945, the following work has been accomplished.

A. Administration of Physical Education:—Every city has been ordered to set up a popular Physical Education Committee to assist the Ministry in carrying out the programs for physical education. These committees are to be subsidised by the National Government. Since 1939, the fund for the popular physical education has been listed under the educational and cultural activities in the budget of the Central Government, and since 1943, local governments have also included in their own budgets the fund for physical education.

B. Purpose of Physical Education:—There are two aspects in the popular physical education; one is scholastic and the other social. The common purpose is to encourage useful exercise for the people, so that from exercise, they may learn the essence and meaning of group life and develop individual and social virtues. Thus the vigor and efficiency of the people may be increased and their health can be improved.

C. Physical Education in Schools:—

1. *Training of Teachers:*—In order to increase the number of teachers of physical education, the period of study in the special training school for those teachers has been shortened from three years to two. Every normal school

has also been ordered to add physical education to its curriculum, so that any graduate from the normal school would be able to teach physical education in any primary school. The Ministry is also planning to invite some American professors of physical education to lecture in China.

2. *Compilation of Textbooks:*—In compliance with the standard of physical education, the Ministry has finished the editing of 5 kinds of textbooks of physical education for primary and secondary schools. Meanwhile, six kinds of reference books have been published together with one set of reference books on popular physical education. This compilation work is being continued by the Ministry.

D. Social Physical Education:

1. *Conscription of teachers of Physical Education for War-time Service:*—Ever since the campaign started of 100,000 youths of China for the army, there has been an increasing need of training staff. Fifty teachers of physical education have been conscripted, as well as the senior class students of physical education schools. They were given a short period of military training before being assigned to the various military units.

2. *Encouragement of Social Works and Physical-educational Activities:*—Under the auspices of the Ministry, one special organ, the Chung-Hwa Physical Education Institute, has been set up to study means of improving physical education in China. The Ministry has also published a periodical called "Chung Hwa Physical Education."

3. *Encouragement of Contests and Games:* In every city or hsien, there is scheduled to take place various kinds of sports and games. Inter-school contests have also been encouraged under most difficult circumstances.

4. *Organization of Inspection Parties:* In the spring of 1944 and 1945, various inspection parties were organized to inspect the work of physical education along Chengtu-Chungking highway. They also gave lectures and talks on physical education for the benefit of the teachers. They were always heartily welcomed by the local populace.

X. MEDICAL EDUCATION

The purpose of medical education is directly to train the medical workers and indirectly to safeguard the health of the race. Early in 1929, a Commission on Medical Education appointed from the prominent figures of medical profession with the cooperation of the National Health Administration was organized. It assumed only the nature of a conference; it was not a planned institution as it should be. Beginning from 1935, however, its real work began with the aid and support of the Rockefeller Foundation of America. A program of organization was then adopted, and under the Commission, various committees were set up each to discuss a special problem: such as doctors, medicine, dentists, Chinese doctors, nurses, midwives, health education, compilation of textbooks and other matters. At present, the committee members number fifty one.

The present situation of the Chinese medical education may be

viewed from two aspects—one is the work of this commission and the other the work of the various medical schools.

A. A Review of the work of the Medical Schools:

1. *School of Dentistry:*—There have been recently established 24 schools of dentistry in free China—14 national; 7 provincial and 3 private. The average number of graduates each year is five hundred. There are seven pharmaceutical schools graduating twenty each year.

2. *Department of Health Education:*—At present only one school has a department of health education and that is the Kiangsu Medical College. The students number only twelve.

3. *Nursing School:* Private schools for the training of nurses registered in the Ministry number 36. The average number of graduates each year is 400. In the nursing department of the medical college of Central University, there are only eleven students.

4. *Schools for the Training of Midwives:* There are 24 schools of midwifery at present, turning out 400 graduates each year. In the Shanghai Medical College, the students in this special training number 11.

B. A Review of the Work by the Commission on Medical Education:

1. *Standardization and Planning:* In the past years since 1940, the Commission on Medical Education has promulgated a dozen or more sets of regulations on various matters of medical education, such as the period of study, the curriculum, the organization of phar-

maceutical factories and nursing school, and the health standard of primary school students, and has drafted a program called the "Ten-year Program for the Building of Medical Education."

2. **Replenishing of Textbooks and Equipment:** In view of the fact that every medical college is badly in need of medical books, the Commission has started the editing of medical books and medical dictionaries. Up to June 1945, there have been sixteen sets off the press and 18 more are in the process of printing. The Commission is also engaging in the work of translating the 135 kinds of medical books donated by the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation of America. As to medical equipment, more than thirty million Chinese dollars' worth of goods have been received from the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China and the Rockefeller Foundation. Another six hundred boxes of medical equipment have been received from the American Red Cross; seventy more from the British and the Canadian Red Cross.

3. **Training of Teaching Staff:** China is lacking in doctors; she is even more so in medical professors. From 1935 to 1942, the Board of Medical Education under the Ministry has promulgated a number of rules to speed up the training of medical professors. In the latter half of 1943, the Ministry has increased the salary of the medical professors, and has tried in every way possible to maintain their standard of living. Meanwhile, the Ministry has also devised many ways to encourage research work among the pro-

fessors. In 1944, the Ministry drafted a plan to select some of the professors, giving them scholarship for advanced studies abroad. At the same time, the Ministry established two chairs for foreign professors, one of which was held by the famous surgeon Dr. H. Laucks. He arrived in China in December, 1944, and has already begun lectures and practice in Chungking, Chengtu and other cities. Another expert in tuberculosis is expected to arrive at an early date to occupy the other chair.

XI. WAR-TIME EDUCATIONAL WORK AND RELIEF

One important item in the war-time educational work of China has been the underground educational activities in the occupied areas. Early in 1938, the Ministry promulgated a set of regulations in regard to the administration of education in the cities occupied by the Japanese. Many loyal and capable workers were sent to these cities to arouse and keep alive the patriotism of the people, particularly the intellectuals, and to carry on relief work for the teachers and professors there. They have done excellent work. In the program for 1944, the Ministry also included various matters concerning educational reconversion after the war. War-time educational work may be summed up as follows:

A. Coordination of underground Activities:—All the territories under the Japanese control including the North-Eastern provinces of Manchuria were divided into 102 districts, to each of which were sent representatives from the Ministry to do investigation, coordination and propaganda work.

B. Investigation of Enemies' Educational Work:—Representatives were ordered to investigate the educational administration of the enemy and the puppet government so as to help the Ministry in planning post-war educational program.

C. Pretended Participation in the Enemies' Educational Work:—Proper personnel were sent to join the educational institutions of the puppet government so as to facilitate the eventual return of these institutions to the Ministry and to preserve all valuable books and manuscripts.

D. Expansion of Underground Educational Bodies:—All secret educational organizations in occupied areas were ordered to expand to the fullest possible extent so as to include all the intellectuals living under the enemy's control.

E. Establishment of Broadcasting Stations:—More broadcasting stations were set up, together with communication stations to facilitate the travelling of the underground educational workers.

F. Establishing of Communication Stations:—In every key city bordering the occupied area, such as Teng-chi of Anhwei, Chia-shou of Honan and Sung-chuen of Kwantung were stationed a group of teachers to facilitate the underground educational activities in the occupied areas.

G. Registration of War-Zone Teachers:—The department of education in every province in free China was ordered to register all the teachers who left the occupied areas and help them with various kinds of relief work.

H. Frontier Educational Administration:—In the province of Ninghsia and Kanting were assigned able educational workers to develop the education and culture of the frontier districts.

I. Relief of War-Zone Students:—In every key city were set up reception and training headquarters for students of war areas. Thousands of homeless youths were given opportunities of study or were offered suitable jobs.

A. COMPARATIVE STATISTICS ON HIGH EDUCATION (1944-1945)

<i>Types of Institutes</i>	<i>Universities</i>	<i>Independent College</i>	<i>Technical Schools</i>	<i>Total</i>
No. of Institutions . . .	40	50	53	145
No. of Research Students	379	43	—	422
No. of Students				
College Students . . .	47,993	16,854	—	64,847
Technical School Students . . .	—	—	8,721	8,721
Special Training Class Students . . .	2,197	1,698	1,024	4,919
Total . . .	50,569	18,595	9,745	78,909
No. of Professors and Teachers . . .	10,711	4,604	3,300	18,615

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B. COMPARATIVE STATISTICS ON SECONDARY EDUCATION (1943-1944)

	<i>Secondary School</i>	<i>Normal School</i>	<i>Vacational School</i>	<i>Total</i>
No. of Schools	2,573	493	384	3,455
No. of Classes	19,229	3,223	2,212	24,664
No. of Students	902,163	130,995	67,929	1,101,087
No. of Teachers	64,197	11,596	9,057	84,850

C. COMPARATIVE STATISTICS ON POPULAR EDUCATION (Second term of 1943-1944)

	<i>Chung Hsin Popular School</i>	<i>Popular School</i>	<i>Other Primary School</i>	<i>Total</i>
No. of Schools	27,419	208,781	7,243	273,443
No. of Classes	129,490	331,167	65,336	530,993
No. of Pupils	4,931,509	11,364,669	2,306,061	18,602,239
No. of Graduates	1,231,363	2,097,156	469,597	3,798,116
No. of Teachers	201,925	410,850	983,932	696,757
Annual Expenditure (dol- lars)	383,327,810	591,766,753	129,844,783	1,164,939,346

D. COMPARATIVE STATISTICS ON SOCIAL EDUCATION (1943-1944)

<i>Types of Institutes</i>	<i>No. of Institutes</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>No. of Teachers and Staff</i>	<i>Annual Expenditure (dollars)</i>
People's Educational Hall	1,148	—	5,404	17,103,453
Public Libraries	940	—	1,808	14,506,844
Playground	1,498	—	1,609	2,656,958
Cinemagraphical Insti- tutions	805	—	960	2,859,316
Popular School	36,039	1,719,501	47,762	4,508,741
Supplementary School	1,094	961,361	2,101	4,789,233
Others	36,520	90,803	42,024	34,815,593
Total	78,044	1,871,665	101,668	81,240,138

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E. RELIEF WORK OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS FROM WAR ZONES
(up to the end of 1945)

<i>Period</i>		<i>Before 1938</i>	<i>Before 1939</i>	<i>Before 1940</i>	<i>Before 1941</i>	<i>Before 1942</i>	<i>Before 1943</i>	<i>Before 1944</i>	<i>Before 1945</i>
RELIEF OF TEACHERS	Total	15,769	17,855	18,549	19,019	19,482	19,822	20,408	20,688
	From Institutions of Higher Education	390	506	599	637	644	546	646	696
	From Secondary School	5,416	5,994	6,131	6,200	6,236	6,255	6,349	6,487
	From Primary School	8,467	9,500	9,797	10,063	10,483	10,800	11,292	11,450
	From Institutions of Social Education	1,434	1,788	2,007	2,053	2,053	2,055	2,055	2,055
	Staff	50	65	65	66	66	66	66	—
RELIEF OF STUDENTS	Total	245	713	890	1,016	1,033	1,046	1,082	1,082
	Students Abroad	245	543	676	792	812	820	856	856
	Returned Students	—	170	214	224	226	226	226	226
	Total	28,898	40,218	43,047	57,316	76,965	127,443	214,069	258,106
	From Institutions of Higher Education	3,216	3,825	4,777	5,156	6,674	8,649	11,232	12,984
	From Secondary Schools	25,682	36,393	38,270	52,160	70,291	118,794	202,837	245,122

CHAPTER XXXIX

THE ACADEMIA SINICA

For the purpose of promoting and encouraging scientific research the Academia Sinica was established by the National Government in 1927. At first it had only 10 institutes but now the number is 14. Though handicapped by limited finance, personnel and equipment since the beginning of the Sino-Japanese war it has carried out an extensive program of research throughout Free China. Its central administration office is at present in Chungking. The institutes of zoology, botany and meteorology are located at Pehpei, Szechuen; the institutes of history and philology, social sciences and physical anthropology at Lichuang, Szechuen; and the institutes of mathematics, astronomy, chemistry and engineering in Kunming. The institutes of physics, geology and psychology were in Kweilin but have moved to Szechuen since September, 1944. The institute of medicine is at Ko Lou Shan, Szechuen.

The following is a brief report of the research activities of the different institutes during the year of 1944-45:

I. THE INSTITUTE OF MATHEMATICS (under organization)

The National Research Council voted in 1941 to establish the Institute of Mathematics but owing to difficulties in obtaining equipment and literature from

abroad during the war its formal opening was postponed. Since 1942 prominent mathematicians of the country have, however, been invited to cooperate as part-time fellows of the Institute and carry on research at their respective universities with whatever facilities available to them.

The research subjects of the Institute include theory of numbers, theory of matrices, Fourier series, automorphic functions, geometry of circles and spheres, projective differential geometry, higher differential geometry, topology and mathematical statistics. Since 1942 no less than 70 papers have been completed, most of them being sent abroad for publication.

II. THE INSTITUTE OF ASTRONOMY

The Institute of Astronomy is a research organization as well as an almanac office. The People's Calendar, published yearly by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of the Interior, is computed by the Institute.

Due to the lack of a good telescope research is often devoted to subjects which are theoretical or computational in nature. Among the problems investigated during the year the following may be mentioned: the proper motions in Boss's General Catalogue, the globular clusters in a rotating galaxy,

recombination process in the E-layer of the ionosphere and ground state of the Lithium.

The routine observational program is limited to the daily variation in the number and size of sun spots. Solar eruptions are observed regularly with a spectro-helioscope.

III. THE INSTITUTE OF PHYSICS

As a result of the unfavorable turn of the war in Kwangsi during the early summer of 1944 the Institute of Physics had to leave Kweilin for Chungking in August. It reached its destination at the end of the year and lost on the way some of its journals and heavier machines though all its scientific records and precision instruments were saved.

The Institute is now reestablished at Pehpei, Szechuen. It has a building of about 30 rooms of which 6 are used as laboratories, 4 as offices and the rest as dormitories. The machine shop, which is very much reduced in size, is temporarily put up in the same building while the geomagnetic observatory is to be built on a site in the neighborhood.

Following the suggestions of the Combined Communications Board the Institute has undertaken the task of setting up an ionosphere observation station with automatic recording instruments. The station is to be near the geomagnetic observatory and its work will begin as soon as the equipment arrives and is installed.

IV. THE INSTITUTE OF CHEMISTRY

The work done at the Institute of Chemistry during the year of

1944 may be summarized as follows:

A. The absorption spectra of organic compounds containing conjugated carbonyl groups.—It has been one of the chief activities of the Institute of Chemistry since 1933 to elucidate the structure of simple polyatomic molecules through the investigation of their ultraviolet absorption spectra. Interesting results have been obtained for cyanogen, diacetylene, acetylene, *n*- and iso-cyanates and *n*- and iso-thiocyanates. On account of the difficulties in getting adequate equipment during the war this work is now limited to studies on compounds in liquid or dissolved states, among which those containing conjugated carbonyl groups being chosen. The results for methylglyoxal have given a new method for the preparation of anhydrous methylglyoxal in non-aqueous solvents, have proved the existence of the 4300 Å absorption maximum due to the conjugated carbonyl groups and have elucidated the complications involved in aqueous and alcoholic solutions. Preliminary results for phenylglyoxal have also been obtained.

B. The mechanism of reaction of some organic compounds with alkaline hypiodite and the method of their quantitative determination.—Alkaline hypiodite solution has been used for the determination of aldehydes and ketones, e.g. formaldehyde, acetone, aldose, etc. But for some compounds such as methylglyoxal the reaction involves two or more steps and some of these may be incomplete. The results obtained for methylglyoxal have elucidated the mechanism of the reaction and given an accu-

rate method of determination. Preliminary results for phenylgloxal have also been obtained.

C. The isolation and structure determination of natural drugs.—

1. Studies in Santonian Series—Interesting results concerning the desmotorpo-isomerism of santonian derivatives have been published in a series of papers.

2. The alkaloid from the Chinese drug "Hsia-Hsan-i-Chi-Hou"—An alkaloid has been isolated from this Chinese drug. Its structure is still under investigation.

D. Investigation of synthetic drugs:—

1. Derivatives of sulfanilamide—Several derivatives of sulfanilamide have been prepared and their physical and chemical properties determined.

2. Oestrogenic compounds—For the preparation of hexostral methods have been tried by using the easily obtainable metals such as iron, zinc, copper and aluminium in place of sodium. The compound obtained is still under investigation.

V. THE INSTITUTE OF GEOLOGY

The Institute of Geology had originally planned to explore the Nanling Range for the purpose of locating and evaluating the wolfram and tin deposits in the light of certain tectonic relations and metallogenic sequence observed and deduced in the course of field and laboratory studies made in previous years. But the war in Hunan and Kwangsi provinces made it impossible to carry out this plan. On the other hand, shortage of coal became acute. To meet the situation the Institute

directed its activities to the coalfields accessible to the Hsiang-Kwei and Chien-Kwei lines.

Parties were sent to the Tapu, Hoshan and Ishan areas in Kwangsi to reinvestigate the possible sites for opening new pits and shafts. At the same time detailed surveys of the Lipo and Tuhyun coalfields in southern Kweichow were carried out. Fresh coalfields were found and developed in the neighborhood of Tuhyun. These fields now constitute the only source of coal supply for the remaining section of the Chien-Kwei Railway.

Owing to the complicated tectonic conditions prevailing in the above areas the coal miners often find it difficult to locate the productive seams both on the surface and underground. Consequently, the geologists of the Institute had to be posted on the spot, so that they could cooperate with the mining engineers. This team work proved to be very satisfactory.

Though a severe demand was made upon the time and labor of the members of the Institute they did not neglect research of purely scientific nature. The geological map of Kwangsi on the scale of 1,200,000 was completed; evidence of polyglaciation in certain areas of the Kweichow Plateau was satisfactorily established; experimental and theoretical studies on geomechanical problems were carried out; and plant remains of older Carboniferous periods were found and identified.

VI. THE INSTITUTE OF ZOOLOGY

Ichthyology, Entomology and Protozoology continue to be the main subjects of research in the

Institute of Zoology. Cytology, which formed the fourth subject during the past years, is temporarily dropped this year and in its place helminthological work is done.

A. Ichthyology.—Following the revelation of rudimentary hermaphroditism in the symbranchioid eel, *Monopterus javanensis*, attention was at once directed to the controlling the sex-reversal of this fish. Sex hormone as well as inanition have been tried to initiate a precocious sex-transformation but the result is not yet sufficient to warrant a conclusion. Morphologically, the unique blood vascular system of this fish is traced back to the embryonic stage and the sensory canals, mostly on the head, are being studied.

Another air-breathing fish under investigation is the Chinese loach, *Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*. Its intestine begins with three spiral turns instead of a thin-walled dilatation as found in the European representative and its histological adaptation for respiration is manifest only when the medium is deficient of dissolved oxygen.

The oviposition and early development of the bitterling, *Rhodeus sinensis*, have received serious consideration. Indications seem to suggest that the eggs are not deposited in the mantle cavity of the clam as usually believed. The finding that the developing embryos are unanimous in orientation with reference to the water tube of the gill of the clam is deemed significant from the viewpoint of polarity determination. Importance is also attached to the prominent conical projections at the sides of the embryo.

Artificial hybrids between the carp and the wild breed of goldfish have been produced and reared to maturity. Offsprings derived from reciprocal crosses are quite distinct from each other and generally resemble the maternal species. From the barbels and the pharyngeal teeth the hitherto known hybrid "*Carpio kellari*" is obviously a bastard between the male goldfish and the female carp.

Experiments on feeding capacity and larval propensity have been made with *Aplocheilichthys latipes*, *Pseudorasbora parva* and *Macropodus opercularis* to evaluate their usefulness as indigenous mosquito-killer. The first is found in nature to subsist on algae and thus cannot be used to advantage while *Macropodus* works splendidly and is very efficient for this purpose.

B. Entomology.—Works on entomology have been chiefly confined to three lines of research, namely, the phylogenetic study of insect larvae, the physiological study of insect wing and the biological study of insects of medical interest. The study of the various types of insect larvae has shown that they are all derivable from a common ancestral type which is presumably campodeiform and polypodous. The derivation has occurred in two ways: by reductive specialization and by progenesis. In the first case, the larval types follow an evolutionary sequence proceeding from the polypod and oligopod conditions to the apod state; in the second case, the sequence proceeds from the polypod condition to the protopod state. With regard to the insect wing observations made on haemolymph circulation have demon-

strated the general course of flow in the veins as well as the significance of the haemolymph in the formation of wing-chitinizations. It was also found that the course of haemolymph flow, the system of tracheation and the topography of the wing areas are to be considered as the most important factors which determine the positions of veins, and of chitinized patterns and spots on the wings. Among the medical insects comparative studies on the habits of five species of flies (*Musca domestica*, *M. sorbens*, *Stomoxys calcitrans*, *Sarcophaga fuscinauda* and *Chrysomya megacephala*) and the larval morphology of two species of mosquitos (*Armigeres obturbans* and *Lutzia fuscans*) were made. *A. obturbans*, the most dominant mosquito of Pehpei, Szechuen, is of interest in that it appears to present certain seasonal variations in the sex ratio, the proportion of females to males being found to raise from 1:1 in the summer to 2:1 in the winter. The fact requires, however, further confirmation.

C. Protozoology.—In the field of protozoology work is mainly confined to Dinoflagellates and Infusoria. In Dinoflagellates a new genus and species, *Sinodinium connectens*, belonging to a new family Sinodinidae, from Sanyah-kung, Hainan is described. Provided with a primitive kind of cingulum it exhibits a connecting link between the cingulum-bearing and non-cingular families. The thecal plates of this interesting species are carefully worked out and their arrangement and homologue are discussed. Besides, the genus *Lissodinium* which was formerly described by Matzmauer (1933) from Indian Ocean, is revised and

annotated. Its thecal plates are renamed and its possible phylogenetic relationship among the families of Peridiniida is also pointed out.

For Infusoria attentions are essentially paid to Suctorina and to the genus *Coleps*. Five species of the latter are described, among which three species and one variety being considered as new to science. In the study of Suctorina a new genus and species, *Spathecyathus caridina*, attaching to the upper part of the antennae of the fresh water shrimp *Caridina* sp., has been found in a shallow brook near Pehpei, Chungking. It is of interest to note that the way of multiplication of this animal is simply by successive budding into a number of vermiform young individuals which sooner or later leave their mother body and attach to other parts of the antennae or to antennae of other shrimps. This condition very much resembles that of *Dendrosomides* described by Collin. Although a ciliated embryo is characteristic of Suctorina it is not true in this particular species so far as observed.

D. Helminthology.—In search of the intestinal nematodes of chickens a dozen of the hosts from the market of Chungking were examined and four special provided with preanal suckers were determined. Among these parasites *Heterakis galli* is more or less cosmopolitan; *Heterakis putaustralis* and *H. beramporis* have formerly been recorded only from India while *Ascaridia sinensis*, n. sp. is described for the first time.

The remarkable fish *Monopteris* mentioned above is found to be heavily infested with a kind of larval nematode which forms red-

dish cysts on the body wall and viscera of the fish. These cysts when fed to ducklings, cause internal hemorrhage and death of the latter. A preliminary study indicates that they are the larval form of *Eustrongylides sinicus* naturally occurring on the proventriculus of the heron.

VII. THE INSTITUTE OF BOTANY

The research work for the past year of the Institute of Botany may be described briefly under the following heads:

A. Phanerogamic Botany.—The general survey of Chinese Umbelliferae is continued. Several species of the genus *Pternopetalum* from Szechuen, Yunnan, Sikang and Kansu were recorded, among which two being described as new. Two new species and a new variety of *Pleurosperrum* were collected from Kansu and described.

B. Algology.—During this period only some taxonomic investigations of fresh water algae are done. The main subjects include: the fresh water Ulotrichales of China; fresh water algae in the vicinity of Lanchow, Kansu; *Vacheriopsis sinensis* and *Vaucheria jaoi*; and the Myxophyceae in the vicinity of Pehpei, Szechuen. From these investigations several novelties of *Oscillatoria*, *Plectonema*, *Scytonema*, *Rivularia*, *Spirogyra* and *Vaucheria* have been brought to light. Some very rare algae such as *Excentrophaera viridis*, *Vacheriopsis arrhyncha*, *V. sinensis*, *V. jaoi* etc. have also been re-discovered and studied in details regarding to their cell structure and reproduction methods.

C. Plant Physiology.—Further experiments on the effects of micro-elements, auxin and colchicine upon starch hydrolysis and carbohydrate synthesis in the primary leaves of bean plants have been carried out. Studies of this kind have also been extended to the germinating wheat seeds.

VIII. THE INSTITUTE OF METEOROLOGY

During the period of 1944-45 the Institute of Meteorology has carried out the following works:

A. Routine Works.—Routine works include daily observations, pilot balloon observations, computations of climatological data, etc.

B. Research Works.—Research works on the following lines of Meteorology and Climatology have been undertaken and conclusive results have been obtained:

1. The Wave Disturbance in the Westlies.
2. Macroscopic Turbulence and the Weather of the Far East.
3. The Tendency of the Continental Anticyclone in the Far East.
4. The Distribution of Rainfall in China, 1943.
5. A Preliminary Classification of Rainfall over the Szechuen Basin.
6. The Variation of Pressure with Weather of the South-western Provinces and the Problem of Night Precipitation in Szechuen and Kweichow.
7. On the Mechanism of Advection.
8. The Marching and Retreating of Summer Monsoon in China.
9. The Prediction of Frost in Central China.
10. The Climate of Formosa.

IX. THE INSTITUTE OF HISTORY AND PHILOLOGY

During the period under consideration the historical section of the Institute of History and Philology has published two volumes of critical studies on the Records on Wooden Slips of the Han Dynasty from the Estina Desert and a monograph on the origin of the political system of the Sui and T'ang Dynasties. A volume of critical studies of Chuang-Tze has also been completed.

The linguistic section has published a monograph and several articles on Chinese phonology which throw considerable new light on the problems of this branch of study.

The archaeological section has published more chapters of a large work on Yin calendar and chronology, several articles on the Anyang excavation and a paper on a Han Dynasty tomb in Shantung. A field party was again sent to western Kansu to excavate a number of Six Dynasties and T'ang Dynasty tombs in the Tunhuang region and explore the ruined sites of frontier defenses of the Han Dynasty. Many valuable materials were recovered.

With the establishment of the Institute of Physical Anthropology the field of study of the fourth section of the Institute became limited to cultural anthropology. This new arrangement caused change of personnel and routine and somewhat impeded the progress of the work. The ethnographical survey of the Szechuen-Yunnan Border was, however, carried out uninterrupted.

X. THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

At the end of 1944 the Institute of Social Sciences finished the following studies:

1. Marshall's Quasi-Rent Theory.
2. The Land Tax Collector in the Ming Dynasty.
3. The Hupeh Iron Works: A Chapter in Chinese Industrial Evolution.
4. Copper Mining in Yunnan and Copper Coinage in the T'ang Dynasty.
5. Peasants' Revolts in the Last Days of Ming.
6. A Theoretical Discussion of International Payments in National Income.
7. A Report on the Economic Conditions of Sinkiang.
8. Reconstruction of Land Taxation in China.
9. How Far Land Tax May Be Used to Stabilize Farmers' Income.
10. Financial Relationship between the Central and Provincial Government in China.

In addition the staff members also contributed nine articles of academic significance to various periodicals.

In progress are the following subjects of research:

1. The Taiping Rebellion in All Its Aspects.
2. China's National Income.
3. China's War Losses.
4. Coal Mining in the Chialing River Basin.
5. The Hsien Council in Szechuen.

New projects which have been started during the year are as follows:

1. The Grain Transportation System during the Tsing Dynasty.
2. The Economy of Oasis Culture.
3. China's Foreign Trade since 1932.

The publication of the Institute for the year is "Studies of Chinese Social and Economic History," Vol. VII, No. 1.

XI. THE INSTITUTE OF MEDICINE

(under organization)

The Institute of Medicine was organized in December, 1944. It is located on the campus of the National Shanghai Medical College, Koloshan, Chungking and its present staff consists of a director, a fellow, three assistants and a technician. The physiological field is being developed first and with a small amount of borrowed apparatus works on cardiac inhibition and neuromuscular transmission have been started. The Institute also plans to cooperate with the Army Medical Administration in their works among the soldiers.

XII. THE INSTITUTE OF PHYSICAL ANTHROPOLOGY

(under organization)

The Institute of Physical Anthropology, formerly a section of the Institute of History and Philology, was established in April, 1944. It has four research laboratories, viz. Anthropometry, Human Heredity and Eugenics, Racial Physiology and Neurology, and Bio-statistics.

In spite of wartime difficulties work on both living and skeletal materials has been successfully carried out. The following are problems investigated during the year of 1944-45:

1. On the Physical Characters of the Chinese Nation.
2. An Anthropometric Study of the Chinese Radius and Ulna.
3. A Study of the Chinese Blood Grouping.
4. Anthropology of the Different Miao Tribes in West Kweichow.
5. Notes on the Physical Traits of the Lolo Peoples of Kweichow.
6. A Study of the Yin Dynasty Skull Excavated from Anyang.
7. A Study of the Chinese Femur.
8. On the Physical Development of Chinese Children, Based on the Anthropometric Data of South Szechuen.
9. A Preliminary Study of the Chinese Twin.
10. Notes on the Heredity of Longevity.

Most of the above papers are published in foreign scientific journals. A few appear in the Chinese Anthropological Journal of the Institute.

XIII. THE INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING

The progress of research in the Institute of Engineering for the year of 1944-45 may be summarized under the following headings:

A. Research Work on Metals and Alloys.—Experiments for the production of special alloyed cast iron from locally abundant raw

materials have been successfully carried out. As a result the China Electric Steel Works, the collaborator of the Institute, has been able to turn out a quantity of this metal for the manufacture of piston rings for engines of motor trucks. These rings have been extensively tested at different temperatures and a report on their heat treatment is being prepared.

To meet the urgent need by local industries of heat resisting steels the Institute has undertaken some research on problems relating to their manufacture but so far no conclusive result has been obtained. At the request of the Services of Supply of the United States Forces in China the Institute, in collaboration with the China Electric Steel Works, has carried out some experiments for making hard bronze specially required by that Service with locally available raw materials. For the same Service the Institute has also solved the problem of reclaiming brass from scrap cartridge cases.

B. Research Work on Glass.—

The investigation of problems relating to the manufacture of optical glass is continued. Much progress has been made in perfecting the necessary apparatus for the satisfactory melting of sample batches. After reliable temperature control appliances for the melting furnace have been completed improvements in making the required porcelain crucible have also been effected. When a selected group of raw materials is prepared trial melts will be started.

A second subject under this heading is the research on methods

for the manufacture of a special hard glass that would be similar to the "Nonex" and may be used as its substitute in vacuum tubes for wireless communication. This work was started at the suggestion of the Central Electric Machinery Works and has been done in collaboration with them. But due to the lack of proper materials and adequate apparatus only preliminary success has been obtained.

A bibliography of all the literature published in leading languages dealing with the manufacture of glass is compiled. Exhaustive studies of a great number of selected periodicals extending many years have been made and index cards have been prepared for all the articles reviewed. The work cannot, however, be completed shortly for there should be still some time before the Institute can get periodicals published abroad since the latter part of 1939.

C. Research Work on Cotton.—

The spinning qualities of wood cotton grown in Yunnan have been further investigated. The first samples have shown to possess fairly good qualities but much improvement has been made in their plantation since then in the Kai Yuan district of Yunnan. An inspection of the local conditions was made last fall and new samples were collected for comparative studies.

The work on the manufacturing of cotton machinery has proceeded according to the plan. It has been suggested that simple weaving machines should be first manufactured and distributed for use in the country districts.

D. Research Work on Wood.—

The mechanical tests for the specimens of structural wood, which the Institute collected with the assistance of the United States Army Forces in China and the Engineering Department of the Administration of the Yunnan Burma Highway from the forests along the western part of the Highway, have been completed. A report, "Survey and Mechanical Test of Timber for Bridge Construction along the Yunnan-Burma Highway," has been written and important data and informations have been supplied to the above organizations.

With a view to utilize the products of distillation from trees near Kunming to various industries work on the dry distillation of timber has been started. Several samples have been tested and the products obtained are being studied. After the completion of the preliminary survey plans will be drawn for making specific investigations with due regard to special qualities of the timber due to local conditions.

The influence of twisted fibres on the strength of the Yunnan pine has been investigated. It has been observed that many varieties of the Yunnan pine have twisted fibres which might greatly reduce its resistance to bending and compression when used as structural members. Tests have been completed and a report will soon be published.

E. Other Works.—Barite (heavy spar) is abundant in certain localities of Yunnan. A study for making barium carbonate and barium oxide from this mineral for use as raw materials in the glass

laboratory has been made and satisfactory chemical methods have been devised.

The chemical laboratory of the Institute continues to render important services to public institutions and government owned industries. On many occasions its efforts contributed much toward the solution of problems of vital military importance.

XIV. THE INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

The Institute of Psychology was situated in Kweilin, Kwangsi from 1940 to 1944. During this period its work was mainly neurophysiological in nature. Among the problems investigated were: the influence of each of the higher levels of the central nervous system on the development of the immediate lower level, and the effect of interference in labyrinthine functions on the development of animal behavior. Besides considerable unpublished data, the Institute has published a number of papers in American neurophysiological journals.

On account of the unfortunate military conditions in Kwangsi during the summer and autumn of 1944 the Institute had to leave Kweilin and, after going through many hardships, finally moved to Peipei, Chungking. The means of communication were so difficult on the way that it took more than half a year before the staff and the equipment of the Institute reached their destination. Having now settled at Peipei, the Institute hopes to resume its research activities soon.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF PEIPING

In accordance with an act passed by the Executive Yuan of the National Government, the National Academy of Peiping was established on September 9th, 1929 in Peiping, with the sole purpose of carrying out scientific researches and bringing about their applications. At its foundation, the Academy consisted of nine separate research institutes, namely, the Institutes of Physics, Radium, Chemistry, Materia Medica, Physiology, Zoology, Botany, Geology and Historical Studies and Archaeology, and it used to have a staff of more than 200 members, including research professors, assistant research professors, senior and junior assistants and technicians, in addition to about 30 Chinese and foreign correspondent members. Contributions of all branches of work have been published in various languages, scattered throughout almost all the principal scientific journals of the world.

At the outbreak of the present war with Japan, Peiping was immediately taken over by the invaders; and we were then forced to suspend or relinquish our studies. In fact, at that time our research activities were virtually stopped, or at any rate postponed indefinitely. However, in the midst of confusion and distress we succeeded in transferring a portion of the books and equipment of each of our institutes to the South

and to places of safety. And, what was even more fortunate, within a few months after the war had reached a state of stabilization, the Academy was able to resume the larger part of its work in the hinterland city of Kunming in the Province of Yunnan, where it has continued to be in existence up to the present moment. One can now imagine the danger and trouble we experienced in getting through areas of intensive military operations and lines of blockade, on the way from Peiping to Kunming, a distance of more than 2,000 miles by land and sea. Furthermore, with a great quantity of material on hand, tremendous difficulty was naturally encountered in arranging for transportation, when all means of communication were in a state of disorder.

In spite of the hardships arising from the lack of the necessary equipment, shortage of funds and the constant menace to our personal safety, the work of the Academy is still in progress, to an extent far beyond the most sanguine expectations. Our activities have been vigorously pushed even under the most difficult conditions. Our interest and belief in science do not suffer the slightest diminution. Before going on to the work completed or being done in our institutes during the last six years, which will amply testify the above statements, a few words on the general situation of the

Academy as a whole following a period of internal readjustment to adopt itself to the present environment, may be added here.

The National Academy of Peiping, still with its nine institutes, has now a smaller staff of 120 members. Regarding our policy in general, we can say that the greater portion of our research activities tends to be practical and economically important to meet the immediate needs of the nation. Our publications, which in former years amounted to nearly 50 kinds of bulletins, journals, memoirs, books and maps, plus 800 papers and reports, are still in progress, but on a very much reduced scale owing to the lack of efficient means of printing.

What follows will serve to summarize our research work in the different institutes. We are rather encouraged to catch a glimpse of the types of researches performed by ourselves since the Japanese invasion and to give our friends some idea of what the scientific workers of China are doing while the nation is being overrun by a catastrophic war.

I. INSTITUTE OF PHYSICS

To comply with our general policy, the Institute of Physics whose studies were chiefly in photography, spectroscopy, piezoelectricity and geophysics, has recently more and more inclined to attack practical problems that confront us in industry and national defence.

With its spectroscopic equipment, a laboratory of spectrum analysis has been immediately set up to meet the need of the just-beginning metallurgical industry in this country. Some routine

work was carried out, and certain new techniques were developed.

In the course of the war, numerous radio stations both fixed and movable have been established, but almost all of them are of quite small power. The wave interference between these stations would be troublesome, if they were not crystal-controlled. The Institute has stabilized more than one thousand transmitters with its quartz oscillators made in our laboratories and thereby it has certainly rendered a service to radio communication in China today.

Besides the work mentioned above, the Institute has confined its effort mainly to development of applied optics and geophysical prospecting.

When we were computing optical systems and designing optical instruments at Peiping, we keenly felt the need of optical instruments both in times of peace and of war. It was therefore decided to devote some of our members to the problems of applied optics and to set up a small optical shop in Kunming. For this purpose optical machinery had to be built, testing instruments to be designed, and craftsmen to be trained. After three years' painstaking work, we have arrived at a state of being able to produce most of the optical parts in good quality.

Optical parts like achromats, prisms and flats have been abundantly supplied to various institutions for educational and research purposes. Microscopes for the general usage of university students are being made in this shop according to the instructions of the Ministry of Education, and two hundred of them are nearly completed.

In geophysics the establishment of a gravity map of China and the precise determination of longitudes and latitudes had been our two main undertakings. Since our removal to Kunming, although we continued the gravity determinations throughout the province of Yunnan to the borders of Burma and Indo-China and redetermined the longitude and latitude of Kunming, the attention of our geophysicists, however, has been directed to our mineral resources, and their methods have been immediately put into application.

Our work in geophysical prospecting was mainly the study of metallic ore deposits. Up to the present, six different mining districts have been thoroughly examined by our geophysical field parties employing chiefly magnetic and electrical apparatus. The N.R.C. (National Resources Commission) I-Men Iron Mine was the first one surveyed, and this took us six months of field and office work. Then came the An-Ning Iron Mine, the Kuchiu Tin Mine, the Lu-Tien lead-silver mine, the Chaotung lignite field and lastly the Tungchuan Copper, Lead-Zinc and pyrite mines. All of these were successively subjected to geophysical investigation.

These studies have been carried out upon the request of the respective mining organizations whose interest and enthusiasm in geophysical methods are very encouraging. The results have not only greatly altered the concepts of the geologists and mining engineers as the extent and economic value of these deposits, but also numerous facts and experiences arising from them have opened

the door to improvements in the methods of geophysical prospecting. These results are thus also of academic interest.

Cooperating with the Geological Survey of China, we have organized a committee on geophysical work, which publishes all the contributions from the geophysical investigators of the country.

II. INSTITUTE OF RADIUM

The Institute of Radium consists of three laboratories, that of chemistry, radio-activity and X-rays. In the first two, a great number of Chinese minerals were examined chemically and radioactively. Protactinium was much studied and its branching ratio redetermined with counters. A detailed study of the absorption coefficients of B-rays especially from UX₂ and RaE revealed the important fact that they have neither a fixed nor a single value, but depends on the thickness of the absorber and the surrounding conditions of the source under measurement.

In our laboratory of X-rays, the work is mainly on crystal analysis. Some improvements on classical methods and techniques have been made. With an induction furnace, some alloys of tungsten and antimony were prepared, and X-rays studies of them are now in progress.

III. INSTITUTE OF CHEMISTRY

Like most of our other institutes, the Institute of Chemistry has been for the past six years, devoting a large portion of its efforts and time to problems of applied chemistry, in addition to pure chemical researches. Upon this institute, however, the war seems to

have exerted a greater pressure for the simple reason that here we have to import a considerable amount of chemical reagents from abroad and these are consumed at a rate far beyond our power of replacement. Nevertheless, we have been rather successful in dealing with the situation and was able to carry out our various types of work as outlined below.

In the field of applied chemistry our investigations have been following at least four lines, all of these were problems in which the public is calling for immediate solutions. They are (1) Extraction of dyestuffs from local plants and their application to various textiles, (2) Preparation and manufacturing on a small scale of medicines, utilizing local raw materials, (3) Recovery of used engine oils, replacement of diesel oil by vegetable oil, and preparation of a gasoline substitute from molasses and sawdust, (4) Miscellaneous experiments such as the analysis of water samples taken from various places in the vicinity of Kunming, the extraction of potash from different kinds of ashes, etc.

In view of the drastic shortage of gasoline, a mobile alcohol plant was brought into operation. Despite its simple design, it steadily produces 200 gallons of 95% alcohol per day. In cooperation with a soap factory, complete installation of a vacuum evaporating plant has been set up to produce glycerine from the wastes of soap-making.

Concerning pure chemical researches, our attention has been mainly centered on problems of organic chemistry. Topics under

investigation, have been (1) Syntheses of organic compounds related to vitamin K, (2) Molecular rearrangements of organic compounds, (3) Preparation of angular methyl group, (4) Syntheses of rotenon derivatives.

IV. INSTITUTE OF MATERIA MEDICA

Research work in this institute has been concentrated in investigations of Chinese drugs, such as Chinese ephedra, Mahuang, Chinese *corrydalis*, *Pei-Mu*, *Hsi-Hsin*, *Mu Fang-Chi*, *Snih-Chan-Chu*, *Yang-Chin-Hua*, *Kou-Wen*, *Ta-Ch'a-Yeh*, etc. The active principles have been isolated and their constituent properties as well as the pharmacological actions have been studied. Besides, the Institute also prepares some materials such as ephedrine vitamin B₁, etc., on the commercial scale for clinical use.

V. INSTITUTE OF PHY- SIOLOGY

Researches of this institute were heretofore confined to pure studies in experimental biology and physiology proper, while special emphasis was laid also on the physiological effects of various Chinese drugs. However within the last six years, in addition to pure academic work, subjects capable of application in daily life have likewise been successfully investigated. In this connection investigations in the nutrition values of the foodstuffs used by the southwestern inhabitants, experiments on the treatment of Chicken's Cholera by sulfanilamide, as also of typhus by some Chinese medicine from the *Pen-Tsao*, are of significance.

Problems of local importance are now under investigation, namely, studies on the types of Chinese drugs produced in Yunnan and on the basal metabolism of the Yunnanese people.

VI. INSTITUTE OF ZOOLOGY

Researches conducted in this institute were formerly restricted to the study of seashore animals of China. However, since the removal of the institute from Peiping to this inland city of Kunming, same sort of work had to be directed to the limnological fauna of Yunnan. Thus the fauna of the Kunming Lake, of the Erh Hai, the Yang-Tsung-Hai and the Fu-Sian Lake naturally have become our most easily attainable material to be worked on.

To intensify such investigations, an experimental station for lacustral biological studies was started in 1939, under the joint auspices of the Institute and the Commissariat of Reconstruction of Yunnan. Such a station is the first of its kind in China and, in spite of its very brief history, it has been able to make systematic studies of the principal fresh water fauna of Yunnan, particularly the fishes of these inland lakes, their diseases and enemies, together with the chemical and physical properties of the lake waters. Besides aquatic animals, terrestrial animals like Reptilia and the spiders of Yunnan have also been collected and worked on.

VII. INSTITUTE OF BOTANY

Instead of going on with the studies on the plant life of north, northeastern and northwestern China and its taxonomy, the Institute of Botany began, right after its removal to the interior,

to do researches on problems of economic botany. Investigations in topics of agriculture and forestry had already been in progress for several years. Topics such as the distribution of forests, classification and diseases of farming plants, and particularly experiments on cultivating drug plants etc.

Under the joint sponsorship of the Institute and the National Northwestern Agricultural College, a special botanic survey was planned and organized with the aim to do researches on the plant life of China's northwest, as also on their economic value. In 1940, a botanical garden was brought to completion, inside which our experiments have been performed. Botanical parties have been dispatched to the various centers of botanic interest throughout the northwest, particularly, the surroundings of our great western mountain ranges. The material brought back has been abundant and valuable. The entire collection of plant specimens belonging to the institute now numbers more than 60,000.

VIII. INSTITUTE OF GEOLOGY

For over ten years our geological work has been going on under a cooperative scheme with the Geological Survey of China. Contributions to the science itself and to the geological work of this country have been countless and prominent, the most outstanding one being the discovery and identification of the fossil remains of the well-known *Sinanthropus Pekinensis* (the Peking Man) with its contemporary vertebrates excavated from the limestone caves at Chou-Kou-Tien near Peiping.

Since 1937, extensive field work and laboratory studies have been still in progress without any loss of their vigor on account of the war. Detailed mapping of mineral deposits occupies at least for the time being, the major portion of our time spent in geological work, although stress is equally laid on paleontological studies and other branches of the science, e.g. the excavation and investigation of a complete fossil dinosaurs skeleton (Lufengosaurus Huenei Young) from Lufeng Hsien, Yunnan.

As to our work in mineral deposits, i.e. in economic geology, it can be possibly said that hardly any of the important discoveries and investigations made during the last six years in our western provinces have been carried out without the participation of our colleagues.

With a large accumulation of dependable geographical material on hand, the Institute has also revised completely the map of China for general use, and thousands of the new map are now in circulation among the public.

IX. INSTITUTE OF HISTORICAL STUDIES AND ARCHAEOLOGY

In recent years the work of the Institute of Historical Studies and Archaeology consists of mainly three items, the studies of literary materials in ancient Chinese history; the classification of archaeological materials excavated at Pao-Ki-Hsien, Shensi, several years ago, and the collection of historical materials dealing with the inhabitants in the border zones of China.

In 1933, upon the request of the Shensi Provincial Government, there was appointed a committee which in 1934 started an excavation at Tow-Ki-Tai, a ruined site of Pao-Ki Hsien in Shensi Province, and by 1937 materials of historical significance obtained were the remains of many human dwelling places in the Stone Age, also relics of ancient city walls and of more than one hundred tombs belonging to various ancient periods. With regard to these materials the first of a proposed series of publications, "Studies of Li-Tripods Excavated at Tow-Ki-Tai" by Mr. Su Ping-Ki, has just gone to press; while the report of the excavation is now under compilation.

Regarding the studies of literary materials in ancient Chinese history several important works have been completed. They are (1) "The Legendary Period in Chinese Ancient History" a book of seven chapters (in press) by Mr. Hsu Ping-Tchang, being the investigation based upon ancient legends of the Chinese history from Huang-Ti to the Middle Shang Dynasty; (2) "Tsun-Ko-Tsin-Sze-Swei-Tien." by Mr. Hsu Tao-Ling (the name index for the holders of the degree "Tsin-Sze" during the various Chinese dynasties), being a compilation of historical materials for the last one thousand years.

Papers in relation to all other investigations can be found in our publication, "Collected Papers of Historical Studies."

CHAPTER XL

THE PRESS

TANG CHI-CHIN (唐際清)*

I. INTRODUCTION

The Chinese press has now entered into a bright era of free development. With the victorious conclusion of the war, the Chinese Government has abolished press censorship, which was an event of first importance for the future well-being of China's Fourth Estate.

During the past two years, there have been more activities and more contact with foreign journalists in newspaperdom. Many Chinese newspapermen had participated in fighting the Japanese. Now that final victory has come, they are making energetic efforts for the development of the Chinese press. Newspaper chains have sprung up like mushrooms and Government newspapers and private newspapers alike have reached unprecedented circulations.

Messrs. Wilbur S. Forrest, Ralph E. McGill and Carl W. Ackermen, the three representatives appointed by the American Society of Newspaper Editors to promote the free exchange of news arrived in Chungking on March 28, 1945, and had a warm welcome from Chinese journalists.

They stayed in Chungking for one week, freely exchanging views on freedom of news with Chinese publicity authorities and news circles. Not long after the departure of the three crusaders for the freedom of the press, another press party of 12 American newspaper, magazine and radio correspondents came to Chungking via Kunming on June 28. The correspondents had an interview with President Chiang Kai-shek during their stay in Chungking and also visited Chengtu and Sian.

Chinese newspapermen during the past two years have fully exhibited their heroism. When U.S. planes bombed Nanchang and Haiphong in June and July, 1943 respectively, Central News war correspondent Norman Soong was on the missions. Another Central News war correspondent Eddie Tseng also went with the plane to cover the B-29 raid on Anshan in June, 1944. In the winter of 1944 when the Southern Kweichow campaign was at its height, Messrs. Hsu Yu-sheng and Ku Yao-kai of the Central Daily News at Kweiyang, Hsu Ping of the Catholic Daily News (Yi Shih Pao), Yuan Kwei-chiu of the

* Of the Staff of the Central News Agency.

Kweiyang Branch of the Central Daily News Agency, Huang Pang-chu of the Ta Kung Pao at Kweiyang, braving great dangers, went to the front to cover the Japanese atrocities and the desperate plight of war refugees there. They were each awarded a Gold Medal by the Ministry of Social Affairs in recognition of their distinguished service. Meanwhile, quite a few Chinese journalists had joined the army and participated in actual fighting against the enemy.

At the invitation of Lieut.-Gen. A. C. Wedemeyer, Commander of U.S. Forces in the China Theatre, Mr. Chen Po-sheng, editor-in-chief of the Central News Agency, went to Tokyo to witness the signing of the Japanese surrender last August. At the same time, more than 100 Chinese and foreign correspondents swarmed to Nanking to cover the signing of the Japanese surrender in the China Theatre on September 9. As telecommunications between Nanking and Chungking had not yet been resumed, news reports were sent to Chungking by a special plane on the same day by order of General Ho Ying-chin, Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Army, who accepted the surrender on behalf of President Chiang.

II. FREEDOM OF THE PRESS AND THE ABOLITION OF CENSORSHIP

The struggle for freedom of the press has been a world-wide movement. Chinese journalists had made great efforts to fight for freedom of the press and the abolition of censorship. It had

also been a cherished wish of the Chinese Government to abolish press censorship. But in time of war, China, like other Allied nations, had to impose press censorship, which was instituted for reasons of military security, but not intended to muzzle the press. Press censorship was finally abolished on October 1, 1945.

The Chinese Government had indeed tried to liberalize wartime press censorship from time to time. On June 20, 1944, the Government promulgated "The Regulations and Standards Governing Censorship of Wartime Publications" which came into force on July 1 in the same year.

The Regulations are as follows:

REGULATIONS GOVERNING CENSORSHIP OF WARTIME BOOKS AND JOURNALS

1. The censorship of wartime books and journals shall be governed by the following regulations, unless otherwise regulated.

2. Wartime books and journals are hereby defined as books, journals, and stage and screen plays.

3. The Central Wartime Book and Journal Censorship Commission (hereinafter referred to, as the Central Censorship Commission) and its subordinate provincial and municipal bureau (hereinafter referred to, as the provincial or municipal bureaux) shall be in charge of the censorship of wartime books and journals in accordance with these regulations. The organization of the Central Censorship Commission shall also be provided for in another law.

4. The censorship of wartime books and journals shall be governed by the Wartime Publications Censorship Regulations and the Standards of Censorship as promulgated and the revised Publications Law.

5. The Central Censorship Commission shall make interpretations of the aforementioned Standards of Censorship from time to time and shall inform the publishers of books and journals of the said interpretations.

6. The Central Censorship Commission may give awards for such books, journals, stage or screen plays as it may deem to be of exceptional quality. Regulations governing the granting of awards shall be made later.

7. Publishers or authors shall submit their books or journals to the local censorship bureau for censorship. In the case of text books, they shall be submitted to the Ministry of Education for approval. Producers or authors shall submit their stage or screen plays and movie pictures to the Central Censorship Commission for censorship.

8. There shall be two procedures for censorship: (a) censorship of manuscripts: journals and monographs which contain discussions on political, military and diplomatic subjects, shall be submitted to the local censorship bureau for censorship before publication and dramas and movie pictures shall be similarly submitted before they can be staged or shown: and (b) private censorship: publishers and authors may in accordance with the Wartime Publications Censorship Regulations and the Stand-

ards of Censorship censor their own books or journals, which do not contain any discussions on political, military or diplomatic subjects and the manuscripts of which may not be submitted to the censorship bureau for censorship.

But in case publishers or authors, who of their own accord submit books or journals for censorship, the censorship bureau concerned shall undertake to censor them.

9. Publishers or authors, no matter whether the manuscripts of their books or journals or dramas are submitted to the censorship bureau for censorship shall after such books or journals are published and four days before they are released for circulation submit two copies of each of such books or journals to the local censorship bureau, failing which the books or journals concerned shall not be allowed to circulate. In the case of books or journals or dramas, the manuscripts of which have been submitted for censorship, such censored manuscripts shall be submitted together with the two required copies.

10. In case the published versions do not correspond fully with the censored manuscripts, the censorship bureau concerned shall order the necessary corrections or deletions to be made or ban their circulation if necessary. In case dramas or movie pictures contravene the Standards of Censorship, the Central Censorship Commission shall order the necessary excisions, deletions or corrections to be made or ban the staging of such dramas or movie pictures if necessary.

11. Books or journals, the published versions of which are contrary to the censored manuscripts, may be banned from circulation according to the due procedure of law.

12. Books or journals, the manuscripts of which are not submitted for censorship according to Paragraph 2, in Article 8 and which after publication are found to be contravening the Standards of Censorship shall be banned from circulation. Appropriate penalty may be imposed on the publishers or authors with due regard for the degree of seriousness of the contravention. If necessary, all the published copies of such books or journals may be sequestered.

13. Books or journals, imported from abroad or places where no censorship bureau has been established, shall be submitted by the publishers concerned for censorship, in accordance with Articles 7, 8 and 9, failing which such books or journals shall be banned from circulated.

14. Banned books or journals, when the objectionable parts in them have been corrected or deleted, or the reasons for the imposition of the ban does not exist any longer, may be allowed to be circulated.

15. Publishers or authors, who are not satisfied with the rulings of the local censorship bureau, may appeal to the Central Censorship Commission for re-censorship. The Central Censorship Commission, when necessary, may change or revoke the rulings of its subordinate provincial or municipal censorship bureaux.

16. The supplementary by-laws governing the execution of the aforementioned Regulations, shall be drawn up later.

17. The aforementioned Regulations shall take effect as from the date of promulgation.

REGULATIONS AND STANDARDS GOVERNING THE CENSORSHIP OF WARTIME PUBLICATIONS

1. For the purpose of national defense, safeguarding the leakage of official secrets and maintenance of public order, the National Government hereby promulgates the under-mentioned Regulations and twelve Standards governing the censorship of publications.

2. The publications, as mentioned in these regulations, are hereby defined as newspapers, books, magazines, movie pictures and dramas.

3. Censorship shall be of two kinds, prior and subsequent censorship. The former refers to manuscripts and the latter to published matters.

4. All newspapers published in China shall be subject to prior censorship in accordance with the Standards of Censorship in Article 10.

5. All foreign movie pictures, movie pictures produced in China and dramas which are to be shown or staged in China shall be subject to prior censorship.

6. Books and magazines, which contained no information or comments on political, military or diplomatic problems, shall be censored by the authors themselves.

7. Authors or publishers, who have doubts about certain points when undertaking private censorship, may approach the censorship office for clarifications. Authors or publishers shall be absolved of legal responsibilities with regard to matters passed by the censorship office.

8. Authors or publishers shall be responsible under the law for publishing any matters which contravene the censorship regulations, without submitting such matters for censorship or having been so submitted, but in disregard of the instructions of the censor.

9. Publications, the manuscripts of which have not been censored, shall be submitted to the censorship office for subsequent censorship.

10. Wartime publications, besides having to comply with Article 4 in the Revised Regulations Governing Publications, shall be banned from circulation if they are: (1) contrary to the highest principles underlying national policies; (2) prejudicial to national interests and public order; (3) premature disclosures of minutes of conferences, records of negotiations or other secrets of a diplomatic nature; (4) prejudicial to the cordial relations between China and other friendly nations or to Allied Unity; (5) disclosures of the organization, designations, equipment, dispositions, transfer, replacements, training and the battle plans of the National Army; (6) disclosures of the location, equipment, manufacture, volume of

production, supply and conditions of transportation of arms factories, military supply and important national defense industries; (7) disclosures of the location of and inside information about airfields, strategic points, survey bureaux, important broadcasting stations, military barracks, army stores, military training camps or defense works; (8) disclosures of secret information about battles or other military secrets; (9) disclosures about the names and activities of political, party, military and educational workers behind the enemy lines; (10) prejudicial to the execution of food and recruitment policy and military labor; (11) disclosures of wartime financial and economic conditions which may be of use to the enemy in their economic conditions which may be of use to the enemy in their execution of the war; and (12) unauthorized disclosures of the date, place and number of personnel for conferences, maneuvers, reviews and military training.

11. The Standards of Censorship, as given in Article 10, may be changed in the light of new conditions and interpretations for these Standards may be given any time by the central censorship organ subject to the approval of the Government. These interpretations are not retroactive in effect.

12. In case the one who submits any publications for censorship disagrees with the censor's ruling, he may appeal to the immediate superior office for recensorship.

13. The organisation of the central and local censorship offices shall be regulated later.

14. These regulations shall take effect as from the date of promulgation.

As compared with the Revised Censorship Regulations promulgated on December 11, 1939, the afore-mentioned regulations have been very much simplified and thus the censorship has been greatly liberalized. Regulations governing the abolition of censorship on publications promulgated by the Government on September, 30, 1945 are as follows:

1. The Regulations and Standards Governing Censorship of Wartime Publications, Regulations governing the Censorship of Wartime Books and Journals and Regulations governing the Punishment for Contraventions of Wartime Censorship shall be repealed as from October 1, 1945.

2. Press censorship is hereby abolished throughout China except in areas under martial law. Areas under martial law are defined by the National Military Council as such recovered areas where the work of rehabilitation has not been completed.

3. Movie picture censorship will be continued, but the standards of censorship should be amended.

4. The present Publications law should be amended in the light of new conditions.

5. The chiefs of the Central Books and Periodicals Censorship Commission and the Press

Censorship Bureau of the National Military Council shall petition their immediate superior organs for the liquidation and reorganisation of the said Commission and the said Bureau.

6. When editors are not certain about the propriety of the comments or news which they intend to release in their respective publications, may approach the Ministry of Information or the local authorities concerned for clarification. The Ministry of Information and the local authorities concerned are under obligation to furnish the clarification asked for. Local authorities when encountering difficulty in the matter may approach the Ministry of Information. If the comments or news are released in disregard of the official clarification, the editors shall have to take the legal responsibility for their actions.

Due to peculiar conditions there, press censorship in areas under martial law is still being enforced. But it is only temporary. General Ho Kuo-kuang, Director of the Press Censorship Bureau of the National Military Council declared on the eve of the abolition of press censorship that he believed that press censorship in those areas would also be done away with when peace and order are restored.*

A statement was issued on October 27, 1945 by the Press Department of the Ministry of Information concerning the registration and censorship of news

* Press censorship in liberated areas has since been abolished on March 1st, 1946.

agencies and newspapers in the recovered areas which runs as follows:

Regarding the rehabilitation of news agencies and newspapers in the recovered areas, the Government has promulgated regulations for the control of news agencies and newspapers in the recovered areas.

According to these regulations, the news agencies and newspapers established by the puppets would be taken over by the Government, but those belonging to non-collaborationists and forcefully occupied by the enemy or puppets, would be returned to the rightful owner after investigation. The work of sealing and disposing of puppet newspapers in accordance with law is progressing in the various recovered areas.

The reasons for restricting the establishment of new news agencies and newspapers are: (1) to reward the efforts of the press in the old occupied areas, which have made sacrifices for national interests, by giving them priority in rehabilitation and to protect the lawful rights of the publishers or owners.

(2) To prevent the publication of puppet newspapers under new management.

(3) To conserve newsprint. Paper production in China has dropped down to a negligible level and the production in America, Norway and Canada in 1946 has been purchased by European and American countries, leaving no surplus for export to China.

(4) To encourage the establishment of more newspapers in

the interior. Before the war, journals were mostly concentrated in the few coastal cities.

These regulations are temporary in nature and will be abolished as soon as communications have been restored, making possible the free flow of materials, and when conditions have been stabilized in the recovered areas.

However, these regulations do not ban absolutely the publication of an old newspaper in a new locality and the establishment of new journal, only that it has been to be done in accordance to a regulated procedure, such as the registration and approval by the local authorities.

Some old newspapers, which had made contributions toward the war effort and which had suffered tremendous damage during the war, have been permitted to remove to a new place for publication. Half of these papers so permitted are private-owned.

The Government's interest in fostering private and independent journals may be proved by the assistance it has given in making possible the removal of many papers into the interior after the outbreak of the war. The Government will certainly come in to help in the rehabilitation of the press in the recovered areas.

Thus, in regard to the freedom of the press, the Government after the end of the war have repealed the Wartime Publications Censorship Law, though local censorship still has to be maintained in the recovered areas during the transitional period when the disarmament of enemy troops and the general taking-over work

have not been completed and conditions not restored to normal. Such local censorship, however, does not entail much inconvenience to the press, which cooperates well with the local governments.

III. NEWSPAPER CHAINS

A month before Japan's unconditional surrender, 27 papers in Chungking, including the National Salvation Daily, Hsü Min Pao and Nanking Morning Paper from Nanking, Ming Kuo Daily from Hongkong, World Daily from Peiping, China Times from Shanghai and Ta Kung Pao from Tientsin, started organizing a "National Association For The Rehabilitation of Anti-Japanese and War-Damaged Papers."

The Association was opened on August 23, with a manifesto carrying the following resolutions adopted in the inaugural meeting:

1. The Ministry of Information be asked to give priority to the papers for the resumption of publication.

2. With the help of the Ministry, the Japanese be warned over the air to keep intact the papers' property in the original localities.

3. With the help of the Ministry, War Zone Commanders be asked to protect the papers' property, taken over from the Japanese.

4. Losses suffered by the papers be registered with the responsible organizations for indemnity from the Japanese.

5. The Government be asked to sell foreign exchange to the papers at the official rate for

buying printing machines and newsprint from abroad.

6. The Government be asked to give priority to the papers in transportation.

7. Papers and newsmen connected with Japanese and puppets in one way or another be suppressed and punished.

At the same time, the Ministry of Information dispatched men to Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, the Wuhan cities, Hongkong, Canton, the Northeast, Formosa and other areas to take over Japanese and puppet newspapers, broadcasting stations, publishing houses, news agencies and cinema houses. Early in September, the Ministry promulgated a set of provisional regulations on the management of repossessed cultural enterprises.

The provisional regulations are as follows:

1. Japanese and puppet newspapers, news agencies, magazines, cinema houses and broadcasting stations, government or private, be sealed, and their property be taken over by the Ministry of Information in conjunction with the local authorities. Taken-over property will be restored to the original owners, if the owners are proved to be innocent.

2. Newspapers, news agencies, magazines and cinema houses which continued operating in areas from which Chinese national troops had withdrawn, are regarded as pro-Japanese. Organizations under cover of foreign ownership, are regarded to be of the same category.

3. Publications that are more propaganda for the Japanese or harmful to national interests, be burned by the local authorities.

4. With the approval of the Central authorities, the Ministry of Information may appropriate taken-over property under seal, in conjunction with the local authorities, for the purpose of facilitating publicity work.

5. Government or Party newspapers and news agencies which were suspended after the outbreak of the war in various places, be restored as soon as possible.

6. With the approval of the Government, newspapers and news agencies which were private-owned in the prewar period, may resume business in the original localities, in accordance with the following procedure of priority:

A. Newspapers and news agencies which moved inland with the Government after the outbreak of the war, and continued devoting themselves to publicity work in the cause of the resistance campaign.

B. Those which could not afford to move inland because of great losses, but whose publishers or owners remained loyal to the Chinese Government or were engaged in anti-Japanese activities during the war.

7. Unless with special government permission, newspapers or news agencies which moved inland, must resume business in their original localities.

8. Newspapers or news agencies to be operated by local governments or military organs in recovered areas must register with the Ministry of Information according to law before starting business.

9. Newly established newspapers and news agencies shall be restricted by the "Wartime Regulations Governing Newspapers and News Agencies."

10. All newspapers and news agencies in recovered areas must register with the Government and are not allowed to resume operation unless with government approval.

11. Newspapers and news agencies which are allowed to operate, are prohibited to make changes in registers within 12 months.

12. The registration of magazines be handled in accordance with the local conditions.

13. Publications are subject to censorship in recovered areas where peace and order have not yet been completely restored.

14. Censorship shall be enforced under the supervision of the Ministry of Information.

Up to date, the following papers have resumed publication in the recovered areas:

1. Twenty nine papers in Shanghai, including the Central Daily News, Ming Kuo Daily, Cheng Yen Pao, Peace Daily, Ta Kung Pao, Shen Pao and Sin Wen Pao and four English Dailies, the China Press, North China Daily News, Shanghai

Evening Post and Mercury and The Shanghai Herald.

2. Eight papers in Nanking, including the Central Daily News, Ta Chung Pao, Reconstruction Daily, National Salvation Daily, Chao Pao, and Peace Daily.

3. Six in Peiping, including the North China Daily, Catholic Paper (Yi Shih Pao), World Daily and an English daily, the Peking Chronicle.

4. Three papers in Tientsin, namely, Ming Kuo Daily, Ta Kung Pao, and Catholic Paper (Yi Shih Pao).

5. Five papers in Hankow including the Peace Daily, Wuhan Daily, New Hupeh Daily, and Ta Kang Pao.

The main characteristic in the postwar news field is the formation of newspaper chains. At this moment, we have the following chains:

1. The independent Ta Kung Pao, China's "Manchester Guardian" has Chungking, Tientsin and Shanghai issues. A Canton issue is in preparation.

2. The Tabloid Hsin Min Pao, has Chungking and Chengtu Issues. Nanking, Shanghai and Peiping issues are in preparation.

3. The Tung Nan Daily, published by Kuomintang members, has Fukien and Hangchow issues. Nanking and Shanghai issues are in preparation.

4. The Peace Daily, an Army organ, formerly known as the Sao Tang Pao, has Chungking, Nanking, Kunming, Hankow and Shanghai issues.

5. The independent World Daily, published by "Newspaper King" Cheng Sheh-wo, has Chungking and Peiping Issues, and is affiliated to the Min Sheng Pao in Nanking and Li Pao in Shanghai.

6. The Catholic Paper (Yi Shih Pao), published by Bishop Paul Yupin, has Chungking, Tientsin and Peiping issues.

7. The Central Daily News, mouth piece of the Kuomintang, is perhaps the most impressive newspaper chain in China.

The Shen Pao and Sin Wen Pao, in Shanghai, which were utilized by the puppets during the war, and suspended for a while after Japan's unconditional surrender, were restored on November 12, 1945.

IV. STATISTICS OF NEWSPAPERS

During the past two years, the number of newspapers has registered great increase. Up to the end of June, 1945, the number of newspapers and news agencies in Free China are as follows:

Localities	News papers	News Agencies
Chungking ..	17	5
Kiangsu	10	2
Chekiang	39	10
Anhui	32	2
Kiangsi	53	17
Hupei	51	1
Hunan	22	43
Szechuen	82	34
Yunnan	17	2
Kweichow	29	1
Kwangtung	87	25
Fukien	61	11
Kwangsi	52	2
Honan	47	7
Shensi	31	3

Kansu	42	7
Ninghsia	3	
Sinkiang	11	
Chinghai	2	
Sikang	9	1
Suiyuan	5	
Hopel	1	1
Shantung	7	2
Army papers and agencies	210	8
Total	1,028	184

The organization and work of the Central News Agency must now be told. As the leading news agency in China it has its correspondents throughout all the important cities of China and also in the major news centers of the world, like London and Washington.

News reports received and transmitted by the Main Office of Central News at Chungking amount to 50,000 words daily. All news despatches from various localities are filed to the Main Office first and then broadcast to all its branches. Now the Central News Agency has the following three news broadcasts: CAP broadcasts a 15,000-word service to all the morning papers in this country every day from 11:00 o'clock in the morning till 2:00 o'clock the following morning; COP is intended for all small-scale newspapers in this country and disseminates 1,500 words from 9:00 to 10:30 o'clock in the morning daily; and QST broadcasts a

1,500 word news service to all foreign newspapers and Chinese embassies and consulates abroad everyday.

In order to meet the demands of the freedom of the press and in keeping with its usual policy in the impartial dissemination of news, the Central News Agency is making plans for commercialization and reorganization into an independent limited company, like Reuter's of Britain and the Associated Press of the United States. The projected news corporation will have all newspapers in this country as its members and its scope of service will be further expanded.

The service of the Central News Agency after reorganization will include: 1, general news, 2, news pictures, 3, commercial news, 4, publishing and printing, 5, advertising news, etc. With a view to developing its news service, the Central News Agency will request the Government for permission to continue operation of its own radio stations, which will include radio television equipment.

According to unofficial estimates, the total asset of the Central News Agency is now valued at over \$2,000,000,000. After reorganization, the Central News Agency will strive to become independent and self-maintaining without Government subsidies.

CHAPTER XLI

PUBLIC HEALTH

(January 1944 to June 1945)

P. Z. KING (金寶善)*

In the course of the eight long years of war for self preservation the Chinese Government followed closely the firmly established dual national program of resistance against aggression and of reconstruction. In order to fit into this program, the National Health Administration during the period under review laid strong emphasis on the control of epidemic diseases, strengthening of medical and health services; production, transport and control of drugs and medical instruments; conscription and training of medical personnel; and the promotion of rural health as the basis of health reconstruction in the country.

A review of the main activities of National Health Administration is given below.

I. PROMOTION OF LOCAL HEALTH WORK

A. Aid from the Central Government.—Continued technical and material assistance was extended to local governments in order to stimulate and strengthen the local health work. During 1944, 29 members of the NHA staff were detailed to work in local health institutions in 13 different pro-

vinces and municipalities. To 49 important cities, formerly not provided with *hsien* health centers, the National Health Administration granted \$600,000 each towards medical equipment and supplies for the establishment of such centers. These 49 cities or *hsien* are distributed as follows: Szechuen 4, Yunnan 4, Kwangtung 2, Hunan 3, Kweichow 10, Kansu 11, Shensi 5, Kwangsi 2, Hupeh 2, Shansi 2 and Kiangsu 4.

To 56 existing *hsien* health centers, the National Health Administration also granted \$300,000 each for replenishment of medical equipment and supplies. There were 17 such *hsien* health centers in Szechuen, 15 in Kweichow, 2 in Kwangsi, 2 in Sikong, 4 in Hunan, 4 in Yunnan, 6 in Kansu, 1 in Kwangtung, and 5 in Shensi. Such grants to *hsien* health centers totalled \$46,200,000 during 1944.

B. Present Extent of Local Health Work:

1. *Provincial Health Administration.* In 1943 there were provincial health administrations in Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Chekiang, Fukien

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Kiangsi, Hunan, Szechuen, Hupeh, Shensi, Honan, Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai and Anhwei, totalling 16 in number. During 1944 the National Health Administration assisted the Sinkiang and Sikang provincial governments to establish their provincial health administrations. In Shansi, as well as Suiyuan province, a special Health Division was organized under the Bureau of Social Affairs. Under these twenty provincial health organizations there were a total of 244 subsidiary organizations, including 53 provincial hospitals, 7 isolation hospitals, and 10 hygienic laboratories.

2. *Municipal Health Organizations.* During the period under review, the Municipal Health Bureau of Kunming was organized, while the municipal health bureaux, stations or divisions of Chungking, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Chengtu,

Tzekung, Lanchow, Changsha, Hengyang, Foochow and Sian continued to function as before. Under these municipal health organizations, there were 8 municipal hospitals, 2 isolation hospitals, 1 sanatorium, 3 maternity homes, 17 health stations and 8 clinics.

3. *Hsien Health Organizations.* Of a total of 1,377 *hsiens* in Free China, 978 were provided with *hsien* health centers in 1944, as compared with 798 in 1943. Under these centers, there were 1,385 *hsiang* or *cheng* health stations and 230 sub-centers. In addition, there were 67 other *hsiens* that had not yet organized the regular health centers but had established some form of health services, viz., 15 *hsiens* with mobile medical and anti-epidemic units, 27 with health stations, and 25 with clinics. (See Table).

TABLE I. INCREASE IN NUMBER OF HEALTH ORGANIZATIONS IN CHINA DURING 1928 TO 1944

	1928	1934	1937	1943	1944
1. Central administrative health organization	1	1	1	1	1
2. Provincial administrative health organizations	0	4	7	16	20
3. Municipal administrative health organizations	2	5	6	10	11
4. Hsien health organizations	0	47	217	798	978
5. Central field health organizations	2	7	12	103	43
6. Provincial field health organizations	0	35	73	283	244

C. *Health Work in Northwest and Border Provinces.*—A sum of \$15,000,000 was used to subsidize the health organizations in Northwest and the border provinces towards medical equipment and

supplies. These subsidized organizations included the National Northwest Hospital; the Northwest Drugs Manufacturing Factory; the health stations at Wulan-tsai-pu-men, I-ke-chao-men

and Ah-la-san-chi in Inner Mongolia; the highway health stations at Yungten, Tinghsi, Chiuchuan, Tienshui, Pinghsien and Pingliang; Sikang, Chinghai and Ninghsia. For promotion of health work in Sinkiang there was a separate subsidy of \$1,800,000. In 1944 with the assistance of the National Health Administration a hospital

was installed in La-pu-len (Hsiaho) of Kansu Province. The main activities of the three health stations in Wu-lan-tsai-pu-men, I-ke-chao-man and Ah-la-san-chi and the four health centers in Sichang, Ya-an, Hueili and Fuling of Sikang may be summarized as follows:

TABLE 2. SUMMARY OF THE IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF THE HEALTH CENTERS AND HEALTH STATIONS IN BORDER PROVINCES DURING 1944

PREVENTIVE INOCULATIONS:	
Smallpox	66,720
Cholera	48,723
Cholera and typhoid combined	21,222
HEALTH SERVICES:	
Deliveries	1,149
Pre-natal and post-natal examinations	4,707
Health examinations	15,178
Investigation of epidemic diseases	491
MEDICAL CARE:	
No. first visits	48,453
No. subsequent visits	107,264
No. hospital patients	716
HEALTH PROPAGANDA:	
Health talks	452
Home visits	7,558
SANITARY INSPECTIONS	1,356

D. Highway Health Service.—The National Health Administration had since 1942 established a number of highway health stations along important routes of communications. In 1942 there were 41 such health stations. Gradually they were turned over to the local governments as *hsien* health centers. In 1944, the National Health Administration still maintained 26 highway health stations distributed along eleven highways.

The health stations near the war areas dealt largely with epidemic prevention and medical relief, while those in the rear gave equal emphasis to maternity and child health, environmental sanitation, health education and other activities relating to health protection. The following table gives a summary of the main activities of the 26 highway health stations during 1944:

TABLE 3. SUMMARY OF THE MORE IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF THE HIGHWAY HEALTH STATIONS DURING 1944

PREVENTIVE INOCULATIONS:	
Smallpox	146,724
Cholera	178,692
Cholera and typhoid combined	45,771
HEALTH SERVICES:	
Deliveries	4,135
Pre-natal and post-natal examinations . .	20,878
MEDICAL CARE:	
First visits	198,245
Subsequent visits . .	403,527
Hospital admissions	4,282
HEALTH PROPAGANDA:	
No. health talks	2,851
No. home visits	21,835
Health examinations	21,394
Investigation of epidemic diseases	1,232
SANITARY INSPECTIONS	5,406

In 1945, six more stations (Yungten, Tinghsi, Pinghsien, Hanchung, Chienkiang and Hsinlungchang) were turned over to local governments as *hsien* health centers, leaving at the end of June a total of twenty highway health stations under N.H.A.

II. MEDICAL RELIEF

A. Strengthening Central Medical Relief Organizations.—Coming directly under the National Health Administration were three hospitals, viz. the Chungking Central Hospital, Kweiyang Central Hospital, and the Northwest Hospital. They served as demonstration and teaching centers besides providing medical relief services. All three hospitals were strengthened in equipment and personnel in 1944.

After reorganization in 1944, the bed capacity of the Chungking Central Hospital was increased

from 116 to 155. Environmental sanitation was improved through installation of additional sewerage and septic tanks, and new departments of Dermatology, Mental Diseases and of Tuberculosis were organized. A city clinic of the hospital was also established. At the Kweiyang Central Hospital, the bed capacity was increased from 128 to 140. The X-ray room, operating room and diagnostic laboratory were all enlarged and improved with new construction and additional equipment and supplies. At the Northwest Hospital, the bed capacity was increased from 60 to 110, being the largest government hospital in the three provinces of Kansu, Ninghsia and Chinghai. This hospital was strengthened through the addition of an isolation ward and a department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, enlargement of the

clinics, and increase of medical personnel and equipment.

As teaching hospitals of national medical colleges, these hospitals played an important role in the national medical educational program by providing teaching

facilities for undergraduates and post-graduates.

The following table gives a statistical summary of the patients treated in these three national hospitals during January to December 1944.

TABLE 4. A STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF THE PATIENTS IN CHUNGKING CENTRAL HOSPITAL, KWEIYANG CENTRAL HOSPITAL, AND NORTHWEST HOSPITAL

From January to December 1944

	<i>Chungking Central Hospital</i>	<i>Kweiyang Central Hospital</i>	<i>Northwest Hospital</i>
OUTPATIENTS:			
First visits	16,669	18,799	12,449
Subsequent visits ..	22,636	32,671	18,660
HOSPITAL ADMISSIONS:			
No. patients admitted .. .	2,834	3,085	1,180
Recovered .. .	2,684	2,788	1,163
Died .. .	98	172	32

A number of provincial hospitals were also improved or enlarged. The First Branch Hospital of Kweichow Provincial Hospital was re-organized to become the provincial sanatorium. The health centers of Kanhsien, Yitsun, Fuliang, Shangyao, and Nanchang in Kiangsi Province, Kangting in Sikang, and of Fuyang, Tengchi, and Tengcheng in Anhwei Province were reorganized as provincial hospitals. In Hunan, new provincial hospitals were established in Hungkiang and Yuanling.

B. Medical Service for the Youth Expeditionary Forces.—In September 1944 under order of the National Military Council, the National Health Administration organized six medical units with the necessary equipment and medical supplies for service with the Youth Expeditionary Forces. These units were staffed with

medical personnel taken from the Chungking Central Hospital, Kweiyang Central Hospital, and Chungking Municipal Hospital. These six units were dispatched to Pao-shan, Lungling and other localities in Western Yunnan to assist the army hospitals in surgical operations and medical treatment of wounded soldiers, as well as for epidemic prevention. During the counter-offensive in Western Yunnan, these units followed the troops across the Salwen River and into Burma.

C. Organization of Mobile Blood Transfusion Units.—Considering the importance of blood transfusion among wounded soldiers at the front, the National Health Administration has in 1945 cooperated with the Army Medical Administration in the organization of four mobile blood transfusion units. The heads of these units

were dispatched by the National Institute of Health, with Col. John T. Tripp, bacteriologist from the U.S. State Department, serving as advisor. Members of the unit recruited by the Army Medical Administration were given a period of training at the National Institute of Health. All the pyrogen-free intravenous fluids were prepared by the National Institute of Health.

D. Health Work for National Defence Engineering Projects.—

Throughout the war years, the National Health Administration contributed its part toward the war effort by providing health services for laborers working on important engineering projects for national defence. In the spring of 1944 about half a million laborers were conscripted for the construction of airfields near Chengtu. As it was of utmost importance that the construction should be completed within three to four months, the NHA was called upon to organize a health service for the laborers with the primary purpose of protecting their health and of preventing epidemic outbreaks which would delay the completion of the construction. Medical, sanitary and laboratory units of the National Anti-epidemic Corps were dispatched to take charge of the health service; and because of the immensity of the problem, additional medical and nursing personnel was recruited from the Chungking Central Hospital, Chungking Red Cross Hospital, various NHA highway health stations, and local *hsien* health centers. Again during the first half of the year 1945 when air-fields were constructed in Hanchung (Shensi) and Lu-

hsien (Szechuen), the health work for tens of thousands of laborers was undertaken by the National Anti-epidemic Corps and the Lu-hsien Highway Health Station respectively.

E. Mission and Private Hospitals.—For the free treatment of wounded or sick soldiers and refugees the Government continued to subsidize the mission and private hospitals with grants-in-aid and medical supplies. In 1944, such assistance was given to 55 hospitals in 15 provinces and municipalities, and a total of 512,389 sick and wounded were thus benefitted. Similar subsidies were extended to the Border Mission of the National Christian Council of China, the Maternity Home for the Poor of the National Midwives Association, etc. To the Air-raid Relief Corps of Chungking Municipality, the Central War-time Service Corps, and other organizations totalling 75 units, subsidies of over 10 tons of drugs and medical supplies were granted.

F. National Red Cross Medical Relief Corps.—Medical relief units under the Chinese Red Cross continued to render services in the military hospitals as well as for civilians. In 1944 there were under the Chinese Red Cross 103 units which were mostly attached to the troops and distributed in 13 provinces. For civilians three clinics were maintained in Chungking and the staff participated in the work of the hospital of Chinese Red Cross Chungking Branch. The following table summarizes the more important work of the Chinese Red Cross Medical Relief Corps during 1944:

TABLE 5. SUMMARY OF THE MORE IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF THE CHINESE
RED CROSS MEDICAL RELIEF CORPS DURING 1944 (January to December)

No. outpatients treated . . .	632,000
No. inpatients	500
Surgical operations	17,000
Surgical dressings	782,000
Preventive inoculations	476,000
X-ray examinations and fluoroscopy .	2,700

III. PRODUCTION, PROVISION, AND CONTROL OF DRUGS, BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS AND MEDICAL EQUIPMENT

A. Production and Provision of Drugs, Biological Products, and Medical Equipment.—There are five organizations of the National Health Administration which were responsible for the production and provision of drugs, biological products and medical equipment, viz. the First Drug Manufacturing Factory, the Northwest Drug Manufacturing Factory, Narcotics Bureau, Surgical Instruments and Hospital Equipment Factory, and the Emergency Purchasing Committee for Medical Supplies.

The First Drug Manufacturing Factory was established with a capital of \$4,000,000 on August 1, 1944, and the manufacture of non-narcotic drugs was taken over from the Narcotics Bureau. Over a hundred kinds of organic and inorganic drugs were manufactured. From January 1944 to June 1945, there were produced 41,316 lbs. of basic drugs, and 7,836,707 tablets and capsules.

The Northwest Drug Manufacturing Factory was established in November 15, 1944 in Lanchow. It consisted of three divisions, one

for drugs, one for surgical instruments and hospital equipment, and one for medical utensils. From January 1944 to June 1945, it had manufactured over 13,371 lbs. of drugs, 6,878 pieces of medical instruments and hospital equipment, and 3,268,479 pieces of medical utensils. Special attention was given to the utilization of indigenous raw materials in the Northwest.

The Narcotics Bureau has control of distribution, use and manufacture of narcotic drugs. As mentioned above, the manufacture of non-narcotic drugs was taken over by the First Drug Manufacturing Factory. A total of 784,069.51 grams, 6,058,793 tablets, 162,814 cc., and 635,524 ampoules of narcotic drugs were manufactured during the period January 1944 to June 1945.

At the Surgical Instruments and Hospital Equipment Factory, there were manufactured 12,562 pieces of general surgical, 3,846 otolaryngological and dental, 1,705 gynecological and obstetrical, and 1,217 other instruments, totalling 19,330 pieces.

The Emergency Purchasing Committee of Medical Supplies aims at providing medical supplies for the civilians at a reasonable cost

and helping check the rise in market price of some of the essential items of medical supplies. From January 1944 to June 1945, it imported \$2,199,425 worth of drugs and medical instruments from abroad, and purchased \$6,712,859 worth of drugs and medical instruments from various parts of the country. They were distributed to 3,466 medical organizations and 57,398 individuals at the total cost of \$80,248,462.

B. Control of Drugs and Medical Supplies.—In order to encourage the importation of drugs and instruments, 84 kinds of drugs and 5 kinds of medical instruments required for emergency medical relief were placed on import duty free list. At the same time as a means of keeping down the market price of drugs, pharmaceutical firms were required to register their drugs and medical supplies with the Government and to sell

them at prices agreed upon by local pharmacist guilds and approved by the Government.

C. Control of Drugs and Medical Supplies Donated from Abroad.—Gifts of medical supplies as well as financial aid from foreign Red Cross Associations and other relief organizations have met timely needs in our emergency. A special commission was organized under the National Health Administration to control such donations. Stations for their receiving and distribution were maintained in Chungking, Kunming, Kutsing, Kweiyang, Luchow, and Lanchow. From January 1st, 1944 to June 30, 1945, 10,449 cases comprising 665 different kinds of medical equipment and supplies and totaling approximately 161 tons were donated by foreign agencies. The following is a summary of the above figures:

TABLE 6. MEDICAL EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES RECEIVED FROM FOREIGN AGENCIES, JANUARY 1, 1944—JUNE, 30, 1945

<i>Donating Agency</i>	<i>No. of Cases</i>	<i>Approximate Tonnage</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
American National Red Cross	10,130	148	These supplies did not begin to come in until Mar. of 1945
American Bureau for Medical Aid to China	194	8	
British Red Cross Society	64)	5	
Canadian Red Cross Society	60)		
British United Aid to China Fund ...	1)		
Total ..	10,449	161	

Of the above, over 122 tons were distributed during the same period to 1,379 medical units in provincial, municipal and other government organizations throughout the country for the free treatment of refugees, families of

soldiers and for civilians. All organizations receiving such donations were required to report at the end of each month upon the number of persons benefited and the amount distributed.

IV. EPIDEMIC PREVENTION AND CONTROL

A. **Epidemiology.**—Among the infectious diseases occurring in epidemic proportions from January 1944 to June 1945, the following may be mentioned:

1. **Plague**—In Fukien bubonic plague has been known to be endemic for over forty years. Under war conditions, due to the enemy's coastal blockade, many inter-provincial communication lines have been developed and the disease has followed these new inland traffic routes to spread from Fukien to southern Chekiang and eastern Kiangsi. In 1944, plague was reported from 28 *hsiens* in Fukien with a total of 5,442 cases with 4,172 deaths, the more seriously infected *hsiens* being Lunghai (1,687 cases), Yungting (467 cases), Tsingkiang (405 cases), Futsing (389 cases) Kienyang (305 cases), Minhow (286 cases) and Pucheng (257 cases). In Chekiang, there were 841 cases with 301 deaths reported from 7 *hsiens*; and of these, Yungchia (also known as Wenchow) alone claimed 712 cases with 257 deaths. In Kiangsi, 471 plague cases with 220 deaths were reported from Nancheng; and 37 cases with 24 deaths from Kwang-tseh and Linchwan.

During the first three months of 1945, there were outbreaks of plague reported from 8 *hsiens* in Fukien with a total of 53 cases with 33 deaths. As epidemiological reports from the southwestern provinces have been very much delayed this year because of difficulty in communication, the available data are considered very incomplete.

In Yunnan, plague broke out in

Nantien near the Yunnan-Burma border in August, 1944. Up to the end of the year, there were 542 cases with 247 deaths reported from Nantien, Liangho, Talungchwan, Loposzechuang, Chimuchai, and Chetao. The epidemic was carried over to 1945 with the occurrence of another 44 cases with 8 deaths during the first 5 months.

2. **Epidemic Meningitis.** In 1944, outbreaks of epidemic meningitis were reported from 97 *hsiens* of 14 provinces; but it was only in Chekiang, Hupeh and Szechuen that the disease assumed rather serious epidemic proportions, claiming 2,325 cases with 830 deaths, 1,247 cases with 196 deaths, and 160 cases with 28 deaths, respectively. In Szechuen, cases appeared throughout 1944, increased rather rapidly in the following spring, and resulted in a total of 989 cases with 71 deaths during the months January to May, 1945.

3. **Cholera.** There were altogether 1,196 cholera cases with 350 deaths reported from 56 *hsiens* and municipalities of 10 provinces in the year 1944, as compared with 17,385 cases with 6,318 deaths and 23,597 cases with 9,521 deaths in 1943 and 1942 respectively. According to past epidemiological experiences, cholera would probably appear in a greater epidemic form in 1945; and thus for the first six months of the year, there were already 1,758 cases with 361 deaths reported from 33 *hsiens* and municipalities in 4 provinces (Szechuen, Kweichow, Yunnan, and Kwangtung).

4. **Typhus Fever.** The reporting of typhus fever cases in the last few war years has been

particularly incomplete and inaccurate because of inadequate diagnostic facilities. It is, however, worthy of note that the disease seemed to have gained in

prevalence in Yunnan, Kweichow and Szechuen in recent years. The following table shows the typhus incidence in these provinces since 1940.

TABLE 7. INCIDENCE OF TYPHUS FEVER IN YUNNAN, KWEICHOW AND SZECHUEN 1940-1945

	1940		1941		1942		1943		1944		1945 June (Jan.-	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
Yunnan . .	22	0	111	5	530	48	715	27	1462	73	406	11
Kweichow . .	26	0	210	12	151	16	478	41	1320	288	716	51
Szechuen . .	5	0	149	4	108	5	144	1	147	1	109	0
	53	0	470	21	789	69	1337	69	2929	362	1231	62

B. National Anti-epidemic Corps.—The National Anti-epidemic Corps was established in 1938, primarily for assisting the local health authorities in the control of major epidemic outbreaks. In 1944, the Corps consisted of 161 medical, 4 sanitary, 4 laboratory and 4 isolation hospital units; which being mobile in character, were assembled in four groups to take charge of four geographical areas; (1) Hunan-Kwangtung-Kwangsi area, (2) Hunan-Kweichow-Yunnan area, (3) Szechuen-Hupeh-Honan area, and (4) Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien area. Early in 1945, in preparation for the

forthcoming counter-offensive, the Corps was reinforced, by the organization of two more groups of mobile units. In addition to routine anti-epidemic activities, the Corps also played an important part in the provision of health services for laborers working on national defense engineering projects,—the establishment of temporary medical clinics at important communication points for troops en route to the front, and the rendering of medical relief for war refugees. The main activities may be summarized as follows:

TABLE 8. SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF NATIONAL ANTI-EPIDEMIC CORPS FOR 1944

Patients treated	122,535
Clinic attendances	313,439
Smallpox vaccinations	162,492
Plague preventive inoculations	85,425
Other preventive inoculations	165,427
Laboratory tests performed	23,041
Persons deloused	53,498
Clothing deloused	49,698

C. Production of Biological Products.—The National Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Kunming and the National Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Lanchow have continued to play an important part in the prevention and control of epidemic diseases by supplying most of the vaccines and sera required by the armed forces and civilians. During 1944 the Northwest Epidemic Pre-

vention Bureau sent an officer to Egypt and the United States of America for studying methods of producing typhus vaccine, while the Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau obtained fairly good success in experimenting with the production of penicillin. The main products of the two bureaux from January 1, 1944 to June 30, 1945 may be summarized as follows:

TABLE 9. MAIN PRODUCTS OF NATIONAL CENTRAL AND NORTHWEST EPIDEMIC PREVENTION BUREAUX (from January 1, 1944 to June 30, 1945)

<i>Item</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Central Epidemic Prevention Bureau</i>	<i>Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau</i>
Sera	c.c. International Units	480,294	195,300	284,994
Antitoxins		202,586,000	127,015,000	75,571,000
Bacterial and virus vaccines	c.c.	30,423,148	19,308,848	11,114,300
Diagnostic sera	c.c.	259,917	240,878	19,039
Toxins & toxoids	c.c.	230,350	184,400	45,950
Miscellaneous:				
Penicillin	Oxford	3,900,000	3,900,000	0
Mallein	c.c.	135.	0	135

D. Anti-Malaria Work in the Army.—In view of the wide incidence of malaria in the country and of its effect of lowering the combatting power of the army, the National Health Administration offered and participated in 1945 in the anti-malaria campaign in the army. Several units were organized with health officers from the National Health Administration for this purpose.

V. REGISTRATION, CONSCRIPTION AND TRAINING OF MEDICAL PERSONNEL

A. Registration of Medical Personnel.—During the period under

review, registration of medical and related personnel was continued. The following table gives the numbers of registrants of different professions for the period and also their respective cumulative totals since 1929: (See Table 10)

There were 1,463 practitioners of native medicine whose qualifications were approved by the Central Government. These consisted of 1,056 in Szechuen, 21 in Hupeh, 173 in Hunan, 98 in Anhwei, and 115 in Kansu. New sets of regulations governing the registration of foreign medical personnel and the control of dental

TABLE 10. NUMBER OF REGISTRANTS OF MEDICAL PROFESSION FOR THE PERIOD JANUARY 1944 TO JUNE 1945 AND THEIR RESPECTIVE CUMULATIVE TOTALS, (January, 1929 to June, 1945)

		<i>Number Registered</i>	<i>Cumulative Totals</i>
	1944	1945 (Jan.-June)	Jan. 1929-June 1945
Doctors	353	139	12,964
Pharmacists	32	34	918
Dentists	18	6	353
Midwives	50	53	5,189
Nurses	16	17	5,972
Dispensers	14	4	4,290

technicians were promulgated. Every medical person has been required to join the local guild of his own profession.

B. Conscription.—According to regulations governing conscription of medical personnel, the National Health Administration during 1944 conscripted 487 new graduates, and 12 others from the occupied areas and from abroad for service

in government medical and health organizations. In preparation for further conscription, the provincial health administrations and municipal health bureaux were required each month to report on the status of the medical practitioners.

The number of persons conscripted for public health service from 1940 to 1944 is shown in Table 11.

TABLE 11. NUMBER OF NEWLY GRADUATED DOCTORS, PHARMACISTS, DENTISTS, NURSES, MIDWIVES AND DISPENSERS CONSCRIPTED FOR PUBLIC SERVICE DURING THE YEARS 1940 TO 1944

	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	Total
Doctors	186	129	105	201	180	801
Pharmacists	2	17	12	22	24	77
Dentists	0	7	9	9	6	31
Nurses	0	85	48	132	106	371
Midwives	0	0	55	182	164	401
Dispensers	0	0	0	8	7	15
Total	188	238	229	554	487	1696

C. Training.—With a very limited number of qualified personnel to meet the increasing demand of emergency medical relief and public health organizations in the country, training has become a necessary part of the public health

program. The important training activities during the period under review may be summarized as follows:

1. *Post-graduate training in Public Health and Study Tours.* Under the auspices of the United

Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 13 senior public health officers were selected to make study tours in the United States and observation of various phases of public health activities, viz. hospital administration, epidemic prevention, sanitary engineering, maternity and child health, hospital nursing, medical supplies, and nutrition. Eighteen members were given an opportunity to study special problems relating to public health under the auspices of the Foreign Economic Administration in the United States for a period of six months. Ten health officers received their postgraduate public health training in the United States and 4 others in India with scholarships granted by the International Health Division of Rockefeller Foundation and the Government of India respectively. In addition, there were two other health officers sent to India to study parasitology.

2. *Training of Staff Workers in Public Health.* Training of public health officers was undertaken by the National Institute of Health in Chungking and by the newly organized National Northwest Institute of Health in Lanchow. During 1944, nine courses were conducted by the National Institute of Health, namely, Course for Public Health Officers, Course on *Materia Medica* and Pharmacognosy, Public Health Nursing Course, Course for Sanitary Engineers, Refresher Course for Personnel engaged in Public Health, Anti-malaria Course, Laboratory Technician's Course, Course for Dental Technicians, and Course for Dental Nurses.

At the National Northwest Institute of Health, courses were

conducted on *kala-azar*, public health administration, epidemiology, veterinary medicine, experimental medicine, bacteriology and immunology, nutrition, *materia medica* and pharmacognosy, medicine, surgery, nursing, and oral hygiene.

Auxiliary health workers continued to be trained in the provinces. Thus in 1944, nine Provincial Health Administrations (Kwangsi, Shensi, Kweichow, Chinghai, Kwangtung, Szechuen, Hunan, Hupeh, and Kansu) have established public health training institutes and offered 14 different courses. It is estimated that about a total of 2,000 persons have received public health training from these institutes.

3. *Course for Nursing Aids for Youths Voluntary Troop.* In the winter of 1944 when the Youths Voluntary Troop was recruited, it was decided to give a course for nursing aids to a selected portion of the girl volunteers. The National Health Administration undertook to extend such training to 300 members. Courses were started concurrently in May at the National Institute of Health, Hsin-chiao Highway Health Station and Szechuen Provincial Health Administration, each to last three months.

4. *Training Program for Post-War Relief and Rehabilitation.* In view of the vast number of medical and public health personnel needed for post-war medical relief and rehabilitation work, the National Health Administration has drawn up a comprehensive training program for the training of such personnel. This program has met with the approval of the Executive Yuan. The United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation

Administration has been requested to send 30 foreign experts to assist in the training and also a part of the supplies required for the training program. The National Institute of Health, Chungking Central Hospital, National Shanghai Medical College, Hsiang-ya Medical College, Central School of Nursing, Central School of Midwifery, and Chungking Municipal Hospital will all participate in this work. During the latter part of 1945, it is intended to open courses with a total enrollment of 300, for nurses, midwives, sanitary engineers, medical officers, and clinical specialists. It is hoped that at completion a portion of hitherto unqualified but experienced medical workers may qualify for official recognition.

VI. PLANNING, RESEARCH AND DEMONSTRATION

In addition to the National Institute of Health in Chungking, a new National Northwest Institute of Health was established in Lanchow in August 1944. These two institutes are charged with the responsibilities of carrying out planning, demonstration and research work in public health.

The National Institute of Health in Chungking conducts an urban health demonstration center at Sha-chih area in Chungking and a rural health demonstration center in Pishan. Among its activities in 1944 may be mentioned the following:

- (1) Studies on Nutritional Improvement, including the preparation of yeast, milk-powder substitute for infants, calcium-wheat-husk preparation, and dietary surveys in Koloshan, Chungking.

- (2) Epidemiological investigations and studies, including studies on the biological aspects of anopheles, malaria control in Tatukou district in Chungking, investigation of typhus in the Northwest, studies on flies and insects in Chungking, anti-tuberculosis work, parasitological studies on plague and the effect of sulfa drugs in the treatment of this disease.
- (3) Experimentation on the production of penicillin, and research projects on Chinese medicinal plants, including standardization of common methods of chemical analysis, extraction of pharmacologically effective elements from *Yatantsz* (鴨蛋子), *Changshan* (常山), *Chia-cho-tao* (夾竹桃), *Shih-chu-m-chih* (使君子), and studies on native drugs for malaria, amoebic dysentery, and on insecticides, and analysis of patent medicines.
- (4) Maternity and Infant Health, including investigation on deaths of children in Pishan, Lanchow, Kweiyang and Fukien, and maternity and infant health demonstrations in Chengtu, Pishan and Lanchow.
- (5) School Health and Production of Materials for Health Education, including demonstrations in school health for universities, middle and Primary schools in National Central University, Nankai Middle School, Shujen Middle and Primary Schools, and the Szechuen Provincial Vocational School for Girls, the preparation of health

models and health exhibit. Two thousand sets of health posters were printed for distribution throughout the country.

- (6) Studies on endemic diseases, including *kala-azar* and *schistosomiasis* in Szechuen, *kala-azar* in Northwestern provinces, and *cretinism* in Shensi, and on the biological aspects of sandflies in Szechuen.
- (7) Sanitary Engineering and Sanitary Chemistry, including studies on urban and rural sanitary engineering standards, analysis of chrysanthemum, standardization of methods of examination of drinking water, and participation in sewerage improvement in Chungking and on waterworks planning for Chengtu.
- (8) Studies on mental hygiene and experimentation on child behavior at Nankai Middle School.
- (9) Experimentation on industrial hygiene at the Central Industrial Research Station in Panchi.

The work of Northwest Institute of Health includes prevention and control of *kala-azar*, investigation of health conditions in Northwest, studies on the epidemiology of typhus fever, and the training of health personnel.

Details of the other activities of the National Health Administration and of its subordinate organizations have not been included herewith due to limited space allotted. They may be obtained from the various publications and reports of these organizations published from time to time.

VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

During the last few war years, much help has been received from various official, semi-official, and private organizations abroad, without which it would have been much more difficult to maintain the standard of public health and medical services in this country. Grateful acknowledgement is due to:

American National Red Cross
American Bureau for Medical
Aid to China, Inc.
War Organization of the British
Red Cross Society and Order
of St. John of Jerusalem
British United Aid to China
Fund
Canadian Red Cross Society
Friends' Ambulance Unit—China
Convoy
Government of India
International Relief Committee
of China
Rockefeller Foundation
Sino-British Science Co-operation
Office
United China Relief
United Nations Relief and Re-
habilitation Administration
U.S. State Department—Division
of Cultural Relations
U.S. Forces Headquarters—China
Theater
U.S.A. Typhus Commission

for donation of medical supplies;
payment of cash subsidies for pro-
motion of public health projects
and related investigative studies;
facilities for transportation of
medical personnel and supplies;
loan of technical experts for de-
velopment of public health and
medical services; granting of fel-
lowships and scholarships for post-
graduate and specialized training
in the United States and India.

CHAPTER XLII

SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

..... KU CHENG-KONG (谷正綱)*

The establishment of the Ministry of Social Affairs dates back to 1941, when it was formally created by Government mandate. The Ministry is the nation's highest authority in social administration, and its manifold activities include the training and organization of the people, social welfare work, cooperative enterprises and the mobilization of man-power. Since its inception the years have witnessed a continuous expansion of its diverse undertakings. The following is a general survey covering a period of one and half years, from January 1944 to June 1945.

I. GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

A. Chart of Organization—The Ministry of the Social Affairs is the head of a vast octopus of administrative organs, extending from the provincial or special municipal governments down to the district governments. The respective organs in charge of social affairs in the provincial government, in the special municipal government, and in the hsien or district government, are differently named according to

their political status and magnitude of work. In the provincial government it is called the Department of Social Affairs, in the special municipality the Bureau, and in the hsien the Division. Where the proper organs have not been duly set up, the work is temporarily made over to other administrative organs. The provincial government, for instance, may set up a Board of Social Affairs and another of Cooperative Control, pending the final organization of the Department of Social Affairs. In the absence of these two Boards, the work may be relegated to the Department of Civil Affairs or any other division specially assigned. In areas under enemy occupation social administration is entrusted to the local party organs.

Unlike other nations, China seldom finds herself deficient in manpower, great as the War's demand has been. The main problem is to train and organize the people, and it is there that the Ministry's work bears especial importance. To ensure the fullest implementation of its policies, the Ministry has given special attention to the proper

* Minister of Social Affairs.

selection of personnel, the adequacy of financial backing, and the exploration of new fields for activity. Its brief history is characterized by a ceaseless expansion of its work which, start-

ing from the inner provinces, has been gradually pushed further and still further afield until such frontier provinces as Sinkiang and Chinghai have come within its orbit.

TABLE I. PROVINCIAL AND MUNICIPAL SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION ORGANS.

<i>Types of Organization</i>	<i>No. of Provinces and Municipalities</i>	<i>Name of Provinces and Municipalities</i>
Board of Social Affairs	12	Chekiang, Kiangsu, Hupeh, Szechuen, Fukien, Kwangtung, Yunnan, Kweichow, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Sinkiang
Board of Cooperative Control	13	Chekiang, Kiangsi, Szechuen, Yunnan, Kweichow, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Honan, Ninghsia, Suiyuen, Shansi, Kwangsi.
Bureau of Social Affairs	1	Chungking
Division of Social Affairs under the Department of Civil Affairs	10	Anhwei, Hunan, Sikang, Kwangsi, Shantung, Honan, Shansi, Suiyuan, Chahar, Ninghsia
Department of Reconstruction conjointly in charge of Cooperative Affairs	6	Hunan, Anhwei, Kiangsu, Hopeh, Shantung, Sinkiang
Department of Finance conjointly in charge of Cooperative Affairs	1	Sikang
Board of Social Affairs conjointly in charge of Cooperative Affairs	2	Hupeh, Fukien
Social Affairs entrusted to Provincial Party organs	6	Kiangsu, Hopei, Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, Jehol
Social Affairs entrusted to Municipal Party organs	7	Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Hankow, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Canton.

The basic unit of social administration is the Division of Social Affairs in the Hsien or District Government and up to June 1945 357 hsien in 14 provinces had either Divisions of Social Affairs or Offices of the Cooperative Movement.

B. Legislation and Regulations for Social Affairs—Regulations or administrative laws enacted or revised during the period under review comprise 84 items, of which the more important are listed below.

1. Regulations governing Labour Unions.
2. " " Farmers' Union.
3. " " Foreign Chambers of Commerce.
4. Law of Educational Associations.
5. Regulations governing the Establishment of Military Service Depots.
6. Regulations governing the Implementation of Social Relief Laws.
7. Regulations governing Public Relief Organs.
8. " " Private Relief Organs.
9. " " the Formation of Committees in charge of Relief Funds.
10. Regulations governing the establishment of Nurseries in Factories.
11. Regulations governing the Formation of Board of Directors in charge of provincial or Municipal Social Affairs Bureau.
12. Regulations governing Vocational Agencies.
13. " " Cooperative Societies.
14. " " Treasures.
15. " " Voluntary Labour Service.
16. " " the Implementation of Cooperative Law.

The above enactments and regulation were based upon principles set forth by the 6th National Convention of the Kuomintang, which were contained in four important party resolutions.

1. Outline of National Health Program.
2. Outline of National Labour Police.
3. Outline of National Agricultural Policy.
4. Principles of Preliminary Post-war Reconstruction.

C. Training of Social Workers.

—As the Ministry's diverse enterprises reach out into ever wider fields, there has been a persistent demand of competent social workers. To meet this, the Ministry has started various training schools. 111 students were graduated in April and May 1944, after a period of rigid training for social work. In October of the same year training was completed for 96 students specialized in manpower mobilization work. From the Cooperative Workers Training School there were graduated between January 1944 and June 1945 160 students. The Ministry has also set up special

classes for advanced students and research workers and another class giving practical instructions for cooperative work. For the period under review the graduates totalled respectively 89 and 25.

D. Survey and Statistics.—

Statistical work has been conducted on an objective, fact-finding basis. Since June 1944 the Ministry has been issuing a monthly statistics covering the various phases of social administration, copies of which are distributed among other official organs for check and reference.

The survey of wages is mainly conducted along two lines. The first is concerned with industrial workers of 16 categories (1) and the second with manual laborers of 19 categories. (2)

1. The machine and aeronautical industries, flour mills, printing industry, cotton mills, tobacco and match-making industries, cement works, tooth-brush factories, power plants, heavy oil plants, glass factories, water works, electrical plants, sugar refineries, tanning and salt-manufacturing industries.

2. Ricksha pullers, sedan-chair carriers, ferry-boatmen, junk crew, longshoremen, cart-drivers, waggoners, wheelbarrow-drivers, water-carriers, water-waggoners, coal-carriers, carpenters, stone-cutters, masons, house-painters, barbers, tailors, bathhouse waiters, and short term employees.

Monthly living cost indices were prepared from the survey of the prices of daily necessities. These were consulted by the responsible official organs for readjustments in industrial wages. Up to June 1945, 34 volumes of Wage index were compiled, while those of living cost index amounted to 52.

II. SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

A. Popular Organizations.

1. Farmers Unions.—The outstanding enactment in this field is the Regulations governing the Organization of Farmers' Unions, whose main objectives are the promotion of welfare work among rural districts, the initiation of scientific farming schemes, the extension of agricultural loans for rural reconstruction, and the strengthening of the basic structure of Farmers' Unions. At the end of 1944, 9 provinces had successfully organized Provincial Farmers' Unions, viz., Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuen, Shensi, Honan, Kansu, Fukien, Kwangtung and Ninghsia, controlling in all 140 Hsien Farmers' Unions and 2,139 District Farmers' Unions, with a membership of 931,352 persons. Up to June 1945, 31 Hsien Farmers' Unions and 483 District Farmers' Unions had been registered with the Ministry, comprising respectively 383 union-

members and 175,157 individual members.

2. Labor Unions.—Under the sponsorship of the Ministry, Provincial labor Unions and Workers' Welfare Societies have spread throughout the width and breadth of the nation. The regulations promulgated by the Ministry gave very detailed instructions regarding the organization of Provincial Labor Unions and Hsien Unions, and the vast growth of such unions was an eloquent proof of their usefulness. For the year 1944 the following organizations were registered with the Ministry: 324 Vocational Workers' Unions, with 41,155 members; 19 Industrial Workers' Unions, with 7,592 members; 21 General Workers' Unions, with 3,420 members; 20 Special Workers' Unions, with 7,937 members; 20 Hsien Labor Unions and 1 Provincial Labor Union. In all there were 411 unions, comprising a total membership of 60,104 persons. Up to June 1945 the Ministry had registered 6 Federation of Hsien Labor Unions, 66 Vocational Workers' Unions, 9 Industrial Workers' Unions, 11 General Workers' Unions, 15 Seamen's Unions, 8 Miners' Unions, 4 Railway Workers' Unions, 4 Salt Workers' Unions, and 1 River-Boatmen's Union, comprising a total membership of 172,517 persons.

Along with the various grades of Labor Unions mentioned above, the organization of Workers' Unions in government-controlled industries and that of all China Labor Union have also fallen within the view of the Ministry.

New regulations governing the organization of labor unions and workers' unions are being devised by the Ministry and they will be promulgated in the very near future.

3. Delegation to International Conferences.—The Chinese delegation to the 26th International Labor Conference held on 20th April, 1944 was composed of Messrs. Li Ping-heng and Hsieh Cheng-fu representing the Chinese government and Mr. Li Ming representing the workers. China was elected to a permanent seat in the ILO governing body.

The World Trade Union Conference was held in February, 1945 in London and China's delegates thereto were Messrs. Chu Hsueh-fan and Li Hsuan-tsui. Mr. Chu Hsueh-fan was elected one of the vice-presidents of the New World Federation of Trade Unions.

4. Trade Unions and Chambers of Commerce.—Trade Unions and chambers of commerce show-

ed a marked growth during the period under review and their basic structure was also distinctly consolidated. Many trade unions were required to hand in an annual report so that the Ministry might have an up-to-date information regarding their undertakings.

In 1944, 107 more chambers of commerce were registered with the Ministry, comprising 1,853 guild members and 3,306 non-guild members, and 750 trade unions, with 24,160 members. Up to June 1945 the following organizations were additionally registered with the Ministry: 2 Provincial Chambers of Commerce; 30 Hsien Chambers of Commerce, with 173 guild members; 18 Provincial Federation of Trade Unions. Plans have been advised for the organization of the National Federation of Trade Unions and the election of delegates had been completed in 12 provinces. See Table II and III.

TABLE II. POPULAR ORGANIZATIONS AND MEMBERSHIP
(Up to June 1944)

<i>Types of Organization</i>	<i>No. of Organizations</i>	<i>Individual Members</i>	<i>Members Union</i>
Grand Total	29,425	6,481,917	68,923
A. Professional Organizations	25,669	5,163,178	29,532
1. Farmers' Unions	7,721	3,013,380	9,449
1) Provincial or Municipal Farmers' Union	15	—	729
2) Hsien or District Farmers' Union	550	—	8,720
3) Hsiang or Town Farmers' Union	7,156	3,013,380	—
2. Fishermen's Unions	104	34,563	39
1) Federation of Fishermen's Unions	2	—	39
2) Hsien or District Fishermen's Unions	75	28,134	—
3) Hsien or District Branch Unions	27	6,429	—
3. Labour Unions	4,134	1,506,840	4,941
1) Federation of Labour Unions	4	—	70
2) Hsien or District Labour Unions	246	—	4,871

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3) General Labor Unions	3,687	923,544	—
i—Industrial Workers' Associations	103	66,244	—
ii—Professional Workers' Associations	3,494	652,040	—
iii—Sundry Workers' Associations	90	214,260	—
4) Special Labor Unions	197	574,296	—
i—Postmen's Associations	—	—	—
ii—Electricians' Associations	—	—	—
iii—Highwaymen's Associations	5	10,244	—
iv—Railwaymen's Associations	8	65,623	—
v—Seamen's Associations	22	56,834	—
vi—Boatmen Associations	124	75,416	—
vii—Salt-workers' Associations	28	93,849	—
viii—Miners' Associations	9	267,630	—
ix—Public Utilities Workers' Associations	—	—	—
x—Private Transportation Enterprises Workers' Associations	1	700	—
4. Trade Unions and Chambers of Commerce	11,289	431,041	13,534
1) Federation of Chamber of Commerce	18	—	1,127
2) Hsien or District Chamber of Commerce	772	29,315	9,527
3) Hsiang or Town Chamber of Commerce	453	23,326	2,380
4) Trade Unions	10,046	378,400	—
i.—Major Industries' Unions	81	6,161	—
ii.—Major Mining Industries Unions	2	178	—
iii.—Major Trade Unions	4,917	186,100	—
iv.—Major Export Industries' Unions	6	443	—
v.—Minor Trade Unions	5,040	185,518	—
5. Liberal Professions' Associations	2,421	177,334	1,669
1) Educational Associations	2,116	154,407	1,522
2) Newspapermen's Associations	15	1,077	—
3) Accountants' Associations	5	315	—
4) Technicians' Associations	—	—	—
5) Medical Associations	46	2,815	—
6) Chinese Medical Associations	198	18,515	47
7) Dentists' Associations	1	36	—
8) Nurses' Associations	—	—	—
9) Druggists' Associations	3	77	—
10) Obstetricians' Associations	—	—	—
11) Lawyers' Associations	37	1,112	—
6. Social Welfare Work Organizations	3,756	1,318,739	39,391
1) Cultural Organizations	574	353,273	5,876
2) Religious Associations	421	142,561	135
3) Charity Organizations	220	31,622	45
4) Public Welfare Organizations	1,080	528,852	916
5) Sports and Sanitation Organizations	72	50,283	107
6) Conscription Service Organizations	431	24,901	193
7) Women's Organizations	828	108,368	317
8) Sundry Organizations	130	78,579	31,802

Sources: from the Board of Statistics of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

TABLE III. POPULAR ORGANIZATIONS AND MEMBERSHIP COMPARISON OF
1944 & 1945

	No. of Organizations		Individual Members		Union Members	
	Up to June 1945	Up to Dec. 1944	Up to June 1945	Up to Dec. 1944	Up to June 1945	Up to Dec. 1944
Grand Total	29,425	26,126	6,481,917	5,575,076	63,923	33,202
Professional Organization	25,669	22,630	5,163,179	4,271,698	29,532	27,280
Farmers' Unions	7,721	7,139	3,013,330	2,814,970	9,449	9,201
Fishermen's Unions	104	102	34,563	34,357	39	39
Labor Unions	4,134	3,359	1,506,840	885,310	4,941	2,925
Industrial and Commercial Unions	11,289	9,892	431,041	379,621	13,534	13,901
Liberal Professions' Organizations	2,421	2,138	177,354	157,437	1,569	1,214
Social Welfare Organizations	3,756	3,496	1,318,739	1,303,378	39,391	5,922
Cultural Organizations	574	522	353,273	350,231	5,876	4,059
Religious Organizations	421	410	142,861	174,950	135	228
Charity Organizations	220	226	31,622	33,629	45	15
Public Welfare Organizations	1,080	1,034	528,852	542,795	916	725
Sports and Sanitation Organizations	72	71	50,233	50,065	107	71
Conscription Service Organization	431	390	24,901	21,054	193	168
Women's Organizations	824	751	108,368	98,871	317	222
Sundry Organizations	130	86	78,579	31,77	31,802	434

B. Social Drives and Campaigns.—To enhance fighting morale, the Misintry has sponsored various social campaigns. Of these the following may be mentioned; the New Life Movement, the Total Mobilization Campaign, the sports meetings in various towns and localities. But by far the most important are the Drive for Contributions to the Fighting Forces and the "Serve the Forces" Campaign.

1. Drive for Contributions to the Fighting Forces.—The major drives for funds to aid the fighting forces were the New Year Drive

(\$2,664,159), the July 7th Drive (Anniversary of the Lukouchiao incident) (\$107,716,183), the Drive for Contributions to the Fighting Forces in Hunan and Hupeh provinces (3,961,566) and the Drive for the Fighting Forces in Kweichow (\$24,965,000).

The funds thus raised were only distributed to the fighting forces through the responsible organs. In addition, \$5,590,000 were given to the soldiers' families residing in the districts of Chungking, Kiangtsin and Pahasien.

2. "Serve the Forces" Campaign.—During the Hunan and

Kwangsi Campaign of 1944, the Ministry, acting in collaboration with the War Area Special Service Corps, undertook to establish military service depots at key-points in the provinces of Szechuen, Shensi, Kweichow, Yunnan and Hupeh. The Regulations governing the Establishment of Military Service Depots were specially devised for that purpose. The Ministry also dispatched a force of competent workers to help build the field depots. Up to April 1945 Military service depots were fully established in 39 hsien in Shensi, 21 in Szechuen, and 39 in Kweichow. Besides serving the troops stationed in their respective localities, the depots also rendered aid to troops en route to other destinations.

III. SOCIAL WELFARE WORK

A. Social Relief.

1. Laws and Regulations.—The major enactments in this field are the Social Relief Laws, the Regulations governing the Implementation of Social Relief Laws, the Regulations governing Public Relief Organs, the Regulations governing Private Relief Organs, and the Regulations governing Tax Exemption of Private Relief Organs.

2. Model Relief Centers.—The Model Relief Centers sponsored by the Ministry showed marked progress for the period under review. The inmates of the Chungking Experimental Relief Institute increased from 500 to 800, while the enrollment of the Chungking School for the Disabled rose to 160, and that of the

Chungking Technical Training Center for Loafers to 350.

3. Relief Work Under Local Governments.—During the period under review 12 provinces had successfully developed social relief organizations. These comprised 96 sub-organs, and were working in close cooperation with 604 charity organizations, which embraced a total of 1,761 local relief institutes. The inmates totalled 149,292 persons while those benefited by the various grades of relief organs were estimated at 6,680,000.

In the sphere of medical relief, the most note-worthy enterprise was the Free Medical Service Centers established under the sponsorship of the Ministry. For the period under review 569,367 persons received free medical consultation, and 1,704,981 persons were given medicine free of charge. The achievement of the National Board of Social Affairs in this regard was no less remarkable, as it had given free medical service to 288,968 persons and vaccine injections to 574,059 persons, thus bringing the total number of persons who were given free medical aid to 14,609,195.

4. Winter Relief.—Winter relief programs sponsored by the Ministry have extended to more than 20 provinces. In most cases the funds were raised locally, the pao-chia system being made mainly responsible for the collection. The Central Government has, however, granted huge subsidies: \$10,000,000 for 1943 and \$30,000,000 for 1944.

5. Relief for Hunan and Kwangsi War Refugees.—Following the panicky situation arising from the Hunan and Kwangsi campaign of November 1944, tens of thousands of people fled before the enemy spearhead. The Ministry lost no time in setting up relief depots in the battered areas to care for the war-refugees. 8,000 people were thus given food and shelter, and the total inmates in 29 War Refugees Relief Depots were estimated at 32,000, of which the majority has since been safely conducted back to their native places, while the young and the able-bodied were encouraged to enlist with the army.

B. Welfare Work for Children—The main enactments in this field are the Regulations governing Child Welfare Organizations, the Measures for providing Education to School-age Children.

Up to April 1945 there were 8 factory nurseries in Szechuen and 5 in Kiangsi, and 703 Children's Relief Centers distributed throughout the nation's various provinces, with a total of 219,274 inmates.

Measures have also been devised to care for the children of the war dead, and the Cheng-ku Orphanage in Shensi province is the most outstanding enterprise in this field.

C. Welfare Work for Workers and Farmers—Welfare work for workers has been conducted along the lines laid down by the regulations governing the organization of Welfare Work Associations, Welfare Work Committees, etc. Up to June 1945 the Ministry

listed 102 associations in 782 factories and mines.

To ensure the safety of industrial workers, the Ministry has worked out an elaborate system of factory and mine inspection. In 1944 952 factories and mines, and during the first half of 1945, 383, were inspected. In addition, the Ministry had set up District Inspection Commands in Chungking, Kialing, Kechin, Kaolan, Akan, and Yumen.

The Ministry has also initiated many programs for the promotion of welfare work among farmers, and up to June 1945 it listed 102 Farmers' Welfare Work Associations.

D. Social Service—The program under that head envisages the establishment of public restaurants, public boarding houses, medical service centers, public reading rooms, public information service etc. Strenuous efforts are being made to strengthen the existing Social Service organs. For the period under review the nation's social service centers increased from 797 to 1,220 units.

E. Social Insurance—As social insurance is a comparatively new enterprise in China, the Ministry has undertaken to build various insurance systems in the provinces and districts. Its general policy contemplates the promotion of accident insurance, unemployment insurance, health insurance, and insurance for the disabled. Drafts of these insurance laws have been submitted to the Legislative Yuan for approval.

TABLE IV. THE NATION'S

Provinces and Municipalities	Organs Sponsored by the Ministry of Social Affairs								
	Grand Total	Total	Experimental Relief Institutes	Orphanages	Children's Relief Centers	Schools for the Disabled	Training Centers for Leaders	Free Medical Service Centers	Experimental Relief Institutes Sponsored by Provincial Gov't.
Kiangsu	1,761	15	1	1	1	1	1	6	11
Chekiang	166	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Anhui	61	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kiangsi	202	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 (3)
Hupeh	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan	91	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
Szechuen	261	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	1
Sikang	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hopeh	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shantung	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shansi	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Honan	151	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shensi	120	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 (3)
Kansu	63	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
Chinghai	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fukien	144	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Kwangtung	131	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kwangsi	154	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
Yunnan	41	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Kweichow	69	2	—	—	—	—	—	2	1
Liaoning	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kirin	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Jchol	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chahar	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ninghsia	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Singkiang	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Monolia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tibet	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nanking	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shanghai	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Peiping	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tientsin	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tsingtao	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chungking	10	9	1	1	4 (1)	1	1	1	1

SOCIAL RELIEF ORGANIZATIONS

Organs Sponsored by Municipal or District Governments and Private Organs

[illegible]

A Salt-workers' Insurance Society was formally inaugurated in 1943 in Santai, Szechuen, which all employees of the salt field were asked to join. Similar organizations were started in 9 other salt fields. In all, there were 10 Insurance Societies, with 40,718 members.

IV. COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISES

A. General Organizations. — Under the 3-year Plan for the Promotion of Cooperative Enterprises, there has been a marked growth of cooperative societies. The number of these societies in June, 1945, totalled 171,161, with a membership of 16,587,346 persons and a capital investment of \$1,025,294,962, showing an increase of 4,334 societies, 2,784,163 members and \$698,809,962 in capital invested over the previous year.

B. Cooperative Organizations. —Industrial cooperatives have been promoted with a view to speeding up general industrial productivity. At the end of 1943 the Ministry listed 49,561 industrial Cooperatives and 26,802 Consumers' Cooperatives, while in June 1945 there were 69,772 Industrial Cooperatives and 42,299 Consumers' Cooperatives, marking an increase of 40.5% and 58.7% respectively.

The Ministry has made a nation-wide survey regarding the production and distribution of cotton, live-stock, wool, hide, sugar, vegetable oil, tea, silk, and cotton piece-goods. Its findings are being utilized in devising schemes for cooperative farms and cooperative factories.

To meet war-time conditions, the Ministry has taken the nation's huge rationing system into hand. From January 1944 to June 1945 the Board of the Commodity Supplies, a sub-organ of the National Cooperative Society, registered a huge turn-over, with purchases totalling \$157,340,716.54 and sales totalling \$200,056,643. Commodities sold by the Board were quoted 15% to 50% lower than market prices and thus did much to stabilize social economy.

C. Cooperative Finance.—The Central Cooperative Treasury was inaugurated under the joint auspices of the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Ministry of Finance and the Joint Office of the Four Banks, while the establishment of provincial and municipal cooperative treasuries was expected to be completed in the very near future.

V. MANPOWER MOBILIZATION

A. Registration and Survey.—The registration of technical experts and skilled industrial workers have been conducted by rotating surveying units in Kunming, Kweiyang, Chungking, Sian, Chengtu, Hengyang etc. In 1944 they covered 2,832 factories and mines, registering 10,367 technicians, 80,399 skilled workers and 30,461 general workers. Those surveyed during the first half of 1945 numbered 2,685 factories and mines, with 7,873 technicians, 77,014 skilled workers and 104,818 general workers registered.

In 1944 100 factories and mines applied to the Ministry for the supply of more competent workers

(155 technicians, 22,678 skilled workers, 4,416 general workers) and in 1945 1942 factories and mines applied for a further supply of 321,407 workers.

B. Labor Control.—Labor control was instituted to ensure the full utilization of the nation's available labor supply. Its main job was the registration of technical and skilled workers. Up to June 1945 4,176 technical and skilled workers had applied for registration, of which 4,016 were given certificates. Applicants from mines and factories totalled 10,318, of which 9,707 were given certificates. As a result of the Ministry's action, the rate of labor turn-over has appreciably dropped.

Wage control is of importance to wartime economy because the rise in living costs makes frequent wage adjustments necessary. Here the Regulations governing Wage Control have generally been found useful. The Ministry has also set up a Council of Wage Arbitration to help solve wage disputes. The example has been followed by practically all the provincial governments, as only by an intelligent understanding of the workers' needs is any consolidation of the labor front made possible. On the whole, however, industrial wage index has not registered a corresponding rise with that of commodity prices.

C. Voluntary Labor Campaign—The Voluntary Labor Campaign was started early in 1944 and so enthusiastic was the nation's response that at the end of the year 12 provinces had set up Voluntary

Labor Corps. In all, there were 342 units, mobilizing 29,089,988 persons, whose work done amounted to 134,067,962 man-days. They built 15,225 li of highways, did 27,143 cubic meters of dredging work, cultivated 22,042 mows of land, planted 14,374,043 trees, carried 49,373,224 shih of government rice. For the first half of 1945 488,355 persons were mobilized, whose work done amounted to 4,362,549 man-days. These were expressed in the building of 1,121.5 Li of highways, the digging of 90,620 cubic meters in canal dredging, the cultivation of 129,103 mows of land and the plantation of 519,405 trees.

VI. CONCLUSION

The sudden surrender of Japan in August, 1945 has ushered in a new era of social reconstruction. The relief to war-torn areas, the stabilization of post-war economy, the huge task of national reconversion work, all these have fallen within the immediate attention of the Government, and elaborate programs and detailed regulations have been worked out to translate the general policies into actual deeds. In peace as in war the contribution of the Ministry of Social Affairs to the national effort has always been prominent.

The reader is asked to remember that in the opening chapter of the present article we mention that in areas occupied by the enemy social administration has been entrusted to the local party-organs. Their distinguished service during the 8-year war must now be briefly reviewed. Through-

out these trying years a secret resistance movement has been carried on by the underground workers. Despite threats and arrests by the Japanese gendarmerie (the equivalent of Gestapo), they nevertheless managed to perform daring feats under the very nose of the enemy. Japanese outposts were raided; troop trains were derailed; counter-intelligence agents were assassinated. Needless to say, with the rigid policing instituted by the enemy forces in the occupied areas, their work in undermining the war potential of the enemy has often been seriously handicapped. But their very existence, and especially their martyrdom (as was frequently made known), did much to build up a resistance psychology among the rank and file. When the enemy laid down their arms in August, 1945, it was the underground workers who first came out to take over the cities and towns, and in some cases even disarmed whole regiments of the enemy forces.

Since V-J Day, however, many problems have confronted the Ministry, and not the least is the problem of wage-control. Owing to the persistent rise in living costs, wage disputes among indus-

trial workers and business employees have frequently occurred. Where fair bargaining is possible, the Ministry invariably leaves the matter to be settled by the good sense of capital and labor. But when things have come to such a pass as to require official intervention, the Ministry has exercised wisdom and tact in making both sides come to terms, the monthly living cost index prepared by the Ministry being usually used as a basis of arbitration.

To the organization of the rural masses and with it the basic political education the Ministry has also given its due attention. This bears a special significance at the present juncture because constitutional rule is soon going to be established in China. Public officials will have to be elected; inefficient or corrupt public servants will have to be recalled or dismissed; laws and regulations will have to be initiated in the local legislature. All these political powers are now fully vested in a people who still want organization and training. In this as in all other respects the Ministry is well aware of the difficulty of its task and yet fully confident of its success.

CHAPTER XLIII

CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT UNDER PROTESTANT AUSPICES

W. Y. CHEN (陳文淵)*

I. THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Among those religions brought to China, Protestant Christianity is the last, but not the least. The progress of the Protestant movement in China has been by leaps and bounds, though at the beginning it was exceedingly slow. The movement began in 1607 with the arrival of Robert Morrison of the London Missionary Society. The first continental missionary, Kail Friederich Gutzlaff of the Netherlands Missionary Society came in 1827. The first American missionaries, David Abeel and Elijah Coleman Bridgman of the American Board Mission reached Canton in 1830. Other beginnings were made later by the Church Missionary Society, the Reformed (Dutch) Church in America, the Methodist, the Baptist and other societies.

In 1943 when the first missionary conference was held in Hongkong, there were only fifteen missionaries, but in 1865 when the China Inland Mission was formed to evangelize the interior, there were 112 missionaries in five treaty ports.

In 1890 when the third conference held in Shanghai, the number of missionaries was reported to be 1296. In 1905 there were 3445 missionaries, and in 1916 the number of missionaries reached 6164. This number remained until the war broke out in 1937. The total number of missionaries in China then was about 4,000. In December 1944 the rapid advance of Japanese troops in Kwangsi and Kweichow resulted in the evacuation of missionaries on the advice of both Chinese and foreign diplomatic authorities. Those who were classified as less necessary, mothers and children, sick people and those whose furloughs were due, were taken by plane to Calcutta. This left the more essential able-bodied workers to carry on and the authorities were satisfied that they could deal with the smaller numbers who remained, but the missionary forces were reduced to a total of some 850 men and women of various nationalities in Free China.

The first church member was received in 1814. By 1834 there were 10; in 1865, 3132; and in 1890, 37,287. But in 1936 there were

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more than 1,600,000. Protestant Constituency of which 600,000 were communicant members. The statistics of the increase of membership during the last eight years are not yet available but reports from various quarters show a decided gain of converts.

The first Christian school was established in 1818. The translation of the Bible into Chinese by Robert Morrison was completed in 1824. The first medical missionary, Peter Parker of the American Board Mission arrived in 1835. Every year new hospitals were built, new schools were opened developing sometimes into colleges and universities; all kinds of philanthropic agencies were introduced such as schools for the blind and deaf, industrial homes, orphanages, leprosariums, and other institutions. Mission presses multiplied, and Christian literature agencies increased.

As resolved in the great Protestant Missionary Conference at Edinburgh in 1910, a number of conferences were held in China in 1913, which in turn led to the appointment of the China Continuation Committee (CCC). In 1922 a National Christian Conference was called in Shanghai, resulting in the formation of the National Christian Council of China (NCC) to take the place of the China Continuation Committee.

II. THE NATIONAL CHRISTIAN COUNCIL OF CHINA

The National Christian Council of China has as its constituent members the majority of the Protestant churches and societies and national Christian organizations, such as the National Committee

of Young Men's Christian Association, National Committee of Young Women's Christian Association, American Bible Society, British and Foreign Bible Society, China Christian Educational Association, Chinese Home Missionary Society, Council on Medical Missions of the Chinese Medical Association, Chinese Mission to Lepers, Christian Literature Society and Religious Tract Society for China. In 1935 by a reorganization without constitutional change, three commissions were created to function under the Council, the Commission on the Life and Work of the Churches, the Commission on Christian Education and the Commission on Christian Medical Work. In 1941 when the war isolated Shanghai from Free China, the Council moved its headquarters to Chungking. In order to meet the demand of the time two commissions were added: the Commission on Christian Literature and the Commission on National and Social Services.

During the war the National Christian Council in Free China has made distinct contribution by promoting Christian cooperation and unity, by leading the churches and schools through the years of great strain and distress, by ministering to those who suffer in war through its works of love and mercy irrespective of color and faith and by calling the whole nation to repent and to return to God, Father of all nations and races. The activities of the Council are summarized in the following pages in connection with the general features of the Protestant movement in China.

III. THE LIFE AND WORK OF THE CHURCH

According to the survey of the Protestant Missions in 1922, there were 137 missionary societies working in China. In 1944 there were representatives of at least 69 missionary societies in Free China, almost half of the total number of the societies, though, it must be admitted, there are more churches in occupied areas and better organized, especially along the coastal provinces. Some of the churches moved their headquarters to Chungking, such as the Church of Christ in China, the Lutheran Church and the Lutheran World Convention, the China Inland Mission, the Methodist Church and the Christian and Mission Alliance, while the Baptist, the English Methodist, the Disciples and the Presbyterian have had their missionary representatives in West China.

The tendency of the Protestant movement in China is the gradual transfer from "Mission Centric" to "Church Centric". The development of the indigenous church is a very important factor of the Christian movement in China during the last two decades. Under the auspices of missionary societies or older churches the Chinese churches have been growing in strength and we today do not speak of Protestant Missions but Protestant churches. It was estimated that there were about ten thousand organized churches throughout the country and ten thousand more minor establishments where regular Sunday services were held. After the war broke out Christian fellowship groups grew up in various cities in Free China.

Christian Cooperation and Unity

—In recent years there had been much discussion on church union. Several similar churches have united and formed the larger church organizations, such as the Chung Hwa Sheng Kung Hui (中華聖公會), the Church of Christ in China (中華基督教會), and the Methodist (中華基督教衛理公會). There is a growing demand for a greater union, the formation of one great Chinese church which includes the majority of, if not all, the Protestant bodies in China.

The National Christian Council promotes cooperation and fellowship between the church in China and in other lands. There are, however, churches which are outside the NCC, such as the China Inland Mission, the Lutheran Church, the Southern Baptist, the Friends and several other small missions. During the spring of the year 1944 an Emergency Committee for Christian Cooperation was formed. In this Committee there were representatives of eight Christian organizations which have not been members of the NCC, together with representatives of the NCC acting in a liaison capacity. The sole purpose of this Emergency Committee is to make possible cooperation with all others concerned in such questions as relations with the Chinese Government (taxation and religious liberty), problems of relief, finance, missionary personnel, and emergency matters of common interest. It is stated that this Committee will explore the possibilities of further cooperation. The chairman is Dr. J. B. Hipps and the secretary, Dr. Ralph Mortensen.

City Church Program—Special emphasis on the development of city church program has been made by the NCC. The inevitable industrialization of China calls for strong city churches. In the Study Conferences for Post-war Work in China held in 1944 in North America and Canada, the weakness of city church program was recognized and all agreed that in post-war China, the opportunity and challenge will be greater than ever before. The churches in the West can give China the best in Western music, worship, pastoral service, and methods of social and religious approach.

The Church and Alumni Movement bears particular significance for urban churches because more graduates of Christian school settle in cities than in villages or small towns. It has been estimated that there are more than 250,000 alumni of Christian colleges and middle schools who are mostly scattered in cities. Sponsored by this movement, Churchmen's Clubs have been organized in several cities, notably in Shanghai and Chungking. The Club consists of men and women who meet once a month discussing the ways and means of strengthening and furthering the work of the church. Out of the Churchmen's Club a Laymen's Movement has grown up recruiting lay workers for most tasks in the church, sharing together with the pastors the responsibility of the extension of God's Kingdom and uniting in raising fund for an endowment of the city churches.

Rural Church Program—For more than 20 years the NCC has stressed the program of rural church. In many places such pro-

gram goes hand in hand with the program for rural reconstruction. Before the war there were a good number of Christian rural service centers such as Lu Ho Rural Service Center in Tingsien, Lichwan Rural Service Center in Kiangsi and the Rural Institute of Cheeloo University in Tsinan. After the war broke out most of these rural centers in occupied areas had to suspend. Lichwan Rural Center, however, continues uninterrupted under the leadership of the Rev. Kimber Den. A large percentage of the Chinese churches are in rural districts. The Christian colleges, especially the college of agriculture, through their extension program, have given valuable services to the church in the rural districts. Training institutes have been held for rural church workers.

Work Among the Tribes—Protestant missionaries have responded to the call of Frontier regions and have pressed on work among the tribal peoples and into Mongolia, Sinkiang, Chinghai and Tibet. The most notable work among the tribes has been carried on by the CIM, the English Methodist, the Seventh Day Adventist and other missions in Yunnan and Kweichow. More recently under the auspices of the General Assembly of the Church of Christ in China the Border Service Department has been working among the tribes in Western part of Szechuen. The work began in 1939 with the full approval and support of the Executive Yuan of the National Government. At present the Executive Yuan bears 50% of the budget and the other 50% is borne by the Relief Committee and the Church of Christ

in China as well as gifts from the border people. At the end of 1944 there were 75 men and women full time workers. Two hospitals and four clinics treated a total of 175,505 patients in four years. One mobile medical team made 12 trips into hitherto untouched regions treating 27,365 patients and giving more than 300,000 anti-epidemic injections. Special Campaigns were conducted against kala-azar, typhus, relapsing fever, and syphilitic diseases. In order to improve the economic standard of the tribal people, they have introduced a handicraft institute, a Tsakulao in Lifan, an animal husbandry station at Weichow and a cattle breeding station at Ts'aopo in Wenchuan with a plan for raising 500,000 cattle a year. Schools have been established along the Tibetan border. Experiment in modernizing lamaseries into liberal and vocational institutions with a practical plan and tactful approach is already underway. The work in Yunnan is planned to be transferred to the Burma border, with Tengchung (騰衝) as a center to work among the 1,000,000 Baiyee (擺夷) a group who has been long exposed to the foreign influence across the border line—with emphasis on livelihood improvement and citizenship training.

Christianizing Home Movement—

The work of the Christianizing Home Movement has been carried on in Free China but mainly confined to training conferences and publication of home materials. In the Spring of 1945 Miss T. C. Kuan, former secretary of the Home work in the NCC returned after a period of research and travel in America and has accepted the chair on

Christianizing Home in Nanking Theological Seminary in Chengtu. It is significant that an increasingly large number of Chinese girls and women missionaries have enrolled at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit and in the department of Home Economics in other institutions. In Free China much attention has been given to mothercraft school, Pre-natal clinic, rural center with the home as the focus of attention, and courses on home economics are also offered in several Christian universities.

IV. CHRISTIAN EDUCATION

The China Christian Educational Association, the central coordinating body for Christian education in China serves as the Commission on Christian Education of the National Christian Council. The Association, however, has its own budget and personnel, and includes the Council of Higher Education and Middle School Council. Before the war it had six regional associations and a National Office in Shanghai. After the war broke out the National Office was moved to Chungking and only two regional associations are functioning. The National Office provided a travelling secretary, and published annual statistical bulletins of colleges and middle schools and the Education Quarterly in Chinese and English.

The Associated Boards for Christian Colleges in China, in 150 Fifth Avenue, New York, provided before the war US\$1,250,000 per year for the Christian colleges in China. On May 8 1945 at the annual meeting of the Boards a proposal was made in the report of the Committee on middle schools to create a Church Board

for Christian Middle Schools in China. In Great Britain there is the China Christian Universities Association with its office in 47 New Bond Street, London, with His Grace Archbishop of York as its president. It has been active in raising funds, making contacts, securing teaching personnel, and consulting on some of the major issues and policies of the Christian higher education in China.

Christian Universities—In October, 1945 the Committee on Post-war Planning for Christian Colleges in China, appointed by the Council of Higher Education submitted to the Council certain proposals on the integration of Christian institutions for higher learning. The Planning Committee in America and Britain had made various suggestions to the group in China. These proposals, however, have not been made public yet.

In 1944-45 the five universities in Chengtu, the Nanking University, West China Union University, Cheeloo University, Yenching University and Ginling College have more than 3000 students. In Chungking the Law School of Soochow University, the School of Commerce of the Shanghai University and the Engineering School of Hangchow Christian College have a total enrollment of more than 1500. The Fukien Christian University in Shaowu has 600 stud-

ents and Hwanan Women's College in Nanping, about 100 students while St. John's University has continued uninterruptedly in Shanghai with more than 2000 students. Shortly after the Surrender of Japan, Soochow University reopened in Moore Memorial Church in Shanghai with a student body of more than 700. The Hwachung College in Hsichow, West Yunnan, has about 300 students. Upon the occupation of Canton by the Japanese, Lingnan University moved from Canton first to Hong Kong, then to Kukong, later to Meihsien and is now back in Canton. Before the war there were 7,000 students in the 13 Christian universities and colleges. This figure dropped to 4,000 during the first year of the war and then rose 8,000. At one time the enrollment again decreased owing to military situation. But now the pre-war number is again reached.

During these eight years of war the Christian schools have suffered together with their sister institutions in China. As yet there is no accurate estimate of the damages and losses of the Christian schools. A report of the Ministry of Education listed war losses up to December 1939 for the private universities and colleges as nearly CNC\$45,000,000. The losses of Christian institutions of higher learning are given as follows:—

University of Nanking ..	\$15,380,400
Soochow University	550,000
University of Shanghai ..	1,510,000
Cheeloo University	957,000
Lingnan University	3,800,000
Hwa Chung University ..	431,000
Ginling College	6,306,000
Hangchow Christian College ..	600,000

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The above list of losses does not include Yen-ching University and Fukien Christian University. The figures are based on the report made to the Ministry of Educa-

tion six years ago. They vary as years go by. In 1942, for instance, the figure of war damage given by the President of Soochow University was as follows:

1. Scientific apparatus and Laboratory equipment . . . US \$ 50,000..
2. Library books 20% US \$ 10,000
3. Power plants, etc. US \$ 6,500
4. Building and Campus CNC\$120,000 ..
5. Furniture, equipment, stores CNC\$200,000

During the second occupation of Foochow by the Japanese, the beautiful arts building of the Fukien Christian University was set on fire together with three other buildings. More than forty thousand volumes of books both in Chinese and English were burned. Apparatus and equipment were taken away. A list of damages was submitted by the authority of the University to the Ministry of Education but no figure of the cost is given.

Shortly after the Japanese Surrender Dr. Leighton Stuart of Yen-ching University, who was just released by the Japanese, visited Chungking. Yen-ching in Peiping was re-opened in October, 1945, but Yen-ching in Chengtu will continue until June 1946. The other three institutions, namely, Cheeloo, Nanking and Ginling are taking the same step, while the three schools in Chungking, Soochow Law School, Shanghai Commercial School and Hangchow Engineering School have decided to move back to Shanghai by the end of the year 1945.

Christian Middle Schools—As in the past, Christian middle schools will continue to be the strength of the church. These are the sources from which come the candidates

for the Ministry or of lay service for the church, the teachers, nurses, doctors and other leaders for the life of the community as well as the candidates for Christian universities and colleges. Of 20 Christian middle schools scattered throughout the country before the war, 117 are now operating in Free China, 53 of which are refugee schools, 4 newly established and 56 on their original campus. The following table shows the distribution of the Christian middle schools and students in 11 provinces for the year 1943-44:

<i>Province</i>	<i>No. of School</i>	<i>No. of Student</i>
Szechuen . .	36	12,224
Fukien . .	31	10,032
Kwangtung . .	18	4,880
Hunan . .	9	2,994
Shensi . .	4	1,331
Kwangsi . .	4	1,162
Kiangsi . .	3	1,073
Kweichow . .	3	631
Yunnan . .	3	520
Anhui . .	2	755
Sikang . .	1	241

Of the total student body 27% were in the senior middle school and 73% in the junior middle school. The faculty included 1,448

full time teachers or 85%, 262 part time teachers, and 379 staff making a total of 2,089. Of these 74% were men and 26% women. Of the 1710 teachers college graduates numbered 1,100 or 64%. Before the war (1935-36) the percentage was 50%. The faculty included 86 foreign missionary teachers in 49 schools.

In 1945 the China Christian Educational Association sent out a middle school visiting team consisting of 2 experts and one secretary of the Relief Committee. The team visited 21 schools in Szechuen. Conferences were held in the schools visited by the team members for the discussion of teaching methods, school administration, religious education, sexual education, citizenship training, financial problems and postwar plans. They have found that the local girls' schools are superior to the boys' schools in maintaining high scholastic standard and discipline.

Theological Schools. The Weigle report gives the figure of the theological schools in China for the year 1934-5 as follows:—

<i>Location</i>	<i>No. of School</i>
North China	7
East China	7
Southeast China	4
South China	7
Central China	4
West China	2
Total	31

There are three grades of the theological school in China, namely: (1) college graduation entrance requirement (2) senior middle

school entrance requirement (3) junior middle school entrance requirement. Of these 31 theological schools there were two grade (1), fourteen grade (2) and 19 grade (3). Six of these admitted woman students only. In 1945 the position of the theological school in China is quite different. Most of them closed in occupied and liberated areas. Those seminaries which are opened and grouped in geographical areas are as follows:

1. North China
Peking Methodist Theological Seminary
2. East China
Nanking Theological Seminary in Shanghai
Southern Baptist Seminary (Keifeng), in Shanghai
3. South East China
Union Theological Seminary, Fukien
South Fukien Theological Seminary
4. South China
Canton Union Theological College at Linhsien
Pyantong Seminary, Basel Mission
5. Central China
Central China Union Theological College, Yuanling (about to close)
6. West China
West China Union Theological Seminary, Chengtu
Nanking Theological Seminary, at Chengtu
Chungking Theological Seminary, Ipin
Lutheran Theological Seminary, Chungking
Spiritual Training Seminary, Huang-Ko-Ya
Bethel Bible School, Pichieh

Christian Religious Education—The National Committee for Christian Religious Education (NCCRE) was organized in 1931 as a joint committee of the National Christian Council and the China Christian Educational Association with 14 cooperating bodies which include Churches, Christian Literature Society, and National Committees of YMCA and YWCA. It is also recognized by the World Sunday School Association as its constituent member in China. The West China branch office which was opened in Chengtu in 1938 became the National headquarters for Free China after the outbreak of the Pacific War in 1941.

In 1944 the activities of the NCCRE consisted of conducting a retreat for youth workers, holding two conferences and publishing a monthly magazine for middle school students, sponsoring student dedication movement which has recruited 581 students for Christian service, opening two experimental vacation schools and producing Christianizing Home materials.

Work in Isolated University Centers—Since 1940 the Christian work in isolated government universities has continued and grown. Before Pearl Harbor a committee has been formed under the University. Centers were established in those areas where government universities are located for the duration of the war, such as Kiating, Shapingpa and Shantai in Szechuen; Chengtu and Kuoloupa in Shensi, Tsunyi and Meitang in Kweichow, Yianfeng in Kwangsi, and Pingshek in Kwangtung. Many of these centers have buildings, with chapel and lecture hall, small rooms for discussion groups, read-

ing and game groups, all of which are put to good use. The National Student Relief Committee through its local committees in these university centers has added other practical and useful equipment, such as bath room, drinking water facility and barber shop, etc.

The Committee has been maintaining 12 Chinese workers with funds raised for the purpose. In order to meet the requests that have come from several universities, 5 western workers have been allocated to the work by their churches. The presidents, faculties and students have welcomed these workers in their midst both to do relief work and undertake Christian activities. When Kwangsi University had to evacuate from Lianfeng and Chungshan University from Pingshek, these Christian workers travelled, often on foot, with the students whom they continued to serve. As we look forward to the future when these government universities return to their former location, these workers who have been in exile with them will return in their company and continue the work, which is expected to become a natural and essential part of the life of these government universities.

V. CHRISTIAN MEDICAL WORK

The China Medical Missionary Association which was organized in 1886 became the Missionary Division of the China Medical Association in 1925. On the union of the China Medical Association and the National Medical Association of China to form the Chinese Medical Association in 1932, the missionary activities were taken over by the Council on

Medical Missions which is a part of the Chinese Medical Association. The Council on Medical Missions also serves as the Commission of the Christian Medical Work of the National Christian Council. When the war broke out in 1937, the Council on Medical Missions with its headquarters in Shanghai maintained an intimate contact with the hospitals in Free China by sending in medical supplies and equipment as well as doctors, nurses and other medical personnel. After Pearl Harbor when Shanghai was completely cut off from the interior, the headquarters in Shanghai was unable to function. The National Christian Council, however, has secured a full time secretary, Dr. Frank Oldt, for the Commission of the Christian Medical Work in Free China. In 1943 when the Conference of the Chinese Medical Association was held in Chungking, Dr. Oldt and his colleagues called Christian medical workers together and formed a new Council on Medical Missions under the Chinese Medical Association with Dr. T. S. Outerbridge as secretary and Dr. Oldt as field secretary. In 1944 the field secretary who also represents the National Health Administration travelled throughout the country visiting practically all the hospitals, medical colleges and nursing schools in Free China.

Christian Hospitals and Medical Agencies—During the latter part of 1944 a number of hospitals and other medical agencies, particularly in Hunan, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, were forced to suspend activity owing to enemy action, but it is noteworthy that a large proportion of them succeeded in

evacuating a considerable proportion of staff and equipment and in continuing in emergency locations to render essential medical service.

During the year 1944 the following medical institutions were in operation in Free China under Christian auspices:—

Hospitals	141
Dispensaries	98
Field Units, Mobile	17
Orphanages	20
School Clinics	25
Leprosaria	30

In the hospitals named approximately 10,000 beds were available for inpatients; it is estimated that in all the institutions named treatments given may be indicated by the following figures:

Total number of inpatients	144,000
Total number of hospital-day	1,910,000
Total number of outpatient visits	4,500,000

and of these sex and age groups are estimated as follows:—

Men	40%
Women	40%
Children	20%

Christian Medical Colleges—

There are at present 6 medical colleges under Christian auspices, namely, the Medical College of Cheeloo University, Shanghai Women Medical College, the Medical College of St. John's University, the Medical College of Lingnan University, the Medical College of West China Union University, and Mukden Medical School. The Peking Union Medical College (PUMC) was established in 1906

by a group of Missionary Societies, 3 of which were British organization and 3, American. In 1916 the China Medical Board, one of the subsidiary bodies of the Rockefeller Foundation, took over the land and buildings, and reorganized the college assuming from that time the maintenance and new construction costs. Religious activities in the college continued, but the institution is entirely non-sectarian in its Christian character. After the war broke out the property was taken over by the Japanese and the college had to close. Hsiangya Medical College (Yale in Changsha) also a Christian school became a Government institution after it evacuated from Changsha to Kweiyang. Some advocated that there should be only one Christian medical college in China, one of such superlative standard that it can hold its own with any possible governmental institution. In June 1944 at the Conference of Medical Missionaries held in Chicago, how-

ever, there was a consensus of opinion that the Christian medical program will need all 6 pre-war medical schools and that they should be continued and strengthened.

Christian Nursing Schools—

During 1944, forty schools of nursing associated with Christian hospitals, with an aggregate of 1500 nurses in training, were in operation. At the end of the year this figure had dropped, owing to enemy action, to 31 schools with some 1250 students. Of these there were eleven nursing schools in Szechuen with 535 students.

The Report of Dr. Frank Oldt's visit to Southeast provinces in 1944 gives a list of Christian hospitals classified as to (1) having registered nursing or midwife schools, (2) nursing schools with registration sought for, (3) schools neither registered nor seeking registration, (4) hospitals that could and should open nurses schools, (5) hospitals that should be built so as to be able to start schools.

I. REGISTERED NURSE SCHOOLS

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
FUKIEN					
Foochow	Christ's Hospital	4	19	40	159
Foochow	Union Hospital	9	24	70	152
Nanping	Alden Memorial Hospital	6	13	34	110
KWANGTUNG					
Kukong	English Methodist Hospital	8	15	36	160
HUNAN					
Changteh	American Pres. Hospital	2	7	14	80
Lingling	English Methodist Hospital	3	7	30	35
Shaoyang	English Methodist Hospital	5	9	40	114
Yuanling	Hsiangya, Yale Mission Hospital	7	18	130	80
YUNNAN					
Kunming	Hui Tien Hospital	9	26	30	97
Total	9 schools	53	138	424	1031

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REGISTERED NURSE AND MIDWIFE SCHOOLS

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
FUKIEN					
Futsing	Lucie F. Harrison Hospital	3	15	30	70
Putien	St. Luke's Hospital	5	21	132	134
Total		8	36	162	208

REGISTERED MIDWIFE SCHOOL

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
KWANGSI					
Kweilin	Way of Life	4	6	21	60

II. NURSE SCHOOLS, REGISTRATION APPLIED FOR

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
FUKIEN					
Changchow	Union Hospital	4	22	21	60
Chuanchow	English Presb. Hospital	5	11	45	124
Kutien	Wiley Memorial Hospital	3	8	26	80
KWANGSI					
Wuchow	Stout Memorial Hospital	5	8	27	150
KWANGTUNG					
Kityang	Boxby Memorial Hospital	2	9	27	60
HUNAN					
	British Red Cross Hospital	6	12		120
	Changsha				
YUNNAN					
Chaotung	Methodist Mission Hospital	3	10	6	100
Total	7 schools	26	80	152	694

III. SCHOOLS NOT REGISTERED AND REGISTRATION NOT APPLIED FOR

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
CHEKIANG					
Wenchow	English Presb. Hospital	10	10	47	142
Wenchow	Jean Gabriel, Cath.	2	10	10	226
FUKIEN					
Foochow	Ta Teng Hospital	4	17	25	106
Kienow	Church Missionary Society Hospital	2	12	4	68

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Siapu	Church Missionary Society Hospital	2	7	14	150
Ningteh	Church Missionary Society Hospital	2	9	10	75
KWANGTUNG					
Meih sien	Basel Hospital	7	9	20	130
Wukingfu	English Presb. Hospital	3	4	15	44
Yeungkong	Forman Memorial Hospital	2	3	4	60
Waichow	Seventh Day Adventist Wai On Hospital	2	16	5	40
Total		30	97	154	1041

MIDWIFE SCHOOL NOT REGISTERED AND REGISTRATION NOT APPLIED FOR.

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
FUKIEN Lienkong	Church Missionary Hospital	1	1	7	30

IV. HOSPITALS WHICH SHOULD START NURSE SCHOOLS

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
KIANGSI Kian	Catholic	2	10	—	250
HUNAN Changsha	Catholic	3	5	—	100
Hengyang	Yen Chi Hospital	12	16	—	100
Siangtan	Amer. Presb Mission Hosp.	3	5	—	60
Yiyang	Norwegian Mission Hospital	3	5	—	110
Yuanling	Catholic	3	9	—	118
KWANGTUNG Lienhsien	Amer. Presb. Mission Hosp.	5	5	—	57
YUNNAN Kutsing	Church Missionary Society Hospital	4	6	—	42
Tali	China Inland Mission Hosp.	2	3	—	40
Total		37	64		877

HOSPITALS STARTING MIDWIFE SCHOOL

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
KIANGSI Yutu	Methodist Hospital	1	4	—	20

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V. HOSPITALS THAT SHOULD BE DEVELOPED SO AS TO HAVE SCHOOLS

Place	Hospital	Drs.	Nurses	Students	Beds
FUKIEN					
Loyuan	Christ's Doctrine Hospital	2	7	—	70
Mintzing	Nathan Sites, Meth. Hosp.	1	5	—	85
HUNAN					
Chenchow	Amer. Presb. Mission Hosp.	3	4	—	55
Liling	Fu Yin Hospital	1	2	—	60
Changsha	Union Hospital	3	3	—	50
Yuanling	Abounding Grace Hospital	2	7	—	81
KIANGSI					
Kanhsien	Catholic	4	9	—	35
Nancheng	St. Luke's Hospital	0	2	—	90
KWEICHOW					
Tungjen	Fu Yin Hospital	2	3	—	50
KWANGSI					
Kweilin	Southern Baptist Convention Hospital	3	8	—	20
Nanning	Emmanuel Hospital	2	9	—	40
Nanning	Seventh Day Adventist Hosp.	1	—	—	40
KWANGTUNG					
Hopo	Northern Baptist Hospital	2	4	—	42
Hoyuen	St. Joseph, Basel Hospital	2	3	—	50
Waichow	Catholic	1	3	—	60
Total	9 Hospitals	29	69	—	838

Under the auspices of the Committee of East Asia of the Foreign Missions Conference of North America, a Conference on Medical and Health Work in China was held in New York in March, 1945. The following findings of the Committee on Nursing and Nursing Education of the Conference are suggestive:

1. The Committee on Nursing and Nursing Education approves the recommendations of the Conference on Medical Missions held in Chicago in June, 1944, as follows:

a. We would stress the desirability of mission boards and hospitals adopting a new policy with regard to nurses training schools, recognizing them as institutions separate from the

hospitals, in respect to budgets and governing bodies.

b. We heartily concur in the plan for associating schools of nursing with the institutions of higher learning and the establishment of central schools of nursing and schools qualified to offer specialized graduate training for nurses.

2. We believe that professional nursing requires a minimum of senior middle school education. We recommend that all mission schools work toward making this our entrance requirement for nursing education.

3. We recommend a modern curriculum which emphasizes the preventive and social aspects of medicine and nursing throughout the whole course as well as the curative aspects.

4. We recommend that the four or five mission medical college centers develop good health centers for teaching purposes and field experience in giving student nurses their basic course of nursing and for advanced preparation in public health.

5. We recognize the great need in China for trained midwives. We recommend that mission board secretaries keep in mind the need on the mission field for trained teaching and administrative personnel in midwifery and suggest this as a field for advanced study for furloughing and candidate missionary nurses.

The National Plan—In August 1944 the National Health Administration issued an appeal to the Mission Boards in China and overseas asking for cooperation in a program of health for China. A most cordial spirit of appreciation was shown in a statement issued by Dr. P. Z. King, Director-General of the National Health Administration. Missions were asked to state what hospitals, personnel and resources they were able to provide for the future, and where they would wish to re-establish their work so as to fit in with the national plan. In the early summer of 1945 the Council on Medical Missions and the NCC issued an appeal for 50 doctors and nurses to be sent from North America and Britain as quickly as possible. This appeal was backed by the NHA and official cables were sent to Chinese diplomatic representatives abroad asking them to facilitate the securing of necessary medical personnel. Since then certain regulations have been issued by the NHA, endorsed by

the Executive Yuan, governing the rehabilitation of mission hospitals which accept government assistance generously offered. This document explicitly states that full freedom will be given to religious and missionary work, and that the heads of hospitals need not be Chinese. The Chinese Government is offering, in cooperation with UNRRA, the means to rehabilitate buildings, and to provide necessary equipment and supplies for at least six months. The Council on Medical Missions in Chungking has taken action, endorsed by the NCC, approving of the policy of cooperation with government and asking for the help of Mission Boards in China and overseas.

VI. CHRISTIAN LITERATURE

The Commission on Christian Literature under the National Christian Council has the responsibility of coordinating literature work and representing its needs abroad. It is also the task of the Commission to formulate the policy of Christian literature in post-war China and to promote closer cooperation among the literature agencies. The Commission has been also holding occasional meetings so as to bring together the representatives of the literature agencies, and of the churches and missions. These latter represent, as it were, the consumers and they are asked to indicate what needs are felt by different groups in the constituency they represent. It is through the effort of the Commission that the United Christian Publishers was organized and the Movement for the Translation of Christian Classics was launched.

Christian Literature Society for China—Shortly after the outbreak of war on the Pacific the Christian Literature Society established its headquarters in Chengtu. In spite of many difficulties and disappointments, the Society has made outstanding contribution towards meeting the spiritual needs of Free China. The year of 1944 will be remembered as a "magazine year", for magazines circulate more easily than books and the mood of Chinese wartime readers is better suited to reading magazines than books. The palm of the year must go to Happy Childhood (福幼報). When Miss Margaret Brown took over this magazine on her return from Great Britain in December 1943, it was without a Chinese editor and had a mailing list of less than 800. By November, 4000 copies an issue were printed and all back numbers were sold out. This magazine meets a real need in Free China, because of the complete absence of literature for children. Not only the children liked this magazine, a good number of primary school teachers and normal school students also subscribed to it. Another happy event of 1944 was the republication of the Women's Messengers (女譯報). This was the first women's magazine printed in China and most of China's woman leaders have been brought up on it. It was never more needed than at this moment, when women were struggling with the problems of disrupted homes, the demoralizing influence of war time inflation and China's struggle to become a true democracy. It has been said that the magazine is even better than when published in Shanghai and that many who

have not cared to read it before were subscribing to it now.

Besides magazines a number of important books have also been published. The most outstanding ones are: Leslie Weatherhead's *A Shepherd Remembers*, translated by Mrs. Chang I-fang and J. S. Stuart's *Life and Teaching of Jesus* which was in press at the end of the year 1944.

The Christian Farmer (田家半月刊)—This is a bi-monthly paper founded formerly in Tsinan using the basic Chinese characters so that Chinese farmers and people of simple education could read it. At one time this paper had the largest circulation of its kind, 50 thousand copies for every issue. After the war broke out the office was moved to Chengtu. In November 1944 it was again moved to Shapingpa and a new board was formed in Chungking. Because of the limited areas in Free China and difficulties of printing, the circulation has been reduced but is still ten thousand copies, published monthly.

The Religious Tract Society—The Religious Tract Society is one of the earliest Christian literature organizations in China. Before the war its office was in Hankow. In 1943 the Society resumed its work in Chungking. A new committee was organized and a bi-monthly, *Spiritual Life (靈命)* was published. In 1944 the Interim Committee of the Society became a cooperating unit of the United Christian Publishers. They had already been cooperating in a limited measure, and their desire for fuller union is itself a recognition of the success of the cooperation among the Christian literature agencies in Free China.

United Christian Publishers—

In November 1943 several literature agencies which had come together in Chengtu decided to form a United Christian Publishers (UCP) so as to undertake together a joint program of publishing and distribution. The UCP now includes five members, the Christian Literature Society, the Canadian Mission Press, the Association Press, the Religious Tract Society and the Christian Farmer. Two other publishing agencies are also interested in joining. The UCP is not a complete merger but a very thorough piece of cooperation in which the member bodies largely pool their resources in personnel and money, following a joint editorial policy and maintaining a common distribution agency. Some books are published under the imprint of the UCP alone and others show the imprint of both the UCP and the agency which initiates the publications.

During the year 1944 the UCP published 38,000 copies of books, 13,000 of tracts and 681,700 of Sunday School materials, 74,000 pages of Home Week materials and 89,200 pages of magazine, making a total of 10,043,800 pages of printed materials.

During the last two years a considerable number of books have been published by individual agencies in the name of UCP, but it is far too long to permit comment on each publication or even to give a list of them. The best seller for the year 1944 is the Abridged Hymnal.

Besides those magazines mentioned above which were published by the Christian Literature

Society and the Religious Tract Society, the Literature Department of the Canadian Mission Press continues their Church Monthly, Christian Hope (希望月刊) with increasing circulation and also continues to send out regularly their Sunday School materials. These latter are the only Sunday School materials available in Free China. A Christian Weekly, Tienfeng (天風) was started on February 10, 1945. This Weekly serves as a channel through which the church might give a Christian interpretation of such important current topics as how to secure permanent peace, social justice in the postwar world, the true meaning of democracy and also give guidance to youth in the confusion of problems besetting them, while at the same time showing how the Christian message is the true foundation for the building of a world community.

Literature Production Program—

In 1941 the NCC and the Nanking Theological Seminary cooperated in a joint project for the translation of Christian classics. Already translations have been completed of selections from the Church Fathers, Augustine's *City of God and Confessions*, Law's *Serious Call to a Holy Life*, Bartu's *Word of God and Word of Man* and some other works. The list is to include a large range of classics, ancient and modern. Translations are being done by scholars and professors. For the last three years a Christian Writer Fellowship Group (載社) has worked together in the summer vacation in a mountain resort near Chengtu. Dr. P. C. Hsu was director of this work until his untimely death in January 1944.

The Literature Production Program is also a cooperative project of the Protestant and Roman Catholic on the one hand, and of the Christian and the non-Christian scholars on the other. The organization for this form of work, the Societus Lumnis (景社) consists of 30 charter members, 10 Protestants, 10 Catholics and 10 non-Christian scholars. The program is also an international enterprise. Specialists in America and Britain are being asked to supply introductory material giving the background of the writing being presented, and some indication of its significance and place in the development of Christianity.

The Bible Societies—in April 1945 the three Bible Societies operating in China, the British and Foreign Bible Society, the American Bible Society and the National Bible Society of Scotland called together the all-Chinese Ad Interim Advisory Council, composed of 15 prominent Chinese Christian leaders resident in Chungking. Not since the first National Representative Convention held in Shanghai April 2-4, 1937 has there been such a representative meeting of Chinese Christian leaders, with the distinct purpose of furthering the interests of Bible production and distribution in China.

The Bible Societies have recently signed contracts in Chungking for the printing of CN\$5,000,000.00 worth of scriptures. This includes 10,000 Chinese New Testaments, and 100,000 Gospel portions.

Ten thousand Chinese Bibles, printed and bound, are lying in Calcutta, ready for shipment to China. A portion of these Bibles will be available for free distri-

bution among the officers and men of China's armed forces.

The Bible Reading Campaign sponsored by the Bible Societies from November 23 to Christmas last year, reached out into ten provinces with provincial sponsoring committees in five centers. About 100,000 Bible reading book-marks, listing 33 favorite chapters of the Bible, were distributed by the Christian churches in Free China.

VII. SOCIAL SERVICE AND RELIEF WORK

In the field of social service the Protestant church has always taken an active part. Institutions under Christian auspices for the blind and deaf and for the crippled, orphanages and industrial home for the poor children. Door of Hope for the unfortunate girls and many other organizations for the underprivileged are found throughout the country. When the war broke out in 1937 the Protestant churches united together in the task of war relief. Never before have they cooperated so wholeheartedly that they work shoulder to shoulder transcending all the national and the denominational barriers. Christian relief agencies have drawn very heavily from the resources abroad especially from America, Great Britain and Canada. The *American Advisory Committee* represents the American Church Relief Committee for China which is a constituent member of the *United China Relief*. The *British United Aid to China Fund* has been sending its contributions to Madame Chiang Kai-shek and the Advisory Committee which she appointed in Chungking. A large proportion of the Fund came from

Christian sources, and the chairman of the Fund, the Rev. Stanley Dixon is a secretary of the British Missionary Societies. The *Canadian Relief Fund* has been under the administration of a group of missionaries. These relief funds from abroad have been making contribution to all kinds of institutions and societies concerned with the relief of wounded soldiers, refugee children organizations, hospitals, schools, cooperative work and other constructive enterprise irrespective of religious faith.

In 1944 Christian social and relief services have been given to three groups (1) civilian refugees, (2) armed forces and wounded soldiers (3) foreign citizens in China.

The **National Committee for Student Relief** has administered funds for the relief of college students who have been cut off from their home resources. The Committee with its headquarters in Chungking has 29 regional committees in various student centers throughout the country. During the fall of 1945 the request from these 29 centers amounted to \$133,252,823 and a grant of \$64,882,500 has been made. The relief given includes food subsidies, student employment, winter clothing and bedding, emergency

needs, and medical expenses. In some universities there is a student center or hostel administered by the local Student Relief Committee. There are also welfare projects such as supplying bean curd milk, daily necessity subsidies, free bath and free hair cuts. To those worthy students with little means the Committee award annually International Scholarships and special grants. These grants formerly were given only to college students. Recently in view of the great need among the middle school students, special grants and scholarships have also been given.

Upon the conclusion of the war in China the Committee made plans for the rehabilitation of students. For students in West China returning to coastal areas the National Student Relief Committee will establish hostels at strategic points on the main routes of travel. These hostels will provide medical aid and sleeping facilities. The Committee, however, will not grant travel subsidy to returning students.

During the working year 1944-45 the Committee actually received and spent over twice as much as the budget planned in September 1944 had allowed for. Below is a table which gives a rough picture.

Balance on hand Sept. 1, 1945	\$ 9,022,261.00
From World Student Service Fund	16,713,190.00
From United China Relief	98,559,376.20
From British United Aid to China Fund	31,000,000.00
From Chinese War Relief Fund of Canada ..	15,300,000.00
From International Student Service Canadian Committee	500,000.00
From miscellaneous income	730,101.81
From refunds from local committee etc.	4,539,600.00
Total Receipts	\$176,364,529.01

EXPENDITURES:

To Local Student Relief Committee general work	\$130,135,705.95
To International University Scholarships	1,844,800.00
To Isolated Middle School Scholarships	1,808,453.00
To Other miscellaneous grants	2,559,370.85
To Administrative expenses	3,067,740.20
Total Expenditures	\$139,416,070.00

The **International Relief Committee (IRC)** is the successor to the International Red Cross Committee of Hankow later moved to Kweiyang and under its present name functions in Chungking. The IRC has done invaluable work in providing drugs for hospitals and also has a special fund for assisting them. During the war the mission hospitals have been immensely grateful for the help thus given.

The **Friends' Ambulance Unit (FAU)** came to China in 1941, consisting of young conscientious objectors from the Society of Friends and other churches in England. Later they were joined by some others from the United States and Canada. The FAU has done splendid work under the leadership of Dr. R. B. McClure, Leonard Tompkinson, Duncan Wood and Colin Bell. They have maintained medical teams with doctors, nurses and orderlies for the help of the wounded and also they have specialized in transportation at a time when transport was one of China's greatest needs, in particular the transport of medical supplies which had arrived by air over the Hump at Kunming and had to be taken on to the hospitals and medical units where they were needed.

The **Committee on Aid to Private Middle Schools** has administered American and British funds to the extent of about \$80,000,000. Nearly 120 Christian middle schools are on the list. Government schools have been cared for by the Ministry of Education so that it has been a great boon to the Christian schools to have the help of these funds from abroad which have supplemented the very reduced salaries of the teaching staff. This has made all the difference to the work of many schools and has even saved them from breaking up altogether. Some Catholic, Mohammedan and other private schools have also received help from this Committee.

The **War Relief Committee of the National Christian Council.**—At the outbreak of the war in 1937 the National Christian Council was among the first organizations to administer war relief. The War Relief Committee, however, ceased to function after Pearl Harbor when Shanghai fell into Japanese hands. It resumed its function in Free China in 1942 for two reasons: one is to administer those groups which are not cared for by any relief agency and the relief of church workers who have done so much for others but will be in danger of being neglected them-

selves. Three kinds of funds came from the American Advisory Committee of the Church Committee for Relief in East Asia: One is for church worker relief and the other is for Christian and general relief which has been called the Protestant fund. The third fund administered by the Committee is the British United Aid to China Fund. For church workers' relief, the fund has been distributed in proportion to the number of full time workers in each Christian organization and have been administered through the responsible authority of that organization. The other fund has been put into the hand of the Committee in various cities for the relief of casual cases found in need of help.

From November 1944 to October 1945 the total amount of money administered by this Committee is as follows:

Church Workers Fund ..	\$ 41,694,550.90
Protestant Fund ..	109,189,207.04
British Fund ..	31,320,643.74
Total ..	\$182,204,401.68

The National Christian Service Council for Wounded Soldiers in Transit (NCSCWST)—This Council was organized in 1938 by the late Dr. A. R. Kepler, who was then a secretary of the War Relief Committee of the National Christian Council. Upon his return from a trip to the war front, he reported to the Committee the urgent need of help for the wounded soldiers in transit. He was sent at the expense of the Committee to Hankow to organize to meet the dire needs. In 1938 the NCSCWST was moved from Hankow to Chungking. In spring 1944 Mr. George Geng, one of the secretaries of the National Christian Council was allocated to the Council as general secretary. In 1944 the Council still maintained 36 service stations in three war areas, namely, North West (Shensi), Central China (Hupeh) and South West (Kweichow). The number of persons served from January to June in 1945 is given as follows:

A LIST OF NUMBERS SERVED
(From January to June 1945)

Items	No. Served
1. Wounded and Sick Soldiers ..	39,595
2. Soldiers in Transit ..	362,578
3. Refugees ..	36,178
4. No. Served with drinking water ..	165,194
Total ..	613,545

Joint War-Time Service Committee—In 1943 a Joint Committee for War-time Service was appointed by the New Life Movement Headquarters and the National Christian Council for the purpose

of ministering to the conscripts and sick soldiers. The work, however, was also extended to a certain extent to civilian refugees such as the famine refugees in Honan. Eight stations have been

set up along the main highway between Chunking and Chengtu, offering boiling water, clinical service and hospitalization for those too sick to continue with their regiments. Six service teams, thirteen first aid stations, six medical and health stations were working in the new soldiers training camps in Szechuen and Kweichow. In August 1944 more than twenty-four thousand wounded and sick soldiers along the highway between Kweiyang and Chungking were served. The service rendered consists of special diet for the sick, improvement on the common diet, laundry, bathing, clinic and recreational service. During 1944 such services per person per day reached a total of nearly three millions. Since the war has ended only three service stations are still kept for the wounded and sick soldiers. The supports for this work mainly come from the New Life Movement Headquarters, the Women Advisory Committee, the National Christian Council, the British United Aid to China Fund, the United China Relief and the Chinese Government.

The Chungking Catholic and Protestant Comforting Committee.

—In 1944 in view of the serious situation in the front the Protestant churches in Chungking formed a committee for the comfort of the soldiers so as to heighten the morale of the armed force and to give them unstinted support. Later on the Catholics also joined and formed this Committee. At one time more than \$265,000 were raised, four car loads of meat, pork and salted vegetables were sent to the Chinese soldiers in Kwangsi and Kweichow front.

They also launched a movement for one million shirts and under-wears. During the last campaign for raising fund for comforting soldiers under the auspices of the National Association for the Comfort of Soldiers in 1945 the quota to be raised by the Christians in Chungking was one million dollars, but within two weeks the money raised by Christians was almost doubled.

War Prisoners' Aid—Since the war broke out in Europe, the World Committee of the YMCA has carried on welfare work for more than 11 million war prisoners in various war areas of the world. In Chungking the work among the war prisoners has been undertaken by its representative, the Rev. N. Arne Bendtz. Through the co-operation of the Chinese military authorities the prisoners' camp was made a Liberty Village in which several hundred war prisoners, Japanese, Koreans, and Formosans lived and worked with freedom. Educational, health and industrial works are carried on by this committee. Certain amount of religious activities is also permitted. Christian Relief Committee has given liberally towards certain work projects in the Camp. On May 1, 1945 an exhibition of the war prisoners' handicrafts was held in Chungking conducted by the war prisoners themselves. The following is the statement in a leaflet given to the visitors of the exhibit by the Japanese prisoners of the Liberty Village.

"Fortunately, we are now embraced in the warm breast of China, and our new journey begins. We are leading a pleasant life to realize our high ideal.

Our handicraft exhibit here today, being neither works of arts, nor of practical use, is not worthy of a visit. It merely expresses our heartfelt thanks to the Chinese government for its good treatment, and to the YMCA for its favor done to us. We deeply hope the honorable visitors will favor us with suggestions and aids in order that we may early become the citizens of the world and follow you to exert ourselves to peace and democracy."

Chungking Christian Association for Welfare of Koreans.—Sponsored by the National Christian Council in cooperation with Christians in Chungking, the Chungking Christian Association for the Welfare of Koreans was organized with General Feng Yu-hsiang as Chairman of the Board of Management and Dr. Sun Fo as Chairman of the Board of Supervision and Rev. Arne Bendtz as General Secretary. This Association has provided half a million dollars for service and relief, while the Committee on War Prisoners Aid has erected a hostel for Korean Prisoners released by the Chinese Government.

Continental and Orphan Missions—Upon the outbreak of the World War II, more than 21 missions were cut off from their home boards in such countries as Norway, Finland, Germany, Denmark and Switzerland. Their personnel in China numbered 312 with 129 children and attached to these missions were 653 Chinese workers. A Committee on Orphan Missions was organized with the funds raised under the International Missionary Council in

America and Great Britain. These funds have been administered by the Committee under the National Christian Council in China in close collaboration with the Lutheran World Convention which has taken care of 9 groups with funds raised by them and 121 groups are assisted by the International Missionary Council. For 1944 the total budget was approximately U.S. \$250,000.

National Committee of YMCA—with headquarters in Shanghai moved to Chungking in 1941. During the war a large number of the city YMCA's in occupied areas had to suspend. The Emergency War Areas Service was the most outstanding program which enlisted many able secretaries and Christian workers to work with the Chinese army in the front. In 1944 several teams with a chaplain were sent out to work with the student army. In the Chinese army, chaplaincy is unknown, but this experiment especially in the Student Army in Pishan seemed to work out very successfully. At the conclusion of the war in China the Emergency War Area Service was suspended. Most of the secretaries who had joined the war service are expected to return to their original Associations to rebuild and reopen the work which was once destroyed by the enemy.

The YMCA has been one of the most successful organizations in Christian Social Service. As China is entering the industrial age the YMCA is looking forward to the possibility of establishing leadership training classes for industrial workers in several centers in Free China as well as in the liberated areas. The YMCA has active organizations in 15 or more

centers in Free China. China's interests in industrial and vocational education is tremendous and rapidly growing. They are working out a program of establishing industrial training classes in the major cities over all China. There are in both occupied and Free China more than 40 places where they have had a flourishing program, which have buildings and properties for beginning such a program. There have been requests from above 30 other centers for beginning new work. This gives a potential of more than 70 centers where industrial training program could be worked out. In addition to the leadership training classes, some of the courses will be mapped out to fit the need of the community. These courses would probably not be used in their entirety in any one place but each place will have the type of training for young artisans that fits into the needs and demands of the community. The subjects of these courses will consist of architectural drawing, mechanical drawing, drafting, blue print making and reading, design, auto mechanics, electricity, radio repairing, radio transmitting and broadcasting, electric motors and generators, diesel engines, hydraulics, plumbing, pattern making, woodwork, furniture making, painting and finishing, metal spinning, sheet metal work, casting, machine operation, rattan and bamboo work, plastics, bookbinding, carving, jewel making, welding, upholstery and ceramics.

National Committee of YWCA—whose headquarters was in Shanghai moved to Chengtu in 1941. In 1945 its headquarters was again moved from Chengtu to Chung-

king as most national organizations are located in the war-time capital. In 1944 besides regular line of work the YWCA National Committee started several new projects such as (1) the Soldier's Family Welfare Work, (2) Girl's Work and (3) Service to American Air Men. In some City Associations, business and professional women clubs still continue. Clubs have flourished mostly in connection with soldier's family industrial cooperative and mass education. Owing to the rapid enemy advance in 1944, the Changsha and Kweichow City Associations had to evacuate, later followed by the Kueikang YWCA.

VIII. GOVERNMENT AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

The abrogation of the "unequal treaties" has given the church a new status. The Chinese church will be a legal body and no longer a foreign organization. For more than two decades, Chinese Christians as well as missionaries have been working towards the development of a Chinese church, self-supporting, self-propagating, and self-governing.

The matter of registration with the Chinese Government has been a great concern with the Chinese church. The first great denomination registered with the Government is the Church of Christ in China. In 1944 the National Committee of YMCA was also registered. Most of the Christian schools and many of the hospitals have been registered. Practically all the church organizations would like to register with the government if the process of regulations could be simplified and more in harmony with the church tradi-

tion and their fundamental belief.

The second is the problem of property. The transfer of mission property to Chinese churches must be carefully considered. A Committee on Legal Relations has been appointed by the National Christian Council and a similar committee has also been created by individual churches. Efforts have been made by the National Christian Council to arouse the interest of the church in the study of the Chinese constitution and the meaning of democracy. The cordial relations between the church and the National Health Administration as well as the Ministry of Education has given the church a greater opportunity to serve the nation. The church, however, will always maintain her position as God's prophet in leading His people to peace and freedom, righteousness and justice, life and happiness.

The Church is a World Wide Christian Fellowship. The Chinese Church is a member of this great World Community. While

all international organizations, educational, economic and commercial had to suspend during the war, Christian fellowship alone has continued functioning. The National Christian Council of China is one of the constituent members of the International Missionary Council which has national councils in 26 countries. Every tenth year a World Christian Conference is held under the auspices of the International Missionary Council. The last conference met in Madras, India in 1939 and the Ad Interim Committee of the Council will meet in Geneva in February 1946, having representatives from various countries.

Just before the war the World Council of the Churches was set up and had 82 church bodies as its members. The first conference will be called one year after the cessation of the world war. Since Christianity has from the beginning been an international enterprise, it has a great bearing on international relationships and the lasting peace of the world.

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH*

One of the most significant developments about the Catholic Church in China has been the appointment by the Chinese Government of Mr. Cheou-kang Sie as China's delegate to the Vatican. This has been hailed in all Catholic circles as the harbinger of a new era in the advancement of the Catholic Action in China. Chinese Catholics numbering nearly four millions have thus been brought to a direct communion with the Pope. They need no longer feel divided in the execution of their dual obligations of loyalty to the state and to the Church as the Chinese Government to which they are duty-bound as citizens of China is in direct relations with the Vatican, the highest authority of a universal religion. Mr. Sie who was Charge d'Affaires to the Chinese Legation in Switzerland prior to his appointment is a well-known scholar. A sympathizer with the Catholic Church, he is unanimously considered as the right choice for the post as delegate to the Vatican.

The large membership of the Catholic Church represents a fair cross-section of the Chinese people, as it draws from every section of the Chinese population, conservative as well as progres-

sive. The proportion of those who are engaged in missionary work in China is in a far higher degree Chinese than is generally recognized. In fact in every branch of the missionary personnel except that of the clergy the Chinese are in a considerable majority. Among the clergy the ratio of Chinese to foreigners is at present two to three, but each year newly-ordained Chinese priests are coming from the seminaries to raise the proportion of native clergy. The Catholic Church, therefore, has had a share in all the consequences that the war has brought on the Chinese people, and the reaction of its members to war conditions is fairly typical of the reaction of the people as a whole to the impact of war on their lives.

Catholic missionaries come in organized bodies from more than a dozen countries. This international character of its missionary personnel has two effects that are of special interest in connection with the war. One is that it provides an evident guarantee of the purely religious character of its work, and of its preservation from anything in the nature of political entanglements. The other is that it furnishes an extremely varied body of com-

* This Chapter which originally appeared in *The China Hand Book* 1943 is revised by Dr. Pan Chao-ying.

petent witnesses to testify to the condition of things in China during the war and especially to the effect of the war on the Chinese Catholic population with whom they are in immediate contact.

I. RELIEF WORK

The outstanding feature of work of the Catholic Church during the past eight years has been its active participation in war relief. The fact that there are approximately 6,092 foreign Catholic missionaries scattered in 138 ecclesiastical divisions with a network of no less than 33,000 mission stations throughout China bespeaks the universality of Catholic relief work in wartime China.

The first shocks of war in China came to the places where the Catholic Church was most strongly established, Hopei and Kiangsu provinces, and notably the cities of Peiping and Shanghai which had long been two great strongholds of Catholic life. Shanghai, the first city to feel the onslaught of war had a Catholic population of close on 100,000 in its center and surroundings, and it had a number of large Catholic institutions. The eight hospitals of the Shanghai Vicariate (which corresponds to a diocese in Western countries) had nearly 20,000 sick in their wards each year and almost 1,000,000 cases tended in their dispensaries. More than 4,000 destitute children and orphans were in creches and orphanages, and there were over 1,000 young workers being trained in free school workshops. There were nearly 40,000 children in the

Catholic schools. All this work was paralysed in a day. The smooth running of the institutions came to an abrupt end and the new duty of those in charge was to bring those under their care to some safer place than the beleaguered city and find some means of providing them with sustenance.

It was at this stage that the Jesuit veteran of the Great War, Fr. Jacquinet, secured the establishment of a safety zone where the lives of Chinese civilians would at least be spared. Altogether 200,000 people were sheltered there. Later, Fr. Jacquinet took a large part in trying to secure provisions for the great mass of people who took refuge in this area of security. For this purpose he visited the United States. This must have been one of the first direct appeals to America from stricken China in the course of the present war, and the abundance of the response was a foretaste of a generosity which merited for the United States such titles as "arsenal of democracy" and "treasury of humanity."

The war was not long under way when the great movement of refugees began. Immediately a *mot d'ordre* went out from the Pope's representative in China, Archbishop Zanin, who had been appointed Apostolic Delegate in 1934. The message was to all the vicariates and to all the missionaries in China, bidding them put all their resources to the utmost limit at the disposal of the suffering people. Houses and mission grounds were to be thrown

open to them, and if necessary even the churches were to be used to shelter them. The direction was not necessary, for every mission center in the line of the march of the refugees had already opened its gates to receive them. The largest of these centers within easy reach of Shanghai was Zikawei where there was a large concentration of Catholic mission establishments. Tens of thousands of people in many relays got accommodation in the large refugee camp established there, and hundreds of thousands received temporary assistance from the relief centers at the various institutions—hospitals, orphanages and schools—in the neighborhood.

From that time forward, as the war went on and the zones of destruction expanded and the dispersal of threatened populations became more widespread, the mission stations in one vicariate after another became organized to receive refugees, to care for the sick and the wounded, to provide for the destitute and give a home to the orphaned. From the coastal provinces the waves of refugees passed into Anhwei and Honan and the farther areas, and before long the Catholic missions at such places as Kaifeng, Wuhu and Anking had become the foci of large refugee centers. Eventually, with the development of the war in the air as well as on land, the refugee problem became one affecting practically the whole of China, and the Catholic Church in all parts of China was organized to do to the full its share of relief.

During the periods when the local Catholic churches were taking charge of refugees on their own property or in neighboring places hastily equipped, the numbers cared for were often very considerable. At Yenchow, in Shantung, at the most critical period there were more than 10,000. In the Vicariate of Kaifeng it rose to 100,000. There were 6,000 at Chengting in Hopei, and from 3,000 to 5,000 each in Sinsiang, Weihwei and Chengchow. These figures are taken at random from the story of the early anxious days. Later on there were 26,000 in Catholic compounds in Shansi, 8,000 at Changsha, and so on. Wherever the war front moved a refugee center was formed at every Catholic mission.

Following the extension of war to many countries in the West, it is interesting to note here that Catholic missionaries of every nationality had a part in the organizing of this relief work. In Hopei, side by side with churches under the direction of Chinese priests, were others in charge of French, Austrians, Hungarians, Italians, Irish, Poles and Dutch; in Shantung there were Americans, French and Germans; in Honan, Italians, Spaniards, Americans and Germans, and so on, and the best proof that all worked wholeheartedly and impartially in the service of the war victims was the fact that when the countries to which many of them belonged were drawn into the war on one side or the other it made no difference to their work. The people continued to regard them

as friends, whatever their nationality, and in very few cases did the authorities think it necessary to ask them to transfer their ministrations to other hands.

II. MEDICAL WORK

There are Catholic hospitals in every province of China, without any exception. In most of them there are several of these hospitals, for it has always been the Catholic practice in China to provide many small hospitals rather than to concentrate on a few large ones. In the whole country the number at the beginning of the war was about 330. Many of these have since been destroyed, but at the same time their number has been added to by the opening of auxiliary hospitals in school buildings and other institutions. All these were pressed into service for the benefit of wounded soldiers, civilian casualties in air raids, and victims of epidemics. During the war years there has been a steady record of more than 100,000 patients given beds in Catholic hospitals every year, and of more than 10,000,000 cases being treated each year in Catholic dispensaries. These numbers are known to be quite incomplete, for there are many places in occupied as well as unoccupied areas in which help to the sick is being given in large numbers, and from most of these no reports can now be received.

Hospitals in the war zone naturally catered particularly for wounded soldiers. What was done in the Wuhan cities may be cited as an example of the measures taken to meet the war

situation. Those three cities of Hankow, Wuchang and Hanyang which are grouped together in Hupeh at the meeting of the Yangtse and Han rivers were the center of a great zone in which war raged furiously in the second stage of the Sino-Japanese hostilities and together they received probably the greatest number of wounded men brought to any place in the course of the war. In order to utilize mission personnel and equipment to the best purpose and to unite efforts to get fresh resources, the bishops of the three cities—for each is the head of a special vicariate—made joint arrangements. One was an Italian, another was an American and the third was an Irishman. Under their direction the hospitals in each of the cities were extended by the addition of auxiliary buildings and emergency staffs were enrolled and trained to work in them. In Hanyang one of the Irish missionary priests, Fr. MacDonald, who was a medical doctor, was responsible for the direction of a new large hospital. These hospitals were filled to capacity, and special thanks were given to the directors for the conspicuous attention they had given the wounded troops. At the same time in these cities special first aid corps were trained and organized by the medical personnel of the Catholic hospitals. Members of these corps attended the wharves and railway stations when the wounded were arriving or passing through. They took care of the transport of those who were being brought to the hospitals and gave emerg-

ency treatment and comforts to those who were continuing on their way.

What was done in Wuhan was repeated on a less elaborate scale in other cities. Hospital accommodation was greatly increased to provide for the wounded, first aid centers were established and relief associations founded, notable among the last named being the Catholic Ladies' Associations in Chungking and Kweiyang. Many of the hospitals and first aid centers that were established to meet a special need have been made permanent. They served the civil population after the wounded soldiers had gone, and after the war they will still play their part in looking after the health of the people.

For many years before the war, as part of the regular apostolate in China, young Chinese men and women were taught the principles of "Catholic Action," which is nothing else than lay cooperation in the work of the Church, especially in the sphere of instruction. The personnel and the training of these groups were most useful in their application to war work, especially to the safeguarding of public health. Groups of specially trained medical students and nurses, and others of the student class who had received special instruction, went through the villages and country markets warning the people against habits that would injure with health and instructing them in the means of safeguarding it. These enthusiastic young citizens were listened to everywhere with the greatest interest,

and they took occasion of their contact with their audience to urge the cultivation of those qualities of mind and heart which are most necessary to maintain morale in wartime. The members of these groups also did a good deal to help in enlivening the tedium of convalescence for wounded soldiers, and they helped many of them to get employment when they were invalided out of the army and returned to civilian life.

III. CARE OF WAR ORPHANS

The care of children had always been in the forefront of Catholic mission work in China, whether the work was the reception of sick children in creches and special dispensaries, the care of them in schools. The figures in each of these sections of work are instructive. The average over a number of years shows that some 60,000 infants were brought every year to Catholic mission creches, more than 30,000 children were cared for in orphanages, and close to 500,000 children received instruction in Catholic schools, large and small. It required only a small extension of each, or of the majority of these institutions, more than 12,000 in number, which cared for children, to enable them to take a large share of the young victims. In some cases they were able to cooperate with the great national work of the war orphans sponsored by Madame Chiang Kai-shek, and form a special department for the young children of soldiers killed in war. Before the war in Hongkong there was no more popular sight in the sub-

urbs of the city than that of a line of tiny children, boys and girls, in their neat uniforms, walking along under the care of Catholic Sisters and singing patriotic songs in a childish treble. They were some of the war orphans who were being cared for in a local convent.

Up to 1942, 65 Catholic refugee centers were still being maintained in Hupeh, Anhwei and Honan, several thousand refugees being harbored in the Vicariate of Pengpu, in Anhwei, and more than 172,000 persons being helped during the most recent movements of the population there. In a corner of northwestern Honan 8,000 families were helped and in the Nanyang Vicariate, in the southwest of the same province, 35,000 refugees were helped on their way. In Shasi, Hupeh, 26,000 people were cared for in a month. At the time of the third assault on Changsha in December, 1941, more than 12,000 refugees were helped and many thousands of soldiers given medical relief.

Other casual entries in mission reports indicate: Kweichow:—eleven relief centers; 33,685 helped on the way; more or less permanently housed and fed, 46,910;—wounded soldiers attended 6,550. Anking:—Refugees sheltered, 8,000; others helped, over 90,000. Sinsiang:—Sheltered in the mission house, 15,000. Yuanling:—5,180 refugees; 1,010 victims of bombardment cared for and fed. Sienhsien:—17,500 refugees. Tatung:—11,465 fed for three months.

IV. SUPREME SACRIFICES

Many missionaries naturally lost their lives in the turmoil of a country at war. They died in air-raids, in attacks on towns and villages. Almost every month had its victims: Mgr. Schraven, Vicar Apostolic of Chengting, shot out of hand with six other Vincentian priests and brothers; Fr. Mark Li, killed with his catechist near Ichang; Fr. John Wang, C.M., murdered near Hangchow; Fr. Cocchi, O.F.M., an Italian Franciscan, shot openly by Communists in Shantung; Fr. Simons, an American Jesuit, killed by robbers in Kiangsu; Fr. Bayerle, S.V.D., killed while visiting his mission district; two Chinese Sisters, Sr. Mary Pei and Sr. Teresa Tchang, shot after being bayoneted; Sr. Maria Biffi, killed by a bomb at the door of the Kwangtung hospital which she had directed for fifteen years—and many others. It is a long list, not yet ended, for it has never been suggested that Catholic missionaries should leave their privileged posts—the points of danger.

Most conspicuous of the Catholic missionaries who died through the conditions of the war was Fr. Vincent Lebbe, who as a Chinese citizen was known as Lei Ming-yuen. He was a Belgian Vincentian, who had worked with great devotion as a missionary in China and then among Chinese students in Europe. When a Chinese Vincentian was made Vicar Apostolic of Ankwo, in Hopei, he worked under him and then became Superior of a native Congregation of Little Brothers of

St. John the Baptist. In the war these religious groups did ambulance work and gave unstinting service to the poor and suffering in the war area. Their example of Christian charity was such that it drew away many who had previously been told that sympathy with the poor was only found among Communists. This aroused the bitter hostility of the Communists, who captured many of the Brothers and buried them alive. They also captured Fr. Lebbe and threw him into prison where he was treated with such harshness that he died soon after his release. He had loved and served the plain, simple people of China with a sincerity and devotedness that won the admiration of all, and he was honored by the whole nation after his death.

V. A CHINESE BISHOP

Though the majority of Catholics who have served China during the war have done so in circumstances that brought them neither fame nor any kind of public recognition, there have been some whose work brought them into the public eye, and in some cases even gained for them widespread fame. Chief of these is Bishop Paul Yu Pin, Vicar Apostolic of Nanking who is one of the select number of Chinese who have gained world renown in the course of the war. As a student in Rome his outstanding qualities soon won him distinction. He gained three doctorates, and on completing his studies he served for some years as professor. Even his duties in this capacity were interrupted on one occasion

when he was sent as the member of a Papal Delegation to Abyssinia. On his return to China he was assigned to important duties in Peking, and then, while still in the early thirties, he was consecrated Bishop. During World War II, for four times he visited the United States and many other countries to explain the Chinese situation by telling the truth to the world. Together with some American statesmen, scholars and churchmen he established the "Institute of Chinese Culture" in Washington, D.C. for the promotion of Sino-American cultural relations. He received four honorary doctorate degree from American and Canadian universities. As an unofficial observer at the San Francisco Conference, he spoke for international justice. He testified in the U.S. Congress insisting that the American Immigration Laws against Chinese nationals were immoral and unjustifiable. His sincerity, frankness and far-sightedness have won the sympathy and respect for himself, his nation and his Church in China. In Chungking he holds an honored position, and is a member of the People's Political Council. He is a man of great gifts and great heart, and the Catholics of China are deservedly proud of him.

The Church has passed through these eight years of war in China with remarkably little change. Its religious work has gone on without pause, the instruction of new members has been continued, the administration of the sacraments has been maintained. The number of baptisms remains each

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

883

year very much the same as before in the places from which records are obtainable though records are necessarily more scantily than before.

VI. DISTRIBUTION OF CATHOLIC INSTITUTIONS

The following list shows the distribution of Catholic hospitals, dispensaries, orphanages, homes for the old, and refugee camps in Free China:

NINGHSIA

Ningsia

Dispensaries	6
Orphanages	13
Orphans	132

SHENSI

Chowchih

Hospital	1
Dispensaries	3
Orphanages	2
Orphans	301

Fengsiang

Dispensaries	2
Orphanage	1
Orphans	62
Refugee Camp	1
Refugees	75

Hanchung

Dispensaries	3
Orphanage	1
Orphans	424
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	67

Hingan

Dispensaries	6
Orphanages	2
Orphans	114
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	42

Sanyuan

Hospitals	2
Patients	188
Dispensaries	2
Orphanages	2

Orphans	142
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	49

Sian

Dispensaries	3
Orphanages	2
Orphans	82

Tungchow

Dispensaries	3
Orphanage	1
Orphans	89

Yenan

Dispensary	1
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KANSU

Lanchow

Hospital	1
Patients	54
Dispensaries	9
Orphanages	4
Orphans	138
Home for the Old	1
Old men	12

Pingliang

Dispensaries	2
Orphanages	2
Orphans	68
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	22

Tainchow

Hospital	1
Patients	255
Dispensaries	7
Orphanage	1
Orphans	60
Homes or the Old	2
Old men	24

CHINGHAI

Sining

Dispensaries	3
Orphanage	1
Orphans	9

SINKIANG

Tihwa

Dispensaries	2
Orphanage	1
Orphans	5

HONAN

Chengchow	
Hospital	1
Patients	954
Dispensaries	6
Orphanages	2
Orphans	85
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	24

Chumatien

Hospital	1
Patients	9,359
Dispensary	1
Orphanages	3
Orphans	83
Home for the Old	2
Old men	15

Loyang

Hospital	1
Patients	1,238
Dispensaries	7
Orphanages	2
Orphans	56

Nanyang

Hospital	1
Patients	354
Dispensaries	2
Orphanages	2
Orphans	221
Homes for the Old	2
Old men	22

SZECHUEN

Chengtu	
Hospital	1
Patients	4,205
Dispensaries	8
Orphanages	8
Orphans	1,359
Homes for the Old	3
Old men	299

Chungking

Hospital	1
Patients	542
Dispensaries	3
Orphanage	1
Orphans	242

Homes for the Old
Old men

Loshan	
Orphanage	
Orphans	
Ningyuan	
Hospitals	
Patients	
Dispensaries	
Orphanages	
Orphans	
Home for the Old	
Old men	
Shunking	
Orphanages	
Orphans	

Ipin

Hospital	
Patients	
Dispensaries	
Orphanages	
Orphans	
Homes for the Old	
Old men	

Wanhsien

Orphanages	
Orphans	
Dispensaries	

SIKANG

Kangting	
Hospitals	
Patients	
Dispensaries	
Orphanages	
Orphans	
Homes or the Old	
Old men	
Leprosery	
Patients	

HUPEH

Laohokow	
Hospital	
Patients	
Dispensaries	
Orphanages	
Orphans	

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

885

Home for the Old	2	Yuanling	
Old men	45	Hospital	1
Suntze		Patients	230
Hospital	1	Dispensaries	8
Patients	690	Orphanages	5
Dispensaries	3	Orphans	105
Orphanages	2	Homes for the Old	3
Orphans	92	Old men	66
Siangyang		Yungchow	
Dispensaries	6	Dispensaries	3
Orphanages	3	Orphanages	2
Orphans	328	Orphans	221
Homes for the Old	2	KIANGSI	
Old men	23	Kanhsien	
HUNAN		Hospital	1
Changsha		Patients	292
Hospital	1	Dispensaries	11
Patients	1,150	Orphanages	3
Dispensaries	10	Orphans	749
Orphanage	1	Homes for the Old	3
Orphans	143	Old men	73
Changteh		Kian	
Dispensary	1	Hospitals	2
Orphanage	1	Patients	1,020
Orphans	92	Dispensaries	5
Home for the Old	1	Orphanages	2
Old men	92	Orphans	511
Hengyang		Homes for the Old	2
Dispensaries	10	Old men	122
Orphanage	1	Nanfeng	
Orphans	150	Dispensary	1
Home for the Old	1	Orphanage	1
Old men	40	Orphans	168
Lichow		CHEKIANG	
Orphanage	1	Taihsien	
Orphans	234	Hospital	1
Home for the Old	1	Patients	1,464
Old men	7	Dispensaries	3
Paoking		Orphanages	2
Dispensary	1	Orphans	184
Orphanage	1	FUKIEN	
Orphans	97	Funing	
Home for the Old	1	Dispensaries	3
Old men	7	Orphanages	3
Siangtan		Orphans	431
Dispensaries	8	Kienow	
Orphanage	1	Dispensaries	5
Orphans	18	Orphanage	1

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

Orphans	50	Langlong	
Home for the Old	1	Hospital	1
Old men	32	Patients	106
Shaowu		Dispensaries	5
Hospitals	2	Orphanages	6
Patients	186	Orphans	158
Dispensaries	8	Shihtsien	
Orphanages	4	Dispensaries	3
Orphans	186	Orphanage	1
		Orphans	39
KWANGTUNG		YUNNAN	
Kaying		Chaotung	
Home for the Old	1	Dispensary	1
Old men	15	Tali	
Kukong		Dispensaries	6
Dispensaries	11	Orphanages	3
Orphanage	1	Orphans	121
Orphans	53	Homes for the Old	2
Home for the Old	1	Old men	15
Old men	20	Kunming	
KWANGSI		Hospital	1
Kweilin		Patients	200
Dispensaries	7	Orphanages	5
Nanning		Orphans	88
Dispensaries	11	Dispensaries	2
Orphanage	1	Homes for the Old	2
Orphans	17	Old men	38
Home for the Old	1	TOTAL:	
Old men	17	Hospitals	28
Wuchow		Patients	27,529
Dispensaries	9	Dispensaries	239
KWEICHOW		Orphanages	132
Kweiyang		Orphans	9,524
Hospital	1	Refugee Camp	1
Patients	436	Refugees	75
Dispensaries	4	Homes for the Old	56
Orphanages	3	Old men	2,578
Orphans	113	Leprosery	1
		Lep. Patients	210

VII. GENERAL STATISTICS OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN CHINA

POPULATION:	1941
Approximate number of inhabitants ..	486,000,000
Catholics	3,930,000
Catechists	512,263
ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS:	
Vicariats and Apostolic Prefectures	138
Churches	2,485
Chapels	13,429

PERSONNEL:

Foreign Missionaries	3,112
Native Priests	2,186
Foreign Religious Laity (Male) ..	608
Native Religious Laity (Male) ..	750
Foreign Religious Laity (Female) ..	2,372
Native Religious Laity (Female) ..	4,237

SEMINARIES:

Grand Seminaries	1,066
Small Seminaries	3,688

SCHOOLS:

Junior and Senior High Schools	
Students	23,881
Junior and Senior Primary Schools	
Boys	151,062
Girls	81,125
Adult Education (Attendants)	201,577

VIII. HISTORY OF CATHOLIC MISSION

Old legends say that the Apostle St. Thomas found his way to China and brought the message of His doctrine a few years after the death of the Saviour. There is no evidence to confirm the story.

Christianity seems to have first reached China in an imperfect form, as the teaching of the Nestorians, who claimed that there were distinct divine and human personalities in Christ and that Mary was the Mother of the Man Christ, but not the Mother of One who was really God. The Nestorians were numerous in China at one time, from the seventh to the ninth centuries. They had monasteries in Sian and in Chengtu and in many other places, and they translated numerous religious books into Chinese. Then a drastic persecution came, and by the year 1000 all the Nestorians seem to have disappeared. They came again later on, so that when the Catholics came many years later they found relics of their teaching in places widely scattered over the country.

In the time of Genghis Khan and his successors, envoys came from

the Pope to their Court, and missionaries followed in their wake, and some of the Nestorians seem to have embraced the Faith which they taught, but it was not until late in the thirteenth century, the greatest century of Western civilization, that the Catholic mission to China was first definitely established. The honor of doing so belongs to an Italian Franciscan, John of Montecorvino. For nine years he was alone in China, and then a German friar of his Order joined him. He converted princes and young children, built churches, and taught choir boys to sing the sacred chants in Latin. He had plans for forming a native clergy. The Pope named him Archbishop of Cambaluc (Peiping) and Patriarch of all the East, and sent out seven Bishops to be his assistants. Three reached China about 1313.

In that same year the Church took root in the province of Fukiën, on the coast about eight hundred miles to the south. A cathedral was actually built there in the city of Zaitun (Chuenchow) and a new bishopric established. Along some twelve hund-

red miles of coast missions were founded in the chief cities, and when in 1322 a great Italian missionary traveller, the first missionary to China elevated to the altars, Blessed Odoric of Prodenone, arrived in Zaitun with an Irishman, Friar James, he visited all these missions and was so much astonished at the progress which he found that he travelled back to Europe to ask the Pope for fifty more priests. The amazing man, who had preached in Asia Minor and in India, and then had travelled by Ceylon, Sumatra, and Java before reaching China, thought nothing of a journey of some thousands of miles on foot, and set off for Europe by way of Tibet and Persia and Armenia with as much unconcern as one books a steamship passage today. He reached Europe after a two years' journey and then died.

News soon came of the death of Archbishop John of Montecorvino. A successor was appointed and he set out on the journey, but he seems never to have arrived. A few years later when the Emperor was sending an Embassy to the Pope, some of the Court officials who were Catholics took advantage of the occasion to ask for another Papal Legate. He was sent, but he reached China just at the time when the Mongol throne was tottering and the Ming dynasty was arising. It was a time of violent political tension, and the Legate returned to Europe to report to the Pope and recommend, as Blessed Odoric had done, the despatch of many Friars as missionaries, and the consecration of some of them as Bishops. Three Bishops in turn were consecrated and left for

China, but none reached it. Those who were working there gradually died off and there were none to replace them, for more missionaries perished on the way than reached the distant shores of China.

The years following the breakdown of the Crusades were not years of missionary enthusiasm in Europe, and in China there was violence and terror during the reign of the early Ming emperors. The conquests of Tamerlane blocked the land route to China, and China closed its gates and cut off relations with the outside world. There had been, it is believed, about 30,000 Christians in China, but they scattered and died, and by the time when Francis Xavier came to the East Christianity was once more extinct in the land.

The conversion of China was the great dream that grew up in the mind of St. Francis Xavier when, in the middle of the sixteenth century, he traversed the lands of the East in the most wonderful of all missionary campaigns. St. Francis Xavier left Japan because he thought his mission there a failure, and not worth continuing until he had led China to the Faith. But Providence intervened. He died on the desert shore of the island of Sancian, a few miles from the mainland of China, in 1552.

When the news of the glorious failure of St. Francis Xavier travelled back to Europe, his Jesuit brethren and many members of the older Orders were all fired with the same ambition to do what he had attempted. Franciscans, Dominicans and Augustinians all tried to enter China.

A storm blew a Portuguese Jesuit to Sancian a few years after Xavier died. He was on his way to Japan. He got to the Chinese coast and said Mass on Chinese soil. He reached Canton and stayed a while but could not remain. A Jesuit brother also reached Canton, and began to study Chinese, but he died. Then a Dominican, then some other Jesuits, then some Augustinians, and later some Franciscans, all for thirty years continued to make attempts to restore active missionary work in China, but they all failed.

The man who had the happiness of succeeding at last was Fr. Matteo Ricci, a Jesuit who was born in the year that Xavier died. He entered China by way of Macao in 1582, and got to the city of Shiuhing, the capital of the combined provinces of Kwangtung and Kwangsi. There he spent several years in the study of Chinese. He was a man of brilliant intellect and very varied gifts, and during his studies in Europe had been one of the most promising pupils of Christopher Clavius, the Jesuit mathematician and astronomer who was called the "Euclid of the Sixteenth Century" and was mainly responsible for the Gregorian reform of the calendar. In China he settled down to a study of the Chinese language and literature. He eventually acquired a deep knowledge of the classics and came to write Chinese with distinction. He went on to Nanking and Peking and became the friend of scholars and men of state. His genuine admiration for Chinese learning and culture established a basis of intercourse with them, and soon they began to question him about Western learning. It was

then that he produced the clocks, astronomical instruments, and musical instruments which he had brought, and showed them also his magnificently bound Bibles and his religious paintings. He displayed also a map which he had made of the world, showing China's position in relation to other lands. His reputation as a learned man spread, and he spoke of Christianity and called attention to points of similarity with it in the Chinese writings. Then he began to write books about the Catholic Faith, and when he made some converts among notable scholars he asked them too to write on Christianity. So the apostolate of the *literati* in China was begun.

Ricci's conversions mounted from hundreds to thousands—the numbers seems to have been about 2,500 after his twenty-eight years in China. The most remarkable of his converts among high officials was Paul Hsu, who later became Imperial Chancellor of Emperor Chung Chen. He was a man of considerable distinction and he was a pillar of the Church for many years. He was an ancestor of the mother of the Soongs, the most famous family of present-day China, and his name, pronounced Zi in Shanghai, is perpetuated in the village and observatory of Zikawei, situated on part of the family property.

Fr. Ricci had made many friends among members of the Imperial House, even before he went to Peking, and when he arrived at the capital he was received by the Emperor and treated with great favor. Several near relatives of the Emperor were converted to Catholicity, and within about thirty years more than three

hundred Princes of the Blood and members of the Court had received baptism. When Ricci died in 1611 the Emperor decreed for him a state funeral.

A few months after Ricci's death an eclipse of the sun took place, and great consternation occurred when it turned out that the hour for it predicted by the Imperial astronomers was incorrect. The astronomers excused themselves on the ground that the astronomical tables bequeathed to them by their predecessors were wrong, and the matter ended with a decree of the Emperor entrusting the reform of the Chinese calendar to the Jesuit missionaries. This work went on for many years and among those who had a distinguished part in it were Fr. Adam Schall, a German, and Fr. Ferdinand Verbiest, a Belgian. These two were named in turn Presidents of the Board of Astronomy, an office that remained entrusted to Catholic missionaries for two centuries.

Fr. Schall was in such favor with the Emperor that not only he went regularly to the palace, but the Emperor went so far as to abandon traditional rules of Court etiquette and visit him many times in his house. It was this Emperor, Shun Chih, the first of the Manchu Dynasty, who made a personal contribution toward the building of the first public church in Peking. This was in 1650. By this time the number of Catholics had reached 150,000. Fifteen years later that number had almost doubled. Jesuit, Dominican and Franciscan missionaries had penetrated all the provinces of China, and there were 159 churches and many

private chapels. It was at this time that a Dowager Empress, a fervent Catholic, addressed a letter to the Pope, asking him to send more Catholic missionaries to China.

This was the peak time of official favor toward the Church in China. French Jesuits had come bearing messages of friendship to the Emperor from King Louis XIV. They joined missionaries from Italy, Portugal and Spain, and all were ready to give their help as bearers of western knowledge as well as ministers of the Gospel.

IX. EDUCATIONAL WORK

Thus the Catholic Church in China has prospered to this day when evidence of its progress is omnipresent throughout the country. An outstanding feature of its accomplishment has been in the educational field. The educational work of the Catholic Church extends over the whole country and includes every grade, from elementary school to university—with the usual Catholic leaning, however, toward the poor and under-privileged. The total number of schools which the Church maintains throughout China is nearly fourteen thousand. These are so widely distributed that in no single province of China are there less than fifty Catholic schools. The total number of pupils is just under half a million. Among the best known establishments of higher studies is the Fujen University of Peiping, directed by the Fathers of the Divine Word. This university, which comprises a striking group of buildings in Chinese style, has gained a high reputation for its courses of literature and science, while its school of art studies has

done much to spread the knowledge of modern Chinese art throughout the world. It has over twelve hundred students, and also maintains schools for preparatory courses.

In Shanghai the Aurora University has been in existence for close on forty years and has maintained a high scholastic standard. Its doctors, engineers and lawyers are well known throughout China, and many distinguished men in public life in China honor it as their Alma Mater. The Heude Museum of National History, which is connected with it, is one of the finest of its kind in the East. This university is under the direction of the Jesuits, who have also another institution of higher studies in Tientsin. This specializes in law, industry and commerce. Other educational projects which were well advanced were temporarily checked by the war, as in Nanking where American Jesuits had to interrupt their building plans, and in Wuhu where Spanish Jesuits had just completed the erection of one of the most up-to-date technical schools in the country. The harm which the war has done to the development of the higher branches of learning has been to some extent counterbalanced by the fillip which it has given to the mass education movement. Catholic missions all over the country have established temporary schools for refugee children and classes for adult refugees, the latter in many cases at the special request of the refugees themselves. The number of people who have received the benefit of education in these sad circumstances runs into hundreds of thousands.

In the education of girls the Catholic schools have done valuable pioneering work in China. In the villages the Catholic schools were in many places the first to cater specially for girl students, while in the cities the Sisters' schools have for years maintained a high standard. The normal schools directed by the Sisters have also produced thousands of teachers.

An off-shoot of Catholic educational work in China which deserves special mention, is the Zikawei Observatory. This a Jesuit foundation very much in the Ricci tradition. It achieved world-wide prominence by its reports on typhoons, and by the part which it played in elaborating methods for predicting their course. Fr. Froc, called the "Father of the Typhoons" was mainly responsible for the establishment of weather stations to give information about the first signs of typhoons, and this led to the present system of warnings by which thousands of lives are saved every year. The Zikawei Observatory is the center of what is probably one of the largest private meteorological organizations in the world. It has also departments in which valuable research work is being done in seismology, astrophysics, terrestrial magnetism and geophysics.

X. THE CHINESE CATHOLIC CULTURAL ASSOCIATION

Besides relief work, medical service and other charitable work, the Catholic Church in China has also made a great contribution to China in the cultural field during the past few years. The Chinese Catholic Cultural Association was

organized in 1941 on a national scale. It has been recognized by the Ministry of Social Affairs of the Chinese Government as a legal people's organization and has been twice recompensed in public order by the same Ministry. This association, under the leadership of Bishop Paul Yu-pin, has been very active in the promotion of international cultural understanding and friendship. It has assisted many Chinese students to study abroad. It has also helped quite a few Chinese scholars to visit the United States and several other countries. Many refugee students have been enabled to continue their studies through help of this association.

After the Japanese surrender, the Chinese Catholic Cultural Association deems it proper to increase its effort for the promotion of the welfare of the Chinese peasants and workers in peacetime. Thus, it has been making

all kinds of preparations for the establishment of several thousand service stations for them. It is believed that as soon as the reconversion work of the country is in progress, these service stations will carry out their proper functions for the majority of the Chinese people.

The members of this association have organized The Yi Shih Pao Newspaper Company (Social Welfare Daily Papers Company) and this daily has been published in Chungking, Peiping, Tientsin and Sian. It also plans to have editions in Canton, Shanghai and in Manchuria.

The members of the association are also preparing to establish a University in Nanking for the spiritual and cultural enlightenment of the people. They are concurrently attempting to work out a definite plan to help the country for its reconstruction.

CHAPTER XLIV

THE CHINESE RED CROSS:

ITS ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES*

TSENG TA-CHUN (曾大鈞)**

The Chinese Red Cross 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.

I. ORGANIZATION

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.

There has not been any important change in the general organization of the Chinese Red Cross during the year 1944. However, with the speedy and successful conclusion of the World War II, it will soon be necessary for the Chinese Red Cross to reorganize itself into its pre-war nature in order to comply with the national and international regulations applicable in this case. Its wartime administration should and shall be abolished as soon as it finds itself re-established in Shanghai or Nanking.

II. ACTIVITIES

The activities of the Chinese Red Cross are, as the year before, limited primarily to the field of medical relief for soldiers as well as for civilians. All statistics regarding such and other activities cover the year ending June 30, 1945, unless otherwise indicated.

A. Medical Service—Due to difficulties of transportation, lack of sufficient funds and skyrocketing rise of prices, the field of medical service was narrowed

* The present article is in continuation of a similar one in the 6th Issue of this Yearbook. Therefore, the materials contained in these pages must be somewhat the same as the old both in matter and in method of presentation.

** Deputy Secretary General of the Chinese Red Cross.

down to some extent. Nothing was done in the North-western part of the country as there was in the previous years.

Concentrated attention was given to Yunnan-Burma and Yunnan-Indo-China lines in the earlier part of 1944 and to Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow area in the latter part. In the former case its service was rendered mainly to the fighting forces, while in the latter, to the civilians and war refugees.

There was much moving-about

of the medical units and mobile hospitals under the charge of the Red Cross Medical Relief Corps in order to meet the emergent needs of the time and place. This makes Red Cross services so much more valuable and deeply appreciated.

The statistical data in the following table show clearly the type and magnitude of Red Cross activities. The total number of cases treated during the year is indeed very impressive.

<i>Month/Year</i>	<i>Surgical</i>	<i>Medical</i>	<i>Miscellaneous</i>
July 1944	93,672	120,119	23,867
Aug. "	64,605	106,337	13,574
Sept. "	67,838	93,860	13,005
Oct. "	80,789	170,813	13,782
Nov. "	64,181	62,820	11,492
Dec. "	52,215	61,859	5,054
Jan. 1945	58,610	112,232	11,001
Feb. "	63,614	86,516	11,711
Mar. "	45,338	134,314	14,828
Apr. "	49,719	115,438	12,939
May "	53,769	99,586	9,746
June "	47,575	94,557	9,622
Total	741,925	1,258,451	150,621

- Remarks: (1) "Surgical" includes cases of operations, reduction of fractures and dressing;
 (2) "Medical" includes hospitalization and clinical cases, soldiers and civilians;
 (3) "Miscellaneous" includes X-Ray, laboratory and special diet cases.

Special mention must be made of the work with refugees along Kweichow-Kwangsi, Hunan-Kweichow and Szechuen-Kweichow lines during the Japanese penetration into, and their retreat from Kweichow Province. Some forty units were put into emergent service under very difficult situations. Necessary treatments were given to approximately 400,000 individual refugees during the

months of September to December, 1944. Not only did they perform hard work but also good work. The spirit of the Red Cross was so well demonstrated and recognized during the period that after the close of the campaign, the Executive Yuan honored thirty-two of its doctors, nurses and ambulance workers by giving them "Honorary Certificates." The Ministry of Social Affairs did the

same by giving Gold Medals to six of these workers and Honorary Certificates to twelve others. There was public recognition not only of their spirit of service but also of their virtue of value. The Red Cross workers were said to have been the last ones to retreat upon enemies' approach but the first ones to go forward after their evacuation.

The Red Cross units along the Yunnan-Burma and Stilwell Roads also did some good work. A medical officer from the American Y-Force was so much impressed with their work that he gave these commentary statements in his letter to the American Red Cross: "The Chinese Red Cross units are working with the Y-Force. They have done and are doing a grand job, much better than corresponding units of other organizations. Even to the U.S. Army units, I have nothing but praise for them." The workers of these units feel very much proud of, and encouraged by such comments from our Allied friends.

Special mention must next be made of the work with Japanese captives in the concentration camps. Such service is rendered in accordance with the humanitarian ideal of the Red Cross. Four well-manned and equipped units were assigned to work in the concentration camps. The American Red Cross gave a special allocation of medical supplies for this particular purpose.

A word or two must also be said of the Red Cross general clinic in Chungking. Having been visited by 114,618 patients in the year 1944, it is undoubtedly the busiest free clinic of its kind in Chungking or elsewhere. Its T.B.

department is a new addition and has already earned a good name for itself.

B. Public Health Work—The Red Cross activities are more or less connected with public health work, which, during the year 1944 was limited to epidemic prevention and delousing service. The work for epidemic prevention is done both by having all units in the field actually giving vaccinations and inoculations and by supplying needed vaccines to any organization asking for them. In all, vaccinations and inoculations were given to approximately 163,000 persons and vaccines supplied were sufficient to provide for the use of 1,500,000 others. Five Red Cross workers died in carrying on such work.

For delousing service, twenty-two stations were in operation in the southwest and southeast areas. There were 44,398 persons and 204,994 articles deloused.

C. Medical Supplies—The supply project of the Red Cross is one of give and take. It takes in from its sister societies, almost wholly from the American Red Cross and some from the British and Canadian Red Cross.

In the year 1944, some forty-four tons of medical supplies were imported and one and half tons were bought from the local producers. The tonnage consumed by our own operations was 35 and that given away free to Red Cross chapters throughout Free China and various military, government, cultural and social organizations was 16, thus making a total of fifty-one. The fact that it could give out more than what's taken in shows the Red Cross spirits of giving freely and generously and

the necessity of its drawing from old reserves to meet emergent needs.

D. Red Cross Chapters—The chapters are, by right, the real working units of the Red Cross. This is true in the United States, Great Britain and few other highly advanced countries where organization is highly efficient and effective. The situation is quite different in China particularly in time of the past troubled years of war. The future of Red Cross will depend largely upon the work in connection with its chapters throughout the country.

There were but 73 chapters in action today. In all, they operate 28 small hospitals, 27 clinics and 28 medical teams. Data of total cases treated by these operations are not complete at present. Such figures when fully available will be quite impressive too.

III. FINANCE

It is embarrassing but not unfair to say that the Chinese Red Cross is supported by its sister societies and friendly organizations. It gets its needed funds mainly from the British Red Cross, the United China Relief (through the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China) and the American Red Cross. The following summarized statement of income and expenditure, shows clearly its financial conditions. (for table, see next page)

It will be seen from the following statement that the Red Cross is in sound financial condition. This is due on the one hand, to generous gift from abroad and on the other, to the economy of spending and the steadfast readiness of its workers to receive low pay (usually lower than the govern-

ment standard). Thanks should therefore go to those who give as well as to those who receive.

IV. UNIVERSITY FACULTY RELIEF

This was carried on as usual. The funds made available for the year ending September, 1945 far exceeds that of the previous year. Of the total \$7,842,100, \$3,000,000 each was allocated to colleges and universities in Kunming and Chungking respectively and the rest to those elsewhere in Free China. This help has much to contribute to the welfare of the eligible recipients and has been deeply appreciated by them.

The above covers, in brief, the more important of the Red Cross activities. With the war drawing to a speedy and successful conclusion and with rehabilitation coming to the fore, the confronting problem is a two-fold one: to keep going present activities to cope with the needs of the period of relief and rehabilitation and to make practical plans for future development in the reconstruction era. The Red Cross must have just as much to contribute in time of peace as it has had in time of war.

In conclusion, it must be repeated that whatever good work that has been done by the Chinese Red Cross through such activities as described above must be credited to its supporters in the country and abroad as well as to those who have served conscientiously under its banners. Without such faithful supporters and workers, it certainly would not have been possible for Red Cross to carry on as successfully as it has in the past year under such trying conditions of war.

<i>Income</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Expenditures</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Government Subsidy . . .	88,000,000.00	General Administration ..	14,623,301.60
Contributions	200,745,079.32	Medical Relief Missions ..	142,486,457.59
Membership-fees	1,418,123.00	Anti-Epidemic	4,318,890.88
Clinics & Hospital Service	2,201,902.78	Local Purchase	5,981,030.50
Banks Interest	214,414.44	Transportation	55,476,399.76
Miscellaneous	3,585,532.79	a. Mobile Oil	36,512,058.00
		b. " Repairing	18,964,341.76
		Building Fund	4,346,108.70
		Subsidies	1,261,237.50
		a. Nurses Training	616,100.00
		b. Branch Red Cross Societies	645,237.50
		Emergency Expenditures	48,377,031.77
		Bank Overdraft Refunded	
		(Bank of China)	14,000,000.00
		Miscellaneous	1,448,845.04
		Cash in Bank & on Hand	3,845,748.99
Total	CN\$296,165,052.33	Total	CN\$296,165,052.33

Remarks: (1) "Contributions" consists of approximately 68% of the entire income. 98% of the "Contributions" comes from foreign sources.

(2) Of the "Medical Relief Commissions," 82% was spent in Kweiyang, 7.8% in Kunming, the rest in Chungking.

(3) "Emergency Expenditure" includes expenses involved in the evacuation of medical units and supplies during the Japs' penetration into Kweichow in the winter of 1944 and in the relief of refugees on transit.

CHAPTER XLV

WAR RELIEF

HSU SHIH-YING (許世英)*

I. RELIEF OF REFUGEES AND VICTIMS OF NATURAL CALAMITIES

A. Relief of War Victims.—Unprecedented devastations were wrought when Japanese troops invaded Hunan and Kwangsi provinces while penetrating into south Kweichow province in the summer of 1944. In the beginning of these invasions the National Relief Commission † in anticipation of the relief work to be undertaken, applied for an appropriation of relief funds to the amount of \$20,000,000, from the Executive Yuan which was granted and entrusted to the provincial relief commission of Hunan province for emergency relief in the Changsha and Hengyang areas in conjunction with the 10th relief zone, its Changsha office and the Hengyang-Chuchow-Chaoyang Headquarters for the Transportation, Distribution And Disposal Of Refugees. When war spread to Kwangsi province after the fall of Hengyang, the National Relief Commission ordered the 10th relief zone to undertake, in cooperation with the Kwangsi provincial govern-

ment and the provincial relief commission, the immediate salvation and accommodation of refugees and to organize provisional relief-consolation corps charged with the registration, transportation and relief of refugees. At this time the areas from Chinchengkiang to Tushan were packed with refugees numbering at times as many as 600,000 or more so that it was found difficult to provide food and shelter for them. President Chiang appointed Mr. Chiu Hung-chun, member of the Relief Commission and Mr. Kuo Chengkang, Minister of Social Affairs to go to these areas as supervisors of relief affairs. \$20,000,000 was appropriated and entrusted to Mr. Chiu, \$50,000,000 to Minister Kuo, \$20,000,000 to Kwangsi provincial government and \$5,000,000 to Kweichow provincial government for the relief of refugees. Thereupon, the problem of providing food, shelter and transportation for the refugees was finally solved.

After the fall of Kweilin and Liuchow into enemy hands refugees fled into Kweichow province for safety. To cope with the situation seventeen principles

* Chairman. National Relief Commission.

† It was abolished on July 25, 1945.

for the disposal of refugees were worked out by Minister Kuo of Social Welfare and Chairman Wu of the Kweichow provincial government in cooperation with the 10th relief zone and its Kweiyang office. A committee for the disposal of refugees in Kweichow province was established, to which an appropriation of \$100,000,000 was made by the Executive Yuan, half of which was to serve as credit loans to small traders and the other half as relief funds. The average refugees were then provided with shelter, transportation, travelling expense, credit loans to small traders, or medical relief while the aged and the weak, women and children and the poor who were unable to move to other localities were accommodated. At the end of 1944 that this gigantic relief work was wound up with the number of persons benefited totalling over 80,000.

For the relief of refugees who arrived in Szechuen province the Relief Commission set up the Szechuen-Kweichow General Station for the Transportation, Distribution and Disposal of Refugees in Haitangchi, (on the southern bank of the Yangtze River) and two branch stations in Chikiang and Tungchi to assist in the transportation of refugees into Szechuen. At the same time joint efforts were made by the Relief Commission and the city government of Chungking to establish provisional refugee camps to provide food and shelter for them. Later on as the concentration of refugees caused much trouble in the administration of refugee affairs they were transported to

Peiling and Changshou, where they were accommodated in camps set up by the Szechuen-Kweichow General Station.

For the relief of those refugees who arrived in west Hunan province from Kwangsi and Kweichow provinces the Relief Commission ordered the removal of the Changsha office of the 10th relief zone to Hungkiang to handle the transportation, distribution and disposal of refugees and that of the Hengyang-Chaoyang General Station to Yuanling to assist in the transportation of refugees into west Hunan. Meanwhile, a sum of \$40,000,000 for the relief of refugees in Anhua and Yuanling was put in the charge of the Hunan provincial government, the provincial Kuomintang headquarters, the provincial council, the temporary administrative office in West Hunan and Hungkiang, Messrs. Chiou Yi-shan and Chang Hsingfan, members of People's Political Council and the Hunan Calamity Relief Association in conjunction with the Changsha office of the 10th relief zone.

When the war in west Kweichow province turned for the better in the spring of this year refugees in the recovered areas crying for immediate relief an additional appropriation of \$50,000,000 was made to the Relief Commission wherewith to work for the relief of refugees newly arriving in Kweichow province and of war victims in the districts in South Yunnan. Another appropriation of \$50,000,000 was allotted to the Kwangsi provincial government for the relief of war victims. For the same purpose funds were

also appropriated to such provinces as Yunnan, Kwangtung, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, etc., in the following amounts: \$4,000,000 for relief in the recovered areas in west Yunnan; \$10,000,000 for maintaining the free meal centers and \$13,000,000 for the relief of war victims in Kwangtung; \$5,000,000 for the relief of war victims in Kiangsi, \$5,000,000 for the relief of war victims in Fukien province; \$25,000,000 for the relief of war victims in north Hupeh and south Honan. Thereafter further relief funds for war victims were allocated as follows: \$50,000,000 to Honan province, \$20,000,000 to Hupeh province, \$30,000,000 to Hunan province, \$5,000,000 to Shantung province, which were all entrusted to the provincial government to be distributed by them in conjunction with the regional office of the different relief zones.

The refugees benefitted by the efforts of the Relief Commission from July 1944 to the end of June, 1945 number 154,076 transported and distributed, 82,582 given relief, 836.64 accommodated and 603 given employments.

B. Relief of Overseas Chinese—For the relief of overseas Chinese two credit loans of \$30,000,000 each were extended to the families of overseas Chinese in Kwangtung and Fukien provinces in 1943. In view of their sad plight in these years, the terms of the loan were lengthened and, a sum of \$10,000,000 for their relief was appropriated to the Fukien provincial government to be allocated by it in conjunction with the provincial relief commission and the Overseas Affairs

Commission. After the commencement of fighting in Hunan province, a large number of refugees lingering along the Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway, called for relief and \$50,000,000 was appropriated to the Relief Commission for administering relief in cooperation with the Board of Overseas Affairs. At the same time \$400,000 was entrusted to Mr. Chang Tao-fan, director of the Board of Overseas Affairs to be distributed on the battle fronts. For the relief of those refugees who had been assisted to come to Chungking by the Commission \$5,000,000 was appropriated to the Relief Commission. As for the refugees in the recovered areas of Tunlung in west Yunnan province an appropriation of \$500,000 was made to the branch association of the Association of Overseas Chinese in the South Seas for relief purposes. With the completed recovery of North Burma the Central Government assigned \$3 000.000 Burmese guilders to the Overseas Affairs Commission for relief work to be carried out in that area with the assistance of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Meanwhile, Mr. Pei San-kiang, member of the Relief Commission was sent to assist in the management of relief affairs there with an appropriation of \$1,000,000.

Funds appropriated for the relief of overseas Chinese who were unable to leave for home in foreign countries include U.S. \$25,000 for those in Turkey, 24,000 Indian rupees for those in India and 5,000 Indian rupees for those in Europe who were to return by way of India. On the other hand, appropriations were also made for

the relief of foreign nationals in China who lived in distress. \$400,000 was granted to the supervisor of the China Christian Association in the Hungkiang district, who applied for help because he was robbed when evacuating in accordance with government instructions. A request from the Free Korean Government for an appropriation of \$2,000,000 for relief of Korean nationals in China was also granted.

C. Special Relief — Falling into the category of special relief is the relief of youth, technical workmen, and cultural workers. For the relief of youths \$24,000,000 as winter clothing funds was appropriated and entrusted to the Relief Commission to be allocated by it in conjunction with the Committee for the Training of Unemployed Youth in the War Areas of the Ministry of Education. Another appropriation of \$400,000 as winter clothing funds was made to youths from the north-eastern provinces and \$3,000,000 for the same purpose was allocated to those evacuating from Shantung province into the hinterland. Besides, special appropriations were made to the various provincial fellow associations in Chungking, educational organizations and schools for relief of students from the different provinces and occupied areas. For the relief of technical workmen funds amounting to \$152,980,000 were appropriated for the relief and sustenance of railway workers on the Canton - Hankow, Hunan - Kwangsi, and Kweichow-Kwangsi Railways. Aside from these, \$5,000,000 for the relief of marines and

sailors in Kwangsi province and \$1,000,000 for the relief of those remaining in the vicinity of Changsha and those who had arrived in Chungking were appropriated and entrusted respectively to the Kwangsi provincial government and the special Kuomintang Headquarters of Mariners. As regards the relief of cultural workers, \$1,000,000 and \$800,000 were appropriated respectively to the Central Cultural Movement Committee and the Kuomintang Headquarters in Chungking, \$100,000 was allocated for the relief of the families of cultural and educational workers of North China and was distributed to them through the Central Secretariate.

D. Air Raid Relief — As air raids in recent years had greatly diminished in number, the Air Raid Relief Committee in Chungking was wound up in 1944 and its duties were turned over to the Szechuen Provincial Government. Elsewhere, however, the joint offices of air raid relief carried on as usual and the money needed was advanced by the Relief Commission while in the case of serious raids special appropriations were made for emergency relief. Considerable damages were done by enemy bombing of Laohokou in the spring of 1945 and \$500,000 was appropriated and delivered to the headquarters of the commanding general of the 5th war zone for relief purposes in that area. From July 1944 to 1945 the number of persons cared for consists of 133 wounded and 96 dead.

E. Sundry Relief Work.—Considerable damage from locusts

and drought were reported in Honan, Shansi, and Anhui. The appropriations for such relief include (1) \$140,000 to Honan, (2) \$30,000,000 to Shensi, (3) \$10,000,000 to Anhui, (4) \$10,000,000 to Hupeh, (5) \$230,000,000 to Shansi, (6) \$100,000,000 to Kansu. Besides these, \$6,000,000 was appropriated for relief of victims of war and drought in Chekiang province, \$7,000,000 for relief of victims of war and typhoon and \$1,000,000 for flood relief in Kwangtung province, \$5,000,000 for relief of victims of war and typhoon in Fukien Province, \$1,500,000 for fire relief in Foochow city.

II. EDUCATION AND BREEDING OF ORPHANS

Orphanages under the Relief Commission have undergone drastic reorganization or been amalgamated and removed to interior provinces, which are at present the first, second, and third orphanages in Chekiang province; the first, second, third and fourth orphanages in Kwangtung provinces; and those established in Kweilin (now removed to Chuen-yi), Kunghsien, Lihuang, Sian, and in Honan province and Ninghsia province total 16 units with 10,954 children. Graduates from these orphanages who were sent to higher schools numbered 859 and those employed by government factories numbered 372. A relief school at Keloshan has been expanded into one with primary school and middle school sections, comprising 348 pupils in the former and 242 pupils in the latter.

In the winter of 1944, 500 pupils were chosen by the Relief

Commission from its Orphanages in Changan, Pingloh, Loyang and Shiyuan and sent to Sinkiang province to be educated and brought up there while 1,000 were sent to Chinghai province. It was reported that among children destined for Sinkiang province 477 has reached Tulufan. In the case of those to be sent to Chinghai province, the Chinghai provincial government has sent commissioner Mr. Lichia to Shansi to assist in transporting the first batch of 240 children, who are being escorted on their way to Shansi province by Mr. Chi Tapan, special commissioner of the 5th relief zone sent by the Relief Commission.

Charity organizations taking care of orphans and supported by the Relief Commission like the Wartime Child Protection Association, the Wartime Child Relief Association of China, the United Committee For Emergency Relief Of Children In War Areas, are given subsidies as in the past and additional appropriations in lump sums were given to each. As for the orphanages maintained by local governments or private individuals subsidies are extended to them on a basis of merit. For the year of 1944 subsidies were extended to 208 units, amounting to \$140,000,000 or more.

III. ASSISTANCE IN PRODUCTIVE WORK BY REFUGEES

The Relief Commission owned originally 13 relief workshops. After the fighting began in Hunan province the 7th workshop located in Sinkiang was removed

to Yuanling to take over the materials and equipment of the former 16th workshop and resumed operation there. There are at present 20 workshops, among which 6 are engaged in the manufacture of cotton textile, 1 in the manufacture of woolen textile, 3 in the manufacture of paper, 1 in the manufacture of leather and 1 in the manufacture of pottery.

The relief workshops were set up in the beginning with the intention of relief through productive employments. With this in view the workshops have tried to expand their business, and give refugees their due technical training. As soon as they are through with their training the workshops will undertake to recommend them to other employers or make them stand on their own feet. And in their places fresh refugees were taken up by the workshop for training. From July 1944 to June 1945 refugee workmen thus trained by the various workshops numbered 1,125 and the graduates from the orphanages who were given training numbered 751.

The workshops functioned quite smoothly on the principle of self-support and self-sufficiency. Up to the end of June, 1945 funds given to various workshops amounted to \$4,716,029. In 1945 nine of them were reported to be running with profits amounting to \$4,770,516.60.

IV. MEDICAL RELIEF FOR REFUGEES

For the relief of refugees in recovered areas, the Relief Commission in 1944 organized eight

wartime moving medical units which were to visit various refugee centers to render free service and to give treatment to refugee patients. Under these units were three sub-units, who were sent to various war-devastated provinces on the battle fronts. In 1944 a total of 330,552 were treated by them, and in the first half of 1945 the refugees given medical treatment numbered 125,386.

The Children's Hospitals under the auspices of the Relief Commission were for years closely supervised by the latter and were frequently allotted medical supplies and medical equipment. In 1944 the Children's Hospitals attended to 79,170 sick children and in the first half of 1945 a total of 9,775 children were given medical treatment.

Besides, the Relief Commission distributed considerable quantities of medical supplies to various organs, institutions and schools. In 1944, 550 allotments were made of medicine and medical equipment, of 3,485 kinds and valued at \$1,680,000 according to price prevailing in 1943. In the first half of 1945, 504 allotments were made of 2,225 kinds and valued at \$8,360,000 according to current prices.

Free services rendered to refugees by public hospitals and international charity organs were for years given either monthly or yearly subsidies by the Relief Commission. From July, 1944 to June, 1945 a total of 18 units were given monthly subsidies amounting to \$465,000; five units were given yearly subsidies amounting to \$313,400.

WAR RELIEF

TABLE SHOWING THE ALLOTMENT OF RELIEF FUNDS IN THE CHARGE OF THE
NATIONAL RELIEF COMMISSION FOR THE PERIOD JULY 1, 1944—JUNE 30, 1945.

<i>Category</i>	<i>Amount</i>
War Refugees Relief	\$ 762,573,710.10
Orphanage Relief	\$ 464,899,975.38
Workshop Relief	\$ 8,426,545.40
Medical Relief	\$ 5,793,196.36
Relief Administration	\$ 8,410,939.11
Emergency Relief	\$ 56,537,936.67
Total	\$1,306,642,303.02

CHAPTER XLVI

POST-WAR RELIEF AND REHABILITATION IN CHINA

TINGFU F. TSIANG (蔣廷黻)*

I. CHINA AND THE CREATION OF UNRRA

On November 9, 1943 Dr. Tingfu F. Tsiang, then Director of Political Affairs in the Executive Yuan, signed on behalf of China, together with representatives of forty-three other nations, the fundamental agreement establishing the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. From then on, China has been an active member of UNRRA.

After the signature of the agreement in the White House at Washington, Dr. Tsiang led the Chinese Delegation to Atlantic City, to attend the first session of the Council of UNRRA. There he was elected Chairman of the important Committee on Relief and Rehabilitation Policies. After the Council had created the two regional committees, one for Europe and one for the Far East, Dr. Tsiang was elected Chairman of the Far Eastern Regional Committee.

The Council at Atlantic City, under the able chairmanship of the Hon. Dean Acheson, Representative of the United States, laid the foundations of UNRRA. It

defined the scope of both relief and rehabilitation. It resolved that the benefits of UNRRA should be administered without discrimination as to race, religion, or political opinion. It recommended that those of the United Nations which had not been invaded by the enemy should contribute each one percent of its annual national income to UNRRA to serve as its operational fund. It elected the Hon. Herbert H. Lehman, former Governor of New York, to be the Director-General of UNRRA. It also created a hierarchy of committees, some policy-making and some technical and advisory. After twenty days of strenuous work, the delegates of the forty-four nations were reasonably satisfied that they had created an organization to deal effectively with the needs and sufferings of the common people in all war-ridden countries on the Allied side.

While the Chinese Delegation at the Atlantic City was on the whole pleased with the labors of the Council, it met with two failures. Dr. Tsiang promoted a resolution to include educational and cultural rehabilitation within the scope of UNRRA, but he fail-

* This article was kindly contributed by Dr. Tingfu F. Tsiang, Chairman of the National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

ed to secure a majority vote, in spite of the fact that Dr. Jan Masaryk, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs of Czechoslovakia, lent him full support. On another occasion, Dr. Tsiang again found himself in the minority when he voted in favor of extending the benefits of UNRRA to ex-enemy nations.

II. PLANNING RELIEF AND REHABILITATION IN CHINA

Immediately after the Atlantic City Council, Dr. Tsiang recommended to the Executive Yuan that a commission be created to investigate the post-war needs of China and to plan for relief and rehabilitation. The Executive Yuan accepted his recommendation and in the spring of 1944 appointed a large commission including technicians from the Ministries of Communications, Agriculture, Economic Affairs, Social Affairs, Finance (the Bureau of Cotton, Yarn and Cloth), and Food, and the River Conservancy Board, the Public Relief Commission, and the National Health Administration, with Dr. Tsiang as Chairman and Dr. Y. C. Koo, Vice-Minister of Finance and Director of the Farmers' Bank, as Vice-Chairman and Acting Chairman. Dr. Arthur Young, Financial Advisor to the Chinese Government, was appointed Technical Advisor of the Commission. To promote the fullest co-operation with UNRRA, the Chinese Government requested the Hon. Herbert H. Lehman, Director-General of UNRRA, to appoint three experts as consultants, and in April, 1944, Mr. Owen I. Dawson, Dr. Eugene Staley and Dr. J. B. Grant reached Chungking to serve as UNRRA experts.

The Executive Yuan's Commission on Planning and Investigation of Relief and Rehabilitation, after months of labour, presented twelve technical reports on the following subjects: Food, Clothing, Shelter, Health and Medical Care, Transportation and Communications, Agriculture, Industries, Flooded Areas, Welfare Services, Displaced Persons, Fishery, and Rural Handicrafts. The Government sent the reports to Dr. Tsiang, who was then in Washington, for co-ordination.

III. REVISION AND CO-ORDINATION OF PLANS

It happened that Dr. Koo and Dr. Young remained in the United States after the International Financial and Monetary Conference; Dawson and Staley were in Washington; a number of experts of the Chinese Government were on special missions in the United States, including Dr. J. Hung Liu, former Minister of Health; Mr. P. W. Tsou, member of the Chinese Delegation to the International Food Conference; Mr. Chen Liang-fu, Technician to the Natural Resources Commission; Dr. Chang Hung-chun, Technician to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Mr. K. Y. Chen, Technician to the Ministry of Communications. In addition, Dr. Tsiang secured the services of two eminent scholars, Dr. C. M. Li, the economist and Dr. C. C. Wu the sociologist. These men worked on the revision and co-ordination of the special reports. It was found that the Commission at Chungking had called for a total expenditure of US\$2,530,000,000 and Ch\$2,727,000,000 of 1937 purchasing power. While Dr. Tsiang and his colleagues at

Washington appreciated the excellent work done by the Commission, they saw that such a program was too big to be presented to UNRRA. After consulting Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, who was then in the United States and after repeated consultations with President Chiang Kai-shek through cable, the revision group at Washington decided to divide the program into two parts, one to be financed by UNRRA and the other to be financed by China herself. The UNRRA part was estimated to cost U.S. \$945,196,000. The following table (*see next page*) gives a summary of China's total requirements.

On September 30, 1944, Dr. Tsiang, acting on behalf of the Chinese Government, formally transmitted to the Director-General of UNRRA the Program and Estimated Requirements for Relief and Rehabilitation in China, a voluminous document consisting of a general statement and ten separately bound annexes.

Several observations should be made about China's program. First, the sum, US\$945,000,000, is of course huge; but measured against the population and the area of Occupied China, it is moderate. In the end, it will be found that the per capita benefit will be the smallest in China when compared with other countries where UNRRA will work.

Secondly, since the presentation of the program in September, 1944, the area of Japanese occupation has extended considerably, especially in Honan, Hunan, and Kwangsi. All present indications point to hard and bitter fighting in China before the enemy can be

driven out. The resultant destruction and suffering in China may far exceed the estimates made in the summer of 1944.

Thirdly, the Chinese Government deliberately assigns to the rehabilitation of transportation the highest priority on its program, allotting one-third of supplies requested from UNRRA to this one field. The war has taught the Chinese Government and the Chinese people the central importance of railway, highway, and river transportation. In the early post-war years, unless transportation should be restored, all UNRRA supplies might be piled up at the coastal points, without doing the least good to the suffering masses of China.

Finally, the program as presented to UNRRA did not include fishery or handicrafts, because these subjects had not been investigated thoroughly enough to justify the framing of a program.

The above program is now being re-examined and revised by CNRRA and the other agencies of the Chinese Government, in consultation with representatives of UNRRA, for the purpose of developing a formal request for UNRRA to initiate procurement of the first major portion of the program. No decision has as yet been made as to how much of the total program UNRRA will be able to supply.

The second session of the Council of UNRRA was held in Montreal, Canada. Under the able chairmanship of Mr. L. B. Pearson, the Canadian Representative, the Council did useful work. The Chinese Delegation cooperated cordially with representatives of

Relief and Rehabilitation Program	Total Requirements			Material requests from UNRRA			Personnel from UNRRA	
	Chinese expenditures CH\$ (in 1,000)	Imported supplies US\$ (in 1,000)	Imported tonnage MT	Imported supplies US\$ (in 1,000)	Imported tonnage MT	% of total reqd. val.	Foreign experts	Foreign fellowships (a)
A. Food	100,000(b)	316,840	3,271	153,881	1,254	16.3	—	—
B. Clothing	150,000(b)	979,305	1,098	154,919	145	16.4	—	—
C. Shelter	100,000(b)	25,000	1,050	5,000	50	0.5	—	—
D. Health	246,515	66,154(c)	74	66,154(c)	74	7.0	885	240
E. Transportation	430,964	663,014	3,397	330,102	1,606	34.9	(d)	(d)
F. Agriculture (e)	206,700(b)	86,350	759	77,476	663	8.2	39	59
G. Industries	1,153,500	348,500	564	115,000	189	12.2	1,080	(d)
H. Flooded Areas	139,570	6,500	12	4,500	9	0.5	22	—
I. Welfare Services	160,817	32,531(f)	27	32,531(f)	27	3.4	230	100
J. Displaced Persons	39,098	5,633	1	5,633	1	0.6	(d)	—
Total	2,727,164	2,529,827	10,253	945,196	4,018	100.0		

(a) Fellowships for Chinese experts to go abroad for further training.

(b) Internal distribution costs of a part of the total program carried through with the supplies now requested of UNRRA.

(c) Including US\$850,000 for foreign experts and US\$1,200,000 for foreign fellowships.

(d) Not yet determined.

(e) Requirements for rehabilitation of fisheries and rural industries not yet determined.

(f) Including US\$275,000 for foreign fellowships for Chinese experts, but not including costs for foreign experts.

other countries. Conversations were initiated in regard to the future work of the Far Eastern Regional Committee and resulted finally in an agreement among the interested nations that while the eventual seat of the Committee should be in China, in the meantime, in view of the material difficulties in Chungking and difficulties of travel, the Committee should meet first in Sidney for one session and in the same place with the Council for a second session.

IV. SETTING UP CNRRA

Dr. Tsiang returned to China on November 1, 1944 to report to the Chinese Government. In a speech at the Assembly of the National Government, where all the high authorities were present, he explained the organization of UNRRA, the scope of its work, and its relations to China. He called the attention of the Government particularly to the fact that the so-called contributing nations, such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Brazil, Australia, New Zealand and others among the United Nations, were not contributing out of what might be called national surpluses. Many of the friendly nations, by making a contribution to UNRRA, were adding to the already heavy burden of war expenditure which they had been carrying and would continue to carry for many years. In subsequent speeches in China, Dr. Tsiang pointed out that while war was common in the annals of all countries, a planned effort, not to say an international cooperative effort, at post-war relief and rehabilitation was without historical

precedent. In the past, governments all over the world left the aftermath of war to nature, and nature usually took a long time, in some cases as long as half a century. UNRRA is an international co-operative and planned effort to accomplish in three or four years what might take nature three or four decades.

After reporting in person to President Chiang Kai-shek about his year's labour with UNRRA, Dr. Tsiang was instructed to draft a statute providing for the administration of post-war relief and rehabilitation in China. The draft was approved by the Executive Yuan at the beginning of January, 1945 and was sent to the Legislative Yuan for enactment. Dr. Tsiang appeared before the committee in charge of the Bill and pleaded for the legislators' approval of certain departures from precedent and tradition in China. The Legislature passed the Bill with only minor amendments. On January 21, the National Government promulgated the Organic Statute, creating the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration and on the same day formally appointed Dr. Tsiang to be the Director-General.

The Statute gave to the Director-General of CNRRA ministerial rank, with a seat in the cabinet. It authorized him to invite to the service of post-war China a large number of foreign experts and technicians. It empowered him to draw personnel from both within and without the ranks of the civil service. It provided for the eventual establishment of regional administrations and local offices.

Since its creation in January, the work of CNRRA has been up to the time of writing, concerned mainly with that of investigating post-war needs of occupied areas and preparing detail programs to be presented to UNRRA as firm requests for supplies.

The investigation of war damages of occupied areas and their post-war needs is being handled by the Division of Investigation. For this purpose, the Division created 17 sections, each to take care of a province or a municipality. The result of this investigation is to be used as a basis for future allocation of supplies to different regions as well as for additional firm requests of supplies from UNRRA. The first investigation reports have already been completed by the different sections in the middle of July, the subjects dealt with in these reports are chiefly food, clothing, shelter, communications, and health and medical care. Owing to practical difficulties, very little has been done in actual field investigation, but it is hoped that this will be remedied as soon as the situation permits.

Three detailed supply programs have been completed now and presented to UNRRA through its China Office as firm requests from the Chinese Government. The three programs are:

1. First Six Month Program. This program is divided into ten sections, requesting a total of about 2 million tons of supplies, estimated at a little less than one half billion US dollars.

2. Ports Program. This program, for the use of ports when they are open, totals about 800,000 tons, costing 200 million US dollars.

3. Inland Emergency Program. This program is made to meet the emergency inland needs. It has already been approved by UNRRA.

South Kweichow Field Office. As the Japanese thrust to Kwangsi and Kweichow in the winter of 1944 had caused great sufferings among the people herein and produced tens of thousands of refugees, the situation in South Kweichow was even more acute in the spring of 1945 with the crowding of destitute refugees facing the shortage of food. Thus the South Kweichow Field Office was created to administer emergency relief there. Since its establishment on June 1, 1945 it has done the following things:

1. The loan of agricultural seeds to farmers. Farmers of Tushan and Nantan have already been benefited.

2. The loan of farm cattles to farmers. It is planned that 700 heads of water buffaloes are to be lent out at Tushan and 300 heads at Nantan.

3. The establishment of refugee camps at Tushan. Refugees are given two meals a day, \$115 each in cash.

4. The sending of displaced persons home. Upon arrival at destination, each is given \$10,000 to start a new life.

5. The establishment of medical teams. Two medical teams have been established to administer medical relief free of charge.

V. CHINA OFFICE OF UNRRA

Towards the end of January, 1945 Mr. Benjamin H. Kizer, the representative of Governor Lehman, arrived at Chungking to establish the China Office of UNRRA and to act as its Director. His chief associates are: Dr. Harry B. Price, Assistant Director; Mr. James G. Johnson, Counsellor; Col. Roy S. Bessey, Chief of Transportation Rehabilitation; Mr. William J. Green, Chief of Agricultural Rehabilitation, and Dr. Leland E. Powers, Chief Medical Officer.

The relations between CNRRA and the China Office of UNRRA have been worked out through a number of conferences between Dr. Tsiang and Mr. Kizer and their staffs. In spirit and in planning, they conceive their relations as a partnership; in actual administration, the burden will fall on CNRRA with the aid of a large number of UNRRA experts serving in all branches of relief and rehabilitation. The Chinese Government puts high value on this experiment in international co-operation. It is hoped that the men and women who will come to China as UNRRA experts will find their experience pleasant and their labours fruitful; it is also hoped that the Chinese people will learn that the employment of foreign experts does not in itself result in foreign domination of China or foreign interference in China's domestic affairs.

VI. OUTLINE OF OPERATIONS

While post-war conditions cannot be accurately foretold now and therefore all plans must be tentative and flexible, the general outline of CNRRA's operations has

been determined. These operations will be conducted to the fullest extent possible in view of the inevitable shortages in shipping, port facilities and certain categories of supplies. There will be three types of direct relief. First, there will be emergency relief immediately upon the liberation of an area or city or communications center. Food, clothing and shelter will be provided for the destitute; measures to prevent epidemics will be taken as early as possible, and in the case of large cities, public utilities will be restored.

Secondly, the displaced persons will receive aid to return to their homes or places of employment near their homes. CNRRA does not wish to encourage people who have found suitable employment in the Northwest or Southwest to return, but those who desire to return and are found without means will be aided in securing transportation and sustenance on the way.

Thirdly, institutions will be established to take care of the homeless children, the crippled, and the aged without support. This type of institutional relief presents special problems, particularly with regard to the children and to a lesser degree with the crippled and the aged. Previous experience with orphanages has not been happy; too large a proportion of the orphans grow up with an abnormal mentality. This time, CNRRA in co-operation with the Ministry of Social Affairs hopes to reduce that percentage.

These types of direct relief, though necessary, will not solve the grave social and economic pro-

blems of post-war China. The center of CNRRA's operations will be public works relief, mainly on the railways, highways, and rivers of China. Large numbers of unskilled labour will be employed on such projects. They will receive normal treatment and fair wages; CNRRA is definitely against the exploitation of the misery of the common people. After a period of work, the people will have some savings with which they can buy a buffalo, a plough, or the tools of some craft, or a ricksha, or the stocks for a small trade; they will be on their feet again. At the same time, such public works will enable China to regain some of her pre-war transportation capacity and rehabilitate the cultivated areas which have been flooded during the war. It is hoped that through such measures, China's whole economy will acquire an upward swing.

VII. FOREIGN PERSONNEL

In the post-war years, China will be short not only of supplies, but also of trained personnel. Experienced relief and welfare workers, doctors and nurses, rail-

way engineers, river conservancy experts, agriculturists, transportation and public utility experts, and accountants and auditors will all be in demand. CNRRA is taking steps to request UNRRA to recruit such workers for China.

Hitherto, China's experience in using foreign personnel has been varied; cases of happy success have alternated with cases of failure. The mistakes have been sometimes on one side and sometimes on the other, and strange to say, some cases of failure have been through the fault of nobody, they just occurred. CNRRA and UNRRA are this time approaching the problem with extreme care. It is hoped that foreign experts will find service in China both pleasant and fruitful and that the Chinese Government and people will find that the employment of foreign personnel does not in itself mean foreign domination or exploitation or interference with the domestic affairs of China. If such happy results should be forthcoming, then UNRRA and CNRRA will have paved the way to building up a prosperous China in the long years of peace to come.

APPENDIX I

ORGANIC STATUTE OF THE CHINESE NATIONAL RELIEF AND REHABILITATION ADMINISTRATION

Article 1. The Executive Yuan, for the purpose of administering relief and rehabilitation in the liberated areas of China after the conclusion of the war, establishes the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (CNRRA).

Article 2. The CNRRA, in ad-

ministrating relief and rehabilitation, may carry out enterprises in co-operation with other organs of government, central or local, or by delegating work to bodies having the necessary competency or jurisdiction. The modes of such co-operation and delegation shall be determined by the Executive Yuan.

Article 3. The CNRRA shall have the following Bureaux and Divisions:

- a.—Bureau of Transportation
- b.—Bureau of Allocation
- c.—Bureau of Finance
- d.—Bureau of Relief
- e.—Division of Investigation
- f.—Division of Translation and Publication, and
- g.—Division of General Affairs.

Article 4. The CNRRA may, with the approval of the Executive Yuan, establish committees and operative offices.

Article 5. The CNRRA may establish regional administrations in areas where such branch offices may be found necessary. The plan of organization of such regional administrations shall be determined by special legislation.

Article 6. The Bureau of Transportation shall be charged with the following functions:

- a) the receiving of supplies,
- b) the storing and safe-keeping of supplies,
- c) the transportation of supplies, and
- d) other matters relating to the physical management of supplies.

Article 7. The Bureau of Allocation shall be charged with the following function:

- a) the distribution, loaning or sale, of machines and implements of production,
- b) the free distribution or sale of the necessities of life, and
- c) other matters relating to the allocation of supplies.

Article 8. The Bureau of Finance shall be charged with the following functions:

- a) the management of operational funds,
- b) the safe-keeping and accounting of operational funds,
- c) the auditing and issuing of operational accounts,
- d) the safe-keeping of all titles, deeds and other legal papers relating to operational funds, and
- e) other matters relating to operational funds.

Article 9. The Bureau of Relief shall be charged with the following functions:

- a) the arrangement and provision of transportation facilities for refugees to return to their home districts and assistance to them in finding employment,
- b) the provision of welfare for refugees,
- c) the management of public work relief projects, and
- d) other matters relating to relief.

Article 10. The Division of Investigation shall seek and provide information relating to (a) refugees, (b) social conditions in war areas, (c) loss and damage to commerce and industry in the war areas, (d) conditions in the flooded areas, and (e) other information pertinent to relief and rehabilitation.

Article 11. The Division of Translation and Publication shall (a) compile and translate laws, regulations, and reports, (b) analyze, compile and translate reference publications, (c) translate and publish documents, and (d) manage the library of the CNRRA.

Article 12. The Division of General Affairs shall (a) receive,

despatch, distribute, and keep official documents, (b) make public the decrees of the CNRRA, (c) keep the seals of the CNRRA, (d) take charge of the administrative budget and finances of CNRRA, (e) supervise the administrative expenses of the subordinate organs of the CNRRA, (f) keep the administrative properties and equipment of the CNRRA, and (g) manage the business and other matters of the CNRRA, which do not fall within the functions of other Bureaux and Divisions.

Article 13. The CNRRA shall have a director-general, with ministerial rank, who shall be the supreme head of the Administration and supervise its staff and its subordinate organs. The Director-general participates in the meetings of the Executive Yuan (i.e., has a seat in the cabinet).

Article 14. The CNRRA shall have two deputy directors-general, who shall assist the Director-general in the discharge of his duties.

Article 15. The CNRRA shall have from three to five councillors.

Article 16. The CNRRA shall have from seven to nine secretaries.

Article 17. The CNRRA shall have four chiefs and four assistant chiefs of Bureau and three chiefs of Division.

Article 18. The CNRRA shall have from 24 to 30 inspectors, 8 to 10 technicians, 46 to 52 sectional chiefs, 30 to 38 senior clerks, 20 to 28 assistant technicians, 120 to 140 junior clerks.

Article 19. The deputy directors-general, the councillors, the bureau chiefs, and assistant chiefs, and the division chiefs shall have Civil Service Rank I (with differ-

ent grades). Of the secretaries, four shall have Rank I, the remainder Rank II. Of the inspectors, eight shall have Rank I, the remainder Rank II. Of the technicians, six shall have Rank I, the remainder Rank II. The sectional chiefs and the senior clerks shall have Rank II (with different grades). Of the assistant technicians, 8 shall have Rank II, the remainder Rank III. The Junior clerks shall have Rank III.

The personnel mentioned above, wherever found necessary, may be chosen from outside the Civil Service, with remuneration and rank corresponding to Ranks I, II, and III.

Article 20. The CNRRA, with the approval of the Executive Yuan and the consent of the office affected, may call for administrative or technical personnel of other offices of the central or local governments.

Article 21. The CNRRA shall have an Accountant-general and a Statistician to take charge of budgetary expenditure, accounts, and statistics, subject to the direction and supervision of the Director-general and, in accordance with the Organic Statute of the Comptroller's Office of the National Government, directly responsible to the Comptroller's Office. The personnel needed by the Accountant-general in the performance of his duties, shall be selected, upon agreement between CNRRA and the Comptroller's Office, from among the personnel of Rank II and III as provided for CNRRA by the present statute.

Article 22. The CNRRA shall have a Personnel Section, with a chief of Rank II, who shall, in

accordance with Personnel Regulations, take charge of personnel matters.

The staff needed by the Personnel Section shall be selected, upon agreement between CNRRA and the Ministry of Civil Service, from among the personnel of Rank III as provided for CNRRA by the present statute.

Article 23. The CNRRA may invite to its service both Chinese and foreign experts.

Article 24. The CNRRA may have an appropriate number of employees.

Article 25. The CNRRA shall be abolished upon completion of post-war relief and rehabilitation.

Article 26. The detailed operational regulations of CNRRA shall be framed with the approval of the Executive Yuan.

Article 27. The present statute enters into effect upon the day of its promulgation.

Note: The present translation is furnished only for the purpose of public information. The official text of the Statute is the Chinese text as promulgated by the National Government on January 21st, 1945.

APPENDIX II

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA AND THE UNRRA

WHEREAS the United Nations and Associated Nations have, in the Agreement of 9 November, 1943, signed at Washington, D. C., created the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (hereafter referred to as the Administration), whose principal purpose is:

"To plan, co-ordinate, administer or arrange for the administration of measures for the relief of victims of war in any area under the control of any of the United Nations through the provision of food, fuel, clothing, shelter and other basic necessities, medical and other essential services and to facilitate in such areas, so far as necessary to the adequate provision of relief, the production and transportation of these articles and the furnishing of these services," and

WHEREAS, the Government of the Republic of China (hereinafter referred to as the Government) is a signatory to the aforementioned Agreement of 9 November, 1943, and has expressed its agreement with the Resolutions on Policy of the Council of the Administration (hereinafter referred to as the Resolutions); and

WHEREAS, China has been subjected to devastation and its people have suffered as a result of hostilities, occupation by the enemy and active resistance in the struggle against the enemy; and

WHEREAS, the Government has requested assistance of the Administration in furnishing relief and rehabilitation supplies and services for the relief of victims of war in China; and

WHEREAS, the Administration desires to bring all practicable relief to the victims of war within the territory of China and in accordance with the Agreement of 9 November 1943 and the Resolutions; and

WHEREAS, in accordance with the Resolution 14 of the Council of the Administration, the Director-General has determined that China is not at this time in a position to pay with suitable means of foreign exchange for the relief and rehabilitation of China; and

WHEREAS, it is desired that the mutual responsibilities of the Government and the Administration with respect to relief and rehabilitation shall be fulfilled in a spirit of friendly cooperation, and that the details of the practical application of such responsibilities shall be arranged on the basis of mutual understanding;

The Government of the Republic of China, represented by Dr. Tingfu F. Tsiang, Director-General, Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (hereinafter referred to as CNRRA), and the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, represented by Benjamin H. Kizer, Director of the China Office of the Administration (hereinafter referred to as the China Office), have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I

Furnishing of Supplies and Service

(a) *General Conditions.*—In accordance with the Agreement of

9 November 1943 and the Resolutions, the Administration will furnish China with relief and rehabilitation supplies and services, and the Government will accept and make use for this purpose of supplies and services furnished by the Administration. Such supplies and services will be furnished within the limit of the Administration's resources and available supplies and transport, and in accordance with Council policies. The supplies and services will be furnished by the Administration for such period of time as it is determined in accordance with Resolution 14 that China is not in a position to pay therefore with suitable means of foreign exchange. The Administration will make no request and shall have no claim for payment in foreign exchange for the supplies and services furnished by it under this Agreement. In the case of certain categories of long-term equipment, the Administration may, pursuant to special agreements between it and the Government, retain the ownership but furnish the use of such supplies during the life of this Agreement.

(b) *Supplies: Procurement Procedure.*—CNRRA on behalf of the Government will present to the Administration firm requests for the supplies it requires giving totals required by calendar quarters; such requests shall be presented at least six months in advance of the time of desired delivery. These firm requests shall provide, insofar as possible, quantities, specifications, and points for the delivery of the sup-

plies. Prior to the formal presentation of any such request, it shall have been discussed among the appropriate technicians from CNRRA, from such of the Government Ministries or Agencies as CNRRA may invite and from the China Office of the Administration, and shall thereafter have been considered by CNRRA on behalf of the Government with reference to its relative priority in comparison with other parts of the overall relief and rehabilitation program. Each request will be supported by as detailed a justification as possible. The request and the accompanying justification may in some cases cover "spot" items needed for the earliest possible shipment; in others it may cover a large segment of the relief and rehabilitation program for a specified period or even the entire program for that period. The request should always contain an indication as to the items that are to be given priority in the event that it should be possible to deliver only a part of the total request. Any modification of a firm request prepared and presented under the procedure above shall also be presented under the same procedure, that is, following the fullest discussion by representatives of CNRRA, of the other appropriate Government Ministries or Agencies and of the China Office of the Administration.

(c) *Service: Loan of Personnel.*
—Subject to implementing agreements mutually agreed upon by the Government and the Administration from time to time, the following principles and pro-

cedures shall govern requests by the Government for loan by the Administration for service in China of certain technical administrative personnel:

1. For each group or unit of technical or administrative personnel desired from the Administration for relief and rehabilitation service within China, the Government will present to the China Office of the Administration a specific request, together with full details on the number of personnel required, the respective duties and responsibilities of each individual, the desired qualification of each, priorities among the personnel requested, and the full scope and purpose of the projects with which they are to be associated:

2. Upon agreement in principle by the Administration to such requests, the Administration will initiate the necessary recruitment of the personnel requested, and will, within the limits of available transportation, arrange for the travel to China of the persons so recruited.

3. Such personnel will be attached by the Administration to its China Office for the duration of their term of service in China, and will be generally responsible to the Director of the China Office.

4. Shortly before, or as soon as possible after, the arrival of each such person in China, the Director General of CNRRA and the Director of the China Office of the Administration or their duly authorized representatives, will jointly review the original request in the light of any new

circumstances that may have arisen since the request was presented, and will agree upon the particular post of duty to which the individual is to be assigned, and the period of time for which his initial assignment is to be made. The Director of the China Office or his duly authorized representative will then make the assignment in accordance with the agreement reached. In no case shall such an assignment be to a position of primary administrative responsibility in any Government Ministry or Agency.

5. During the period of his assignment, each person, while generally responsible to the Director of the China Office, shall be fully responsible to the head of the organization to which he is assigned, or to the designee of such head, for all technical and advisory assignments, including day by day supervision.

6. The general situation with respect to each person so assigned shall be jointly reviewed every three months, or at any intervening time when thought necessary by either party, by the Director General of CNRRA and the Director of the China Office of the Administration, or their representatives, for the purpose of determining whether the individual is rendering satisfactory service, whether his services are being adequately utilized, or whether there is any other reason that would make it advisable to modify or terminate or not to renew the agreement under which the assignment was made.

7. All personnel assigned by the Administration pursuant to

this Article will receive their salaries, allowances, travel costs and reimbursements for other appropriate expenses from the Administration. To the extent that such payments are made in Chinese currency, they shall be included as part of the Chinese currency expenses of the Administration under Article IV, (a).

8. The Government will provide appropriate housing facilities and other necessary accommodations for the personnel assigned to its service by the Administration.

9. Personnel assigned by the Administration pursuant to this Article will be accorded the facilities, privileges, immunities and exemptions provided in Article VI.

ARTICLE II

Administration of Services

The relief and rehabilitation services furnished by the Administration pursuant to Article I above will be administered in accordance with plans agreed upon between the Administration and the Government and in conformity with the policies of the Council, particularly those embodied in Resolutions 2 and 7 through 13. (See Annex I to this Agreement) Wherever necessary the Government will take measures to insure that such policies are followed throughout the area of operations.

ARTICLE III

Transfer and Distribution of Supplies

(a) The Government, having the responsibility for the distribution within China of relief

and rehabilitation supplies furnished by the Administration, will take appropriate measures to assure that such distribution will be governed by the policies of the Council particularly those embodied in the Resolutions contained in Annex I to this Agreement, and will instruct provincial governments accordingly.

(b) The relief and rehabilitation supplies furnished by the Administration which are destined for China will be consigned to the China Office in China. The transfer of such supplies to the Government or its designee, against appropriate receipts, will be at such designated ports of entry or other places as may be agreed upon from time to time by the Government and the Administration. Except as may otherwise be specifically provided by supplementary agreement, in the case of all supplies for China unloaded at a port in China, transfer shall occur at the end of ship's tackle. The Government and the Administration will agree upon appropriate procedures for the determination of the quantity and quality of goods upon their delivery to the Government by the Administration.

(c) To enable the Administration effectively to discharge its responsibilities under this Agreement of 9 November 1943, (Annex I* should consist of Resolutions 2 and 7 through 13,) and the Council Resolutions, the Government will consult with the Administration with respect to the plans for and operations respecting the distribution of supplies. Such consultation will

cover at least the following subjects:

1. The agencies and channels of distribution for the supplies furnished by the Administration.

2. The allocation of such supplies by regions and main groups of consumers.

3. Price policies and specific prices for such supplies and their relationship to prices for similar supplies produced domestically.

4. Rationing and price controls by commodity, by region and by classes of consumers for each of the commodities supplied by the Administration and for other commodities having an important bearing on the distribution of Administration supplies.

5. The facilities and methods for handling, moving and storing the supplies furnished by the Administration.

(d) Further to enable the Administration effectively to discharge its responsibilities under this Agreement, the Agreement of 9 November 1943, and the Council Resolutions, the Government will see that the Administration is kept fully informed regarding the distribution of supplies within China. The Government will further see that representatives of the Administration are afforded opportunity to observe at each stage the distribution of supplies furnished by the Administration, to make inquiries of and to consult with CNRRA officials and upon their introduction with other appropriate public authorities (with respect to such distribution) and generally to satisfy themselves that the system of distribution is operating in ac-

cordance with the Council Resolutions. The Government will see that such representatives are accorded reasonable access to warehouses, transport depots, and distribution centers to the extent necessary to insure adequate information regarding the movement and distribution of goods.

(e) The Government will afford the Administration opportunity for, and will cooperate with the Administration in making public information regarding deliveries and distribution of relief and rehabilitation supplies furnished by the Administration.

ARTICLE IV

Financial Provisions

(a) The Government will, from time to time, as requested, transfer to the Administration, or expend on its behalf, sufficient amounts of Chinese currency to pay its Chinese currency expenses. Such expenses will include, but not be limited to, salaries, living allowances and other payments to personnel to the extent of such payments in Chinese currency, and costs of rent, storage, communications, transportation, and public services within China.

(b) If and when Chinese currency proceeds are realized by the Government from the sale in China of supplies furnished by the Administration, such proceeds may be applied by the Government in reimbursement of advances which have theretofore been made to or for the benefit of the Administration or its China Office. The amounts so applied shall be calculated in

such a way as to be equivalent in purchasing power to and not exceeding that of the Chinese currency advances at the time the various advances were made. The Government foregoes any other claim for reimbursement of such advances.

(c) The Government will provide the Administration monthly with a record of the net proceeds derived by the Government in the preceding month from the sale, lease or other transfer of relief and rehabilitation supplies and services furnished by the Administration under this Agreement. In lieu of the record of actual net proceeds a lump sum approximation of proceeds may be mutually agreed upon by the Government and the Administration.

(d) It will be the policy of the Government to use for relief and rehabilitation purposes, not later than a reasonable time after the receipt of proceeds from the sale of supplies furnished by the Administration, funds equivalent in purchasing power to and not under that of the sums of Chinese currency recorded as net proceeds under paragraph (c) hereof, less such payments as may be made by the Government under paragraph (a) and such amounts as may be applied in reimbursement under paragraph (b). Such relief and rehabilitation purposes may include, for example, the following activities:

(1) Activities undertaken by or under the direction of the Government with respect to emergency relief and health services.

(2) The care and movement of displaced persons in addition to such activities as have been undertaken pursuant to Article II of this Agreement.

(3) Activities undertaken by or under the direction of the Government with respect to agricultural and industrial and transport rehabilitation.

(4) Warehousing, handling, and transportation services required by the Administration in connection with relief and rehabilitation operations in other areas.

(5) Procurement of supplies and services available in China for relief and rehabilitation in other areas, insofar as procurement is consistent with the economic requirements of China.

CNRRRA, on behalf of the Government, will have discretion to determine what sums will be made available pursuant to this paragraph for various relief of rehabilitation purposes.

(e) The Government will discuss with the Administration its plans for relief and rehabilitation expenditures as provided for in paragraph (d) above. In addition the Government will furnish the Administration with periodic reports of the expenditures made and receive the Administration's views regarding such expenditures. In those cases where funds are made available to the Administration for its activities pursuant to paragraph (d) above, they shall be utilized in accordance with programs jointly formulated and agreed to by the Government and Administration.

(f) Calculations of relative purchasing power under this Article shall be made by reference to appropriate price indices to be agreed upon by the parties.

(g) At the end of the first six months after the signing of this agreement, the parties hereto will review the provisions of this Article in the light of the needs and circumstances at the time.

ARTICLE V

Administration Office and Personnel

(a) The Government approves the establishment and authorized the maintenance by the Administration of an office in China (referred to herein as the China Office) which will include within the limits of the Administration's resources, the personnel necessary to discharge effectively its responsibilities under this Agreement, the Agreement of 9 November 1943, and the Council Resolutions. The Office will include personnel necessary to carry out Article I hereof with respect to the determination of relief and rehabilitation requirements and the furnishing of supplies pursuant to Article III hereof, certain technical and or administrative personnel for loan (as referred to herein above) by the Administration, upon request by the Government, to the Government for service in China, and such other personnel as may be required in connection with the Administration's reporting, accounting and financial activities within China pursuant to this Agreement.

(b) Any new appointment to the position of Director of the

China Office, of his deputies, or of his major assistants shall be made in agreement with the Government. The Administration will communicate to the Government the general authority delegated to the Director of the China Office.

(c) The Government will facilitate the admission and movement of Administration personnel in China pursuant to this Agreement.

(d) The Administration will assure the good conduct, integrity, and moral character of its personnel and will discharge or recall such of its personnel who violate these standards.

(e) The term "Administration Personnel" as used in this Agreement includes, in addition to employees of the Administration, personnel loaned to and working under the administrative supervision of the Government, and employees of non-indigenous voluntary relief societies working under the authority of the Administration.

ARTICLE VI

Facilities, Privileges, Immunities and Exemptions

(a) The Government will take all practicable measures to facilitate the activities of the Administration, and to provide the Administration and its personnel with the facilities, privileges, immunities, and exemptions recommended by the Resolutions of the Council.

(b) The Administration shall have the right, free from export controls or other restrictive measures, to transfer to other areas

imported relief and rehabilitation supplies owned by the Administration and located in or in transit through China.

(c) The Government will furnish or arrange to have furnished to the Administration services and facilities pursuant to the arrangements made by mutual agreement between the Government and the Administration.

ARTICLE VII

Taxation

(a) The Administration, its assets, property, income and its operations and transactions of whatever nature shall be immune from taxes, fees, tolls or duties imposed by the Government or any political subdivision thereof, or by any other public authority in China. The Administration shall also be immuned from liability for the collection or payment of any tax fee, toll or duty imposed by the Government or any political subdivision thereof or by any other public authority.

(b) No tax, fee, toll or duty shall be levied by the Government or political subdivision thereof or any other public authority on or in respect of salaries or remunerations for personal services paid by the Administration or by non-indigenous voluntary relief societies to its officers, employees or other Administration personnel (as defined in Article V, (e), hereof) who are not nationals of China or permanent residents thereof.

(c) The Government will take such action as is necessary for the purpose of making effective the foregoing principles. In addition

the Government will take whatever action may be necessary in accordance with Resolution 16 to insure that relief and rehabilitation supplies and services furnished by the Administration are not subjected to any tax, fee, toll or duty in a manner which reduces the resources of the Administration.

ARTICLE VIII

Reports and Records

(a) The Government will maintain adequate statistical records on relief and rehabilitation operations necessary to the discharge of the Administration's responsibilities, and will consult with the Administration, at its request, with respect to the maintenances of such records.

(b) The Government will furnish the Administration with such records, reports, and information as the Administration shall request pertaining to rehabilitation which are necessary to the discharge of the Administration's responsibilities.

ARTICLE IX

Modification of Agreement and Supplementary Agreements

(a) The Government and the Administration will give sympathetic consideration to any representations which either may make with regard to modifications of this Agreement. Any such

modifications shall be by mutual consent.

(b) To the extent necessary or desirable, the parties hereto will enter into subsequent agreements and arrangements supplementing the provisions hereof.

ARTICLE X

Period of the Agreement

This Agreement shall take effect as from this day's date. It shall remain in force until the expiration of six months from the date upon which either of the parties hereto shall have given notice in writing of its intention to terminate it. Notwithstanding the expiration of this Agreement:

(a) The relations between the parties shall continue to be governed by the Agreement of 9 November 1943 and the Resolutions of the Council; and

(b) Articles IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII shall remain in force for the purpose of an orderly liquidation until all Administration activities in China are completed.

Done in the English language in the City of Chungking, this 16th day of November, 1945.

(Signed) Dr. Ting-fu F. Tsiang
For the Government of the
Republic of China

(Signed) Mr. Benjamin H. Kizer
For the United Nations Relief and
Rehabilitation Administration

PART VIII

CHRONOLOGY OF MAJOR EVENTS

CHAPTER XLVII

CHRONOLOGY OF MAJOR EVENTS 1944

January 1.—President Chiang Kai-shek, in his broadcast to the army and the people, predicted that this year would see the beginning of the decisive stage, when the land, sea and air forces of the United Nations would carry the war to Japan's home islands and to all the seas surrounding her.

The Chinese Goodwill Mission to Britain, headed by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, was welcomed by Mr. Attlee, Deputy Prime Minister of Great Britain.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt issued a New Year message calling on the people of the United Nations to continue wartime cooperation in the days of peace.

January 3.—The delegation formed by monks of 103 monasteries under the Labrang Monastery, 104 miles southwest of Lanchow, Kansu, to pay respects to President Chiang Kai-shek, arrived at Chungking.

January 4.—The Red Army crossed the Polish frontier of 1939. The U.S.S.R. suggested territorial readjustments with Poland along the Curzon Line of 1919, and offered an alliance against Germany by inviting Poland to join the new Russo-Czechoslovak Alliance.

President Roosevelt, replying to President Chiang's New Year message, said that Americans were

mindful of the extent of China's sacrifices and steadfast service in the cause of freedom.

January 6.—Costa Rican President Calderon Guardia signed a decree abolishing the restriction of Chinese immigration to Costa Rica.

A big re-shuffle took place at U.S. Army Headquarters in London with a view to preparing for the second front.

January 7.—The Chinese Goodwill Mission to Britain was honored at a luncheon party given by Lord Ailwyn, member of the British Parliamentary Mission to China and President of the China Association.

January 9.—Delegates from Labrang were received by President Chiang.

January 10.—New measures for compulsory education were decreed by the Ministry of Education.

January 11.—Brazilians sent a message of goodwill to China.

President Roosevelt, in a message to Congress, recommended that the United States enact a National Service Law to prevent strikes and make all adults available for war production and other essential services.

January 12.—Count Ciano was executed in Verona.

British Prime Minister Winston Churchill met General De Gaulle in North Africa.

January 14.—The fourth meeting of the Frontier Education Committee of the Ministry of Education was held.

President Roosevelt sent to Congress the 1945 Fiscal Budget of \$100,000,000,000 and about \$90,000,000,000 of the expenditures for war purposes.

The Polish Government in exile announced that it was asking the United States and Britain to arrange for Soviet-Polish discussions.

UNRRA's Far Eastern Committee met in Washington.

Sir Horace James Seymour, British Ambassador to China, returned to Chungking from England.

Lieut.-Gen. George Kenny, Commander of Allied Forces in the South-west Pacific, arrived in Washington for conferences with the High Command and President Roosevelt.

January 17.—Soviet Russia rejected the Polish Government's proposal to negotiate a new common border.

Delegates from Labrang were honored at a reception given by General Wu Chung-hsin, Chairman of the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission.

Australia and New Zealand commenced a conference at Canberra on post-war questions affecting the Pacific Area.

Dr. Hsu Niew-tseng, the first Chinese Minister to Egypt, presented his credentials to King Farouk.

The President of Columbia, Dr. Alfonso Lopez, signed as a member of the United Nations at the White House.

General Eisenhower met General Montgomery and other invasion chiefs in London.

The Chinese Mission to Britain issued a farewell message to the British press at the Ministry of Information.

January 18.—Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, the Head of the Chinese Goodwill Mission to Britain, gave a farewell address to members of both Houses of Parliament.

January 19.—President Roosevelt announced that he had conferred with General Eisenhower, Admiral Halsey and General Kenny to insure coordination of effort to apply pressure on Japan and Germany simultaneously.

January 20.—A 116-mile road link connecting the Ledo Road in India with roads in North Burma was completed.

January 22.—Australia and New Zealand signed a mutual and friendly pact calling for the closest post-war cooperation in all problems affecting their security and common interests in the Pacific.

January 23.—The National Government appropriated \$10,000,000 for Honan Relief.

General Eisenhower was named Commander of the U.S. Army in the European Theater and concurrently Commander-in-Chief of the British-American Expeditionary Forces.

January 25.—Mr. Churchill received members of the Chinese Goodwill Mission at No. 10 Downing Street.

Sir John Anderson, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced that Britain's contribution to the UNRRA would be £80,000,000.

January 26.—Argentine Foreign Minister Alberto Gilbert announced that Argentina had broken relations with the Axis.

Cordell Hull, U.S. Secretary of State, announced that Russia had rejected U.S. mediation in the Soviet-Polish border issue.

January 27.—Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Chinese Ambassador to Washington, called on President Chiang Kai-shek to report on his work in the United States.

The Liberian republic entered into a state of war with Germany and Japan.

January 30.—The Chinese Military Mission, headed by General Yang Chieh, arrived in London.

February 2.—The invasion of the Marshall Islands was announced.

February 2. — The Sino-U.S. Council of Commerce and Industry was formed with a view to interesting U.S. business in China's post-war development.

February 4.—A U.S. task force attacked Paramushiro in the Kurile Islands.

February 8.—President Roosevelt proclaimed the repeal of the Chinese Exclusion Act.

The Tenth Incarnation of the Panchan Lama, a seven-year-old child, discovered in Hsunwa, Chinghai, was enthroned at Ta Erh Ssu (a temple).

February 9.—The National Government appropriated a total sum of \$34,000,000 for war relief in Hunan.

February 15.—The United States Foreign Relations Committee approved legislation authorizing the appropriation of \$1,350,000,000 for the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

February 18.—In a broadcast on the eve of the tenth anniversary of the New Life Movement, President Chiang Kai-shek called upon the Chinese to strive harder to lead a new life, to be industrious and thrifty and to promote the savings campaign, declaring that victory depended, not only on military operations, but also on the spiritual and moral strength of the people.

Dr. Liu Shih-shun was appointed China first Ambassador to Canada.

February 19.—The Society of Friends of Allied Forces in China, organized under the auspices of the New Life Movement Headquarters, was inaugurated with Dr. H. H. Kung as Chairman of its Board of Directors.

February 21.—Japanese Premier General Hideki Tojo was made concurrently Chief of the Army General Staff in place of Field Marshal General Sugiyama, and Navy Minister Admiral Shigetaro Shimuda was named the Chief of Naval General Staff.

February 22.—British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, delivering a speech on the war situation before the House of Commons after his return from Cairo and Teheran, said that the Allies would intensify the assault on Germany and praised Generalissimo Chiang as a world figure and Madame Chiang as a remarkable and fascinating personality.

President Chiang paid tribute to the Red Army on the occasion of the 26th Red Army Day.

The Chinese Cooperative Enterprises Association held its 4th annual meeting.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, head of the Chinese Goodwill Mission to Britain, visited Edward Stettinius, Acting Secretary of State and Frank Knox, Secretary of Navy.

February 24. The committee to investigate Japanese war crimes held its first meeting.

Dr. T. T. Li, Chinese Minister to the Dominican Republic, presented his credentials to the Dominican President.

February 25.—Dr. Wang Yun-wu, Dr. Wen Yuan-ning and Mr. Han Lih-wu, members of the Chinese Mission to Britain, arrived in Teheran and were given a warm welcome by the Iranian Government.

February 26.—Dr. Liu Shih-shun, Chinese Ambassador to Canada, presented his letter of credence to the Governor-General of Canada.

February 27.—The Industrial and Mineral Products Exhibition was opened.

February 28.—The U.S. State Department's Cultural Relations Division gave a luncheon in honor of Dr. Wang Shih-chieh.

The Shah of Iran stressed the importance of Sino-Iranian friendship and expressed admiration for President Chiang at the reception in honour of the Chinese Mission to Britain.

February 29.—The Korean Provisional Government, speaking through the Korean Commission at Washington on the eve of the 25th anniversary of the founding of the Government appealed to the United Nations for a large-scale arming of Koreans to wage guerrilla warfare, and asserted that a Korean civil Government

should take over the country after its liberation.

The Kiangsu Provincial Government was reorganized with Mr. Chen Kwei-Chin succeeding Mr. Wang Kung-gu as Commissioner of Civil Affairs, and Messrs. Ke' Chieh-shih, Chang Yu-din, Chen Sheng-nan and Hsiao Pin-yuan as members of the government, with Mr. Chen serving concurrently as Chief Secretary.

Expansion of the good-neighbor policy was urged by President Roosevelt in a message to Congress.

March 1.—Russia's peace terms were outlined to Finland, requiring the Finnish Government to break with the Axis.

The Chinese Goodwill Mission to Britain arrived in Baghdad.

Bulgaria reportedly asked for U.S. and British armistice terms.

The Central Training Corps, having trained 25,000 men and women, celebrated its 5th anniversary.

President Roosevelt held a conference with key Allied Commanders from Southeast Asia.

March 2.—The Sino-Afghan Treaty of Amity was signed at Ankara.

Sir Frederick Eggleston, Australian Minister to China, left Chungking for Australia on furlough.

Honduras amended the Immigration Law, lifting restrictions against the Chinese.

The United States severed relations with Argentina.

March 6.—Chinese troops captured Maingkwang, strategic town in North Burma.

March 6.—It was disclosed that China now had a total of 52,669 kilometers of state lines extending from the Chinese-Soviet border far in the Northwest to the coastal provinces of Kwangtung and Fukien.

March 10.—President Chiang sent a message to congratulate the 14th Air Force on the first anniversary of its establishment.

President Roosevelt issued a message on Sun Yat-sen Day, saying that Dr. Sun's doctrine was similar to the ideals which inspired the founders of American democracy and to the principles underlying the common cause of the United Nations.

March 13.—Huge political demonstration were staged in Naples, demanding a purge of the Badoglio Regime and the setting up of a new government.

March 14.—Lady Cripps, in a B.B.C. broadcast, made an appeal for nationwide support of the Flag Days sponsored by the United Aid to China Fund.

The Czech Government ordered its countrymen to start organized guerilla operations against the Germans.

Soviet Russia and the Badoglio Government of Italy had agreed to establish diplomatic relations.

March 15.—Major General Victor W. Odlum, the first Canadian Ambassador to China, presented his letters of credence to President Chiang Kai-shek.

Regulations Governing the Collection of Land Tax in Wartime were passed by the Legislative Yuan.

March 16.—The National Government promulgated the new Public School Law.

General Shang Chen was named head of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States; General Ho Kuo-kwang succeeded Gen. Shang Chen as Director of the Main Office of the National Military Council; and General Chang Cheng was promoted to be commander of the Gendarmes.

March 17.—The British Embassy in Chungking announced that King George VI had decorated General Ho Ying-chin, General Shang Chen, Lieut-Gen. Yu Ta-wei, Vice-Admiral Yang Hsuan-cheng and Lieut-Gen. Chow Chih-jou.

The Honan Provincial Government reached an agreement with the Farmer's Bank of China for a loan of \$74,526,000 for agricultural development.

March 19.—Germany occupied Hungary.

Three members of the Chinese Mission to Britain, Messrs. Wang Yun-wu, Han Li-wu, and Wen Yuan-ning, returned to Chungking via India.

March 20.—Dr. T. V. Soong reported on foreign affairs at the Headquarters of the National Government, saying that among the great diplomatic achievements last year were the abolition of unequal treaties and the conclusions of equal treaties between China and friendly Powers, America's repeal of the Chinese Exclusion Act, the Four-Power Declaration on General Security, and China's participation in the Cairo Conference.

The National Highway Exhibition was opened, showing that a total of 54,163 K.M. of new highways had been constructed since the outbreak of the war.

March 21.—Finland rejected Soviet terms for an Armistice.

The Executive Yuan appointed Messrs. James T. C. Yu and Hsieh-chia, advisers to the Chinese Government's delegate to the 26th International Labor Conference, with Mr. Chang Hung-chun as secretary; Dr. Kinn Wei-shaw and Mr. Liu Shun-tsui, advisers to employers' delegates respectively, with Mr. Chu Hsiang-jung as secretary.

March 22.—Cordell Hull, U.S. Secretary of State, elucidated America's Foreign Policy in 17 points.

The Ministry of Finance announced that the land value tax during the past fiscal year amounted to more than \$35,000,000.

U.S. cooperation with Vichyites was denied by Hull.

China and Canada signed a Mutual Aid Agreement.

March 23.—The German News Agency D.N.B. announced the formation of a new Hungarian Government, headed by Döme Sztójay, former Hungarian Minister at Berlin.

March 24.—President Roosevelt, at a press conference, declared that the United Nations were fighting to make a world in which tyranny and aggression could not exist.

Major-General Wingate, daring leader of the Imperial Airborne Commando Force was killed in a plane crash in Burma.

March 26.—The Chinese Military Delegation to the Southeast Asia Command Headquarters, headed by Major General Feng Yen, arrived in India to act as liaison officers for the Chinese Army, Navy and Air Force.

General Ho Ying-chin, Minister of War, declared that President Chiang had ordered a substantial increase of army food.

Winston Churchill and Wendell Willkie, hinted at an early invasion of Europe.

In a broadcast from England, Winston Churchill, reviewing all battlefronts, said that the Pacific War had been progressing more rapidly than was thought possible.

March 27.—Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Messrs. Hu Lin and Li Wei-kuo, members of the Chinese Mission to Britain, returned to Chungking.

Wang Ching-wei was reported to be in Tokyo for medical treatment, and Chen Kung-po was appointed proxy during Wang's absence.

March 29.—In a message to Chinese youths on Youth Day, President Chiang asked them to understand fully their heavy responsibilities as future masters of China and strive for the consummation of the great mission of national rejuvenation.

General Pechkoff, representative of the French Committee of National Liberation, arrived in Chungking.

March 31.—Salvador revised its Immigration Law, striking out all provisions which contained discriminatory measures against the Chinese.

It was announced that the Soviet Union and Japan had signed an agreement turning over to the U.S.S.R. the Japanese coal and oil concessions in Northern Sakhalin and prolonging for five years the Russo-Japanese Fishing Convention.

April 1.—Russian armistice terms to Finland were reported modified.

The Geological Society of China held its 20th annual meeting.

April 2—Russian forces entered Rumania. Adolf Berlie, U.S. Assistant Secretary of State, and Joseph Grew, Cordell Hull's Special Assistant, were appointed representatives for exploratory discussions on post-war aviation with Britain and Russia respectively.

April 3—The U.S. State Department issued a statement on the participation of the United States in rebuilding war-torn countries. The Finnish Government studied modified Soviet armistice terms.

April 4—The National Relief Commission held a conference of the heads of all local Child Welfare organizations under its supervision.

April 6—The U.S. Office of War Information revealed that U.S. armed forces totaled 10,900,000.

April 7—Dr. Wang Shih-chieh and Messrs. Wang Yun-wu, Hu Lin and Han Li-wu of the Chinese Goodwill Mission to England, reporting to the 13th meeting of the Resident Committee of the People's Political Council, highly praised Britain's friendship for China and her untiring war effort.

The National Government announced the revision of Article 11 of the Organic Law of the People's Political Council providing that the Council should hereafter meet every six months and that the period should be 14 days.

April 8—Members of the Chinese Mission to Britain were granted an audience by President Chiang to report on their visit to Britain.

The 5th National Military Description Conference in the Chung-

king area opened with 100 representatives from the military administrative districts in Szechuen, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow and Hupeh.

President Roosevelt announced that the United States was still not ready to recognize the de Gaulle Regime.

Mr. Li Ti-tseng, Chinese Minister to Iraq, presented his credentials to the Iraq Government.

April 9—Mr. Owen I. Dawson, agricultural expert, and Dr. Eugene Staley, economic expert, sent by the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, in Chungking to make a survey of China's needs.

Dr. H. H. Kung, Minister of Finance, urged subscription to Allied Victory Bonds for 1943 amounting to \$3,000,000,000, national currency.

The 8th annual executive conference of the Chinese Y.M.C.A., which was devoted to the discussion of problems relating to its wartime service and post-war development, opened in Chungking.

April 10—Mr. Cordell Hull, the U.S. Secretary of State, in a broadcast outlining American foreign policy, warned neutrals to cease aiding Axis powers and stressed the importance of establishing stable and progressive governments in Europe. At the conclusion of the broadcast he stated: "There can be no compromise with Fascism and Nazism. They can expect no negotiated peace, no compromise, and no opportunity to return."

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Head of the Chinese Mission to Britain, speaking at the Headquarters of

the National Government, gave a general review of the political, military, and economic situation in Britain and British aid to China.

Odessa, Ukraine, a powerful German defense base covering approaches to Rumania, and the last big Soviet city in German hands, was taken by the Red Army.

April 11.—Liberia signed the United Nations Declaration.

Tibet's delegate presented a plane and a congratulatory message to President Chiang Kai-shek.

A 1,500-mile highway linking Chungking with Tihwa was opened to traffic. A regular bus service ran via Chengtu and Lanchow.

April 12.—Vice-President Henry Wallace announced that he would visit Chungking as an official of the U.S. Government in late spring or early summer.

Dr. K. C. Wu, Political Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, declared that the Chinese Government would welcome Vice-President Wallace's visit.

The Italian King announced that he would withdraw from public affairs in favor of the Crown Prince Umberto on the day that Rome was entered.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Mr. Wang Yun-wu, Mr. Hu Lin, Mr. Han Li-wu, and Mr. Wen Yuan-ning told of the British War effort at a tea party given by the People's Political Council in their honour.

Admiral Lord Mountbatten, Supreme Commander of Southeast Asia, conferred with Lieut.-Gen. Sun Li-jen, Commander of the Chinese 38th Division.

U.S. reparations for the bombing of Schaffhausen, Switzerland were paid.

April 13.—Mr. Cordell Hull, U.S. Secretary of State, denounced Spanish broadcast urging Britain and the United States to join with Hitler against Russia.

The U.S. House Appropriations Committee approved a record U.S.\$32,647,000,000 naval appropriation bill.

The Teh-keh, Living Buddha of Sikang, arrived at Chungking from Chengtu for a visit.

April 14.—China and Canada signed a treaty of amity in Ottawa for the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China.

The U.S. Foreign Affairs Committee authorized U.S. participation in the world organization for greater food production.

April 15.—Members of the Tripartite Pact met in Tokyo.

April 17.—Admiral Lord Mountbatten, Supreme Commander of Southeast Asia, transferred his headquarters from New Delhi to Kandy in Ceylon.

The British Foreign Office announced that from midnight, foreign diplomats and couriers excluding those of the United States, Russia and the British Dominions (Eire excepted) were banned from leaving Britain and their official bags were subjected to inspection.

April 18.—Mackenzie King, Prime Minister of Canada, in the House of Commons disclosed that the draft of a new immigration treaty had been submitted to China.

Members of the Chinese Mission to Britain stressed the necessity of promoting closer political, economic and cultural relations between China and Great Britain at a reception given by 15 local cultural organizations.

Mr. Edward Stettinius, U.S. Under-Secretary of State, called on Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to Britain, in London.

The Japanese opened their major offensive in Honan.

April 19.—Finland rejected Russia's peace proposals.

The Chang Chia Hu-Tu-Ke-Tu, Living Buddha of Mongolia and state counsellor, arrived at Chungking from Chinghai in the company of the Chao Chuan Hu-Ta-Ke-Tu.

The Indian Agricultural Mission to China arrived at Chungking.

April 20.—The U.S. House of Representatives approved extension of the Lend-Lease Bill for another year after June 30.

Major-General Hoyt Vandenberg was named Deputy Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Air Force.

The Anglo-American preliminary conference on post-war petroleum policies opened in Washington.

April 21. — The International Labor Conference opened in Philadelphia with over 400 delegates, advisers and experts from 45 countries in attendance.

The Benes Government reached an agreement with the Soviet Union for the restoration of pre-war Czechoslovakia.

April 23. — The International Labor Office Governing Body elected China to the permanent seat left vacant by Japan's withdrawal.

A joint statement of the United and Associated Nations on the establishment of an International Monetary Fund was made public simultaneously in Chungking, London and Washington.

Hitler met Mussolini.

April 24.—Kim Koo was re-elected President of the Korea Provisional Government.

Lieutenant-General George S. Patton, Jr., was assigned to the European Theater.

April 25.—Britain declared a suspension of travel overseas.

The largest U.S. Naval appropriation bill to date, amounting to U.S.\$32,600,000,000, was passed by the Senate.

Madang, a former Japanese stronghold on the coast of New Guinea, was captured by Australian troops.

President and Madame Chiang entertained Major General Victor Odlum, Canadian Ambassador, at dinner.

April 28.—Colonel Frank Knox, American Secretary of the Navy, died.

Admiral Chester W. Nimitz, Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific, conferred with General Douglas MacArthur regarding future land and sea operations in the Pacific.

The Rehabilitation and Relief Investigation and Planning Committee was established, with Dr. T. F. Tsiang, China's delegate to the U.N.R.R.A. Conference, and Y. C. Koo, Vice-Minister of Finance, as its Chairman and Vice-Chairman respectively.

Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Chinese Ambassador to the United States arrived at Washington from Chungking.

April 30.—The Japanese opened a new offensive in Anhwei.

May 1.—The British Imperial Conference opened in London.

General Pechoff, in his capacity as delegate of the French National

Liberation Committee to China, presented General de Gaulle's letter to President Chiang Kai-shek.

May 2.—Two agreements were signed between China and Britain concerning a loan of £50,000,000 to China by Britain and provision of Lend-Lease supplies.

Joseph C. Grew, former U.S. Ambassador to Japan, was appointed Director of the U.S. State Department's Office of Far Eastern Affairs.

The United States and Britain reached an agreement with Spain to close the German consulate and other Axis agencies in Tangier.

May 3.—Dr. Wang Chung-hui, Secretary-General of the Supreme National Defence Council, was recommended to honorary membership in the American Society of International Law.

The Prime Ministers of the British Commonwealth reached an agreement on military affairs.

May 5.—China concluded a Treaty of Amity with Costa Rica.

The third annual conference of Chinese Educational and Academic Organizations opened at the National Central Library in Chungking.

Mr. H. C. Liang, Minister of Information, sent a congratulatory message to the Korean Provisional Government on its successful reorganization by the 36th session of the Korean Provisional Council.

May 6.—Gandhi was released unconditionally by the Indian Government on medical grounds.

President Roosevelt asked Congress to appropriate U.S.\$3,450,000,000 for Lend-Lease during the year ending June 30, 1945.

Sir S. Radhakrishnan, Vice-President of the Benares Hindu University, arrived in Chungking at the invitation of the Chinese Government.

President Roosevelt returned to the White House after a month's vacation.

May 7.—Admirals King, Nimitz, and Halsey held a council of war at San Francisco.

May 8.—Soviet Russia and Costa Rica agreed to establish diplomatic relations.

The U.S. Senate voted to extend the Lend-Lease program to June 30, 1945.

President Chiang congratulated Teodore Picado Michalski on his assumption of office as President of the Republic of Costa Rica.

General Ho Ying-chin, General Shang Chen, Lieutenant-General, Yu Ta-wei, Vice-Admiral Yang Hsuan-cheng, and Major-General Chow Chih-jou of the Air Force received the British decorations presented by the British Ambassador, Sir Horace Seymour.

Czechoslovakia and the U.S.S.R. signed a new agreement for the administration of Czechoslovakia after Soviet troops entered the country.

General Shunroku Hata, Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Forces in China, arrived in central Honan from Nanking to direct operations.

May 9.—Dr. Chen Li-fu, Dr. Y. H. Ku and C. T. Yu, Minister and Vice-Ministers of Education, gave a banquet in honor of Sir S. Radhakrishnan, noted Indian philosopher.

The U.S. Democratic Party began a campaign to re-elect President Roosevelt for a 4th term.

The Chinese Military Mission to the United States, headed by General Shang Chen, left Chungking for India en route to America.

The International Labor Office's Philadelphia Declaration, aimed at maintaining full employment and raising standards of living throughout the world, was presented in its final form to delegates attending the conference.

May 10.—The delegates to the International Labor Conference adopted the Philadelphia charter of rights for full employment and better living conditions for all peoples everywhere.

Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Chinese Ambassador to the United States, delivered in person a message from President Chiang Kai-shek to President Roosevelt.

James V. Forrestal was nominated U.S. Navy Secretary by President Roosevelt.

The Chinese struck across the Salween River in the first major offensive in seven years.

May 11.—Soviet generals were decorated by King George VI of Britain.

Germany declared that Turkey's suspension of chrome exports to Germany was violating the treaties between the two countries.

Eamonn de Valera, Prime Minister of Eire, resigned with his cabinet.

May 12.—The American Alumni Council presented its first award of merit to Madame Chiang Kai-shek.

The United States, Britain and Russia warned Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria and Finland to withdraw from the war.

The U.S. House of Representatives approved the Senate's resolution for extending the Lend-Lease Bill for another year.

The Japanese won control of the entire length of the Peiping-Hankow Railway.

May 13.—The U.S. Office of War Information reported that casualties of the U.S. Armed Forces since the outbreak of the War totalled 201,454.

May 15.—The U.S. Senate Navy Affairs Committee approved James V. Forrestal's nomination as Navy Secretary.

Mr. A. S. Paniushkiu, the Soviet Ambassador to China, left Chungking for Russia to regain his health.

The new officials of the Korean Provisional Government were installed into office.

T. A. Crerar, Canadian Acting Secretary of State for Internal Affairs, tabled in the House of Commons an order-in-Council admitting Chinese on tour and in transit.

May 16.—The United States and the United Kingdom concluded an agreement with the Netherlands and Belgian governments concerning arrangements for the civil administration of occupied territory after its liberation by the Allied Expeditionary Force.

A United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization was established in London.

Chinese Ambassador Dr. Wei Tao-ming conferred with Under-Secretary of State Stettinius.

The Turkish Government began to arrest the Fascist ringleaders.

May 17.—President Roosevelt endorsed the International Labor Organization's Post-War Declaration.

Representatives of 41 countries attending the International Labor organization's conference called on President Roosevelt at the White House.

The Chinese and Foreign press party to the Northwest arrived at Sian, Shensi.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, member of the Presidium of the People's Political Council and General Chang Chih-chung, Director of the Board of Military Training of the National Military Council, returned to Chungking from Sian.

The Chinese Military Mission, headed by General Shang Chen, arrived in Washington.

May 18.—Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary, declared in the House of Commons that Spain had ordered German and Japanese agents to leave Tangier.

Chinese-American Forces captured the airdrome of Myitkyina.

Vice-President Henry Wallace conferred with President Roosevelt about his China trip.

May 19.—President Chiang granted an audience to Mr. Lin Tzu-han, representative of the Communist Party.

The Chinese Art Exhibition held at the Royal Gallery of Edinburgh was opened by Chinese Ambassador Dr. Wellington Koo.

May 20.—U.S. Vice-President Henry Wallace left Washington for China. Eugene Chen, former Chinese Minister, died in Shanghai.

Whitey Willauer was appointed Chief of the China Division of the U.S. Foreign Economic Administration.

The 12th Plenary Session of the 5th Central Executive Committee

of the Kuomintang, presided over by Director-General Chiang Kai-shek, was opened. In his opening address, President Chiang urged his party comrades to redouble their effort to win the war and to find out the causes of failure and success in military, political, and economic affairs.

May 21.—General Li Chia Yu, Commander-in-Chief of the 36th Group Army, died in action.

May 22.—General Shang Chen, Head of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States, was honored by General George Marshall, Chief of Staff, at dinner. He also called on War Secretary Henry Stimson and Admiral Ernest J. King.

President Roosevelt, in reporting to Congress on Lend-Lease operations, said that Lend-Lease supplies would pour into China and that the battle against Japan would be fought before the end of the war against Germany.

U. S. and Chinese representatives held an exploratory conference on post-war issues.

May 23.—Chinese Ambassador to Canada, Dr. Liu Shih-shun, conferred with Prime Minister of Canada, Mackenzie King.

May 24.—The first Brazilian Ambassador to China, Joaquim Eulalio de Nascimantoe Silva, arrived in Chungking.

General Shang Chen urged more concerted action between the United States and China at his first press conference in Washington.

Lieutenant - General Joseph Stilwell presented Major-General Liao Yao-hsiang, Commander of

the crack 22nd Division, two victory banners for his successes in Jambu, Bum and Wakawng.

May 25.—A Soviet delegation arrived in Washington to discuss post-war international aviation with a U.S. Government group headed by Joseph Gr w.

Dr. Monlin Chiang, President of the National Red Cross Society of China, said that about 10,000,000 soldiers and civilians had been given medical treatment by the Medical Service Corps of the Society.

British Foreign Secretary Eden, in pledging more aid of China, said China's territory should be restored.

The U.S. Senate approved of legislation authorizing the Navy Department to spend U.S.\$ 180,000,000 to acquire 1,000,000 tons of landing aircraft and 120 tons of harbor vessels for future war operations.

May 26.—The 12th Plenary Session of the 5th Central Executive Committee of the Kuo-mintang closed.

May 29.—The National Administrative Conference opened.

The first Turkish Ambassador to China, Hulusi Foat Tugay, arrived in Chungking.

The Japanese launched a new offensive in Hunan.

May 30.—Cordell Hull, U.S. Secretary of State, conferred with the British, Chinese and Russian Ambassadors on a world peace organization.

The Sino-Afghan Amity Pact was approved by the Legislative Yuan.

President Roosevelt explained to the press the current planning for an international peace and security organization.

May 31.—Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Chinese Ambassador to the United States and General Shang Chen, Head of the Chinese Military Mission to Washington, called on President Roosevelt.

June 1.—The National Administrative Conference came to an end.

In a message to the nation on the eve of Opium Suppression Day, President Chiang Kai-shek reiterated the determination of the Chinese Government to stamp out the opium evil.

The U. S. Secretary of War, Colonel Henry Stimson, declared that the United States had 3,657,000 soldiers in all theaters of war.

Cordell Hull conferred with the Russian Ambassador, the Chinese delegate to the Monetary Conference, and the representative of the French Committee of National Liberation.

June 3. — American Governors from 48 States of the Union, mapped out a comprehensive post-war program at their 36th Annual Conference.

The first annual conference of the Chinese Electrical Engineers' Society in the Chungking District opened.

June 4.—The Allies liberated Rome.

The District Administration Conference was held in Chungking.

Brigadier General Don H. D. Wilson was named U. S. Deputy Chief of Staff.

June 5.—The Executive Yuan allotted the sum of \$10,444,000 national currency for relief.

Polish Prime Minister Stanislaw arrived at Washington for conference with American leaders on Polish and general European questions.

June 6.—The Allies landed on the Normandy coast of France.

President Roosevelt summoned General Marshall, Admiral King and General Henry H. Arnold to the White House for an invasion conference.

Dr. Chien Tai was appointed China's delegate with ambassadorial rank to the French National Liberation Committee at Algiers.

Italian King Victor Emmanuel signed over all his powers to Prince Umberto as Lieutenant-General of the Realm.

June 7.—General Dwight D. Eisenhower cruised the invasion beaches and held a series of conferences with operation commanders.

The U. S. House Appropriations Committee voted US\$49,109,000,000 year beginning on July 1.

The S.S. Chung Tung, a Liberty ship built for the Chinese Government, was launched, at Baltimore, Maryland.

June 8.—Marshal Badoglio arrived in Rome.

Generalissimo Chiang ordered the defenders of Changsha, to stick to their posts and do their utmost to achieve victory.

General Douglas Montgomery went to France to assume command.

June 9.—Ivanoe Bonomi, President of the Rome Committee of National Liberation, succeeded Marshal Badoglio as Premier.

The Chinese and Foreign Press Party to the Northwest arrived in Yen-an.

Premier Hideki Tojo sent a "message of encouragement" to Adolph Hitler, on the occasion of the Allied invasion of France.

June 10. — Representatives of the United and Associated Nations, attending the international educational assembly, adopted a proposal to reconstruct devastated schools and stamp out illiteracy in China and Europe after the War.

General Chu Teh, Commander-in-Chief of the 18th Group Army, gave a dinner party in honor of the Chinese and Foreign Press Party to the Northwest.

June 11.—Chang Kai-ngau, head of the Chinese delegation to discuss aviation with American officials, told a press conference that China favored in principle an international agreement which would assure the proper development of international aviation.

June 12.—Joaquim Eulalio de Nascimentoe Silva, the first Brazilian Ambassador to China, and Hulusi Foat Tugay, the first Turkish Ambassador to China, presented their letters of credence to President Chiang Kai-shek.

June 13.—The Governments of Belgium, Luxembourg and Czechoslovakia recognized General de Gaulle's committee as the provisional government of France.

Winston Churchill, accompanied by General Jan. Smuts, South

African Premier and Chief of the Imperial General Staff, General Sir Alan Brooke, visited the Allied beachhead in France.

Ratification instruments of the Sino-Norwegian Treaty were exchanged.

The Germans launched the first flying bomb against Britain.

China was informed of the formation of a French provisional government.

The British High Command said that Japanese troops were fighting alongside their Axis partners in France. (The Japanese were among prisoners taken in battle.)

In his first radio address since the beginning of the European invasion, President Roosevelt declared that the landing in France would speed the downfall of Japan.

June 14. — Madame Chiang stressed freedom of the spirit in a message broadcast to the United States on United Nations Day.

General de Gaulle arrived in Normandy.

June 15.—B-29 Superfortresses made their first direct attack on Japan proper from China bases.

Americans landed on Saipan, in the Marianas.

The formation of the 20th USAAF was announced by the U. S. War Department.

President Roosevelt outlined plans for an international organization.

June 16.—The Chinese captured Kamaing, one of the three major Japanese bases in North Burma.

Dr. H. H. Kung was appointed China's delegate to the International Monetary Conference.

June 18.—The Allied Advisory Council in Italy, comprising the United States, Britain, Russia, France, Greece and Yugoslavia expressed approval of the Bonomi government.

Chinese forces withdrew from Changsha.

U.S. Vice - President Henry Agard Wallace arrived in Tihua, capital of Sinkiang.

June 19.—Chen Kuo-fu, newly appointed Minister of Organization of the Kuomintang, assumed office.

The U. S. House of Representatives passed and sent a Bill to the White House to promote Philippine independence.

The major battle in the Philippines began.

June 20. — Vice-President Wallace arrived in Chungking and President Chiang met him at the aerodrome.

June 21.—President and Madame Chiang gave a state banquet in honor of Vice-President Wallace.

Wallace visited the Cooperative Units at Kaotanyen and the Nankai Middle School, the National Chungking University and National Central University at Shapingpa.

June 22. — Dr. T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs, gave a dinner party in honor of Mr. Wallace.

Admiral Shen Hung-lieh, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, presented several gifts to Mr. Wallace.

The U. S. Navy defeated the Japanese fleet off the Philippines.

June 23.—The Russians launched great summer offensive in White Russia to take Minsk.

Dr. H. H. Kung and his party arrived in Washington.

June 24.—Dr. H. H. Kung called on U. S. Secretary of State Cordell Hull to discuss subjects of mutual interest and conveyed greetings from President Chiang.

A joint statement on results of the talks between Vice-President Wallace and President Chiang was issued.

June 26.—The Szechuen-Sikang Economic Reconstruction Service Society was inaugurated.

The 23rd Republican National Convention of the United States opened in Chicago, Illinois.

The creation of a new air command, the Far Eastern Air Force, with Lt. General George C. Kenney as commander, was revealed.

June 27. — American troops captured Cherbourg, strategic port in France.

Mr. Chang Li-sheng, Secretary General of the Executive Yuan, appointed concurrently Secretary of the National General Mobilization Council.

Chinese and British-Indian forces captured Mogaung, North Burma.

Mr. Lai Lien was appointed Administrative Vice-Minister of Education.

Dr. H. H. Kung, China's chief delegate to the United Nations Monetary Conference, conveyed greetings to President Roosevelt from President Chiang.

U. S. Republicans adopted the 1944 presidential platform calling for the use of international peace forces to prevent future war.

Vice-President Wallace left Kunming for Chengtu after his three-day visit.

June 28.—Dr. Kung and Ambassador Wei conferred with President Roosevelt.

June 30.—The United States severed relations with Finland.

July 1.—The United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference opened at New Hampshire.

The Japanese launched an offensive northward from Canton.

Allied Victory Bonds of the 33rd year of the Chinese Republic were issued.

July 2.—Vice-President Wallace left China for America after his 14-day visit.

Norman Davis, Chairman of the American Red Cross, died.

July 3.—Seven Chinese delegates to the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference were elected to work on the stabilization fund, World Bank plans and other means of international financial cooperation.

July 4.—The Red Army captured Minsk, Hitler's last major base in Soviet territory.

Chen Chieh and Cheng Tieh-Ku were appointed respectively Ambassador to Mexico and Brazil.

July 5.—Dr. H. H. Kung, Chairman of the Chinese delegation to the U.N.M.F.C., in his press statement, said that China would welcome foreign capital for the development of her resources.

July 6.—General Shang Chen, Head of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States, confirmed the Japanese gas offensive.

Field Marshal Von Kluge took over the supreme command in the

West from Field Marshal Von Rundstedt.

July 7.—President Chiang Kai-shek, in his message to the Nation on the Seventh Anniversary of the War, stated that victory was certain and urged the people to strive to overcome difficulties.

July 8.—President Roosevelt and General de Gaulle concluded their talks.

July 9.—U.S. troops completely captured Saipan.

Vice-President Wallace reported on his tour to China and the Soviet Union to the people of the United States.

The U.N.M.F.C. reached an agreement on the international monetary fund.

July 10.—Rear Admiral Frank D. Wagner was named Southwest Pacific Air Commander.

Vice-President Wallace conferred with President Roosevelt on his trip to China.

General Shang Chen, head of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States, was honored by Edward Stettinius, Under-Secretary of the Treasury at a reception.

Dr. Kung returned to Washington from Bretton Woods for further conference with President Roosevelt.

July 11.—The Japanese Government announced the evacuation of big cities.

Chang Chung-fu was appointed Director of the American Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Mr. Pan Kung-chan was appointed Chairman of the Committee for the Censorship of Magazines and Publications.

General de Gaulle's French Committee of National Liberation was recognized by the United States.

Relations between the Soviet Union and Denmark reestablished.

Dr. H. H. Kung conferred with with President Roosevelt.

July 12.—U.S. Secretary of State Cordell Hull recognized Denmark as an unofficial member of the United Nations.

Dr. Kung transmitted a telegram to President Roosevelt from President Chiang.

The Russians opened an offensive on the Second Baltic Front.

July 13.—Dr. Kung called on Leo T. Crowley, U.S. Foreign Economic Administrator and William Clayton, Assistant Secretary of Commerce.

July 15.—The United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference released the quota table of the International Monetary Fund totaling \$8,800,000,000.

Japan announced that Allied airmen captured in Japan would be executed.

A big aeroplane engine repair shop was opened in the China, Burma and India Theater of War.

The National Government promulgated the Habeas Corpus Act.

July 16.—U.S. Foreign Economic Administrator Leo T. Crowley declared that Lend-Lease supplies to the China-Burma-India Theater from the beginning of War to May 1, 1944 totaled \$1,400,000,000.

July 17.—Admiral Naokuni Nomura succeeded Admiral Shimada as Japanese Navy Minister.

July 18.—Major General Thomas G. Hearn, Chief of Staff of the China-Burma-India Theater of Operations, returned to duty in China.

Lieutenant-Generals Wang Tung-yuan and Liu Mcu-en were appointed respectively Governor of Hupeh and Honan.

General Yoshijiro Umetzu succeeded Premier Hideki Tojo as Chief of the Japanese General Staff.

Premier Tojo's Cabinet resigned en bloc.

July 19.—The U.S. Democratic National Convention opened in Chicago.

China was named one of the twelve executive directors of the World Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

July 20.—An attempt was made on Hitler's life with explosives.

German Generals revolted to get the Reich out of the war.

President Roosevelt was re-nominated by a majority as a candidate for the next presidency.

The U.S. Democratic Convention adopted a platform pledging the United States to join with other United Nations in forming an international organization.

U.S. troops landed on Guam Island.

General Kuniaki Koiso, Governor General of Korea, and Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, former Japanese Premier, were instructed to form a new cabinet jointly.

July 22.—The new Japanese Cabinet held its first meeting. General Koiso, new Japanese Premier, urged national unity to overcome the crisis.

The United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference was concluded. A final draft of the International Bank was adopted.

July 23.—The U.S. Democratic Convention closed, with Roosevelt and Truman nominated respectively as presidential and vice-presidential candidates.

The Russians captured Pskov, the last Russian town in German hands.

The Polish Committee of National Liberation was formed.

July 24.—Leaders of the Philippines and the United States held a formal meeting to advocate early Philippine independence.

General Noboyuki Abe was appointed Governor-General of Korea.

The Polish Embassy in Chungking denounced the Polish Committee of National Liberation.

The Russians captured Lublin, King George VI of Britain arrived in Italy.

July 25.—The Argentine Government recalled its Ambassador in Washington.

Hitler ordered the mobilization of occupied Europe.

July 26.—Chinese troops recaptured Leiyang, Hunan.

The United States accused Argentina of giving aid to the Axis.

President Roosevelt arrived at Pearl Harbor. The Hawaii Military Conference began.

July 27.—The Russians crossed the Vistula River.

The Generalissimo praised the defenders of Hengyang.

July 28.—The Sino-Canadian Amity Treaty was ratified by the Legislative Yuan.

July 29.—The Russians crossed the Carpathian passes into the Czechoslovakian-Hungarian frontiers.

B-29's raided the Mukden area in Manchuria in their first daylight raid.

M. A. Jinnah, President of the Moslem League, accepted a proposal to meet Gandhi.

August 1.—The Habeas Corpus Act came into force.

President Manuel Quezon of the Philippines died and Sergio Osmena was sworn in as the new president.

China and Mexico concluded a Treaty of Amity.

Admiral Sir Bruce A. Fraser was appointed Commander of the British Eastern Fleet.

Lieutenant-General Joseph W. Stilwell was made a full general.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek dispatched comfort bags to the defenders of Hengyang.

August 2.—Chinese - American forces captured Myitkyina.

Turkey broke off relations with Germany.

The India-China parcel post service was resumed.

August 3.—Dr. Victor Hoo, Administrative Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs, was appointed China's delegate to the conference on post-war peace organization.

Admiral Shimada, Japanese Naval Chief of Staff, was dismissed.

President Camacho of Mexico decorated Mr. Cheng Tien-ku, Chinese Ambassador to Mexico.

Marshall Stalin met the Polish Prime Minister, Mr. Mikolajczyk.

August 6.—Acting Air Vice Marshal Alexander Gray, was appointed Deputy Air Commander of the R.A.F. Component Eastern Air Command, and Air Commodore John Melbourne Mason, Air Officer-in-Charge of Administration of an R.A.F. Group.

August 7.—U.S. Forces began the battle for Paris.

General Fang Hsieh-chueh, 10th Army Commander, in a message to Generalissimo Chiang, expressed his determination to defend Hengyang to the last man.

August 8.—Dr. Y. H. Ku was appointed President of the National Central University. Mr. Chu Ching-nung succeeded him as Political Vice Minister of Education.

The Chinese - Latin - American Cultural Institute was inaugurated.

The United States and the United Kingdom signed an agreement of petroleum.

Hengyang fell to the Japanese after a 47-day siege.

August 9.—Hitler lost the battle of the Atlantic.

It was announced that General Dwight D. Eisenhower's headquarters had moved from Britain to France.

U.S. Forces captured Guam.

August 10.—The Philippines was bombed for the first time since 1942.

The production of Superfortresses was given priority by the U.S. War Department.

August 11.—Vice Admiral Richmond K. Turner established the headquarters of the Pacific Fleet and Amphibious Force in Saipan.

August 12.—The British delegation to the post-war world security conference arrived in Washington.

Winston Churchill conferred with the Yugoslav Prime Minister and Marshal Tito.

President Roosevelt, in a speech during a Pacific tour, proposed a post-war quarantine of Japan until she cooperates in maintaining permanent peace.

August 14.—It was announced that Major-General Curtis E. Lemay, was in charge of the operations of Superfortresses in blasting Japan and bases in the Far East.

Dr. Wei Tao-ming, Chinese Ambassador to the United States, General Shang Chen, Head of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States and Dr. H. H. Kung, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, paid a courtesy call on Cordell Hull.

New Trade Mark Regulations for Foreign Merchants were promulgated.

August 15.—Allies landed in southern France.

The Russians crossed the Biezena river—the last natural obstacle before the East Prussian frontier.

A program for the reconstruction of Szechuan Province was outlined.

Mahatma Gandhi's proposal for the establishment of an Indian National Government responsible to a Central Assembly was rejected by Viceroy Wavell.

The Arab Lawyers' Conference was held in Syria.

August 18.—Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to Britain, was appointed Chief delegate to the

International Security Organization Conference.

The Allies scored a great victory in Normandy.

August 19.—President Roosevelt announced that Donald Nelson and Major General Patrick Hurley were leaving soon for China as his personal representatives to Generalissimo Chiang.

August 21.—The first session of the World Security Conference opened at Dumbarton Oaks. The United States, Britain and Russia attended.

August 22.—General Koenig, Commander of the French Forces of the Interior, was appointed by General de Gaulle as Military Governor of Paris.

The Americans crossed the Seine River.

Admiral Sir Bruce Frazer arrived in Ceylon to take up his new post as commander-in-chief of the Eastern Fleet.

August 23.—Paris was liberated. Marseilles was recaptured by French Forces.

August 24.—Rumania signed an armistice and declared war on Germany.

Dr. H. H. Kung, in a speech to the U.S. Senate, asserted China's willingness to support the security conference.

Donald Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board, paid his farewell call on President Roosevelt before starting for China.

August 25.—Dr. Kung delivered a message from President Chiang to President Roosevelt.

August 26.—Bulgaria declared neutrality between Germany and Russia.

August 27.—General Pechkoff, delegate of the French Committee of National Liberation, in a statement in Paris, said that France would fight for the freedom of the Far East.

King Peter of Yugoslav abolished the Royal Yugoslav Army.

August 28.—The German Ambassador in Tokyo, Heinrich Stahmer, conferred with Japan's Foreign Minister, Mamoru Shigemitsu.

Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, head of the Chinese delegation to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, arrived in Washington.

August 29.—General Sheng Shih-tsai, Governor of Sinkiang Province, was appointed Minister of Agriculture and Forestry.

General Wu Chung-hsin succeeded General Sheng as Governor of Sinkiang Province.

August 30.—General Chu Shao-liang, War Zone Commander, left Lanchow for Tihwa to serve as acting Governor of Sinkiang pending the arrival of General Wu Chung-hsin in that province.

Dr. Santiago Bedoya, Peruvian Minister to China, arrived in Chungking.

Chinese delegates to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference paid a visit to U.S. Secretary of State Cordell Hull.

August 31.—General Exerbach, Commander of the German Seventh Army, was captured.

The Russians entered Bucharest, capital of Rumania.

September 1.—Mr. Hsu Ssu-ping, new Director of Military Service, assumed office.

The Chungking Army Hospital treated its first patients.

Seven Japanese divisions launched a major offensive along an 80-mile front from Hengyang toward Kweilin.

September 2.—Finland broke relations with Nazi Germany.

Russian troops reached the border of Bulgaria as mapped out in 1940.

September 4. — Brussels was liberated.

September 5.—The Third Plenary Session of the Third People's Political Council opened. President Chiang gave an address at the opening ceremony, stressing the importance of national unity.

Chiyang in Hunan fell to the Japanese.

Russia declared war on Bulgaria.

Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg formed a new Customs Union.

September 6.—President Roosevelt's personal emissaries, Donald Nelson, Chairman of The War Production Board, and Patrick Hurley arrived in Chungking via Moscow and India. They were accompanied by General Joseph Stilwell.

General George Patton's Third Army opened a powerful offensive on the Siegfried Line.

U. S. War Department announced a plan for demobilization after the war.

Yungfeng in Hunan fell to the Japanese.

Russian troops entered Bulgaria and reached the Yugoslav frontier.

September 7. — Donald Nelson, and Major-General Hurley declared, "The major purpose of our

visit to China is to find out how we can lick the Japanese at the earliest possible date."

U. S. Forces crossed the Moselle.

The Allies launched an all-out attack in Yugoslavia.

The Nicaraguan Congress passed a law permitting the entry of Chinese into Nicaragua.

Yungkia in Chekiang fell to the Japanese.

General Wang Cha-pen, an army commander, was killed in action in Lingling.

September 8.—Major General Hurley and Nelson conferred with Chinese leaders.

Lingling in southern Hunan was taken by the Japanese.

September 9.—Sweden suspended transit traffic for Germans.

Major General Hurley and Nelson were honored by President Chiang at a dinner party.

General Stilwell's Chinese-American forces and Chinese units in the Salween area made their first juncture between Myitkyina and Tengchung.

September 10.—Mahatma Gandhi conferred with M. A. Jinnah, President of the Moslem League.

September 11.—Luxembourg was liberated.

The French Government formed a new cabinet with General de Gaulle as its president.

U. S. Secretary of the Navy James V. Forrestal disclosed that the Navy planned to induct 600,000 men by next July to bring its strength to 3,389,000 for greater blows against Japan.

The Quebec conference began.

General John Hodge's First Army crossed the German border.

Allies fought for the first time on German soil.

The United States invited the United Nations to an international aviation conference beginning November 1.

September 12.—Mr. Lo Liang chien was appointed Acting Chairman of the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission.

Major General Hurley conferred with General Joseph W. Stilwell and his staff.

Dr. Wunsz King, Ambassador to Poland and the Netherlands, was appointed concurrently as Ambassador to Norway, Belgium and Czechoslovakia.

It was announced that world security plans of the Big Four were alike in vital respects.

U. S. troops cracked the outer wall of the Siegfried Line.

September 13.—The United Nations signed an armistice with Rumania.

General Sheng Shih-tsai, newly appointed Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, arrived in Chungking.

The administrative policy for the year 1945 was outlined at a session of the People's Political Council.

September 14.—The Chinese recaptured Tengchung in Yunnan, the first large city to be liberated in seven years of war.

September 15.—A new gold deposit system was inaugurated.

The Third people's Political Council urged recognition of the Korean Government.

The Third people's Political Council sent an investigating committee to Yen-an, capital of the Chinese Communists in north Shensi.

Negotiations on the Chinese Communist issue were given an open hearing by the Third People's Political Council. No agreement was reached.

September 16.—Allied forces broke through the Siegfried Line.

Russian troops entered Sofia, capital of Bulgaria.

President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill promised destruction of Japan at the Quebec Conference.

President Chiang reported on military, foreign, political and economic affairs before the People's Political Council.

A Kuomintang-Communist parley was recorded in official documents.

September 17. — The People's Political Council resolved to support the policies of the Central Government outlined by President Chiang.

Allied paratroops landed in Holland.

Eric A. Johnston, President of the United States, Chamber of Commerce, said that 40 nations had been invited to the International Business Conference.

September 18.—Dr. McConaughy, President of the United China Relief, was received by President Chiang.

General Sheng Shih-tsai assumed his new post of Minister of Agriculture and Forestry.

The strengthening of Sino-Soviet relations was urged by the People's Political Council.

The PPC concluded its two-week session. Important resolutions were passed.

Director-General Herbert Lehman announced that UNRRA would open offices in Chungking.

The Resident Committee of the People's Political Council was elected.

The National Child Welfare Conference began.

The creation of the Allied Military Government in Germany to wipe out Nazism was announced by General Eisenhower.

The Manipur River in Burma was crossed by the 5th Indian Division.

The Chinese recaptured Sunhing in Kwantung.

September 19.—The Russians launched the great Baltic offensive. Finland signed an armistice with Britain and Russia.

General Stilwell presented the victory banner to the 38th Chinese Division for its successful prosecution of the War against the enemy in the Mogaung area.

September 20.—Soviet forces entered Finland.

The National Government issued a mandate of commendation to the Labrang Monastery for its contributions to the airplane fund.

The Russians started a new offensive in Estonia.

It was announced that the Big Four had agreed on the setting up of a World Council.

Wuchow, on the Kwangtung-Kwangsi border, was captured by the Japanese.

Hitler took over direct command of the battle of Germany from northern Holland to the edge of the Saar valley.

September 21.—It was announced that Hitler had convoked an emergency war council. Rundstedt and other Marshals and Generals attended.

President Roosevelt returned to Washington from the Quebec meeting.

The U.S. Congress adopted a resolution for free interchange of news.

September 23.—The Japanese evacuated Pingka in Yunnan.

Mr. Lai Lien, Vice-Minister of Education, broadcast to all countries that the keynote of China's educational policy should be education for democracy.

President Roosevelt opened the election campaign.

September 24.—Donald Nelson returned to Washington, carrying with him plans for increasing China's war contribution.

September 25.—The Red Army completed the liberation of Estonia.

The China Aircraft Corporation in the United States began operating.

The Supreme National Defense Council decided to establish a Ministry of Conscription.

An operating budget amounting to a milliard was submitted to UNRRA by Director-General Robert Lehman.

Prime Minister and Mrs. Winston Churchill returned to England from the Quebec Conference.

The U.S. State Department announced that Axis organs would be punished after the fall of Germany.

September 26.—The formation of a new Belgian Cabinet was announced.

A total reorganization of the Sinkiang Provincial Government was announced.

General Eisenhower called the underground in the Reich to take immediate action.

Chang Tung-chuen was appointed the new military spokesman.

Chang Kwang-yu and Wu Pao-feng were appointed respectively President of Honan University and University of Communications.

The Chinese recaptured Jungyun in northern Kwangtung.

September 27.—The French gunboat, *Balny*, was presented to the Chinese Government by the French National Liberation Committee.

The first Canadian troops arrived in Australia.

The Allies landed in Albania.

In their attempt to invade India, it was announced that 50,000 Japanese were killed, and probably another 50,000 died from illness.

Donald Nelson reported to President Roosevelt on his mission to China.

Moscow and London were brought together by direct radio-telephone for the first time.

Talks between Gandhi and Jinnah ended in failure.

September 28.—The U.S. State Department announced that after October 1, American ships would be prohibited from stopping at Argentine ports.

U. S. Lend Lease supplies were announced as amounting to \$28,000,000,000.

Winston Churchill, in reviewing the military and international situation in the House of Commons, said, "In spite of the lavish American help afforded to China, that country has suffered severe military reverses."

September 29.—The second session of the Dumbarton Oaks Conference began. China, Britain, and The United States attended.

A communique was issued on results of the First Phase of the Dumbarton Oaks Conference. No agreement on plans for a new league was reached.

September 30.—Nelson resigned from the Chairmanship of the U. S. War Production Board.

The U. S. proposed Aviation Conference Agenda was released.

Ratification instruments of the Chinese-Afghan Treaty of Amity were exchanged at Ankara.

October 1.—General Wu Chung-hsin, newly appointed Chairman of the Sinkiang Government, left Chungking for Sinkiang.

Changning in Hunan fell to the Japanese.

October 2.—It was announced that Americans had given \$175,000,000 for relief in 20 countries.

Lieutenant General Komorowski's forces ceased resistance against Germany in Warsaw.

October 3.—Vice-Admiral R. F. Edwards was appointed Deputy Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Fleet.

President Roosevelt, replying to a Chinese spokesman on the meagre U.S. aid, said that he felt dissatisfied with the present tonnage.

October 4.—General Wu Chung-hsin, new Sinkiang Governor, arrived in Tihwa.

Dr. Santiago Bedoya, the First Peruvian Ambassador to China, and S. Ali Nassr, the first Iranian Minister to China, presented their letters of credence to President Chiang Kai-shek. The Order of Pahlavi from the Iranian Emperor was also presented.

Dr. Wellington Koo, Ambassador Wei Tao-ming, General Shang Chen, and Dr. Victor Hoo called on President Roosevelt.

President Roosevelt promised assistance in the rebuilding of Italy.

October 5.—General Wu Chung-hsin, new Chairman of the Sinkiang Government, in his address to his staff members, urged the strengthening of Sino-Soviet friendship.

K. P. Chen, Lu Tso-fu and Fan Shu-tung, China's delegates to the International Business Conference, left Chungking for the United States.

The Japanese landed on the Fukien coast and took Foochow.

The Allies landed in Greece.

October 6.—The Russians entered Hungary.

Wendell Willkie died in New York of a heart attack.

October 7.—The second phase of the Dumbarton Oaks Conference was concluded. A satisfactory conclusion was reached.

October 8.—A plan for the new League of Nations was drafted.

Militia Headquarters were established in Kwangsi with General Chang Fa-kwei and Governor Huang Shu-chu as director and deputy director respectively.

October 9.—A report on results of the Dumbarton Oaks Conference was published. The creation of a General Assembly, Security Council and International Court of Justice was proposed.

Dr. Wang Chung-hui was appointed China's delegate to the Far Eastern and Pacific Branch of the United Nations War Crimes Commission.

The National Defense Sciences Exhibition opened.

Churchill and Eden arrived in Moscow to confer with Stalin.

U.S. carrier planes raided Ryukyu Island.

October 10—The Sino-Canadian Association was inaugurated in Canada.

President Chiang, in his Double Tenth message to the nation, expressed confidence in a final victory.

General Wu Chung-hsin, newly appointed Governor of Sinkiang, all the new members and commissioners and the Secretary-General of the Sinkiang Government, took their oath of office.

The Supreme Headquarters of the Allied Expeditionary Forces moved to Paris from London.

Lhasa in Tibet raised \$5,000,000 national currency for the purchase of 25 war planes to be presented to the Central Government.

October 11—Pao Chun-chien was appointed China's first Ambassador to Peru.

China's wartime relief plan was revealed to UNRRA.

Peng Chi-yuan was appointed Vice Minister of Agriculture.

A U.S. task force sank or damaged 35 Japanese ships and destroyed 221 Japanese planes in an attack on Formosa.

Regulations Governing Students Going Abroad were approved by the Executive Yuan.

October 12—General Pechkoff, delegate of the French Committee of National Liberation, left Chungking for Paris.

Benjamin Kizer was named head of the UNRRA's Office for the China area.

Dr. Wunsz King, the first Chinese Ambassador to Czechoslovakia, presented his credentials to President Benes.

October 13—Bishop Yupin returned to Chungking after a 17-month trip abroad.

A Treaty of Amity between Costa Rica and China was approved by the Legislative Yuan.

U.S. importers were authorized to buy Chinese silk.

October 14—British troops captured Athens and Pirseus.

October 15—General Field Marshal Rommel, German Commander-in-Chief of the Army Group in the West, died from head injuries.

Air Chief Marshal Sir Trafford Leigh-Mallory, was appointed Air Commander-in-Chief of Southeast Asia.

Allied Units of the Eastern Fleet commenced attack on Nicobar Island in the Indian Ocean.

October 16—Lieutenant General Ho Hao-jo became Head of the Bureau of Foreign Affairs.

The Hungarian Government resigned, and Major Ferenz Zalaszy was appointed as Regent and Premier.

October 18—Hitler ordered that all able-bodied Germans be mobilized into the "peoples' storm units" to fight to the bitter end.

October 19—The Russians broke into Czechoslovakia.

The Allies captured Tiddim in Burma.

October 20—The Americans landed on Leyte, in the Philippines.

The Chinese Ambassador, Liu Shih-Shun, conferred with Mackenzie King.

The Russians captured Belgrade, capital of Yugoslavia.

October 21—The Russians started a big drive to take Budapest.

The Nazi garrison at Aachen surrendered.

President Roosevelt, in an address before the American Foreign

Policy Association, warned the American people against isolationism.

October 22.—Churchill returned to Britain from Moscow. The Foreign Minister and the Chairman of the Polish National Council also returned.

October 23. — Generalissimo Chiang, in a message to the educated youth of the nation, urged them to volunteer for military service.

The Provisional Government of France was recognized by China, the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union.

General Lu Chung-lin was appointed Minister of Conscription.

The Russians entered East Prussia.

October 24.—General Sheng Shih-tsai was appointed concurrently Director of the Reclamation Administration. Lei Fa-chang was appointed Administrative Vice Minister of the Interior to succeed Wang Teh-po.

October 25.—The Japanese Fleet was routed in a great battle off the Philippines.

The government of Italy was recognized by Britain, the United States and China.

October 26.—Anthony Eden conferred with George Papandreou, premier of Greece.

Stanislav Minovsky, the first Czechoslovakian Ambassador to China, presented his credentials to President Chiang.

October 27.—In a statement recognizing Navy Day, President Roosevelt called the Pacific War the greatest and most difficult in history.

October 28.—Bulgaria signed an armistice with the Allies.

Gandhi outlined a 3-point constructive program for congressmen.

October 29.—It was announced that Major General Albert C. Wedemeyer was succeeding General Joseph W. Stilwell as Generalissimo Chiang's Chief of Staff and that Lieutenant General Daniel I. Sultan had been appointed Commander of all Chinese Forces in India. Stilwell had been recalled.

Announcement was made that the China-Burma-India Theater for the U.S. Army Forces had been divided into the China and Burma-India Theaters, with Wedemeyer and Sultan as Commanders respectively.

October 30.—The Philippine Government began functioning under President Osmena.

The Japanese crossed the Kwei River in Kwangsi.

October 31.—Major General Albert C. Wedemeyer, recently appointed Commander of the U.S. Army Forces in China and also Chief of Staff to Generalissimo Chiang, arrived in Chungking to assume his posts.

General Stilwell's recall was explained by President Roosevelt as purely a matter of personality.

November 1.—The International Civil Aviation Conference opened in Chicago. Mr. Chang Kai-ngau, Head of the Chinese delegation, was named to the steering committee.

Dr. T. F. Tsiang, China's delegate to the UNRRA Conference, returned to Chungking from America.

The British landed on the Balkans.

The China Boy Scouts' Association reported a membership of 911,611 boy scouts and girl-guides since its formation on November 1, 1943.

November 2—Rumania broke off relations with Japan.

The White House announced that Donald Nelson was returning to Chungking at President Roosevelt's request to help reorganize China's war effort. Cabinet rank was given him.

November 3—The Chinese recaptured Lungling, key city on the Burma Road.

November 4—Dr. T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs, reiterated President Roosevelt's statement that said General Stilwell's recall was entirely a question of personality.

The complete liberation of Greece was announced.

November 5—The Chinese Authors' Association was inaugurated. Superfortresses bombed Singapore for the first time.

Announcement was made that China would resume diplomatic relations with Italy.

The Chinese Cultural Institute was inaugurated in Washington.

November 6—President Chiang gave a dinner party in honor of Major General Albert C. Wedemeyer.

A conference of Directors of the Census Administration in four provinces was concluded in Lanchow.

November 7—The U.S. State Department assigned Milton J. Helmick, former Judge of the U.S. Court in China, to visit China to make a three-month survey of Chinese law and judicial administration.

Major General Albert C. Wedemeyer, in a press conference, stressed effective Sino-American cooperation.

November 8—General Chin Teshun and General Hsu Shih-ping were appointed Political and Administrative Vice Ministers of Conscription respectively.

Franklin Roosevelt was re-elected President of the United States for a fourth term.

The National Defense Science Research Association was inaugurated.

November 9—The Chinese crossed the Irrawaddy River, Burma.

Admiral Royal E. Ingersoll was named Commander of the Western Sea Frontier in the Pacific. Vice-Admiral Ingram replaced him as Commander-in-Chief of the Atlantic Fleet.

November 10—The International Business Conference began in New York.

Wang Ching-wei, head of the puppet government at Nanking, died.

Churchill revealed that the Germans were using rocket bombs against Britain.

November 11—The U.S. State Department announced that the United States, Britain and Russia had invited General de Gaulle's Government to become a full member of the European Advisory Commission.

Major-General Gilbert X. Chaves was appointed Commanding General of Services of Supply for U.S. Forces in the China Theater.

The Chinese delegation to the International Civil Aviation Conference issued a statement on China's position on the rights of transit, technical stop and commercial entry.

Liuchow in Kwangsi fell to the Japanese.

November 12—Dr. Sun Yat-sen's birthday and the 50th Anniversary of the founding of the Kuomintang was observed. President Chiang issued a message expounding aims of the party.

Kweilin, major American air base in Kwangsi province, was lost to the Japanese.

Joseph Grew, former U.S. Ambassador to Japan and now Adviser to the State Department on Japanese questions, arrived at Pacific Fleet Headquarters.

Hitler, in a manifesto to the German people, urged them to preserve themselves and secure their future by all means.

November 13—R. A. F. Lancaster bombers sank the German battleship "Tirpitz" off Norway.

An agreement was reached between Churchill and General de Gaulle.

November 14—It was announced that the Chinese Government had decided to recognize Syria and Lebanon.

American Ambassador Clarence Gauss left China for the United States.

November 15—Dr. James I. McConaughy was elected National President of United China Relief.

Dr. Wong Wen-hao explained the functions of the new War Production Board.

Ishan in Kwangsi was captured by the Japanese.

November 16—The War Production Board, headed by Dr. Wong Wen-hao, began to function.

Donald Nelson and his party of 13 members, including five steel experts and one alcohol distiller, arrived in Chungking.

The new Ministry of Conscription, with General Lu Chung-lin as minister, was inaugurated.

General Eisenhower launched an all-out winter attack.

November 17—Cheng Tieh-ku was appointed delegate plenipotentiary for the exchange of ratification documents on the Sino-Brazilian Treaty of Amity.

Nelson and his technical staff called on Dr. Wong Wen-hao.

Lieutenant General Raymond A. Wheeler was appointed Deputy Supreme Allied Commander of Southeast Asia to succeed Stilwell.

November 18—The Allies crashed into the Saar Basin.

The International Business Conference adjourned after an 8-day session.

Nelson conferred with Generalissimo Chiang on war production.

Wedemeyer revealed that he had recommended a disposition of troops to Generalissimo Chiang.

Chinese troops penetrated into Bhamo.

November 19—The major portion of a 2,000-mile India-China pipeline was completed.

The entry of French troops into Alsace was announced.

A trial run on the Tsinghai-Tibet Highway, the world's most elevated highway, was made.

November 20—New appointments were made in party and government organs, with Dr. T. V. Soong and Chou Chung-yueh, state councillors; Chou Chung-yueh, Vice-President of the Examination Yuan; Chen Li-fu, Minister of Organization; Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Information; H. C. Liang, Minister of Overseas Affairs; Chang Li-sheng, Minister of the

Interior; General Chen Cheng, Minister of War; O. K. Yui, Minister of Finance; and Dr. Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education.

The Chinese captured Mangshih on the old Burma Road.

November 21—The establishment of the Chinese Training and Combat Command, China Theater, was announced.

Dr. Hsu Mo was appointed Ambassador to Turkey; Dr. Chien Tai, to France; and Lo Liang-chien, Chairman of the Commission of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs.

Major General Robert B. McClure was named the new Deputy Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army in China.

It was revealed that the U.S. Army had 5,000,000 men overseas.

Churchill ordered the abolition of the British Ministry of Economic Warfare on December 31.

November 22—Dr. Wong Wen-hao and Nelson explained the organization and functions of the War Production Board.

Okamura replaced Hata as Japanese Commander-in-Chief in China. Hata was appointed Inspector-General of Military Education.

The Allies captured Metz in Lorraine, and Mulhouse in Alsace.

November 23—Wedemeyer, at a press conference, announced that a new plan for the redistribution of troops in China was being executed.

President Chiang urged Chinese medical workers to serve the army.

Strasbourg, strategic city in Alsace, was liberated.

November 24—The War Production Board discussed the production of needed equipment with the various organs concerned.

Superfortress bombed Tokyo for the first time.

Lieutenant General Millard F. Harmon, Commanding General of the U.S. Army Air Force in the Pacific was appointed Deputy Commander of the 20th Air Force.

Judge Milton Helmick arrived in Chungking to study China's judicial system.

November 26—Joseph J. Mansfield, President Roosevelt's personal representative to China, arrived in Chungking.

Major General Robert B. McClure was appointed Chief of Staff, United States Forces, China Theater, Major General Clair L. Chennault was named Air Adviser to General Wedemeyer.

General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson was appointed head of the British Joint Staff Mission to the United States, Lieutenant General Mark Clark, Commander-in-Chief of the Allied 15th Group Armies in Italy; and General Sir Harold Alexander, Supreme Allied Commander in the Mediterranean Theater.

General Guggiero Bonomi's Cabinet resigned en bloc.

Yungning (Nanning), important Kwangsi city, fell to the Japanese.

November 27—President Roosevelt accepted the resignation of Secretary of State Cordell Hull. Edward R. Stettinius was appointed the successor.

General Hurley was named American Ambassador to China.

November 28—It was disclosed that Nelson and Coonley had been appointed High Economic Adviser to the Chinese Government and Adviser to the China War Production Board respectively.

November 29 — The United Nations' War Crimes Sub-Commission for the Far East and the Pacific, with Dr. Wang Chung-hui as Chairman and Dr. P. H. Chang as Secretary-General, was inaugurated.

Donald Nelson and Dr. Wong Wen-hao were honored at a tea party given by the Presidium and the Resident Committee of the People's Political Council. Cooperation among all groups in economy was urged by Nelson during the reception.

November 30 — Tu Yuan-tan, Minister to Costa Rica, was appointed delegate plenipotentiary for the exchange of ratification instruments of the Treaty of Amity between China and Costa Rica.

Michael Mansfield, President Roosevelt's personal representative to China, declared that his mission in China was to get a clear understanding of China's present economic and financial conditions.

Chen Chieh, the first Chinese Ambassador to Mexico, presented his credentials to President Camacho.

The U.S. Senate confirmed the appointments of Major-General Patrick Hurley to succeed Clarence Gauss as Ambassador to China and of Edward R. Stettinius as U.S. Secretary of State.

The Chinese Delegation to the International Civil Aviation Conference endorsed the U.S. plan for a fifth freedom—that of air.

The U.S. Congress was urged by the State Department to repeal the Johnson Act.

Prince Umberto of Italy asked Premier Bonomi to form a new cabinet.

Major General Wedemeyer, U.S. Commanding General in China, told newsmen that remedial action was under way to counter the real threat posed by the Japanese in China. Commenting on the loss of Nanning in southern Kwangsi province, he said it meant the completion of the Japanese land route from Tokyo to Singapore via Kwangsi province and French Indo-China.

December 1 — The following assumed their duties: General Chen Cheng, Minister of War, with Vice Ministers General Lin Wei and General Yu Ta-wei; Chang Li-sheng, Minister of the Interior; Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Information; and Major-General Chen Ching-yun, Acting Minister of Overseas Affairs.

Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., was sworn into office as Secretary of State.

Examinations for scholarship students to study abroad were held.

December 2—The Rumanian Cabinet resigned.

The United States signed an agreement with Spain for the operation of commercial air routes.

General de Gaulle arrived in Moscow to confer with Marshal Stalin.

The Chinese recaptured Che-fang, the last important Japanese-held town on the Burma Road in Yunnan province.

December 3—General de Gaulle called on Marshal Stalin.

The British took Kalewa, gateway to Central Burma.

It was announced that a full-fledged China Wing, with Major Sam H. Lane, Jr. as Commander,

had been formed by the Air Transport Command.

Tonnage increased by more than 400% over previous month was sent over the hump in October for the construction of the Burma Road, the Air Transport Command announced.

December 4—Chow Chung-yueh, State Councillor and concurrently Vice President of the Examination Yuan; Dr. T. V. Soong, State Councillor, Chang Li-sheng, Minister of the Interior; O. K. Yui, Minister of Finance; Dr. Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education; General Chen Cheng, Minister of War; General Lu Chung-lin, Minister of Conscription; Generals Liu Wei and Yu Ta-wei, Vice Ministers of War and General Chin Teh-shun and Hsu Sze-ping, Vice Ministers of Conscription, were sworn into office.

Dr. T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs, was appointed concurrently Acting President of the Executive Yuan.

Joseph C. Grew was named the new Undersecretary of State. William L. Clayton, Archibald MacLeish and Nelson Rockefeller were appointed Assistant Secretaries of State.

December 5—The International Civil Aviation Conference was concluded.

The Chinese recaptured Pachai on the Kwangsi-Kweichow front.

Counter-attacking Chinese halted Japanese advance in Kweichow. The strategic rail town of Tushan fell.

Civil war broke out in Greece.

The U.S. State Department announced that it expected the Italians to work out their pro-

blems of government without outside influence.

December 6—A Relief Committee for War Refugees was inaugurated.

December 7—Wedemeyer gave assurance that the United States would not abandon China during her military crisis.

Stettinius stressed the United States' hands-off policy toward Greece.

Dr. T. V. Soong, newly appointed Acting President of the Executive Yuan, assumed his post.

December 8—Chinese troops recaptured Tushan in south Kweichow.

December 10—The U.S.S.R. and France concluded a pact of alliance and mutual help.

Helmick visited the Chungking Experimental Court, the Szechwan Higher Court and the detention quarters.

It was announced that the new British Pacific Fleet had been formed with Admiral Sir Bruce Fraser commanding.

The Chinese recaptured Liuchai on the Kweichow-Kwangsi border.

December 11—Dr. Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education, outlined wartime educational policies at the Weekly Memorial Service.

President Getulio Vargas of Brazil was decorated by the Chinese Government.

The Chinese cleared Kweichow province of the Japanese.

The death of Admiral Chiuchi Nagumo, Supreme Commander of the Japanese Naval Forces in the Pacific, was announced.

General Fang Hsieh-chueh, Commander of the 10th Army which defended Hengyang, arrived in Chungking.

December 12—S. Ali Nassr, Iranian Minister to China, appealed to the Iranian people for aid to Chinese war refugees.

The Chinese recaptured Nantan on the Kweichow-Kwangsi railway.

Secretary of State Stettinius announced five objectives of U.S. foreign policy, urging that Japan and Germany must be prevented from waging aggressive wars again.

December 13—New Zealand abolished discriminatory clauses in the Immigration Law against Chinese.

December 14—Dr. Manuel Brado, President of Peru was decorated by the Chinese Government.

It was announced that an important conference on North Pacific activity had been completed between Admiral Nimitz, Lieutenant General Buckner, Eamons and Vice-Admiral Fletcher, Commander of the North Pacific Fleet.

Lord Wavell, Viceroy of India, in an address in Calcutta, before the Associated Chambers of Commerce, urged the solution of India's political deadlock.

December 15—The China Child Welfare Association was inaugurated.

Hurley, at a press conference, said that China was unconquerable.

The Chinese captured the strategic Burmese base of Bhamo.

The Americans landed on Mindoro Island, in the Philippines.

December 16—Dr. Monlin Chiang Dr. Carson Chang and Mr. Shao Yu-lin, China's delegates to the conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations, left Chungking

for the United States via Kunming.

December 17—General Zinovi Pechkoff, French Ambassador, and Baron Jactoues Desdefzank de Fenffe, the new Belgian Ambassador to China, arrived in Chungking.

It was reported that Jinnah, President of the All-India Muslim League, had refused to cooperate with the non-party coalition government headed by Hir Babadur Sapru.

The Germans began an abortive counter-offensive on the western front.

December 18—The Supreme National Defense Council decided to establish a Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, with Dr. T. F. Tsiang as its Director General.

Hsu Shih-ying, Chairman of the National Relief Commission, declared that upwards of \$180,000,000 had been appropriated for the relief of war refugees in Hunan, Kwangsi and Kweichow since the beginning of the Hunan campaign.

Stettinius, in a statement on U.S. policy toward Poland, declared, "The U.S. Government stands for a strong, free and independent Polish state."

Admiral Sir Bruce Fraser, Commander-in-Chief of the British Pacific Fleet, arrived at Pearl Harbor to confer with Admiral Nimitz, Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Pacific Fleet.

President Roosevelt declared that U.S. foreign policy was on record and needed no re-statement or further clarification.

December 20—Sven Allard, Swedish Minister to China, presented his credentials to President Chiang.

Reorganization of the U.S. State Department was announced by Stettinius with Joseph Ballantine as Director of the Far Eastern Affairs Office, and James Dunn as Assistant Secretary of State, supervising the Offices of the Far Eastern, Near East and European Affairs.

Anthony Eden, in a statement at the House of Commons, expressed satisfaction over the war situation in China.

December 21.—L. S. Amery, Secretary of State for India, rejected a demand of the British Labor Party for the immediate release of all political prisoners in India.

The 2,670-mile underwater cable between Midway and Guam, severed by the Navy as a security measure two and a half years ago, was restored to service. The Guam-to-Midway cable was part of the only cable that linked the United States to the Far East before the war.

October 22.—Chungking's Troop-Comforting Delegation, headed by H. C. Liang, left Chungking for the front.

December 24.—The Chinese delegation to the conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations arrived in New York.

December 25.—The West China Scientific Museum was inaugurated at Feipei.

The Franco-Soviet pact was ratified by the Soviet Government.

Churchill, Eden and General Alexander arrived in Athens for conference with Elás leaders to end civil war.

The Leyte campaign ended.

The Japanese Government announced that it was making plans

for better political treatment of Korea and Formosa.

December 26.—Churchill, in explaining Britain's stand vis-a-vis Greece, declared that the British in Greece had no other interest than to see the establishment of a suitable government through secret ballot.

December 27.—Minister of Information Wang Shih-chieh told foreign correspondents that the Chinese considered it their duty to supply by far the largest land forces in the forthcoming campaign to drive the Japanese out of China.

December 28.—It was announced that Major-General Robert B. McClure, Chief of Staff, U.S. Forces, China Theater, had been appointed Deputy Chief of Staff of the Supreme Allied Commander of the China Theater.

December 29.—The United States protested to Germany against the mass murder of troops.

Chinese troops captured Loiwing, a North Burma border town, opening up the last stretch of the China end of the Ledo-Burma Road.

December 30.—It was revealed that the Kwangsi Provincial Government had appealed to the Central Government for emergency relief.

December 31.—The National Council of Poland was reorganized into the Provisional Government of the Polish Republic.

Adolf Hitler, breaking a silence of over five months, told the German people in a New Year broadcast that Germany was determined never to capitulate.

King George VI decorated Generals Wedemeyer and Stratemyer.

CHAPTER XLVIII

CHRONOLOGY OF MAJOR EVENTS 1945

January 1.—President Chiang, in a New Year message to the nation, urged the people and the army to exert their joint efforts to recover the lost territory; he also suggested that a people's congress should be convened before the end of the war to adopt a permanent constitution.

The newly-created Wartime Transport Board was inaugurated with General Yu Fei-peng as Director and Major General Robert B. McClure, Deputy Chief of Staff of the Supreme Allied Commander of the China Theater, as Deputy Director.

A total of 122,572 educated youths volunteered for military service in response to the nationwide "Join-the-Army" movement started by President Chiang three months ago.

France signed the United Nations Declaration.

January 2.—Wang Mou-kung was named Chairman of the Kiangsu Provincial Government.

A Japanese revolutionary league was inaugurated in west Suiyuan.

January 3.—The U.S. Congress opened its 79th session.

The Turkish Government announced that it would break off diplomatic and economic relations with Japan on January 6.

General Nicholas organized a new government in Greece.

British troops landed in Akyb, important port city on Burma's west coast.

The British Pacific Fleet arrived in Australia.

The Foreign Economic Administration in Washington revealed that the United States was beginning a new program of extensive Lend-Lease supplies to China, with the cooperation of the Chinese War Production Board.

Wanting, the last Japanese stronghold within the Yunnan border, was recaptured.

January 4.—Announcement was made of Japan's signing a pact with Portugal to evacuate Timor.

January 5.—The Soviet Union recognized the Provisional Government of the Polish Republic in Lublin.

Dr. H. H. Kung conferred with President Roosevelt.

January 6.—The Ninth Study Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations opened at Hot Springs, Virginia.

In his message to Congress, President Reesvelt made clear that the campaign in China was regarded as vital to ultimate victory in the Pacific, asserting that "our overall strategy has not neglected the important task of rendering all possible aid to China."

Ku Cheng-kang, Minister of Social Affairs, left Kweiyang to inspect relief work at the front.

Britain and the United States indicated that they would continue to recognize the Polish Exile Government in London.

Wanting was lost again to the Japanese.

January 7—Turkey's decision to break off diplomatic relations with Japan was effected.

January 8—General Patrick J. Hurley, American Ambassador to China, presented his letters of credence to President Chiang.

The Japanese Cabinet passed drastic measure to strengthen the war effort.

The standing committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee decided to convene the 6th Kuomintang Congress on May 5, 1945. The meeting on May 5 was expected to deal with arrangements for the People's Congress which Generalissimo Chiang had promised to call before the end of war to introduce a constitutional government in China.

January 9—American forces landed on Luzon, in the Philippines.

General Zinovi Pechkoff, French Ambassador to China and Baron Jactoues Desdefzank de Fenffe, Belgian Ambassador to China, presented their letters of credence to President Chiang. The French Ambassador also presented to President Chiang the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour from General de Gaulle, President of the Provisional Government of the French Republic.

General Yu Fei-peng was appointed Minister of Communications.

President Roosevelt's message to Congress on the budget called for an estimated expenditure of US\$88,103,000,000 in the fiscal year beginning July 1.

January 12—Greece signed an armistice with Britain.

January 13—Many government officials left Chungking for Sinkiang with a mission to improve communications, currency, and food administration in that province.

January 14—The Russians launched a great winter offensive.

The first China-bound convoy from Ledo in India arrived at Myitkyina.

January 15—The Chinese took Namhkam, the last Burma town on the Ledo-Burma Road.

Japanese Premier General Koiso was received in audience by the Emperor to report on the Philippines situation.

Wu Ting-chang was appointed Secretary-General of the National Government.

January 16—Yan-sen was named Chairman of the Kweichow Government.

Cheng Tao-ju was named Assistant Director of the Chinese National Rehabilitation and Relief Administration.

Major General Willis Hale was named Deputy Commander of U.S. Pacific Air Forces.

The Egyptian Cabinet resigned.

January 17—The Russians took Warsaw.

The Institute of Pacific Relations ended its 12-day conference on the security issue.

January 18—Italy nullified all pacts entered into with Japan.

China, the Union of South Africa, Egypt, Canada, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, Peru, Luxembourg, Ecuador, Greece, Honduras, and Haiti signed the two international sanitary conventions of UNRRA of 1944 concerning maritime and aerial travel. Czechoslovakia signed only the international sanitary maritime convention. Bolivia signed only the international sanitary convention for aerial navigation.

Mobilization of all manpower was urged by President Roosevelt in a letter to the Chairman of the House of Representative's Military Affairs Committee.

Mountbatten and Wedemeyer conferred with Sultan in North Burma.

January 19.—The Russians broke into Germany.

January 20.—Franklin Delano Roosevelt was inaugurated as the President of the United States for the fourth term. Harry S. Truman became Vice-President.

Hungary signed an armistice with the Allies.

January 21.—The Japanese Imperial Diet opened its 86th session

January 22.—Premier Koiso outlined Japanese "basic foreign policies" in five points at the Imperial Diet.

January 23.—The Burma Road was opened.

New measures for tax reform were adopted by the Executive Yuan.

Roosevelt nominated Wallace as Secretary of Commerce.

A committee of seven was named by the House Naval

Affairs Committee to study Japanese-mandated islands with a view to determine which of them were needed by the United States for permanent outer defense purposes.

Brigadier General Roger Ramey was appointed Commander of the 20th Bomber Command to succeed Brigadier General Curtis Lemay, who became Commander of the 21st Command.

January 24.—Guatemala broke off diplomatic relations with the Franco Government of Spain.

January 25.—Viscount Cranborne, British Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs, in replying to a debate in the House of Lords, declared, "It is the earnest desire of His Majesty's Government to see China strong, united, prosperous and able to play again her full part in the World."

Air Marshal Sir Garrod was named Allied Air Commander-in-Chief of the Southeast Asia Command.

Reorganization of Wedemeyer's staff was announced with Brigadier General Mervin E. Gross as Acting Chief of Staff. Major General McClure and Brigadier General Harold Harber became commander and deputy commander of the China Combat Command respectively.

The 94th session of the Governing Body Conference the International Labor Organization opened in London.

Admiral Mountbatten sent a message to President Chiang expressing confidence in an early and successful end of the joint struggle against Japan.

January 26.—Donald Nelson's report on his mission to China was released.

General Stilwell was appointed Commander of Army Ground Forces.

January 28.—Benjamin H. Kizer, Director of the China Area Office of UNRRA, arrived in Chungking.

The India-China Highway was completely cleared of Japanese troops. The main Chinese forces from northern Burma and Salween fronts made the first major junction at Mong Yu on the Burma Road.

The Chinese recaptured Mong Yu, connecting link of the Burma Road and the Namhkam Spur.

January 28.—The first convoy to China in almost three years rolled into Wanting over the Ledo-Burma Road.

Generalissimo Chiang, General Wedemeyer and Ambassador Hurley broadcast messages on the opening of the India-China Road. Generalissimo Chiang also named this road after General Joseph Stilwell in recognition of his distinctive contribution in its building.

A Japanese broadcast disclosed that the Japanese Government was speeding up its program for decentralizing industries and transferring the most important factories underground, as protective measures against air raids.

Kukong (Shaokwan), Kwangtung, provisional capital on the Canton-Hankow railway was lost to the Japanese.

January 29.—Chinese protested against Hindshaw's bill to Congress to ban all foreign language

schools for foreign or American-born children.

Mr. Ku Cheng-kang, Minister of Social Affairs, reported on war refugee relief work at the Kweichow-Kwangsi front.

U.S. Secretary of the Treasury Henry Morgenthau revealed, for the first time in detail, the war-time contribution of the U.S. Mint to the monetary systems of more than a score of friendly nations.

January 30.—Harry Hopkins, President Roosevelt's personal representative, arrived at Rome.

January 31.—Czechoslovakia recognized the Provisional Government of Poland.

It was announced that a total of 195 students had passed the competitive examinations held by the Ministry of Education to study in the United States or Britain on government scholarships.

The Central Government announced that it had appropriated \$10,000,000 national currency for Fukien refugees.

British Minister of State Richard Law, in the House of Commons, pledged Britain's determination to fight the Japanese war to a victorious end.

Lord Wright, Lord of Appeal in Ordinary, was elected Chairman of the United Nations War Crimes Commission.

The Bond Subscription Committee of the Ministry of Finance, with its branches in various provinces and municipalities, was abolished.

An initial delivery of U.S. medical supplies reached the

Communist-led region in Shensi through the agency of the Red Cross.

It was announced that \$250,000,000 national currency had been set aside for building irrigation canals in Kansu.

February 1.—The Polish Government in Exile severed diplomatic relations with Czechoslovakia in view of the latter's decision to recognize the Polish Provisional Government in Warsaw.

General Yu Fei-peng, newly appointed Minister of Communications and Shen Yi and Ling Hung-hsun, respectively newly appointed Political and Administrative Vice-Ministers of Communications, assumed their posts.

February 2.—Roosevelt and Churchill, in the company of high ranking military personnel, met in Malta, to discuss the Pacific War.

Yanfa in Kwantung and Liang-tien in Hunan were recaptured.

February 3.—The Siegfried Line was broken through by U. S. troops.

The loss of Sulchwan, site of an American air base, was confirmed.

February 4.—The first convoy to cross the Stilwell Road, headed by Brigadier General Lewis Pick, after travelling 1,044 miles from Ledo, rolled into Kunming. A brief ceremony was held to commemorate the occasion.

U. S. troops reached the second belt of the Siegfried Line.

Air Marshal Sir Keith Park was appointed Air Commander-in-

Chief in South-east Asia in place of Sir Trafford Leigh-Mallory, who was reported missing.

Announcement was made that B-29's bombed Kobe for the first time.

U. S. planes were bombing the Japanese over a 3,000 mile Pacific front from the Kuriles to Yap.

U. S. troops entered Manila. Farmers' Day was celebrated. An agricultural products exhibit and contest were held to mark the occasion.

The Yalta Conference began.

February 5.—The last Siegfried defenses were broken through.

Three thousand Americans made a new landing on Jolo Island.

Leo T. Crowley announced a program designed to speed up supply and transportation for the movement of Lend-Lease materials to China.

Dr. Cheng Tien-hsi was appointed Administrative Vice-Minister of Justice.

Ecuador announced a state of belligerency against Japan.

A 10-day World Trade Union Conference opened in London, with 250 delegates from Allied and neutral countries attending.

Russian forces crossed the Oder River.

Chennault declared, "Loss of air bases does not hinder operations."

The Japanese broke into Kanhshien, Kiangsi.

February 7.—It was reported that \$500,000,000 national currency for the relief of railway workers had been approved by the Executive Yuan.

Admiral Nimitz, with planes and operations elements of his staff, moved to advance headquarters.

It was revealed that the 20th Air Force had established new headquarters in Guam.

The Russians broke through the Oder River defense line.

The World Trade Union Conference was told of the Chinese war effort by Chu Hsueh-fan.

February 8.—The Netherlands Government in London resigned. Pieter S. Gerbrandy was asked by the Queen to organize a new cabinet.

February 9.—Paraguay declared war on Germany and Japan.

Chinese Army Headquarters was established in Kunming. General Ho Ying-chin and General Lung Yun were named respectively Commander-in-Chief and Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Ground Forces.

It was officially announced that American casualties in all theaters totalled 764,584.

Yungling in southern Hunan fell to the Japanese.

February 10.—The Chinese delegation submitted a resolution to the World Trade Conference, urging that the Allies war effort against Japan be continued with unabating vigor.

The Russians rolled across the Oder battlefield.

U. S. Secretary of War Stimson presented the Legion of Merit to General Stiwell.

Peru declared war on Germany and Japan and announced its adherence to the United Nations Declaration.

February 11.—The Chinese and Iranian Legations were raised to the status of Embassies.

The formation of a new Belgian Coalition Cabinet was announced.

February 12.—Brigadier General Douglas L. Weart was appointed Deputy Chief of Staff to the Commanding General, United States Forces, China Theater.

The Russians crossed the Boker river.

The Yalta Conference ended and a Big Three communique was issued.

The British crossed the Irrawaddy River.

February 13.—Chinese Army Services of Supply Headquarters opened in Kunming, with Generals George Cheves and Lu Tsu as Commander and Deputy Commander respectively.

Budapest fell to the Russians.

U. S. Secretary of State Stettinus arrived in Moscow for a day's visit.

February 14.—The Chinese recovered Pingshek above Canton.

Chinese forces captured Kut-kai, 50 miles north of Lashio.

Grew welcomed Peru, Chile, Ecuador and Paraguay as members of the United Nations.

February 15.—The Japanese were moving war factories to Manchuria.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Information, said that China welcomed decisions of the Crimean Conference.

The Russians captured Konitz, communications center 60 miles southwest of Danzig.

Judge Helmick left Chungking to return to the United States.

A fund amounting to \$500,000,000 national currency was given to refugee railway workers.

Tokyo came under naval and air attacks.

Chile declared war on Germany and Japan.

February 16.—Uruguay declared war on the Axis.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer was presented with the V-flag by Bishop Yupin.

The British King and Queen received Chu Hsueh-fan.

February 17.—The Russians broke into Breslau.

The creation of a new world trade union was approved by the World Trade Union Conference.

The agenda of the Sixth Kuomintang Congress was announced.

U. S. forces landed on Corregidor, south of Manila Bay. Bataan was recaptured.

February 19.—The Americans landed on Iwo Jima.

Churchill and Eden returned to England from the Yalta conference.

Major General G. X. Cheves, Commanding General, and General Lu Tsu, Deputy Commanding General of the Chinese Services of Supply, assumed their posts.

France's attitude toward the Big Three Conference was explained by Georges Bidault, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the French Provisional Government.

Argentina severed relations with Germany.

February 20.—The White House revealed that, following the Crimea Conference, President Roosevelt conferred with Prime

Minister Churchill on Japan and the Pacific war at Alexandria, Egypt. During these talks the British Prime Minister reiterated that Britain would "throw everything it had at the Japs," as soon as the European War was ended.

The Kweichow War Refugees' Relief Committee was inaugurated with General Yang Sen, Governor of Kweichow, as Chairman.

The Far Eastern Conference of UNRRA closed. The Chinese delegation explained China's relief program.

Venezuela signed the United Nations Declaration, becoming the 41st member.

The first convoy over the Teng-chung cut-off arrived in Kunming.

February 21.—A reshuffle of the Japanese cabinet took place. Sotaro Ishiwata replaced Hisatada Hirose as Chief Cabinet Secretary, and Jiuchi Tsushima, Vice-President of the Bank of Japan and President of the North China Development Company, became Finance Minister.

K. C. Wu, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that the Chinese Government had no specific view on the disposal of the Emperor of Japan after victory, adding that the question would be one for the United Nations War Crimes Commission to decide.

The Allies entered Saarburg.

The Russians took Czersk in southwest Poland.

Chinese forces recaptured Bawdwin in Burma.

The Inter-American Conference opened at Mexico.

February 22.—The British crossed the Saar River.

U. S. forces captured the Suri-bachi Volcano.

Chinese troops recaptured Pang-hai in north Burma.

Six thousand Allied bombers gave Germany the biggest pounding of the war.

February 23.—U. S. forces occupied Capul and the Biri Islands at the southern end of San Bernardino Strait, controlling the sea route from the United States through the central Philippines.

The formation of a new Netherlands Government was announced.

Turkey declared war on Japan and Germany.

February 24.—The Allies smashed across the Roer River into the Rhineland.

Egypt declared war on Germany. Premier Ahmed Maher Pasha was assassinated.

Stettinius outlined American foreign policy in a national broadcast.

February 25.—The U. S. Fleet made a second large-scale attack on military and industrial targets in and around Tokyo.

Wellington Koo reached Cairo en route to Chungking.

George Bidault, French Foreign Minister, arrived in England.

February 26.—Nokrasky Pasha was appointed as the new Egyptian Premier and Military Governor.

Syria declared war on Japan and Germany.

February 27.—General MacArthur turned over the civil government of the Philippines to President Sergio Osmena. President Osmena expressed the hope

that independence might be granted to the Philippines on August 13, 1945, the 47th anniversary of the landing of American forces in Manila.

Henry Strain, Herbert Graham, Eugene Stallings, Henri Ovesen, Carl Bell and Edward Woldschmidt, American technical experts, left Chungking for the United States.

The British House of Commons opened the debate on the Crimea Conference.

The Pan-American Conference introduced a resolution designed to invite Canada to become a member of the Pan-American States.

Dr. Tung Lin was appointed Ambassador to the Netherlands, and Chaucer H. Wu (Wu Chaihsian), Minister to Chile.

President Roosevelt returned to the United States from a two-day sea voyage.

The Chinese recaptured Chaling in south Hunan.

February 28.—The Korean Provisional Government declared war on Germany.

Lebanon declared war on Germany and Japan.

Dr. K. C. Wu, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, said China was ready to join her Allies in founding a new world organization.

Rev. G. Woods and his technical assistant, Dawson Froggatt, of the British cooperative delegation sent to China by the Anglo-Chinese Development Association, arrived in Chungking.

The Russians, captured Neu-Stettin, 45 miles from the Baltic.

Chinese troops recaptured Lungshen in Kwangsi.

March 1.—Generalissimo Chiang announced that a People's Congress, in which all parties would enjoy equal status, would be convoked on November 12 to draw up a constitution.

President Roosevelt, in his report to Congress on the Crimea Conference, said that "he had never for an instant wavered in his belief that an agreement to insure world peace and security can be achieved."

Chinese units recaptured Yung-sin in west Kiangsi.

Turkey and Egypt signed the United Nations Declaration, thus bringing its membership to 44.

Iran declared war on Japan.

General Ho Ying-chin returned to Kunming from a visit to the India-Burma Theater.

The U. S. Senate confirmed the appointment of Henry Wallace as Secretary of Commerce.

The Americans landed on Palawan in the Philippines.

March 2.—General MacArthur celebrated the recapture of Corregidor.

Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to England, returned to Chungking from England.

Saudi Arabia declared war on Axis.

"Generalissimo Chiang had indignantly turned over at least 12 Japanese peace offers from 1938 to 1940," said W. H. Donald, Generalissimo's Australian adviser, at an interview in the Philippines.

March 3.—American forces landed and seized Ticao and Burias in the Surayan Sea.

The Chinese and Russian Ambassadors were invited by the U. S. State Department to discuss ar-

rangements for the San Francisco World Security Conference.

President Osmena of the Philippines, in a message to the Chinese people, urged democratic co-operation between the two countries.

March 4.—Hurley and Wedemeyer arrived in Washington.

Finland declared war on Germany.

Major General Willis H. Hale assumed command of the Army Air Forces in the Pacific, succeeding Lieutenant General Millard Harmon, who was reported missing.

March 5.—Forty-four United Nations were invited to attend the World Security Conference at San Francisco by the United States, Great Britain, the U.S.S.R. and China.

Admiral Fraser declared that the British Pacific Fleet was ready for its first action.

France declined to be a sponsor of the San Francisco Conference.

The Russians captured Stargard, Naugard and Polzin, important communications centers and powerful strongholds of German defenses.

Japan completed plans for forming a new government party which will absorb the present three parties.

March 6.—It was announced that Juho K. Paasikivi would succeed Baron Carl Gustav Mannerheim as the President of Finland.

American troops took Cologne.

The U. S. Senate confirmed the nomination of Judge Fred M. Vinson as Federal Loan Administrator to succeed Jesse H. Jones.

Churchill visited the Western Front.

The U. S. House Foreign Affairs Committee approved a year's extension of the Lend-lease Act.

Chinese-Swiss Society was formed in Berne.

March 7.—Admiral Louis Mountbatten and Lady Mountbatten arrived in Chungking for a visit.

The Inter-American Conference in Mexico was concluded.

The Chinese recaptured the old Burma road terminus of Lashio.

Henry Morgenthau, U. S. Secretary of the Treasury, urged Congress to adopt the Bretton Woods Agreement.

March 8.—Lady Mountbatten was honored at a dinner given by Generalissimo Chiang.

The American First Army crossed the Rhine at Remagen.

The new Philippine Cabinet was sworn in.

Hurley and Wedemeyer called on Roosevelt at the White House.

Admiral Nimitz, making a surprise visit to Washington, announced that the Joint Chiefs of Staff were considering a new command and set-up in the Pacific.

Premier Koiso called on the Japanese to sacrifice everything for the war.

March 9.—The Allies captured Bonn.

Dr. Liang Lone was named Minister to Switzerland.

Lord Louis Mountbatten conferred with Chinese and American commanders in Chungking. He was decorated by President Chiang.

The Japanese Emperor's palace was ablaze for 17 hours after a bombing.

March 10.—In Indo-China martial law was declared. French government officials were taken into protective custody after refusing to cooperate with the Japanese.

More than 300 Superfortresses attacked Tokyo.

Lord Mountbatten left Chungking for India.

The Japanese disarmed French police and troops in Shanghai.

Chinese units captured Mong-wit in Burma.

U. S. Foreign Economic Administration officials announced that they had completed the preparation of a US\$1,000,000,000 post-war industrialization plan for China.

Generalissimo Chiang congratulated Major General Claire L. Chennault on the occasion of the second anniversary of the founding of the 14th Air Force.

March 11.—300 Superfortresses attacked Nagoya.

The Empire of Annam declared its independence.

Premier Koiso and Admiral Yonai, Navy Minister, reported to the Japanese Diet, the seriousness of the military situation.

Hitler declared on Heroes' Day that there would be no repetition of 1918.

The Chinese retook Suichwan, a former U. S. 14th Air Force base.

March 12.—President Chiang, in a message to the nation on the 20th anniversary of the death of Dr. Sun Yat-sen and the sixth anniversary of the National Spiritual Mobilization Movement, urged the Chinese to intensify the war effort as the struggle was entering its decisive phase.

The Allies captured Linz.

Lady Mountbatten left Chungking for Kunming.

U. S. troops landed on Zamboanga, Mindanao.

It was announced that A. T. Kearney and E. P. Brooks would succeed Howard Conoley and Edwin A. Jacobson as Adviser and Assistant Adviser to the Chinese War Production Board.

Ambassador Wei Tao-ming conferred with Roosevelt on the war and general security.

March 13.—Kuestrin fell to the Russians after a 35-day battle.

Zamboanga and the San Roque airfield on Mindanao fell to American forces.

The Geological Society of China concluded its 21st annual meeting.

The U. S. Congress, State Department and the White House started joint consultations regarding American plans and policy for the San Francisco Conference.

President Roosevelt asked Congress to appropriate US\$23,700,000 for the Navy for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1945.

Three hundred Superfortresses bombed Osaka, second largest city of Japan, for the first time.

Joseph C. Grew, Assistant U. S. Secretary of State, outlined a 5-point foreign policy program.

Sir James Grigg, British War Secretary, pledged that Britain would carry its full share of the war against the Japanese after the end of the European War.

March 14.—The Administrative Efficiency Conference opened in Chungking.

Generalissimo Chiang commended the Chinese Army in India.

Roosevelt proclaimed April 6 U. S. Army Day.

Tokyo Radio reported that a new administration had been established in Indo-China under the Supreme Commander of the Japanese Army Forces in Indo-China.

The Japanese disarmed French troops in Kwangchowwan.

Anthony Eden defined major war criminals.

Russian and Rumanian forces captured Zvolen, a German stronghold in Slovakia.

March 15.—The United States took formal possession of Iwo Jima and other islands in the Volcano group, 24 days after the invasion.

In response to a "Join the Army" campaign, over 150,000 Chinese youths volunteered.

Allied preparations were under way for the coming big-scale counter-offensive against the Japanese in Yunnan province. These included a Chinese concentration of 90 divisions besides 10,000 American soldiers.

Churchill spoke at the Conservative Party Conference on Britain's part in the war against Japan.

March 16.—Wedemeyer ended conferences with Roosevelt on the coordination of all Allied resources in the Far East.

The first Chinese Art Exhibition for Latin-America opened in Havana.

American forces landed on Basilan Island, in the Philippines.

The Chinese recaptured Hsipaw, an important Burma Road junction. Japanese remnants were surrounded.

The British took Mogok, an important communications center on the Burma Road.

Dr. Wong Wen-hao left Chungking for Chengtu with American experts to inspect productive enterprises.

March 17.—The resignation of William Phillips from his post as the President's personal representative to India, with the rank of Ambassador, was announced in Washington.

Coblenz fell to the Allies.

U. S. forces claim 468,590 Japanese casualties in the Pacific War.

It was announced that Leon Henderson, former Administrator of the Office of Price Administration, was going to China at the invitation of the Chinese Government to help fight inflation.

March 18.—U. S. Superfortresses showered leaflets over Japanese cities. Two thousand five hundred tons of incendiaries were dropped on Kobe.

The Russians captured the Baltic port of Kolberg.

Announcement was made that every school and university in Japan would be closed for one year, beginning on April 1, with the exception of the first grade classes of primary schools.

March 19.—The Pan-Arab meeting closed at Cairo.

March 20.—Lieutenant General George C. Kenney, Commander of the Far East Air Force, said that the Japanese air force was no longer a threat.

The world's largest and fastest carrier, the 45,000-ton Midway, was launched at Newport News, Virginia.

American landings are made on Panay and Malamanui in the Philippines.

Carrier planes bombed Kobe.

Li Tieh-tseng, Minister to Iran was promoted to ambassadorship.

The Russians took Braunsberg and Alt-Damm, and wiped out the German bridgehead across the Oder at Stettin.

The Mandalay battle ended with the capture of Fort Dufferin. (Mandalay fell to the Japanese in May, 1942).

Chinese and Allied youths exchanged greetings on the occasion of World Youth Week.

The Tokyo district was ravaged by fire.

The Kunming military road was opened to traffic.

Major-General Odlum, Canadian Ambassador was en route back to China.

Lord Wright, Chairman of the United Nations War Crime-Commission, stated that he was seeking Soviet cooperation on the question of war criminals.

Dr. Wang Wen-hao, Chairman of the War Production Board, and American technical experts arrived in Kunming.

Chinese troops captured Malang, 25 miles from Lashio.

March 21.—Premier Koiso warned the Japanese people that the loss of Iwo was the most unfortunate thing in the whole war situation, bringing closer the threat of an American invasion of the homeland.

Italy asked for permission from the Allied Nations to declare war on Japan.

The Paris Government sought Allied aid for French resistant forces in French Indo-China.

Participation of Syria and Lebanon in the San Francisco Conference was requested by the Middle East States.

It was reported that Marshal Viscount Wavell, Viceroy and Governor General of India, was on his way to London for consultations.

The Japanese launched a new offensive in southern Honan and northern Hupeh, with Nanyang in Honan and Laohokou in Hupeh as their objectives.

At a press conference, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Chinese Minister of Information, stated: "The Government has invited Mr. Leon Henderson to visit this country to advise us on matters relating to price as well as on ways and means of securing the most effective aid from our Allies."

March 22.—American forces captured Iloilo, capital of Panay, in the central Philippines.

Field Marshal Kesselring, Commander of the German forces in Italy, succeeded Field Marshal Von Rundstedt as Supreme Commander of the German forces on the western front.

Three million Japanese evacuated Tokyo on account of Allied bombings of the capital.

The Russian drive on Berlin was resumed.

March 23.—A comforting party to Yunnan and Burma, headed by Bishop Paul Yu Pin, returned to Chungking after the 32-day tour at the front.

Field Marshal Montgomery launched 21st Army Group attack across the Rhine.

Dr. Coonley and Jacobson, American technical experts, left Kunming for the United States.

March 24.—The Allies made a mass crossing of the Rhine River.

Spain withdraw protection of Japanese interests.

Two hundred and twenty-five B-29's dropped 100 tons of demolition bombs on Nagoya.

Premier Koiso appealed for recruits to the defense corps.

A continuous naval and air attack on the Ryukyus was begun.

The U. S. Navy announced the loss of the escort carrier, *Bismarck Seam*, to enemy action off Iwo on February 21.

Japanese forces in Burma were split by a British drive.

March 25.—Chinese and Japanese were locked in battle on this Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan and Honan fronts.

March 26.—Kan Nai-kuang, Deputy Secretary General of the Supreme National Defense Council, reaffirmed China's post-war financial policy of welcoming foreign capital in the economic reconstruction of China. Laws promulgated as recently as last December have been abolished, and more liberal conditions are offered to foreign investors.

The personnel of the Chinese Delegation to the San Francisco Conference was announced, with Dr. T. V. Soong, Acting President of the Executive Yuan, as head.

Hitler summoned an emergency meeting at Berchtesgaden.

Lloyd George, veteran British statesman who led Britain to victory in the last war, died at the age of 82.

Leon Henderson's mission arrived in Chungking.

Argentina declared war on the Axis.

March 27.—The Red Army fought its way into Danzig and Gdynia, important Baltic ports.

March 28.—The Russians captured Gdynia.

American forces landed on Cebu, in the central Visayan Islands.

The 3-man committee of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, on a world tour for the free exchange of news, arrived in Chungking.

The official price of gold increased from \$20,000 National currency to \$35,000 per ounce.

Major General Victor Odlum, Canadian Ambassador to China, returned to Chungking.

Syria and Lebanon were invited to the United Nations Conference.

Anthony Eden, declaring Hitler a major war criminal, said in the House of Commons that British soldiers could decide for themselves whether to shoot Hitler on sight or bring him back alive.

Admiral King's annual report listed 76 naval operations. In these actions the line was pushed 3,000 miles closer to Japan, and the battle of Iwo marked the beginning of the attack on the inner defenses of the Island Empire.

March 29. — Generalissimo Chiang, in a message to the enlisted educated youths on Youth Day, declared that the entire nation was pinning high hopes on them.

It was announced that the British government heads were discussing the release of all India Congress party members from prison, where they had been held since August, 1942.

Cebu fell to American troops.

March 30.—The Russians crossed the Austrian border at Koeszeg and captured Danzig.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Information, declared that press censorship would be abolished after the war, during his reception of three representatives of the American Society of Newspaper Editors. Chinese and U. S. journalists agreed on a free flow of news.

The Imperial Rule Assistance Society, which for three years functioned as the sole political party in Japan, was formally dissolved, and a new totalitarian party, the Political Association of Great Japan, was inaugurated with General Jir Minami as its president.

A British task force, including the battleship King George V and the carrier Illustrious, joined the Pacific Fleet.

A new Japanese drive was within five miles of the American air bases at Laohakow.

March 31.—U.S. forces invaded Negros, the fourth largest island of the Philippines.

The Japanese took Laohokow airfield.

Chinese troops captured Iyang, 50 kilometers south of Loyang, and Sunghsien, in western Honan.

April 1.—A drastic reshuffle took place in the Japanese command, involving 71 military posts. This was

in accordance with the "resolute determination of the Army to transform the homeland into a battlefield."

The Americans landed on Okinawa, largest island of the Ryukyu Chain, only 325 miles southwest of the Japanese homeland.

U.S. forces occupied Bacolod, provisional capital of Negros Island. B-29's bombed Nagoya.

The Silesian city of Glogau, under siege since Feb. 13, fell to the Russians.

The Yugoslav government of Marshal Tito recognized the Lublin Provisional Government in Warsaw.

The United Nations War Crimes Commission announced that Adolf Hitler's name headed one of the five lists of war criminals that had been compiled. It declared that the leaders of enemy governments would not be immune from prosecution for war crimes.

The Nazi Party order every German to "do or die" in the face of the Allied Armies or to be outlawed as a traitor.

April 2.—In a report on losses in the Philippines, Japanese casualties numbered 308,180; American casualties were 31,132.

General Wei Lih-huang was sworn in as Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Chinese Army Headquarters.

The Allies isolated the Ruhr.

The Russians captured Nagykanizsa, the last important Hungarian industrial center.

James F. Byrnes resigned as Director of the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion. President Roosevelt appointed Fred M. Vinson to succeed him.

April 3.—The Americans landed on Legaspi.

Ratification instruments of the Sino-Canadian Treaty were exchanged.

Russian forces captured Bratislava, capital of Slovakia, and Wiener-Neustadt, industrial suburb of Vienna.

Chinese Ambassador Wei Taoming, British Ambassador Earl Halifax and Russian Ambassador Andrei Gromyko conferred with Secretary of State Edward R. Stettinius on organizational and procedural plans for the San Francisco Conference.

Appolon Aleandrovich Petrov was appointed Soviet Ambassador to China, replacing A. S. Paniushkin, who had resigned because of illness.

Dr. Hsu Tao-ling was appointed Director of the Department of Political Affairs of the Executive Yuan.

U.S. Secretary of State Stettinius announced that the United States would not support any move to postpone the San Francisco Conference. He also declared that while the United States would continue to back the Soviet request for three votes, it would ask for only one vote.

The 300-mile arc of the Allied front, backed by 1,000,000 men, drove deeper into the Reich at all points. The Allies took Muenster and Kassel.

April 4.—The U.S. Senate Foreign Relations Committee approved the extension of Lend-Lease.

The Russians crossed the lower Carpathians. The advance into Czechoslovakia continued and Red

Army units in Yugoslavia moved toward Graz.

A total of 1,352,002 German prisoners was taken in the west since D-Day.

General Hurley visited London en route to China.

American troops landed on Tawi Tawi, Sanga Sanga and Bongao, at the tip of the Sulu Archipelago and only 30 miles from Borneo.

The British Commonwealth Conference on security issues opened in London.

April 5.—The Japanese opened a drive in Shensi.

The Russians reached the city limits of Vienna.

U.S. forces landed on Masbate, northeast of Leyte.

A new treaty was signed between China and Sweden.

Russia denounced its neutrality pact with Japan. The Koiso Cabinet resigned en bloc. Admiral Baron Kantaro Suzuki became the new premier.

A joint Army-Navy Command for the Pacific Theater was announced by the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff in Washington. General MacArthur was made Commander of all Army Forces, and Admiral Nimitz, Commander of all Naval Forces in the Pacific. General H. H. Arnold continued with a separate command of the 20th Air Force.

The China Law Society held its annual meeting.

The Ministry of Education announced the formation of the Sino-American Cultural Service.

The Allies captured Muehlhausen in Germany.

British forces reached Taungup, a Burmese port 200 miles north of Rangoon.

April 6.—After the denunciation by the Soviet Union of the neutrality pact with Japan, the Island Empire declared that the greatest effort would be made to maintain neutrality with the Soviet Union and that "both parties were bound to maintain neutrality for another year at least."

The Chinese launched a counter-offensive against Japanese forces invading Shensi.

April 7.—The Allies crossed the Weser River.

U.S. carrier planes sank the 40,000-ton Japanese battleship "Yamato" and five other warships.

Dr. T. V. Soong left Chungking for America to attend the San Francisco Conference.

Four hundred B-29's attacked Tokyo and Nagoya.

April 8.—Admiral Baron Kantaro Suzuki, new Japanese Premier, installed a battle cabinet and changed the army and air commands. He also told the Japanese people that optimism over Japan's survival in the war was unwarranted.

The Foreign Policy Association of China was inaugurated.

General Lo Cho-ying, Inspector-General for the training of the Youth Army, in a review of the Youth Army divisions, urged them to work for a common victory with the Allied Army.

April 9.—Hitler took full personal command of the Army.

Ratification documents of the Sino-Brazilian Treaty were exchanged.

Koenigsberg fell. The R.A.F. sank the German battleship, "Admiral Scheer," at Kiel.

The United Nations Committee of Jurists Conference opened in

Washington to draft a statute for the proposed International Court of Justice.

The Chinese recaptured Nanchang in northern Hupeh.

General Hurley left London en route to Chungking.

In Burma, British troops captured Thazi.

Jolo, capital of the Sulu Archipelago, was captured.

The United States, the Latin American nations, Great Britain, Canada, France and the Netherlands recognized the Farrell Government of Argentina.

April 10.—The Chinese took Changsuicheng in Honan.

Russian forces captured the center of Vienna.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer returned to Chungking from Washington.

The Americans took Hanover.

The Allies crossed the Senio River in Italy.

U.S. Marines on Okinawa captured the naval base at Unten Harbor.

General Alexander launched a new offensive in Italy.

April 11. — Spain severed diplomatic relations with Japan.

The U.S. 9th Army reached the Elbe River at Magdeburg after a 50-mile advance. German cities which fell to the Allies included Essen, Gelsenkirchen and Coburg.

The Allies in Italy crossed the Frigido River and captured Massa.

April 12. — Allied forces crossed the Elbe River and captured Weimar.

Russia and Yugoslavia signed a 20-year treaty of friendship and military alliance.

President Roosevelt died. Vice-President Harry S. Truman succeeded to the presidency.

Representatives of Saudi Arabia, Syria, and Lebanon signed the Declaration of the United Nations, bringing the number of signatories to 47.

April 13.—Allied troops cut the main railroads and highways linking southern Germany and Berlin, in a drive to split Germany.

The Chinese recapture of Laohokou was announced.

Vienna fell to the Russians.

Bohol, last of the central Philippines held by the Japanese, was invaded by American forces.

April 14.—To the south from Paoking, a new Japanese offensive moved toward Chih-kiang, American air base in Hunan.

American forces landed on Rapupapu and the Bataan islands.

Tokyo was raided by 400 B-29's, with heavy damage.

Fort Drum, the "concrete battleship" in Manila Bay was blown up by American forces.

A Japanese counter-attack on Okinawa was repulsed.

President Truman reaffirmed President Roosevelt's "Good Neighbor" policy.

Premier Joseph Stalin has agreed to send Foreign Commissar Vyacheslav M. Molotov to the United Nations Security Conference in response to a request by President Truman, the White House announced.

The Eighth Army crossed the Sillaro River in Italy.

April 15.—Sinning in western Hunan fell to the Japanese.

April 16.—Taungup, a Burmese port, fell to the British.

Truman, in his first message to Congress, pledged, to support and defend Roosevelt's ideals.

Chungking paid its last tribute to Roosevelt. President Chiang personally officiated at the ceremony.

Allied armies entered Nuremberg.

Three Red Armies launched an offensive on Berlin.

Truman conferred with Eden, Chairman of the British delegation to the San Francisco Conference.

April 17.—It was reported that the Japanese had developed a "suicide plane" to be used against battleships and carriers.

Truman asked the U.S. armed forces to complete Roosevelt's task.

Truman signed the extension of the Lend-Lease Act and declared that Lend-Lease would be continued until Japan's defeat.

Hsihsiakow in south Hunan, a strategic point, fell to the Chinese.

The United States, Great Britain and Canada signed the 4th Lend-Lease Agreement with Russia.

Dr. Coonley, Adviser to the Chinese Government, declared at the annual meeting of the China-America Council of Commerce and Industry that unless China was industrialized in the future, the safety of the East and the welfare of the world would be jeopardized.

April 18.—Dr. T. V. Soong conferred with Stettinius.

American troops entered Czechoslovakia, thus cutting Germany in two parts. The Canadian First

Army split German forces in the Netherlands.

Argenta, in Italy, fell to the British.

The Chinese recaptured Fancheng in northern Hupeh.

April 19.—Leipzig and Halle fell to the Americans. Stalin announced that the battle of Berlin was on.

Dr. T. V. Soong conferred with Truman.

April 20.—It was announced that during the 12 months ending March 31, more than 550,000 tons of cargo were carried to the fighting fronts of north and central Burma.

Nuremberg fell to the Allies.

American troops broke into the Po Valley in Italy.

The British 2nd Army smashed the Hamburg-Bremen line.

A preliminary draft of a statute, similar to that of the Permanent Court of Justice of the Hague, was signed by jurists of 44 United Nations. The draft, to be submitted to the San Francisco Conference, was an outline for the New International Court of Justice.

The capture of Cotabato, provincial capital of south Mindanao, was announced.

A Japanese three-pronged offensive against Chihkiang was checkmated.

In a letter to Secretary Stettinius, former Secretary of State Cordell Hull stated that because of ill health he would be unable to attend the San Francisco Conference.

April 21.—General MacArthur announced the complete liberation of the central Philippines.

Japan announced a general reshuffling of regional officials.

A treaty of friendship and mutual assistance was signed by Russia and the Polish Provisional Government.

Asch, in Czechoslovakia, fell to Allies.

The Allies freed Bologna.

Churchill reiterated Britain's promise to fight the Japanese to the finish.

April 22.—A Japanese-sponsored conference, designed to rival the United Nations Conference at San Francisco to be convened on April 25, was attended by Japan's puppet governments of Manchuria, China, Thailand, Burma and the Philippines.

Molotov arrived in Washington from Moscow to confer with Truman, Stettinius and Eden.

The Americans crossed the Danube.

The conquest of Ie Island, off Okinawa, was completed.

April 23.—The Allies in Italy reached the Po River.

A list of members of the 4th People's Political Council was publicized.

Dr. Joseph Needham, Chairman of the British Institute for Scientific Research and Head of the Sino-British Scientific Cooperation Institute, arrived in Chungking from England.

The United States, Britain and Russia issued a warning to the Nazi High Command that they would be individually responsible for the safety of Allied prisoners of war and foreign workers.

A conference between Lieutenant General Daniel I. Sultan, Lieutenant General A. C. Wedemeyer and other high ranking Allied officers on the war against Japan was concluded.

April 24.—The Allies in Italy crossed the Po River. Spezia, Modena and Ferrara were captured.

The Russians encircled Berlin.

Chinese forces launched an attack along a 100-mile front to protect the U.S. air base at Chinkiang.

Marshal Henri-Philippe Petain, Chief of State of the Vichy regime, arrived in Switzerland on his way to surrender to the French Government and face charges of treason.

General Barney M. Giles was appointed Commanding General of the U.S. Army Air Forces in the Pacific Ocean Area.

April 25.—The United Nations World Security Conference opened in San Francisco with 46 nations represented.

British troops captured the oil center of Yenangyang in Burma.

Delegates of the United States, Great Britain, Russia, France and Belgium met in Oakland, California, to create the structure for a new World Labor Organization.

R.A.F. planes blasted Berchtesgaden.

The Russians crossed the Elbe River near Dresden. The capture of Pillau ended resistance in the East Prussian pocket.

Tokyo Radio declared that B-29's had razed seven industrial sections of the city and destroyed 770,000 homes.

Truman conferred with U.S. Army and Navy Chiefs.

A Russian army took Stettin in Prussia and Brno in Czechoslovakia.

April 26.—The British 2nd Army captured Bremen. American troops took Eger in Czechoslovakia. Italian partisans were

in control of Malin and Turin. In Burma, British forces seized Toungoo, 167 miles from Rangoon.

April 27.—At the San Francisco Conference, the delegates accepted the Soviet request that the Conference should have four presidents, namely, Stettinius, Molotov, Eden and T. V. Soong. The Russian proposal that White Russia and the Ukraine be admitted to the Conference was also accepted. However, the Russian request that the Lublin Provisional Government of Poland be allowed to attend the Conference was rejected. A resolution expressing the hope that Poland be represented as soon as the Lublin government was broadened was passed.

Washington, London and Moscow announced the linking of the Western and Eastern Fronts on April 25 at Torgau on the Elbe River.

The U.S. 3rd Army captured Regensburg on the Danube. An Anti-Nazi uprising in Munich was reported crushed. The Allies here in Genoa.

Italian partisans captured Mussolini in his flight from Lake Como to Germany.

Marshal Petain arrived in Paris to face trial for treason.

April 28.—U.S. Ambassador Patrick J. Hurley, returned to Chungking from a conference with Premier Stalin at Moscow, said that the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union were in agreement on Chinese policy and were anxious for China to work out her own destiny in her own way.

Benito Mussolini, Italy's dictator for 21 years, and 13 henchmen were executed by Italian partisans.

Heinrich Himmler, Head of the S.S., who offered unconditional

surrender to Britain and the United States, was informed that unconditional surrender must be made to all of the three major Allies.

The U.S. 7th Army arrived in Augsburg, Germany. British forces in Burma were only 62 miles from Rangoon.

April 29.—Chinese forces regained Nanchang in Kwangsi.

Czechoslovakia and Sweden agreed to reestablish diplomatic relations.

The 45,000-ton aircraft carrier "Franklin Roosevelt" was launched in New York Harbor.

The Provisional Government of Austria was formed.

The Allies captured Milan and Venice.

April 30.—Ukraine, White Russia and Argentina were invited to join the San Francisco Conference.

The United States, Britain, the Soviet Union, China and France met to consider the U.S. program on trusteeship.

America and Britain withheld recognition of the new Provisional Government of Austria sponsored by Russia.

U.S. forces completed the capture of Munich.

The U.S. House of Representatives authorized the United States to join the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations.

A. A. Petrov, new Soviet Ambassador to China, arrived in Chungking.

General Mark Clark declared that the German Army as a military force in Italy no longer existed.

Korea protested against exclusion from the San Francisco Conference.

May 1.—Allied forces landed on the eastern coast of Borneo.

The Chinese Delegation to the United Nations Conference on International Organization held its first press conference in San Francisco.

Hamburg Radio announced the death of Adolf Hitler. Admiral Karl Doenitz became the Nazi Chief.

The China Labor Welfare Association was inaugurated.

President Truman announced the surrender of all German forces in Italy.

Japan announced a general reorganization of the naval command.

May 2.—Dr. Wong Wen-hao reported an increased output in 18 main industrial products.

British forces landed on both banks of the Rangoon River in Burma.

Berlin fell after a 12-day siege by Soviet troops.

Pierre Laval, former Vichy Prime Minister, was arrested in Barcelona.

May 3.—The British recaptured Rangoon, Burma. (It fell to the Japanese on March 9, 1942).

General Wedemeyer issued a statement on his visit to the United States.

Hamburg capitulated without a fight.

British armies crossed Kiel.

The Doenitz Government of Germany was moved from Berlin to Copenhagen, Denmark.

May 4.—All German forces in the Netherlands, Denmark and northwestern Germany, including Helgoland and the Frisian Islands, surrendered to Montgomery.

All of Slovakia was liberated.

Truman conferred with Osmena on the independence of the Philippines.

May 5.—The German 1st, 19th and 24th Armies surrendered to the American 7th Army and the French 1st Army, leaving only one German army opposing the Western Allies.

Czechoslovak resistance forces took over Bohemia and Moravia and again made Prague the capital of Czechoslovakia.

Amendments to the Dumbarton Oaks Plan were proposed.

The Sixth Kuomintang Congress opened in Chungking. President Chiang asked for the adoption of a proposal to call a National Assembly on November 12 for the purpose of framing a new constitution for China.

The U.S. War Department announced that U. S. troops in Europe would be sent straight to Asia without first returning to America. It also added that it planned to maintain an army of 6,968,000 men.

May 6.—The Chinese scored a victory in western Hunan.

Davao in Mindanao was liberated.

Japan protested against a German offer of surrender.

Portugal broke relations with Germany.

Ruegen, the last German stronghold on the Baltic, was seized by Russian troops.

In Burma, the British 14th Army and the Indian 15th Corps joined, between Rangoon and Pegu, to form an unbroken front.

May 7.—Germany surrendered unconditionally to the Allies. The Act of Surrender was signed at 2.41 a.m. French time, in Reims,

France, thus ending the war in Europe.

Joaquim Eulalio de Nascimentoe Silva, Brazilian Ambassador to China, was decorated by the Chinese Government.

Spain broke diplomatic relations with Germany.

Generalissimo Chiang appealed to the Allies to use all their forces to smash Japan.

German forces in Czechoslovakia, refusing to accept the surrender, continued to fight in Prague.

Breslau, capital of German Silesia, fell to the Red Army after an 84-day siege.

May 8.—V-E Day was proclaimed in Washington and London. President Truman in a message said, "Our victory is but half won," and called on Japan to surrender unconditionally or face utter destruction. President Chiang stressed total victory in his message and congratulated Allied leaders.

Commenting on the news of Germany's surrender, General Jiro Minami, head of the Political Association of Greater Japan, said that the Japanese never had "the slightest intention of relying on the power of Germany in prosecuting this sacred war. There is nothing for us to think about but how to win the war."

The formal ratification of Germany's unconditional surrender was signed in Berlin.

A. A. Petrov, newly appointed Soviet Ambassador to China, presented his credentials to President Chiang.

The British Admiralty ordered all German submarines to report their positions and proceed to designated ports.

German forces withdrew from Prague.

Dresden in Germany and Olomouc in Czechoslovakia fell to the Russians.

King Leopold III of Belgium and his wife were liberated.

It was announced that it cost the U.S. \$275,000,000,000 to wage the war against Germany.

Chinese forces launched a general counter-offensive on the western Hunan front.

May 9.—Four hundred B-29's from the Marianas bombed Japanese targets on the islands of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

"The war is not over for the U.S.S.R. till all aggressors are defeated," said Molotov, Soviet Foreign Commissar.

It was announced that Hitler's Air Minister, Marshal Herman Goering, had surrendered to the American Seventh Army.

German guerrilla pilots bombed Prague and surrounding communities.

Chinese forces, aided by their planes, broke the Japanese line east of the American air base at Chihkiang.

It was announced that Russia received 36 percent of U.S. Lend-Lease aid.

The liberation of Denmark was announced.

Quisling was arrested at Oslo.

May 10.—One hundred and fifty B-29's attacked an aircraft plant near Kobe.

Samal Island, off the coast of Davao, was taken by the Americans.

The Chinese recaptured Sin-chang in Chekiang.

The Cabinet of the Suzuki Government announced that Germany's capitulation would not make the

slightest change in Japan's war objective; Japan would devote its total effort toward the complete destruction of the unjust ambition of the United States and Britain.

Four Russian armies continued to battle intransigent German forces in a 9,900 square mile pocket of Czechoslovakia.

Churchill warned that conscription would go on for the war against Japan.

May 11.—B-29's sowed mines around Japanese home waters.

Tokyo Radio announced that all Japanese ex-servicemen and all youths 16 years of age and over who had not yet been conscripted would be subjected to immediate induction after May 20. This was stipulated in a new revision of the National Conscription Law for the defense of the Japanese home islands against invasion.

Announcement was made of the capture of the Japanese Ambassador to Germany General Hiroshi Oshima, his diplomatic corps, and several Germans of ministerial rank including Dr. Walther Funk, President of the Reichsbank and Minister of Economics.

U.S. Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson announced his Government's plans for ruling the American zone of conquered Germany.

The movement of 3,000,000 veterans of the European war to the Pacific theater was well under way.

A record B-29 raid spread giant fires in the oil centers of Honshu Island.

It was announced that Canada's casualties in the Army, Navy and Air Forces during the war totalled 102,875.

The formal demobilization of the remains of the German Army, Navy and Air Forces was begun.

Tokyo Radio admitted that "Japan started the war on her own accord for her own reasons," and would continue to fight to "avenge fallen Germany."

It was announced that in the first four months of 1945, 2,000,000 tons of Japanese shipping had been sunk or damaged by planes based in the Philippines.

A threat to Chihkiang was removed as the Chinese smashed a major Japanese drive.

Chinese troops entered Foochow, important port city and capital of Fukien, and fought along the eastern seaboard.

The Chinese recaptured Chenghsien in Chekiang.

May 12.—Chinese troops in Hunan pressed to within 25 miles of Paoking, a major enemy base.

The size of the Security Council of the world organization to be set up was determined to be 11 members by a committee in charge of that problem.

The German-held pocket in Czechoslovakia was cut to 1,200 square miles.

In celebrating the Victory in Europe, Generalissimo Chiang declared, "We are confident that in the not far distant future Japan will meet the same fate as Hitlerite Germany and will not be permitted to escape the retribution she fully deserves."

Lieutenant Colonel Joseph Hodgson was appointed as U.S. Commissioner on the United Nations War Crimes Commission.

Edwin A. Locke, Jr. succeeded Donald Nelson as President Truman's representative to foreign governments.

May 13.—Prime Minister Churchill declared that he did not intend to allow "totalitarian or police government" to take the place of German dictatorship in liberated Europe and invited the United States to continue cooperating with Great Britain.

The Russians in Czechoslovakia cleaned up isolated pockets of Germans.

Five hundred B-29's smashed Nagoya, raining 3,300 tons of incendiaries in an hour and a half daylight raid.

It was revealed that a sum of \$5,000,000 had been appropriated by the Central Government for the relief of war refugees in northern Hupeh.

Street fighting took place in Focohow.

May 14.—The Kuomintang Congress decided to convene a National Assembly on November 12 to inaugurate a constitutional government.

Generalissimo Chiang congratulated Chinese and U.S. Air Forces on the victory in Hunan.

Dr. T. V. Soong and President Truman conferred on Lend-Lease problems.

The American and British governments were reported to have sent similar notes to Marshal Tito saying that Trieste must remain under Allied control until its future had been determined at the peace table.

Australian forces captured Wakewak Peninsula in New Guinea.

The Provisional Government of Austria declared its independence. All Nazi laws were abolished and Republican laws restored.

Edwin A. Locke, Jr. succeeded Donald Nelson as head of the

American Production Mission in China.

Eden conferred with Truman and Joseph Grew.

May 15.—U.S. carrier planes ended a three-day strike at Kyushu Island.

The U.S. Senate approved the Navy's \$28,603,000,000 Appropriation Bill, for the next fiscal year.

The Japanese Government voted to abrogate all its Axis mutual assistance treaties, including the anti-Comintern pacts.

Idenek, Premier of Czechoslovakia, announced that an autonomous government had been set up in Ruthenia and that it desired to join the Soviet Union.

Field Marshal General Wilhelm Keitel of the German High Command was arrested by the Allies.

The Allies took over 475 German ships.

Truman announced that he favored repeal of the Johnson Act.

May 16.—The Chinese High Command said that the victory at Chihkiang had ended a Japanese menace to the U.S. air base in Hunan.

Hitler's Labor Minister, Dr. Robert Ley, was captured.

Prime Minister MacKenzie King of Canada stated that about 30,000 Canadians would fight in the war against Japan, in addition to naval units and an air force.

Korean prisoners in Free China were given their liberty.

Five hundred B-29's again hit Japanese targets in Nagoya.

May 17.—President Chiang was reelected Tsungtsai (Director-General) of the Kuomintang by the Party Congress.

Chungking admitted that the Chinese were forced out of Foochow.

Denmark broke relations with Japan.

The British Government issued a White Paper outlining a plan whereby part of Burma was to attain full self-government within the British Commonwealth in three stages.

May 18.—Three hundred B-29's bombed Hamamatsu, important industrial center on Honshu.

Generalissimo Chiang congratulated Chinese troops on the Honan victory.

The Chinese Government conferred the Grand Cordon of the order of Propitious Clouds on the Chilean President.

U.S. forces broke the Shuri defense line in Okinawa.

The Kuomintang Congress adopted proposals to pave the way for the inauguration of constitutionalism, and a resolution to strengthen cooperation with the Soviet Union. The Congress also advocated a minimum wage scale, a 48-hour week and annual vacations with pay for farmers and laborers.

A 12-point peace policy of Britain's Conservative Party was outlined in a statement issued by the party's Central Office.

Professor P. M. Roxby, Chief Representative of the British Council in China, arrived in Chungking.

May 19.—Alfred Rosenberg, Nazi philosopher, was arrested.

May 20.—General Sun Li-jen, Commander of the Chinese New First Army, was invited to visit the European theaters of war by General Eisenhower.

U.S. troops withdrew from Trieste. Marshal Tito also agreed to withdraw his army from Carinthia.

The question of regional security within the framework of international security, which had been baffling the Soviet Union on the one hand and the United States and Latin-American on the other, was decided by a compromise.

A. A. Petrov, Soviet Ambassador to China, and the Staff Members of the Soviet Embassy were honored at dinner by President Chiang.

The Chinese opened a new drive in Kwangsi. They captured Hochih, took Mamoi near Foochow and cleared the Min River from Foochow to the coast.

The reorganization of the Services of Supply Command in the China-Burma-India Theater was announced.

May 21.—The Sixth National Kuomintang Congress ended a 17-day session. Resolutions were adopted to start a general counter offensive against the Japanese.

It was announced that Japan was pooling civilian organizations for men, women and youths in a home defense corps, in anticipation of an Allied invasion of the homeland. Twenty million students from 14 years of age were mobilized for the formation of an agrarian militia.

The small nations at the San Francisco Conference opposed the Big Five's veto rights. They objected particularly to the Big Five's power to veto proposals for the peaceful settlement of dispute in which they were not directly involved.

The Labor Party of Britain rejected Prime Minister Churchill's invitation to remain in the cabinet until the end of the war against Japan. It suggested that the present coalition remain only until the autumn.

The Chinese recaptured King-chengkiang.

May 22.—The U.S. War Department disclosed that Japan had been sending giant bomb-laden paper balloons toward the western part of North America.

Chinese forces regained Lien-kong in Fukien.

Full credit for the Hunan victory went to the Chinese, General Wedemeyer said.

Yugoslav troops continued to withdraw from the disputed areas of Austria-Trieste and Venezia Giulia, and British and American troops moved into new positions.

President Truman told Congress that Lend-Lease and reverse Lend-Lease must continue to hasten the end of the war in the Pacific, and "plans for reconversion in the United States, Britain and Canada are being coordinated on a broad front so that these nations will be devoting equitable shares of industrious capacity to the war against Japan." He also added that Lend-Lease aid to China from March 11, 1941 to March to March 31, 1945 totalled US\$2,230,000,000.

Foreign Minister Mardam of Syria demanded the withdrawal of French troops from Syria. The Lebanese Foreign Minister, Henri Pharaon, announced that his country would not bow to French force.

Field Marshal Sir Bernard Montgomery was appointed British member of the Allied Control Commission.

It was announced that Germany had 500 submarines at the end of the war, one-tenth of which were at sea.

May 23.—A reshuffle of Truman's Cabinet was announced. Clinton

Anderson, Judge Louis Schwellenbach and Thomas Clark were appointed Secretary of Agriculture, Secretary of Labor and Attorney General respectively.

Prime Minister Winston Churchill resigned in preparation for a general election.

The Allies dissolved the German Government headed by Grand Admiral Karl Doenitz. The members of the Government, the High Command and General Staff were arrested.

The Chinese recaptured Szeen in Kwangsi.

Nazi Germany's chief anti-Semite, Julius Streicher, was captured near Waldring.

A joint statement of the Foreign Ministers of Syria and Lebanon declared that "no nation in the world has the privilege of using force" in their countries and predicted resistance by the two nations, backed by the Arab world. French troops in Syria were confined to barracks as strikes and riots continued.

Heinrich Himmler, Head of the S.S. committed suicide by taking poison soon after his capture.

May 24.—Five hundred and fifty B-29's bombed Tokyo.

Chinese troops recovered Hwai-yuanchen in Kwangsi.

The Big Five accepted the Yalta formula regarding trusteeship.

Sir Harold Alexander, Supreme Commander in the Mediterranean, announced the establishment of the British and American military government in Austria.

It was estimated that the German war dead numbered 4,000,000 soldiers and 500,000 civilians.

The U.S. House Banking Committee approved the Bretton Woods international agreement.

The Japanese started a new offensive in Indo-China.

The return of the Netherlands Government to the Hague was announced.

May 25.—British troops entered Bassein in southwestern Burma.

U.S. forces penetrated into Naha, capital and port city on the west coast of Okinawa.

Senator Millard E. Tydings, heading a mission to the Philippines, declared that Philippines independence should be realized before June, 1946.

The withdrawal of three Japanese divisions from Hunan, Honan and Kwangsi during the past month was reported.

Harry Hopkins and Joseph E. Davis, special representatives of President Truman, arrived in Moscow and London, respectively, in what was believed to be preparation for the forthcoming Big Three Conference.

May 26.—Five hundred B-29's pounded Tokyo; the imperial palace was reported hit.

Lieutenant General James H. Doolittle was named Commander of the U.S. 8th Air Force, re-deployed from the European to the Pacific Theater.

Churchill formed a "Caretaker Government."

The responsibility of the Security Council to the General Assembly in the new world organization to be created was increased to a greater degree than planned in the Dumbarton Oaks proposals.

General Eisenhower removed his headquarters to Frankfort-on-Main.

May 27.—The Chinese recaptured the big inland port of Nanning in southern Kwangsi and attacked

the Japanese in Wenchow, Chekiang.

The French Government officially expressed regret that the governments of Syria and Lebanon had used the arrival of Senegalese troops in the mandated areas as an occasion to break off negotiations. Britain attempted to serve as a mediator.

Major General Henry S. Aurand was appointed Commanding General of the Services of Supply, U.S. Forces, China Theater, to succeed Major General G. X. Cheves.

May 28.—The Sixth Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang met.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek commended Chinese and U.S. airmen for their achievements.

Chinese troops drove rapidly toward Ishan.

Street fighting broke out in Syria. The Prime Minister of Egypt Mahmoud Fahmy Nokrashy, told Parliament that the government supported its sister Arab nations in their efforts to maintain their independence. The U.S. State Department revealed that it was attempting to aid in the peaceful settlement of the French-Arabic dispute.

Stettinius delivered a report on America's foreign policy to the people. He announced that a world security charter was assured.

Clement Attlee, leader of Britain's Labor Party, pledged self-government for India.

May 29.—Four hundred and fifty B-29's smashed Yokohama.

Ting Hsueh-ling and Kuo Mu-zo, noted Chinese scholars, were invited to attend the celebration

of the 220th anniversary of the Soviet Scientific Academy in Moscow and Leningrad.

British Foreign Secretary Eden described the disturbances in Syria as serious. French troops were reportedly shelling Damascus. The French accused the British of meddling.

"Middle" powers at the San Francisco Conference won their fight to give each country a vote in the Security Council whenever the council proposed to use its forces.

The Sino-Netherlands Treaty was signed in London.

The Chinese led a drive on Paoing and Hsihsiakow.

Attorney General Sir David Maxwell Fyfe was appointed British representative on the War Crimes Commission.

May 30.—Chinese armies fought in the outskirts of Ishan in a drive on Liuchow, former U.S. air base in Kwangsi.

Liuchow was swept by fires as the Japanese were reported to be preparing to evacuate the city.

Pingyang and Suilu in Kwangsi were recaptured.

Vice Admiral Jisaburo Ozawa was named Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Navy, replacing Admiral Soemu Toyoda, who became Chief of the Naval General Staff.

The Chinese Air Force attacked Nanking and shot down ten Zeros.

Marshal Zhukov was named Soviet member of the Allied Control Commission for Germany. Foreign Minister Anushirawan Sepaphbodi of Iran announced the government had asked the United States, Great Britain and Russia to withdraw all their troops from Iran.

President Bechara of El Khoury of Syria signed a decree calling for volunteers between the ages of 18 and 35. Fighting between Arabs and Frenchmen grew more serious in Syria, where French troops reportedly had occupied the Parliament building in the capital, Damascus.

A 2,000-mile Calcutta-Kunming telephone line was opened.

May 31.—The first plenary session of the Sixth Central Executive Committee was concluded. President Chiang, in his message, urged greater efforts to win the war.

President Chiang and Dr. H. H. Kung resigned as President and Vice-President of the Executive Yuan respectively. The former was preceded by Dr. T. V. Soong and the latter by Dr. Wong Wen-hao.

The Chinese Foreign Ministry announced that China and Argentina had established formal diplomatic relations.

U.S. forces captured Naha, capital of Okinawa.

Prime Minister Churchill sent a note to General de Gaulle which contained the request that "You immediately order the French troops to cease fire and to withdraw to their barracks." The Beirut Radio reported that the French had complied with the cease-fire order.

Representatives of 16 governments met in London for the opening session of a three-day war crimes conference.

Wedemeyer lauded Sino-American military cooperation.

June 1.—A new 12th Army was formed in Burma under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir Montagu Stopford.

General de Gaulle issued a cease-fire order to French troops in the Levant. The Soviet Union recommended a speedy settlement of the issue. Fighting again broke out in Damascus.

In a message to Congress, President Truman promised to double the fighting force in the Pacific.

Four hundred and fifty B-29's dropped tons of bombs on Osaka.

Ratification instruments of the Chinese-Belgian Treaty, signed on October 20, 1944, were exchanged in Chungking.

Chinese forces recovered the railway town of Chienkiang. The Japanese retreated toward Linchow.

June 2.—General de Gaulle blamed the British Government and its agents for the unrest in the Levant.

The United States and Britain rejected the Soviet proposal that permanent members of the Security Council be given the right to veto discussion on international disputes.

The Japanese withdrew from the Indo-China border.

The Greek Government declared that it considered itself as having been at war with Japan since hostilities began between Japan and Greece's allies.

June 3.—Japan's line west of Paoking was broken and her stronghold, Yenkowpu, was captured.

The Lublin Government ordered all Germans to leave Poland.

June 4.—The United Nations War Crimes Conference was concluded in London.

Tsinkong was liberated after seven months of Japanese occupation. But to the north, the Japa-

nese made progress in their drive from Wenchow.

Churchill formally began his reelection campaign. He attacked the socialist principles of the Labor Party.

The Viceroy of India, Viscount Wavell, arrived in India from London after discussions of the political situation in India.

President Truman sent Congress estimates calling for a \$4,375,000,000 Lend-Lease program beginning July 1. Only countries at war with Japan or aiding in the redeployment of American troops in Europe would receive aid.

The deadlock over the Soviet demand for the right to veto discussion of international disputes in the Security Council continued. The United States and Britain decided to appeal directly to Marshal Stalin to break the deadlock.

Joseph Davies returned to America from London after completing a special diplomatic mission for President Truman.

The presence in the China Theater of two U.S. Army ground force units—the 475th Infantry Regiment and the 124th Regiment, was announced.

Dr. T. V. Soong affirmed that China would welcome foreign capital and skill for post-war rehabilitation.

June 5.—Denmark was invited to the San Francisco Conference.

The Allied Supreme Commanders in Berlin signed the terms for the joint control of Germany.

Prime Minister Churchill contradicted General de Gaulle's charge that British interference provoked the disturbances in the Levant. He expressed a hope that a British-American-French Conference would settle the issue.

Kobe, attacked by B-29's was left in flames.

The Argentine President, General Edelmiro Farrell, stressed the importance of Sino-Argentine relations.

The Chinese advanced toward Paishou and Sokma from Kweilin, closing in on Liuchow and Ishan.

The creation of the United Nations Interim Commission in London was agreed to by the Big Five.

Russia decorated General Eisenhower and Field Marshal Montgomery.

June 6.—Brazil declared war on Japan.

The Japanese evacuated four industrial towns in the Hongkong area.

More than 1,450 engineers attended a 4-day annual meeting of the Chinese Institute of Engineers.

The Chinese Air Force carried out successful attacks on Nanking, Kiukiang and Ichang.

Henry Wallace, U.S. Secretary of Commerce, urged increased trade with China.

King Haakon of Norway returned to Oslo.

The All-Colonial Peoples' Conference issued a manifesto, urging the unconditional ending of all colonial systems.

June 7.—An extraordinary session of the Japanese Cabinet was held.

The Chinese advanced to within 30 miles southwest of Liuchow and recaptured Futing.

The Big Five reached an agreement on the Yalta voting formula.

General Stilwell conferred with General MacArthur in Manila.

June 8.—Joseph C. Grew, Acting Secretary of State, declared that

it was the desire of the United States that Korea take its place among the free and independent peoples of the world.

The Chinese won back Lungchow in south Kwangsi.

China and the Dominican Republic signed a new agreement on free entry of nationals appended to the treaty of 1940.

June 9.—It was announced that Chinese troops in the process of clearing the Japanese from China, had reached the Indo-China border, Paishou, Mingming, and Mingkiang in Kwangsi and Pingyang in Chekiang were recaptured.

The Ministry of Finance increased the official price of gold from \$35,000 national currency to \$40,000 per ounce.

The Japanese Foreign Minister ordered the German diplomatic staff in Japan to suspend activities. The Japanese Imperial Diet held an extraordinary session.

Dr. T. V. Soong called on President Truman.

The Philippine Congress passed a joint resolution pledging 1,000,000 men to fight Japan.

June 10.—Australian troops invaded the northwestern area of Borneo, around Brunei Bay, capturing the airfield and city of Victoria, capital of Labuan Island, and Brooketon, on the mainland of Borneo.

The Chinese regained control over Ishan, strategic town northwest of Liuchow in Kwangsi. Sunfeng in Kwangtung was also taken.

A great parade of Allied forces was held in Berlin.

It was announced that Japan had decided to establish a new wartime administrative system to meet the critical war situation.

Chinese troops reached within 16 kilometers northwest of Kweilin.

General Stilwell paid a surprise visit to Okinawa.

The Subject Peoples' Conference opened in London.

Congress leaders of India consulted Gandhi on Viscount Wavell's proposals.

June 11—It was announced that about 250,000 Royal Air Force personnel would be deployed overseas by the end of the year to carry on the war against Japan.

The Revised Organic Law of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee was passed.

The Chinese evacuated Ishan.

General Stilwell said that 500,000 men were needed to invade Japan.

Generals Pai Chung-hsi, Chen Cheng, Lin Wei, Liu Yueh-han and Captain Lin Tsun were decorated by General Wedemeyer.

Admirals of the Fleet William Leahy and Ernest J. King and Generals of the Army Douglas MacArthur, William Turner and Louis Pick were decorated by the Chinese Government.

The Allies landed in British North Borneo.

Lady Mountbatten paid tribute to the people of China.

General Eisenhower declared that U.S. troops were being rapidly sent to the Far East.

Dr. T. V. Soong declared that he would visit Moscow on his return to China.

Major General Pai Yu-sung was sworn in as Commanding General of the Chinese Services of Supply.

Hsu Kan, Minister of Food, reported on the food situation.

June 12—The wartime emergency measure bill and volunteers' military service bill were passed in a special four-day session of the Japanese Diet.

U.S. Lend-Lease aid to China in the past year increased by more than 15 per cent, according to Foreign Economic Administrator Leo. T. Crowley. The total to April, 1945 was \$61,000,000, 6.3 per cent of all U.S. Lend-Lease aid.

Premier Suzuki of Japan was authorized to rule the country by Imperial Decree.

The "Big Five" interpretation of the Yalta voting formula was accepted.

The Philippine-China Relief and Rehabilitation Commission was inaugurated.

The Norwegian Cabinet of Johan Nyguadvold resigned.

June 13—The Chinese liberated the city of Juian. The Japanese fled toward Wenchow. Hoping in Kwantung was also retaken.

The United States, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. issued a statement on the new Polish Government.

President Truman announced that the time and place had been set for the Big Three meeting dedicated to the securing of a "just and durable" peace.

June 14—A White Paper on India was issued by the British Government. Eight members of the working committee of the All-India Congress Party, including Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Sardar Vallabhai Patel and Dr. Maulana Azad, all former presidents of the Congress, were released.

Five hundred and twenty B-29's attacked Osaka.

U.S. troops took the town of Brunei.

A voting procedure was adopted by UNCIO.

Dr. T. V. Soong conferred with President Truman.

The Chinese reoccupied Ishan, which they had evacuated three days before.

France paid high tribute to General Eisenhower.

Lungnan and Tingnan on the Kwangtung-Kwangsi border fell to the Japanese.

June 15.—The British Parliament was dissolved.

Announcement was made that Von Ribbentrop, former Nazi Foreign Minister had been arrested.

Ratification instruments of the Sino-Costa Rican Treaty of Amity, signed May 5, 1944, were exchanged.

June 16.—Attlee accepted Churchill's invitation to attend the forthcoming Big Three Meeting as "a friend and counsellor."

The Foreign Exchange Examination Committee of the Central Bank of China was inaugurated.

The U.S. Quartermaster Corps opened a new depot in Kunming.

June 17.—Ferruccio Parri was designated to form a new Italian Cabinet by Crown Princess Umberto.

The Government of Iran invited 12 countries to attend the International Medical Congress to be held in Teheran from July 1 to 9.

Major-General Curtis Lemay made a record non-stop flight from Hawaii to Washington in a B-29.

General Marshall and Admiral King urged post-war compulsory military training.

June 18.—The Chinese recaptured the port of Wenchow.

The British Pacific Fleet attacked Truk, in the Central Pacific.

General Simon Bolivar Buckner, Commander of the U.S. 10th Army, was killed in action on Okinawa. Major General Roy S. Geiger succeeded him.

It was announced that Lieutenant General Raymond A. Wheeler would replace Lieutenant General Daniel I. Sultan as Commander of the India-Burma Theater.

Major General Heliodyro Escalante, new Mexican Ambassador to China, arrived in Chungking.

General Eisenhower arrived in the United States, receiving a hero's welcome in Washington, and addressed a joint session of Congress.

Australian troops completed the occupation of the Brunei Bay area.

General Sun Li-jen, Commanding General of the New Chinese First Army, arrived in London after Normandy, continuing his inspection of defensive and offensive systems, in the European war.

June 19.—General MacArthur announced the set-up of Armed Forces in the Western Pacific, under Lieutenant General Wilhelm D. Styer.

The National Government announced that the Fourth People's Political Council would be convened on July 7.

Chinese forces driving along the Nanning-Liuchow Highway and those along the Ishan-Liuchow Highway met at points 10 kilometers southwest of Liuchow.

June 20.—Thirty-six U.S. Air Force officers, including Lieutenant General Harold George, Commander of the Army Transport Command, and T. B. Wilson, former President of the Trans-Continental

Western Airlines, were decorated by the Chinese Government.

Sir Reginald Dorman-Smith returned to Rangoon as the British Governor of Burma.

It was announced that the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration was taking steps toward giving assistance to southern Kweichow and northern Kwangsi.

Dr. T. V. Soong returned to Chungking from America, where he attended the United Nations Conference on International Organization as head of the Chinese Delegation and held important talks with President Truman. Dr. Monlin Chiang, Chief Chinese delegate to the recent meeting of the Institute of Pacific Relations, also returned.

O. K. Yui, Minister of Finance, declared, "The Government is doing its utmost to combat inflation."

The establishment of the U.S. Tactical Headquarters in China was announced by General Wedemeyer.

The drafting of the World Charter was begun.

The Working Committee of the All-India National Congress convened.

General Henry H. Arnold visited Okinawa.

June 21.—The Americans captured Okinawa, 82 days after their landing.

General Joseph W. Stilwell was appointed Commander of the U.S. 10th Army.

General Wedemeyer inspected Chinese and American forces in west China.

The Chinese recovered Kweiping in Kwangsi.

June 22.—The Australian landed on Borneo's Lutong oil refinery area.

Aparri, the last major Japanese port of escape on Luzon, was captured.

Announcement was made of further Japanese withdrawals from the south China coast, Hainan Island, Amoy and Swatow.

General Marshall promised a "speedy knock-out" of the Japanese.

Chinese troops reached the airfield of Liuchow. Severe fighting took place around the railway station in the west suburb of the city.

A new Polish Government was formed under terms of the Yalta Agreement.

The first government animal pack train from Tibet arrived in Kunming.

June 23.—Emperor Hirohito sent a message to the Japanese people saying that Japan was facing a crisis "unprecedented in scope in our national history." He also said that he was satisfied with the "valor and courage" the people had shown thus far.

Lieutenant General James Doolittle, Commander of the 8th Air Force, established his headquarters at Peterson Field.

June 24.—Six members of the U.S. Congress, led by Representative Harry Roger Sheppard, of California, Chairman of the Naval Sub-Committee of the House Appropriations Committee, arrived in Chungking.

Copies of German documents found indicated that Franco did not actively enter the war on the side of the Axis simply because Spain was not militarily strong enough and because of internal conflict.

June 25.—The opening session of the conference of British officials and Indian leaders convened in Simla to discuss Viceroy Viscount Wavell's new proposals for breaking the political deadlock in India.

The National Government announced that it had earmarked a sum of \$10,000,000,000 for financing agricultural projects for the year 1945.

It was announced that Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, President of the All-India National Congress, had handed a memorandum to Viceroy Viscount Wavell.

The opening phase of an American and British air offensive on a vast 5,00-mile front struck Japanese targets from the Kuriles to Borneo.

The Philippine House of Representatives passed a bill banning Japanese immigration into the Philippines.

The U.S. Naval task force of the North Pacific Fleet crossed the Kuriles Chain—into the sea of Okhotsk for the first time and nearly annihilated a five-ship enemy convoy.

Dr. T. V. Soong and Dr. Wong Wen-hao were inaugurated into office as President and Vice-President of the Executive Yuan respectively.

Leo T. Crowley, U.S. Foreign Economic Administrator, told the House Appropriations Committee that U.S. Lend-Lease supplies continued to flow to Soviet Russia's Far Eastern armies at the request of President Truman and his highest military advisers. He also urged increase of Lend-Lease aid to China.

Dr. Monlin Chiang was appointed Secretary General of the Exe-

cutive Yuan and Cheng Yen-fen was appointed Deputy Secretary General of the Central Executive Committee.

A new Netherlands Cabinet was formed.

President Truman arrived in San Francisco to address the closing session of the United Nations Conference.

Churchill in his election speech said, "Japan must be beaten as thoroughly as Germany."

June 26.—General Wu Chi-wei appointed Chairman of Hunan and General Sun Lien-chun were of Hopei respectively.

The U.S. House of Representatives passed a bill to the Senate to give the Army U.S. \$38,500,285,951 to fight Japan, beginning on July 1.

The San Francisco Conference successfully closed. China, being the first nation to resist aggression, led in the signing of the new World Charter with Dr. Wellington Koo as the first delegate to put his signature on the document. President Truman addressed the final session.

The Chinese recaptured Hwang-yen in east Chekiang.

Kuo Mu-jo, well-known Chinese writer who was invited to attend the 220th anniversary of the Soviet Academy of Sciences, arrived in Leningrad.

The resignation of Edward R. Steettinius as Secretary of State and his appointment as U.S. Representative on the United Nations Security Council and Chairman of the American Delegation in the United Nations General Assembly were announced.

The United Nations Preparatory Commission decided that its 14-

man executive committee should be organized in London.

Marshall Joseph Stalin was promoted to the rank of Generalissimo.

Eden enunciated a 4-point program for world peace.

Viceroy Wavell conferred with Jinnah of the Moslem League at Simla.

General Stilwell took up his post as Commander of the U.S. 10th Army.

Dr. T. V. Soong left Chungking for Moscow.

June 28.—President Chiang, at a press conference, praised Lieutenant General Wedemeyer and Ambassador Hurley, urged fuller use of Chinese troops and pleaded for more U.S. economic assistance.

Twelve American newsmen arrived in Chungking.

General MacArthur announced the liberation of the Philippine island of Luzon.

President Chiang sent a congratulatory message to President Truman on the successful conclusion of UNCIO, declaring that achievements of the conference were entirely due to the initiative taken by the United States and the harmonious cooperation of the United Nations.

The Chinese reestablished themselves in Lungnan and Tingnan on the Kwangtung-Kiangsi border.

The British-Chinese Chamber of Commerce was formed in London.

June 29.—Joseph C. Grew, U.S. Acting Secretary of States, reiterated that no offer of peace had been received from the Japanese, through either official or unofficial channels.

A large-scale transfer of Japanese industry to Manchuria was announced.

The Conference of Indian leaders called by Viscount Wavell, to constitute an Indian Governing Council, adjourned until July 14 while the Congress party and the Moslem league worked out an agreement on the selection of the Moslem members of the Council.

The Chinese recaptured Liuchow.

It was announced that Japan was moving large numbers of factories to Manchuria to evade Allied bombing of the homeland.

The preparatory committee of the foreign inspection group of the China National Industrial Association was inaugurated.

The House of Representatives passed President Truman's bill to make the Speaker of the House next in line of succession should the Presidency become vacant before the end of its normal term.

June 30.—U.S. forces occupied Kume Island.

Kao Ping-feng, Director of the National Direct Tax Administration, received the death sentence for corruption.

Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan, accompanied by Dr. Victor Hoo, Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs, arrived in Moscow.

Major General Lewis Pick was awarded the Distinguished Service Medal for building the Stilwell Highway.

James F. Byrnes was named U.S. Secretary of States by President Truman.

President Truman reported to Congress on UNRRA's China operations.

Admirals King and Nimitz and other high ranking admirals in the Pacific Theater conferred in San Francisco on prosecution of the war against Japan.

July 1.—A group of American newsmen arrived in Sian.

The Australians invaded the rich oil center of Balikpapan on Macassar Strait, on the east coast of Borneo.

The U.S. Senate confirmed the nomination of James F. Byrnes as Secretary of State.

July 2.—Greece declared war on Japan.

The Chinese recaptured Liucheng in Kwangsi, and Sinfeng in Kiangsi.

Chinese papers in America published a joint declaration in support of the Chinese Government's constitutional policy and against the Communist demand for a coalition government.

July 3.—American and British military personnel entered Berlin to take over their respective zones.

Dr. Wellington Koo called on President Truman.

President Truman personally presented the San Francisco Charter and the Statute of the International Court of Justice to the Senate and urged a prompt ratification.

James Byrnes and Artemus Gates assumed their posts as Secretary of State and Undersecretary of the Navy respectively.

Lieutenant General Roy S. Geiger took command of U.S. Fleet Marine Forces in the Pacific.

The U.S. Senate Banking and Currency Committee approved the Bretton Woods Agreement.

Dr. T. V. Soong was honored at big reception given in Moscow by the Soviet Foreign Commissar Molotov.

July 4.—It was announced that principles for revising company laws had been decided by the Supreme National Defense Council.

U.S. Governors endorsed the United Nations Charter.

President Truman issued an Independence Day statement.

The United States proclaimed the liberation of the Philippines.

John Curtin, Australian Prime Minister, died of heart disease.

Dr. T. V. Soong paid his respects to President Kalinin.

July 5.—The formation of the U.S. Army Air Force in the Pacific was announced with General Carl A. Spaatz and Lieutenant General Barney M. Giles as Commander and Deputy Commander respectively. Major General Curtis Lemay and Lieutenant General James-Doolittle were named Commander of the 20th Air Force and Commander of the 7th Air Force respectively under General Spaatz' overall command. Major-General Keller E. Rockey succeeded Lieutenant General Roys Geiger as Commanding General of the Marine Third Amphibious Force.

The resignation of Secretary of the Treasury Henry Morgenthau and the retirement of Associate Supreme Court Justice Owen J. Roberts were announced.

China, Britain and the United States recognized the Polish Government of National Unity in Warsaw.

The Chinese regained control over Chennankuan in Kwangsi and Pukiang in Chekiang.

Chen Chieh, Chinese Ambassador to Mexico, presented his credentials to the Mexican Government.

Britain held General Elections.

July 6.—U.S. Naval aircraft struck Korea for the first time.

President Chiang, in a message to the nation on the eve of the eighth anniversary of China's war of resistance, urged the entire nation to redouble its efforts to win final victory.

China and Britain concluded an agreement regarding the exercise of jurisdiction over members of armed forces in their respective territories.

July 7.—Chinese and Japanese war casualties from July 7, 1937 to May 31, 1945, were disclosed as follows:

Total Chinese casualties numbered 3,178,003, including 1,752,591 wounded, 1,310,224 killed and 115,248 missing.

Total Japanese casualties numbered 2,521,737, including 1,318,670 wounded, 1,179,754 killed and 23,293 taken prisoner.

Norway declared war on Japan.

The first plenary session of the Fourth People's Political Council opened. President Chiang, in his opening address, told of the determination of the National Government to inaugurate constitutionalism.

July 8.—Dr. H. H. Kung returned to Chungking from America.

July 9.—More than 1,000 Allied carrier planes attacked Tokyo.

July 10.—Over 1,200 U.S. planes bombarded Tokyo.

Major General Heliodoro Escalante Ramirez, first Mexican Ambassador to China, presented his letters of credence to President Chiang.

General MacArthur assumed command of Army Air Forces in the Ryukyus.

July 11.—Dr. Wellington Koo arrived in London.

July 12.—Joseph Chifley was appointed Prime Minister of Australia.

Lieutenant General George E. Stratemeyer was named Commander of U.S. Army Air Forces in the China Theater.

July 13.—Sir Horace Seymour, British Ambassador to China, presented two Red Cross ambulances to the Chungking Municipal Government.

Dr. Wellington Koo had an interview with Anthony Eden.

Dr. T. V. Soong was honored at a dinner given by Generalissimo Stalin.

July 14.—Dr. T. V. Soong left Moscow. A Sino-Soviet communique in connection with Dr. Soong's visit to Moscow was issued.

Major General Chennault, Commander of the U.S. 14th Air Force, announced that he was leaving China and that he would retire from the Army.

Bishop Paul Yu Pin, accompanied by Dr. Pan Chao-ying, arrived in London at the invitation of the Archbishop of Westminster.

The Anglo-Indian Simla Conference broke down.

July 15.—Italy declared war on Japan.

July 16.—It was announced that the Executive Yuan had decided to appropriate \$20,000,000 for famine relief in Shensi.

The U.S. Senate Foreign Relations Committee formally recommended that the Senate ratify the United Nations Charter as a sound and practicable foundation of peace.

General Pechkoff, French Ambassador to China, left Chungking for Paris via Calcutta, Cairo and London.

The People's Political Council passed a resolution to pay tribute to the great service of General Chennault.

July 17.—The Potsdam Conference opened.

British and U.S. warships bombarded Japan.

A new telephone service between Kunming and Kweiyang was opened.

The first redeployed American service troops arrived in Manila from Europe.

Dr. T. V. Soong and A. A. Petrov returned to Chungking from Moscow.

The Chinese fought their way back to Kanhhsien.

The Arab League held a meeting in Cairo.

July 18.—Lieutenant General Stratemeyer assumed command of U.S. Army Air Forces, China Theater.

The U.S. Senate confirmed the appointment of Fred Vinson as Secretary of the Treasury.

The 34,000-ton Japanese battleship, Nagato, was hit by bombers.

July 19.—Resolutions on the National Assembly were passed at meeting of the People's Political Council.

Lord Mountbatten returned to his Headquarters after conferences with MacArthur, Osmena and other high ranking generals in the Philippines.

Dr. Wei Tao-ming conferred with Joseph Grew.

July 20.—Six hundred B-29's attacked Japan.

Ratification of the Sino-Swedish Treaty was effected.

The People's Political Council concluded its two-week session.

The U.S. Congress approved the 44-nation Bretton Woods international monetary program.

Kuo Mo-jo lauded the hard work of the Russian people in rebuilding Stalingrad.

July 21.—The French Government invited Bishop Yu Pin to visit France.

British troops staged an impressive parade in Berlin, with Churchill taking the salute.

July 22.—The final battle of Burma was in progress.

July 23.—General Doolittle assumed command of the new Eighth Air Force in the Okinawa area.

Stanisla Minovsky, Czechoslovakian Ambassador to China, returned to Chungking from India.

General George Kenny, Commander of the Far Eastern Air Forces, was decorated.

Fred Vinson took the oath as of Secretary of the Treasury.

Major General T. J. Hanley, Jr. assumed command of the U.S. Army Air Forces in the India-Burma Theater.

Chinese and British banks were reopened in Manila.

Admiral Chen Shao-kwan, Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Navy, arrived in London for conference with British Admiralty officials.

July 24.—Lieutenant General Wedemeyer awarded the air medal to 25 officers and enlisted men of the Chinese Air Force.

Six hundred and twenty-five B-29's attacked Nagoya and Osaka.

Lieutenant General Nathan F. Twining was named Commander of the 20th Air Force to succeed Major General Lemay, who was made Chief-of-Staff to Strategic Air Forces in the Pacific.

July 25.—The Big Three recessed to learn the outcome of Britain's elections. Churchill and Eden returned to London. Truman and Stalin continued the talks.

Daladier, former French Premier, at Petain's trial charged that the whole intent of Petain and the Vichy regime was the "destruction of the French Republic and of democracy."

Dr. H. H. Kung resigned as Governor of the Central Bank of China. O. K. Yui succeeded him.

The National Relief Commission was abolished.

Tokyo Radio urged the United States to adopt more lenient peace terms and implied that the Japanese militarists would call off the war if the unconditional surrender terms were modified.

Lord Mountbatten arrived in England from Potsdam, after taking part in the conference with the Combined Chiefs of Staff and discussions with President Truman, Generalissimo Stalin and Prime Minister Churchill.

Dr. Arthur Werner, the Mayor of Berlin, pledged loyalty to Allied Commanders at the inauguration of the inter-Allied Kamandantur for the control of Greater Berlin.

July 26.—Labor won in the British election. Attlee became Prime Minister. The new premier

declared that the Labor Government would work for a new world order and for the prevention of war. He also pledged to finish the war against Japan.

Dr. Jose Arce was named Argentine Ambassador to China.

A Chinese-British-American ultimatum from Potsdam called on Japan to surrender unconditionally or face destruction.

It was announced that redeployment of U.S. troops from the European to the Pacific theater was in full swing.

The Chinese recaptured Ping-siang in south Kwangsi and Chih-ing in north Kwangtung.

July 27.—General Sun Li-jen arrived in Calcutta from a European tour.

July 28.—It was announced that the new "Super Libber" (B-32), a liberator equivalent to the Superfortress, was now in action against the Japanese.

Six new British Cabinet Ministers were sworn into office. Ernest Bevin succeeded Eden as Foreign Secretary.

The Potsdam Conference was resumed.

Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan, was appointed concurrently Vice Chairman of the Joint Administration Office of Four Government Banks to succeed Dr. H. H. Kung.

The U.S. Senate ratified the United Nations Charter.

General Wu Chi-wei, newly appointed Chairman of the Hunan Provincial Government, arrived in Yuanling to assume his post.

Kweilin was taken by the Chinese.

July 29.—Premier Suzuki of Japan declared that Japan would ignore the Big Three surrender

ultimatum and would continue the prosecution of the war.

The Swiss Economic Mission arrived in Chungking.

July 30.—The formation of a new cabinet under Dr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan, was decided upon.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs and Ku Cheng-kang, Minister of Social Affairs, was named concurrently Minister of Agriculture and Forestry to succeed Sheng Shih-tsai. All the other Ministers retained their posts.

General Chennault was decorated at a dinner given in his honor by Generalissimo Chiang.

The Allied Control Council met in its first formal session.

July 31.—Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, declared that China would adhere faithfully to the United Nations Charter.

The Chinese recovered Ifeng in western Kiangsi.

The U.S. Foreign Economic Administration announced that the United States disbursements to China for the four-year period ending in March, 1945 amounted to \$837,000,000.

August 1.—Lieutenant General Wedemeyer, Commander of U.S. Forces in the China Theater and Lieutenant General Simpson, former Commander of the U.S. Ninth Army, returned to Chungking from a tour of the central and southern Chinese fronts.

O. K. Yiu, Minister of Finance, assumed his concurrent post of Governor of the Central Bank of China.

The U.S. 12th Army Group was dissolved.

The Potsdam Conference ended.

Pierre Laval was brought to Paris and promptly jailed.

Major General Lemay assumed the post of Deputy Chief of Staff of the U.S. Strategic Air Forces in the Pacific.

The Chinese recaptured Yeung-kong in southern Kwangtung.

August 2.—A farewell mass meeting for Major General Chennault was held in Chungking.

Prince Peter of Greece arrived in Chungking for a visit.

General Hu Chung-nan, war zone commander, reported on a Communist attack on Shunhua, a town north of Sian.

Truman, Stalin and Attlee issued messages to Churchill and Eden, praising them for their work in the early part of the Potsdam Conference.

The Chinese were again in possession of Lingchuan, 20 kilometers north of Kweilin.

Truman left Plymouth for The United States after lunching with King George VI.

August 3.—Stalin, Truman and Attlee issued a joint communique on the Potsdam Conference.

Announcement was made that China and France had been invited to join the United States, Great Britain and Russia in establishing a Council of Foreign Ministers.

A shipping blockade of Japan went into effect.

"The situation in the China Theater is improving," declared Wedemeyer at a press conference.

Sinning in western Hunan was taken by the Chinese.

It was announced that the American and British Chiefs of Staff had perfected details at Potsdam for the "coordination of British and American forces" to crush Japan.

August 4—Laval defended himself in the trial of Pétain for treason.

The Chinese won back Kishui in Kiangsi.

August 5—It was revealed that scroll signed by residents of Chungking in tribute to the memory of the late President Roosevelt had been handed to the American Embassy for transmission to the U.S. Government.

Russia resumed diplomatic relations with Rumania and Finland.

Dr. T. V. Soong, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh and Soviet Ambassador A. A. Petrov left Chungking for Moscow.

The Chinese recaptured Hukiang Island off Fukien and Kungcheng in Hunan.

August 6—The first atomic bomb was dropped on Japan. As a result Hiroshima was 60 percent destroyed.

August 7—Prince Pierre of Greece interviewed President Chiang.

Dr. T. V. Soong arrived in Moscow to resume discussions with Stalin.

The British Labor Cabinet held its first session.

August 8—Russia declared war against Japan.

The Japanese Cabinet held a special session to discuss the atomic bomb.

It was disclosed that the price index for July was 1,832 times the pre-war figure.

Truman returned to Washington from the Big Three Conference.

Chennault left Kunming for the United States to retire from the Army.

Japanese attempts to get Russia to mediate a peace were revealed.

Russian Foreign Commissar Molotov announced that discussions on a Sino-Soviet treaty were going on.

Truman and Byrnes ratified the United Nations Charter.

August 9—The second atomic bomb hit Nagasaki.

The Chinese Government issued a statement on Russia's declaration of war against Japan, saying that this action would shorten the war and hasten the restoration of peace.

A Red Army of 1,000,000 men stormed Manchuria.

Major General Charles B. Stone was named commanding General of the 14th Air Force, succeeding Major General Claire L. Chennault.

The existence of 20 battalions of Chinese Paratroop Commandos was revealed.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh called on Molotov and M. Mikoyan, Soviet Commissar of Foreign Trade, for the first time.

The Dominican Republic and Uruguay ratified the United Nations Charter.

Kuo Mo-jo, the Chinese writer, was feted by Soviet writers and scientists.

August 10—Lieutenant General Cheng Kai-min was awarded the insignia of the C.B.E. (Commander of the British Empire). Military Division, by King George VI.

Japan sued for peace.

Stalin conferred with Dr. T. V. Soong.

Chuanhsien, 100 kilometers northeast of Kweilin, was recaptured by the Chinese.

Bishop Paul Yupin was received in audience by the Pope at the Vatican.

August 11—Generalissimo Chiang issued an order to General Chu Teh, requiring the Communist Army to remain at their posts and to wait for instructions.

UNRRA disclosed a plan for the shipment of some 800,000 tons of supplies to China.

Manchuria was encircled by Soviet troops.

France asked to be included with the United States, Russia, Britain and China in the signing of any act of surrender by Japan.

Chinese Army Headquarters moved to Liuchow.

Dr. Wellington Koo visited British Foreign Secretary Ernest Bevin.

General Eisenhower arrived in Moscow.

Chinese and Russian officials continued their talks in Moscow.

Communist troops fired the first shot on Government troops in Chingshuiho, west of Kueisui.

August 12—U.S. Forces were ordered to fight on until the issuance of a "Cease Fire" order.

Attlee pledged British adherence to Truman's proposal that the secret of the atomic bomb be guarded until complete control was assured.

Admiral Thierry d'Argenlieu was named Governor General of French Indo-China.

As one condition of the Japanese surrender terms, the Allies stipulated that the Japanese Emperor must be subject to the authority of the Supreme Allied Commander.

Berlin's four political parties held their first public meeting.

August 13—More than 80 members of the People's Political Council residing in Chungking met to discuss post-war plans.

Dr. Y. T. Tsur was named Minister of Agriculture and Forestry; General Lo Cho-ying was slated to be Chairman of the Kwangtung Provincial Government; and General Chien Ta-chun, Lieutenant General Hsiung Pin and Chiang Ting-ngao were appointed to the posts of Mayors of Saanghai, Peiping and Tientsin respectively. Ma Chao-chun retained his post as Mayor of Nanking.

August 14—Dr. Y. H. Ku resigned as Chancellor of the National Central University and was succeeded by Wu Yu-hsin.

Stalin received Dr. T. V. Soong and Dr. Wang Shih-chieh.

Dr. Wei Tao-ming called on Byrnes and Truman.

Japan surrendered.

The U.S. War Department ordered the cessation of air operations against the Japanese.

Madame Chiang broadcast a message from the United States on the end of the war.

General Korechika Anami, War Minister in Suzuki's Cabinet, Premier Admiral Baron Kantaro committed hara-kiri.

The Chinese-Russian Treaty of Amity was signed in Moscow.

August 15—The Supreme Court in Paris passed the death sentence on Marshal Henri-Philippe Petain, Chief of State of the Vichy Regime.

General MacArthur ordered Japan to cease fire and send a competent representative to Manila to receive surrender terms.

Generalissimo Chiang instructed Lieutenant General Yasutsugu Okamura, Commander of the Japanese Force in Central China, to order the troops under his command to cease fire and send a representative to Yushan in eastern Kiangsi to receive orders from General Ho Yin-chin, Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Army.

General Ku Chu-tung, Director of the Generalissimo's Headquarters in Southwest China, issued an order to Japanese troops in Southeast China to cease military activities and to obey the orders of the war zone commanders.

Generalissimo Chiang ordered the suspension of conscription.

General Hurley declared that Sino-American cooperation was the decisive factor in victory.

Mao Tze-tung, leader of the Chinese Communist Party, was invited to Chungking by President Chiang to discuss international and internal problems.

President Chiang sent messages of congratulations to Truman, Attlee and Stalin on Japan's unconditional surrender.

President Chiang in his message on the victory over Japan, said, "Right will triumph over might." He added that the historical mission of the national revolution had at last been fulfilled."

Dr. K. C. Wu, Political Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs, issued a statement on Japan's capitulation, saying that China was grateful to her leader and Allies.

The Suzuki Cabinet of Japan resigned. Emperor Hirohito informed the Japanese that he had ordered the government to sue for peace.

Dr. T. V. Soong left Moscow for Washington en route to China.

U.S. Naval losses in the Pacific War totaled 435 warships.

The U.S. Government announced domestic reconversion plans.

August 16—Emperor Hirohito of Japan issued a "cease fire" order to all Japanese troops. Naruhiko Higashi-kuni was ordered to form a new cabinet.

Administrators of recovered areas were named by President Chiang.

General Shang Chen conferred with General Marshall.

Marshal Alexander M. Vaseilevsky, Commander of the Russian Far Eastern Armies, ordered the Japanese Kwantung Army to cease operations and surrender by noon, August 20.

Joseph Grew resigned as U.S. Undersecretary of State.

Lieutenant General Okamura agreed to surrender to Chinese forces. He was instructed to send a surrender delegate to Chihkiang instead of to Yushan, which was originally designated.

Dr. T. V. Soong arrived in Washington for consultations with Truman and Byrnes. Dr. Wang Shih-chieh left Moscow for Chungking via Teheran and India.

The Turkish Assembly ratified the United Nations Charter.

August 17—It was announced that the China-India pipe line had delivered over five million gallons of fuel since it was laid on June 17.

August 18—General Hsu Yungchang, Minister of the Board of Operations of the National Military Council, and his party arrived in

Manila to represent China in the signing of the Japanese surrender document.

China and France signed a pact on the return of Kwangchowwan to China.

General Okamura accepted Generalissimo Chiang's instructions regarding Japanese surrender at Chihkiang.

Dr. T. V. Soong conferred with President Truman and Byrnes.

The annual meeting of Chinese educational and academic organizations opened at Peipei, Szechuen.

All political associations in Japan were dissolved.

The Interim Council of the Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization held its meeting at Montreal.

August 19—A 16-man Japanese surrender delegation headed by Lieutenant General Takashiro, Vice Chief of the Japanese Imperial Staff, arrived in Manila.

General Ho Ying-chin, Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Army, and his party arrived in Chihkiang.

August 20—The Japanese surrender envoys left Manila for Japan to consult with Emperor Hirohito.

Premier Higashi-kuni urged the Japanese people to maintain strict discipline in the face of the current situation.

The 11-day Russo-Japanese war came to an end with Mukden, Harbin, Changchun and Kirin taken by the Russians.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh returned to Chungking from Moscow. He called on President Chiang to report on the newly signed Sino-Soviet Treaty of Amity.

Generalissimo Chiang again invited Mao Tze-tung to confer with him in Chungking.

Prince Pierre left Chungking for Greece.

Lord Mountbatten sent surrender instructions to Field Marshal Count Hisaichi Terauchi, Commander-in-chief of Japanese forces in Southeast Asia.

Dr. Victor Hoo arrived in London via Paris from Moscow.

Soviet Russia ratified the United Nations Charter.

Ernest Bevin outlined British foreign policy.

Admiral Nimitz announced that only 53 warships of the Japanese fleet were left.

August 21—The U.S. State Department announced that France, Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the Netherlands had been invited as observers in the Japanese surrender ceremony, the active participants being the United States, China, Britain and Russia.

The total destruction of the Japanese Navy was confirmed.

Japanese surrender emissaries, headed by Deputy Chief of Staff Takeo Imai of the Japanese Army Headquarters in Central China, arrived in Chihkiang. Kiyoshi accepted General Ho's memorandum.

The Executive Yuan approved a proposal to establish a consulate at Istanbul, Turkey.

Truman ordered a halt in the Lend-Lease program. The Export-Import Bank was reported ready to extend loans to Allies.

General Ho Ying-chin declared that plans for taking over Japanese-held war zones had been completed.

The Japanese Kwantung Army surrendered formally to the Russians.

August 22—The capture of Emperor Kangteh, Japan's puppet ruler in Manchuria, was announced.

Japanese forces on Mille Atoll in the Marshall Island surrendered.

Byrnes declared that the Hong-kong question must be settled by treaties.

Chinese Army Headquarters began functioning at Chihkiang.

De Gaulle arrived in Washington for a three-day state visit and his first personal meeting with Truman.

MacArthur announced that military government in the Philippines would end on September 1.

The Indian Government announced that General Elections would be held in December.

Viceroy Lord Wavell was invited to return to London for consultations.

August 23—Soviet Ambassador A. A. Petrov returned to Chungking from Moscow via Tientshi.

The first phase of the Japanese surrender negotiations in China ended with the departure of the Japanese surrender envoy, Takeo Imai, from Chihkiang for Nanking.

Wedemeyer revealed that no U. S. mortar shells were used against the Communists.

General Marshall decorated General Shang Chen with the Oak Leaf Cluster.

President Chiang again urged Mao Tze-tung to proceed to Chungking with Chou En-lai for a conference.

Stalin announced the occupation of Manchuria.

General Shimomura was appointed War Minister of Japan.

Takeo Imai, representative of General Okamura, returned to Nanking from Chihkiang.

The British House of Commons ratified the United Nations Charter.

It was announced that 23,000 Allied prisoners and civilian internees were in Japan.

August 24—The Sino-Soviet Treaty was approved.

President Chiang, in his address to the joint meeting of the Supreme National Defense Council and the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, declared that the reestablishment of China's territorial and administrative integrity in the three North-eastern Provinces, the recovery of Formosa and the Pescadores and the restoration of the independence of Korea were the most important aims of the national revolution. He also stressed the principle of nationalism and world peace, saying that Outer Mongolia should be granted independence and Tibet, autonomy.

President Chiang signed the United Nations Charter.

Edward Herriot, leader of the Radical-Socialist party of France, was honored at a dinner given by Ambassador Chien Tai at the Chinese Embassy.

August 25—The Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance was ratified and promulgated.

General I. Pechkoff, French Ambassador to China, returned to Chungking.

Spruille Braden succeeded Nelson A. Rockefeller as Assistant Secretary of State.

August 26.—Eight Japanese surrender envoys, headed by Lieutenant-General Sakago Mamuro, Chief of General Staff to the Japanese Southern Armies, arrived in Rangoon to arrange the surrender of the Japanese troops in British Malaya, French Indo-China, the Netherlands East-Indies and Thailand.

UNRRA announced that 18,000,000 pounds of clothing would be sent to China this year.

Viceroy Lord Wavell arrived in London from India.

August 27.—Chinese and U.S. airborne troops landed in Shanghai.

Dr. Wang Shih-ch'eh was appointed delegate plenipotentiary for the exchange of ratification instruments of the Sino-Soviet Treaty.

Dr. K. C. Wu succeeded Dr. Wang Shih-chieh as Minister of Information. Dr. Hollington K. Tong resigned as Vice Minister of Information. Lieutenant General Leng Hsin, Deputy Chief of Staff of Chinese Army Headquarters, arrived in Nanking and established Advance Headquarters.

The Central News Agency resumed operations in Nanking.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh and Dr. Y. T. Tsur were sworn into office as Minister of Foreign Affairs and Minister of Agriculture and Forestry respectively.

General Hurley left Chungking for Yanan to accompany Mao Tze-tung back to the capital for discussions with Generalissimo Chiang.

General Ho Ying-chin arrived in Sian to give instructions concerning the Japanese surrender to the commander of the First, Second, Eighth, Eleventh and Twelfth War Zones.

Dr. T. V. Soong accepted Britain's invitation to visit London.

August 28. — Mao Tze-tung, accompanied by Chou En-lai, Wang Jo-fei, Chang Chih-chung and General Hurley arrived in Chungking.

Generals Leng Hsien and Okamura met for the first time.

Kan Nai-huang and L'u Chia were appointed Political and Administrative Vice Ministers of Foreign Affairs respectively.

The first American occupation troops landed in Japan.

It was announced that UNRRA was collecting supplies for China relief.

The surrender document of Japanese troops in Burma was signed.

August 29.—Hengyang was re-occupied by Chinese.

Lieutenant General Jonathan M. Wainwright, hero of Bataan, was the guest of honor at a tea party given by President Chiang.

The first U.S. flag was raised over Japan.

Mao Tze-tung was received by President Chiang.

Madame Chiang left Washington for Chungking after visiting Truman.

It was announced simultaneously in Washington, London, Paris and Moscow that Herman Goering, Rudolf Hess, and Joachim von Ribbentrop headed the list of 24 German war criminals.

Admiral Nimitz arrived in Tokyo Bay.

President Truman transmitted the 20th Lend-Lease report to Congress, which stated that Lend-Lease shipments up to July, 1945 amounted to \$420,207,790, of which supplies valued at \$397,000,000 were sent to China.

The Chinese reoccupied Shaokwan in Kwangtung, and Tatung in Shansi.

President Truman published Army and Navy reports on the Pearl Harbor disaster.

General Sheng' Chen, Chairman of the Chinese Military Mission to the United States, returned to Chungking.

August 30.—A Chinese advanced party headed by Major General Hsieh Shou-yen arrived in Hankow.

General Wedemeyer pledged to help in the redistribution of Chinese forces.

Lieutenant General Wainwright returned to Manila en route to Tokyo.

General MacArthur landed on Japanese soil, marking the beginning of Japan's occupation by sea and air.

General Ho Ying-ch'ın returned to Chungking to confer with Generalissimo Chiang and Lieutenant General Wedemeyer on arrangements for the Japanese surrender and then left for Kunming.

White Russia and Syria ratified the United Nations Charter.

Dr. T. V. Soong arrived in Ottawa from Washington to discuss matters of mutual interest with members of the Canadian Government.

Laokay in Indo-China was liberated.

British Naval Forces entered Hongkong.

The Interim Council of the Provisional International Aviation Organization adjourned after a 16-day session. A Permanent Council was created.

August 31.—General Ho Ying-chin conferred with Chinese and U.S. officers in Kunming.

Brigadier General Russell Randall, former Commanding General of the 312th Fighter Wing of the 14th Air Force, was appointed to head the AAF Liaison Mission to the Chinese Air Force.

Sept. 1.—The Chinese entered Tsinan in Shantung and Ichang in Hupeh.

Dr. K. C. Wu, newly appointed Minister of Information, assumed his post.

Japanese Foreign Minister Mamoru Shigemitsu, in a statement to the Japanese people, said that Japan's misguided policy toward China was one of the principal reasons for her present predicament.

The Central News Agency set up an office in Tokyo.

The Chinese recovered Lolyang (on the Canton-Hankow line) and Liling (on the Chuchow-Pingsiang line) in Hunan.

Sept. 2.—Japan signed the final surrender aboard the U.S.S. Missouri in Tokyo Bay. V-J Day was proclaimed.

The Japanese in Ichang surrendered.

Dr. Wang Chung-hui returned to Chungking from The United States.

Mao Tse-tung, Chou En-lai and Wang Jo-fei, leaders of the Chinese Communist Party, were honored at a dinner give by President Chiang.

The Korean Provisional Government issued a statement concerning the liberation of Korea.

Generals Wedemeyer and Stratemeyer, in their V-J Day messages, express the greatest respect and sincerest admiration for the Chinese people.

The Kuomintang issued a message to the nation, urging that unmitigated efforts be exerted in the interests of national reconstruction.

Benjamin Kizer, Director of the China Office of UNRRA, outlined plans for relief and rehabilitation work in China.

Dr. T. V. Soong returned to Washington from a visit to Canada.

The Chinese entered Kinghua on the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway.

Stalin proclaimed final victory over aggressor nations.

Sept. 3.—Seven members of the U.S. House Military Appropriations Sub-Committee, headed by J. B. Snyder and accompanied by five officers representing the War Department, arrived in Chungking and were entertained by President Chiang.

Lieutenant General Tomoyuki Yamashita, Commander of Japanese Armies in the Philippines, signed the terms of unconditional surrender.

President Chiang, outlining the domestic policies of the National Government in his V-J Day message, said that the fundamental object of the national revolution

and armed resistance was not only defeat of the enemy, but also the establishment of a new China based on the San Min Chu I.

The Soviet Far Eastern Forces set up military headquarters in Harbin.

The National Government issued orders concerning the abolition of wartime laws, the suspension of conscription and exemption from the land tax.

The war of resistance was formally ended in China.

Sept. 4.—Governors of the nine provinces in the Northeast were appointed as follows: Hsu Chien, Governor of Liaoning; Kao Hsi-pin, Governor of Antung; Liu Han, Governor of Liaopai; Cheng Tao-ju, Governor of Kirin; Kwan Chi-yu, Governor of Heilungkiang; Peng Chi-chun, Governor of Nunkiang and Wu Huangchang, Governor of Hsingan.

Yang Cho-an and Shen Yi were appointed Mayor of Harbin and Dairen respectively.

Chiang Ching-kuo was appointed Special Commissioner of Foreign Affairs in Northeastern China.

Yen Shen-yu was appointed political vice-minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Dr. Hu Shih was appointed President of the National Peking University.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh left Chungking for England to attend the Foreign Ministers Conference to be held in London.

The Chinese airborne troops began landing in Nanking. The Chinese Advance Headquarters was set up in Shanghai. Arrangements for Japanese surrender in

various parts of China were announced.

The Americans began occupation of southern Japan.

President Chiang conferred with Mao Tse-tung for the second time since the latter's arrival in Chungking.

The first conference on the surrender of Japanese troops in Shanghai was held.

General Hsu Yung-chang, representative of China in the signing of the Japanese surrender instrument aboard the U.S. battleship Missouri, and his party arrived in Shanghai.

Hirohito officiated the opening of the 88th session of the Japanese Diet. Premier Higashi-Kuni explained the situation leading up to Japan's defeat.

The British set up military administration in Hongkong.

U. S. contribution to war expressed in terms of figures: European and Pacific combat casualties, 232,885 killed, 1,218 wounded; 58,969 missing and 122,747 prisoners; the war cost totaled \$287,181,000.000; and lend-lease supplies to the Allies totaled \$39,000,000.000.

Sept. 5.—Byrnes disclosed that U.S. was not opposed to Russian occupation of the Kuriles and Sakhalin.

Madame Chiang returned to Chungking from U.S.A.

Soviet Ambassador to China A. A. Petrov honored at a tea party given by President and Madame Chiang.

Brigadier General A. F. Hegenberger succeeded Major General Davidson as Commander of the U.S. 10th Air Force.

The Indian troops landed at Singapore and began the occupation of the great naval base.

The Japanese casualties and damage due to Allied air raids were made known as follows: 241,309 people killed and 303,041 wounded, 2,333,288 houses completely destroyed and 110,929 partially destroyed; and the people stricken by the war numbered 8,045,094.

The capture of the commander of the Japanese Kwantung Army, General Otozo Yamada and his Chief of Staff Lieutenant General Yokosadura Hata was announced.

The drug-addicts in recovered areas totaled 32,000,000.

Sept. 6.—Vast air redeployment of Chinese armies into Japanese occupied areas of eastern China began. 2,000 Chinese troops landed in Shanghai.

The 88th session of the Japanese Diet adjourned.

General Hsu Yung-chang, representative of China in the signing of the Japanese surrender instrument, returned to Chungking.

Sept. 7.—General Tang En-po, Commander of the Third Area Army, arrived at Shanghai.

The Chinese entered Changsha, Canton and Hsuehchow.

Sept. 8.—The Americans began occupation of southern Korea.

General Ho Ying-Chin issued important orders in Nanking announcing the nullification of laws, and orders issued by the puppet regime.

The Korean Government pledged aid to Allied troops in Korea.

The Japanese Government was asked to hand over Chen Kung-po.

Sept. 9.—China's war of resistance officially ended as Japan signed surrender at Nanking.

Chinese troops entered Kaifeng.

General Chien Ta-chun arrived in Shanghai to assume his post as Mayor of that city.

Chen Pi-chun, wife of Wang Ching-wei, and Chu Min-yi, the puppet governor of Kwangtung, were arrested in Canton.

Vice-Admiral Frank Fletcher, Commander of the American North Pacific Fleet, assumed the control of northern Honshu and the island of Hokkaido.

The Japanese forces in southern Korea signed the surrender.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh arrived in London.

President Truman in a message told Congress that he wanted speedy action on his proposal to furnish "interim Lend-Lease" to the Allies to tide them over the Japanese caused by the sudden cessation of wartime delivery plan.

Thailand was renamed Siam; and her people, Siamese.

Sept. 10.—Wu Ting-chang, Secretary-General of the National Government, was appointed concurrently Secretary General of the Central Planning Board. H. C. Liang was appointed Deputy Secretary-General of the Supreme National Defence Council.

The Japanese surrender documents were presented to President Chiang.

General MacArthur ordered the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters and the Japanese General Staff be abolished on Sept. 13.

The Chinese troops entered Hankow and Hangchow.

France and Ethiopia reached agreement on frontier question.

Sept. 11.—The conference of five foreign ministers opened in London.

The Chinese troops entered Hanoi in Indo-China and Wuchang in Hupei Province.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh called on Bevin.

General Pan Hua-ku, representative of the Chinese Government, arrived in Hongkong.

General Tojo, former Japanese premier, shot himself to evade arrest. The arrest of 39 Japanese War criminals was ordered; Field Marshal Sukiama, former War Minister and Chief of the Army General Staff, committed suicide.

The Shanghai-American economic talks began in Washington.

Sept. 12.—The revision of the Regulations of Wartime Control of Imports and Exports was announced.

General Chien Ta-chun and Mr. Wu Shao-shu, Mayor and Deputy Mayor of Shanghai, and Messrs. Ma Chao-chun and Ma Yuan-fang, Mayor and Deputy Mayor of Nanking, assumed their offices.

The surrender of the Japanese southern armies took place.

General MacArthur dissolved Black Dragon Society. The Japanese cabinet held a special meeting to consider MacArthur's arrest order.

President Truman promised to expulse the Japanese from Korea.

The "Central Reserve Bank" of the puppet government was taken over by the Central Government.

General Abe was removed as Governor General of Korea. The American military government was established with Major-General Arch. V. Arnold as Governor.

Sept. 13.—Dr. Tsou Ping-wen was appointed Chinese delegate to the first Conference of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization.

The Japanese Imperial General Headquarters was formally abolished.

The Japanese in Burma signed surrender terms at Rangoon.

Sept. 14.—General MacArthur ordered the closing of the Domei News Agency.

The Japanese troops in the New Guinea-Solomons area and in the Kiukiang-Nanchang area signed surrender terms. Disarming of the Japanese in Shanghai began.

General MacArthur issued a statement on occupation policy.

Sept. 15.—The signing of surrender terms by the Japanese in Changsha-Hengyang area took place.

Sept. 16.—The Japanese troops in Hongkong, Canton and Malaya surrendered.

Dr. T. V. Soong arrived in London from Washington.

Sept. 17.—General Ssang Chen was appointed Director of the Military Affairs Department of the National Government.

The Chinese troops took over Nanking defences.

Mamoru Shigemitsu resigned as the Japanese Foreign Minister. He was succeeded by Shigeru Yoshida.

Dr. T. V. Soong conferred with three British Cabinet Ministers.

General MacArthur's Headquarters moved from Yokohama to Tokyo.

The Japanese troops in Shansi surrendered.

General MacArthur announced that more than 200,000 troops would be required for the occupation of Japan.

Sept. 18.—General Ho Ying-chin, ordered abolition of the Japanese Expeditionary Force in China and appointed Okamura as the head general of rehabilitation headquarters of the Japanese troops in the China Theater.

The Japanese troops in Nanchang and Wuhan surrendered and those in Hangchow area completely disarmed.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer left Chungking for a visit to U.S.

President Chiang in his broadcast on the occasion of the 14th anniversary of the Mukden Incident, urged the reconstruction of Northeast.

Stimson resigned as U.S. Secretary of War; Patterson was nominated as successor.

Admiral Raymond A. Spruance was appointed Commander of all U.S. Naval Forces in Japanese waters.

U.S. Senator Russel demanded trial of Japanese Emperor.

President Truman officially proclaimed liberation of Korea.

Sept. 19.—Dr. T. V. Soong arrived in Paris on way back to China, and conferred with General de Gaulle.

General MacArthur ordered arrest of Kenji Doihara, Com-

mander of the Japanese First General Army, and, imposed ten rigid restrictions on the Japanese press.

Sept. 20.—General MacArthur announced that three-fourths of the Japanese Army had been demobilized.

It was announced that Major General Stratemeyer was acting Commanding General of U.S. Forces in the China Theater during Lieutenant General Wedemeyer's absence.

The All-China Educational Rehabilitation Conference opened.

The Chinese troops entered Hsuehchow.

John Carter Vincent was appointed Director of the Office of Far Eastern Affairs.

General Marshall disclosed the American demobilization plans.

French Ambassador called on President Chiang to discuss problems concerning Indo-China. Satisfactory results achieved.

First American cargo ship to enter Shanghai, since 1938, arrived at that port.

Sept. 21.—Taking over of control of Shanghai completed. Disarmament of the Japanese in Changsha-Hengyang area started.

Chen Pi-chun, Chu Min-yi and eight other puppet officers were taken to the Chinese Military Headquarters in Canton.

The Chinese troops set up advance Headquarters at Tsinan.

Paul Josselyn was appointed U.S. Consul-General in Shanghai.

Sept. 22.—The Japanese troops in Chengchow signed surrender.

Ambassador Hurley left Chungking for U.S.

General MacArthur ordered arrest of General Abe, former Governor of Korea.

Prince Fumimaro Konoye declared that he felt the Japanese people were not ready for the January election because of the lack of political understanding.

Mom Rachawang Seni Pramot, Siamese Prime Minister, said that the Siamese Government would pursue a friendly policy toward Chinese in Siam and hoped to establish diplomatic relations with China.

Sept. 23.—Admiral Sir Bruce Fraser, Commander-in-Chief of the British Pacific Fleet arrived in Chungking to call on Generalissimo and Madame Chiang.

Dr. T. V. Soong returned to Chungking from trip to U.S. Britain and France.

Disarmament of the Japanese troops concentrated at Chengchow, Loyang, Kaifeng and Sinhsiang in Honan province started.

Rules regarding the taking over of the Chinese war prisoners were made public.

Archbishop Francis Spellman of New York, arrived at Chungking for a visit at the invitation of President and Madame Chiang.

Disarmament of the Japanese troops in Nanking completed.

Indian Congress committee ended its three-day session. It also resolved to send greetings to Chinese people.

Lieutenant - General Kenji Doihara surrendered to U.S. Eighth Army.

The Annamites revolted against the French Authorities in Saigon

Sept. 24.—General MacArthur froze all Japanese funds at home and abroad, stripped news and newspapers agencies of government control and banned any research into atomic bomb. He further outlined an eight-point program of controls on Japan's domestic economy, ordered strict rationing and price control and halted all aircraft and naval production.

Ambassador Hurley - said that the atomic bomb secret should be kept from nations "whose purpose is conquest."

Admiral Kinkaid, Commandant of the U.S. Seventh Fleet arrived at Chungking from Shanghai

Curfew was imposed in Bangkok after two nights of street fighting between the Chinese civilians and the Siamese soldiers and police.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer declared that the remaining task for the American soldiers in China was the evacuation of approximately 4,000,000 Japanese.

The Japanese in Pengpu area signed surrender.

Georges S. Bidault, French Foreign Minister, gave a dinner in honor of Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Chinese Foreign Minister. Closer Sino-French relations were urged.

U.S. White House disclosed a communication sent to General MacArthur on Sept. 6 clarifying his authority as the Allied Supreme Commander.

Sept. 25.—It was disclosed that China-India oil pipeline had been extended from Kunming to Tsunyi.

Major General Stratemeyer announced that redeployment of the

Chinese troops was ahead of schedule.

Dr. Chu Chia-hua was appointed head of the Chinese delegation to the United Nations Educational and Cultural Conference. Drs. Hu Shih, Cheng Tien-fong, Lo Chia-lun and Chao Yuan-jen were made members of the Delegation.

Disarmament of the Japanese in Wuhan and Hangchow began.

Admiral Kincaid, Commander of the U.S. 7th Fleet, called on President Chiang and Dr. T. V. Soong.

Allied paratroops landed in Saigon to restore order.

The World Trade Union Conference opened in Paris with 300 delegates from 46 countries in attendance.

President Truman decided to place U.S. Overseas War Surplus under the control of the State Department.

U.S. Senate confirmed nomination of Patterson as Secretary of War.

Sept. 26.—The All-China Education Rehabilitation Conference ended.

Admiral Kinkaid was honored at a dinner by General Ho Ying-chin at Nanking. Military Conference was held. Plans for co-operation between U.S. Armed Forces in China and U.S. 7th Fleet were discussed at Shanghai.

Ambassador Wei Tao-ming, conferred with Dean M. Acheson, U.S. Under-Secretary of State.

Ambassador Hurley and Lieutenant-General Wedemeyer arrived at Washington.

Emperor Hirohito broke precedence to call on General MacArthur.

Chen Yi, Director of the Formosa Administrative Office declared that in rehabilitating Formosa, first consideration would be given to education.

In a memorandum to the Foreign Ministers Council, Soviet Russia urged the creation of a four-power Allied control Commission for Japan.

Sept. 27.—Measures governing the disposal of the Japanese and puppet bank notes were made public by the Ministry of Finance.

California Representatives introduced bills to Congress for revising immigration laws to remove discrimination against American citizens of Chinese ancestry.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh submitted a memorandum to the Foreign Ministers Conference on the future control of Japan.

Japanese ships off Amoy, Quemoy and Kulangsu taken over by the Chinese.

President Truman accepted the resignation of Leo T. Crowley as Administrator of Foreign Economics and then abolished the FEA, dividing the agency's functions among the State, Commerce and Agriculture Departments and the Federal Reconstruction Finance Corporation.

Sept. 28.—Taking over of the Japanese naval set-ups in Shanghai and disarming of the Japanese troops in Chengsha completed.

It was disclosed that bills for "Filipinization" of labor and Filipinization of retail trade had been passed by the lower and upper chambers of the Philippine Parliament.

General Ho Ying-chin revealed that in China's eight years of resistance, more than 1,400,000 troops and officers were killed and 1,700,000 others wounded and missing.

Japanese troops in Indo-China at the North of sixteen degree North Latitude formally surrendered.

Sept. 29.—U.S. Secretary of State Byrnes announced that the U.S., Great Britain, Russia and China agreed to the formation of a commission to formulate the Allied policy for Japan.

General MacArthur ordered the Japanese Government to cease censorship.

President Truman announced that he was sending his personal representative, Edwin A. Locke Jr. to China to aid Chinese reconstruction. He also assured that U.S. would continue its close cooperation with China after war.

Moscow announced that the partial evacuation of the Soviet troops from Manchuria had begun and that the main evacuation would begin in the latter half of October with completion by the end of November.

The Ministry of Finance issued an order authorizing all foreign banks in the liberated areas to resume business.

It was announced that 1,833,664 Japanese soldiers in the home islands had been demobilized by September 24.

Sept. 30.—First batch of the U.S. Marines arrived in Tientsin to assist the Chinese forces in accepting surrender of the Japanese troops.

The National Government promulgated new measures that all Japanese and puppet-registered banks in the liberated areas would be suspended and liquidated.

General MacArthur ordered to close 21 banks in Japan.

Oct. 1.—Wartime press censorship was abolished.

Maj.-General Stone, Commander of the U.S. 14th Air Force, declared that his force would assist Lieutenant-General Wedemeyer in the control of the surrendered Japanese troops in China.

Chen Chieh, Chinese Ambassador to Mexico, revealed that progress had been made in negotiations with Central and South American countries for the increase of the quota for the Chinese immigrants.

U.S. House Appropriations Subcommittee for the War Department recommended to President Truman that the U.S. should retain permanent possession of Japanese islands in the Pacific and keep the secrets of the atomic bomb.

Chen Kung-po, acting President of the puppet Nanking Government was arrested in Tokyo.

Oct. 2.—Japanese Central Liaison Office reorganized with Kenji Kodama as President.

China protested against anti-Chinese activities in Siam.

General Ho Ying-chin arrived at Hanoi.

The Conference of Foreign Ministers ended in London. No agreement reached.

General MacArthur demanded that the Japanese Government should give full account of the military production and existing stocks of war materials.

The occupation government in Korea indicated that they would welcome members of the exiled Korean Provisional Government to return to homeland.

The Annamese and French reached a cease fire agreement.

General Lung Yun relieved of his post as Governor of Yunnan and was appointed Chief of the Military Advisory Council. General Lu Han was appointed to succeed General Lung as Governor.

U.S. War Department announced that Assistant Secretary of War John L. McCloy departed for a tour of Europe. China and Japan to observe civil affairs problems and military governments as well as other matters.

American troops landed at Chinwangtao, 120 miles northeast of Tientsin.

Oct. 3.—Generalissimo's provisional Headquarters, Garrison Headquarters and Gendarme Headquarters in Kunming were abolished.

Wong Wen-hao, Minister of Economic Affairs outlined economic policy of China.

Chang Ting-ngao and Tu Chien-shih, Mayor and Deputy Mayor of Tientsin assumed their posts.

M. Molotov, Soviet Foreign Commissioner, assured that the Soviet Union fully respected the rights of France and China as permanent members of the United Nations Security Council.

World Federation of Trade Unions was formed.

Chen Kung-po, Lin Po-sheng, Ho Ping-hsien, Chen Chun-hui, Chou Lu-hsiang and Pai Kuo-kuang, puppet officials of the ex-Nanking Regime, was brought back to Nanking from Japan.

Chinese troops entered Amoy.

Oct. 4.—Disarmament of the Japanese troops in Nanking area was completed.

General MacArthur ordered the Japanese government to remove Home Minister Iwa Yagasaki, release all political prisoners, abolish secret police and remove all restrictions against free thought, assembly and speech.

Talks to settle armed clashes in Indo-China between French and Annam leaders began.

President Truman urged Congress to establish an "Atomic Energy Commission" to control all sources of atomic energy.

Oct. 5.—Higashi-Kuni's Cabinet resigned en bloc. Hirohito presented a new cabinet to General MacArthur for approval.

General Keh Ching-en, Chief of the Advance Headquarters in Taiwan, and his party arrived at Taiwan.

Oct. 6.—The Japanese troops in Tientsin signed surrender.

Mr. H. F. Chu, China's delegate to World Trade Union Conference, was elected one of the Vice-Presidents of the New World Federation of Trade Unions.

Baron Shidehara accepted the premiership of the new Japanese Cabinet, and pledged close cooperation with China.

U.S. State, War and Navy Departments reiterated that the immediate objective of the joint occupation policy would be the disarming and demilitarizing Japan and its long-range objective, democratizing Japan and encouraging her towards self-government.

U.S. decided to abolish Shinto as state religion in Japan.

The Japanese Ministry of Justice ordered release of all political prisoners.

Oct. 7.—General Ho Ying-chin declared that the surrender and disarmament of the Japanese troops in China were proceeding smoothly.

Min Rachawon Seni Pramot, Premier of Siam, revealed that the Siamese Government had repealed or amended all laws unjust to the Chinese people so as to bring about goodwill between the two countries.

Henry Luce, publisher of the Life, Time and Fortune Magazine in America, was honored at a dinner party given by President Chiang. In their dinner interview, the President said that the fate of Hirohito should be decided by the will of the Japanese people, and expressed optimism about China's national unity.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh returned to Chungking from London.

Oct. 9.—President Chiang, in his Double-Tenth message, outlined the program of national reconstruction.

Laval was sentenced to death for treason.

President Truman announced that U.S. would keep secret of atomic bomb.

Oct. 10.—President Chiang, in a message on the occasion of America's China Friend Day, expressed gratitude to the U.S. help to China.

Admiral Thierry d'Argenlieu, French High Commissioner in Indo-China, arrived at Chungking to visit President Chiang.

The Japanese troops in Peiping signed surrender.

Dr. Wunsz King, Chinese Ambassador to Belgium, presented to President Chiang the diploma of honorary doctor degree conferred on him by the University of Brussels.

U.S. Marines landed on Tsingtao.

Oct. 11.—A summary of conversations between the Government and the representatives of the Chinese Communist Party was released. Mao Tse-tung left Chungking for Yenan.

General MacArthur ordered social and political reforms in Japan. Prince Konoye was appointed head of a special committee for revising the Japanese constitution.

Dr. T. V. Soong arrived in Shanghai from Chungking.

Oct. 12.—Admiral d'Argenlieu, French High Commissioner in Indo-China, called on President Chiang.

Oct. 13.—Women's suffrage was approved by the Japanese Cabinet. Age for voting and holding office also lowered.

Ambassador Hurley made first official call on President Truman and reported to the President on China's situation.

Kaifeng airfield was taken over by Chinese.

Oct. 14.—Japanese census figures revealed to be 78,000,000.

Dr. T. V. Soong conferred with foreign businessmen and Chinese officials at Shanghai.

The Japanese General Staff Headquarters, established on December 12, 1878, was dissolved.

General Chang Chih-chung, Director of the Political Department of the National Military Council, arrived at Tihua to settle the Sinkiang local incident.

Oct. 15.—The Headquarters of the U.S. Forces in the China Theater were transferred from Chungking to Nanking.

Pierre Laval, former Premier of France under the Vichy Regime, was executed.

Disarmament of the Japanese forces in Changsha-Hengyang area was completed.

John J. McCloy, U.S. Assistant Secretary of War, arrived at Chungking.

General Lung Yun was sworn into his new office as Director of the Advisory Council of the National Military Council.

The second plenary session of the Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization opened in Montreal.

The League of Red Cross Society met in Geneva.

Oct. 16.—Annamese delegate submitted a petition to Dr. T. V. Soong soliciting support of the Chinese Government for the independence movement in Indo-China.

The demobilization of the Japanese armed forces throughout Japan was completed.

The International Labor Conference opened in Paris with 397 delegates from 39 member nations present.

Mr. McCloy, U.S. Assistant Secretary of War, was honored at a dinner party given by President Chiang.

Chinese troops landed on Hainan Island.

President and Madame Chiang gave a farewell party to U.S. airmen.

The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization was inaugurated at Quebec.

Oct. 17.—Dr. Wang Shih-chieh declared that China's foreign policy was to promote harmony among nations. He also stated that the Chinese forces in Indo-China were stationed only temporarily.

Mr. Hugh Daillie, President of the United Press Association, was honored at a dinner party given by Dr. K. C. Wu, Minister of Information.

Mr. Edwin A. Locke, personal representative of President Truman, arrived in Chungking.

John J. McCloy, U.S. Assistant Secretary of War, arrived in Shanghai.

President Truman sent a message to the Food and Agriculture Conference, pledging the full support of the American government.

The China Natural Science Research Society held its annual conference at Peipei.

Lieutenant General George C. Kenny, Commander of the U.S. Air Force in Japan, arrived at Shanghai to confer with Major-General Stratemeyer.

Mr. Tsou Ping-wen was elected Vice-Chairman of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Conference as well as Vice-Chairman of the General Committee.

Dr. Syng Man Rhel, former President of the Provisional Korean Government, returned to Korea from Washington.

Lieutenant General Kuan Lin-chen, newly appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Garrison Forces in Yunnan Province, arrived in Kunming to assume his post.

October 18.—Major General Albert F. Hegenberger, Commander of the U.S. 10th Air Force, arrived in Shanghai from Kunming.

Chinese troops arrived at Kirun, Formosa.

The Japanese navy in Kuukiang was disarmed.

Major General Stratemeyer called on Dr. T. V. Soong.

The Executive Committee of the Preparatory Commission of the United Nations Organization approved a proposal recommending the establishment of a Temporary Trusteeship Committee.

The International Air Transportation Association elected Mr. Shen Teh-hsien as a member of the IATA Executive Committee.

President Truman agreed with President Chiang's view that the fate of Hirohito should be decided by the Japanese.

Disarmament of the Japanese in Hopei and Shantung began.

General Ho announced that disarmed Japanese troops were to be requisitioned to repair destroyed communications.

October 19.—Sie Kai-sen, Chinese delegate to the Conference of United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, was elected Chairman of the Administrative Committee of FAO Conference.

Dr. Wellington Koo advocated creation of a special commission for control of opium at the meeting of the Executive Committee of the United Nations Organization.

The Japanese troops in Kaifeng area began to surrender.

October 20.—U.S. State Department announced that U.S. would continue to collaborate with China in the solution of the latter's problems.

The first plebiscite in Outer Mongolia to decide the question of independence took place with Lei Fa-chang, Vice-Minister of the Interior as supervisor.

It was announced that the Chinese troops in Indo-China were to accept the Japanese surrender and maintain local peace and order.

Herbert Lehman, Director-General of UNRRA broadcast that the UNRRA was increasing its aid to China.

U.S., Russia, Britain and France recognized the Provisional Government of Austria.

John Carter Vincent, Director of the Office of Far Eastern Affairs of U.S. State Department declared that objectives of American foreign policy could be achieved in the Far East only through cooperation with China and Soviet Russia.

Dr. Syngman Rhee, first President of the Korean Provisional Government, made his first open bid for leadership in Korea with a fiery speech denouncing partition of Korea by American and Russian occupationists.

October 21—Mr. Locke, left Chungking for Canton to study for the first time.

Disarmament of the Japanese navy in Kiukiang area was completed.

October 22—General Hsiung Shih-hui, Director of the Generalissimo's Provisional Headquarters in the Northeast, returned to Chungking from Changchun after conferring with the Soviet military authorities on the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Manchuria.

Drastic reform of the Japanese educational system was ordered by General MacArthur.

German military casualties were estimated at 3,000,000 killed and 3,400,000 wounded.

October 23—Dr. Wong Wen-hao and Mr. Cheng Yi-fai were appointed Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the newly created Commit-

tee for the Taking Over of National Enterprises in the Liberated Areas.

The Kiangsu Provincial Government was reorganized.

The Chinese laborers in Japan towards the end of war numbered 36,000.

Disarmament of the Japanese troops in Kaifeng was completed.

October 24—China presented the Roosevelt Memorial Album to Mrs. Roosevelt.

It was announced that the Japanese along Canton-Kowloon railway had been disarmed.

President Truman sent a message to Congress, urging one year military training for all American men aged 18.

General Fu Tso-yi wired to Mao Tse-tung, stressing that the Communist troops should be responsible for any internecine strife if they make further attacks.

U.S. Secretary of State Byrnes proclaimed World Charter as Law of Nations.

General Chen Yi, Governor of Formosa, arrived at Taihoku to assume his post.

October 25—The Japanese troops in Tsing'ao and Formosa surrendered.

General MacArthur ordered the seizure of the Japanese diplomatic and consular property and archives throughout the world.

Annamese started non-cooperation move with French.

It was announced that 60,985 Japanese troops in Hsuechow, Penpu, Kuchen, Chahsien, Anking and Tatung had been disarmed.

October 26—General Yen Hsi-shan, Commander of the 2nd War Zone and Governor of Shansi, arrived at Chungking from Taiyuan.

October 27—President Truman in his Naval Day speech, outlined 12 basic points for post-war U.S. foreign policy, based on using military strength as a means of preserving peace.

General Yen Hsi-shan revealed facts about Communist attacks on National troops.

The Relief Mission for Chinese war prisoners in Japan arrived at Tokyo.

October 28—China's chief delegate Tsou Ping-wen was elected member of the Executive Committee of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization.

President Truman issued letters regarding talks with Osmena about Philippine reconstruction.

Dr. Hu Shih arrived in London to attend the United Nations Educational and Cultural Conference.

October 29—Delegates to the National Assembly issued a joint statement on national affairs, stressing the importance of democracy and national unity.

The Executive Committee of the United Nations Preparatory Commission completed its preparatory work after sitting two months and 11 days.

General Tu Yu-ming, Commander of the Peace Preservation Corps for the Northeast reached Changchun.

The Siamese Premier declared that Siam would conduct negotiations to establish diplomatic relations with China, and would welcome a Chinese Mission to Siam.

General Marshall, U. S. Chief of Staff, advocated continued armament of U.S.

Suiyuan civilian organizations issued a circular telegram urging the whole nation to take action to

curb the subversive activities of the Communists.

October 30—F. H. Rainteny, French representative in Northern Indo-China, paid a courtesy call on General Lu Han, commanding General of the First Area Army.

The Communist allegation that Governor Yen Hsi-shan of Shansi was working hand in glove with the Japanese against Yen-an, was officially refuted as an attempt to hoodwink the public.

General Tang En-po, Commander-in-Chief of the 3rd War Area and concurrently of the Shanghai-Nanking Garrison Area arrived in Chungking from Shanghai to report to the Government.

General Tu Yu-ming arrived in Tientsin to secure U.S. cooperation in restoration of communications.

It was announced that nine provincial governors and two mayors of the Northeast had all arrived at Changchun.

The Far Eastern Advisory Commission, on a motion of Chinese delegate Dr. Wei Tao-ming, voted to recess until November 6 for further discussion among the U.S., Great Britain, China and the Soviet Union.

Disarmament of Japanese troops was completed in Northern Indo-China and began in Taiwan.

Kao Shu-hsun and Ma Fan-wu, respectively commanding Generals of the 8th and 41st Armies of the 11th War Area, were captured by Communists.

General MacArthur started decentralization of Zaibatsu family trusts in Japan.

The Executive Yuan decided to abolish Foreign Trade Commission.

October 31—Sino-Netherlands Treaty was approved by the Legislative Yuan.

It was announced that UNRRA had agreed to appropriate £1,000,000 for the transportation of relief foodstuffs to China and CNRRA had started relief work in Nanking, Shanghai, Hangchow, Hankow and Canton.

The World Youth Conference opened in London.

U.S. Secretary of State Byrnes reiterated U.S. obligation to disarm the Japanese troops in China and stated that the Japanese fleet would be divided equally among China, Russia, Britain and the U.S.

November 1—Exchange of puppet currency for Fa-pi started.

The daily air service between San Francisco and Shanghai started.

The Yunnan Garrison Headquarters was established with General Kwan Lin-chen as commander.

Communists launched a many-pronged attack on Suiyuan, Government troops withdrawing to avoid clashes.

The Board of Directors of the Palace Museum in Peiping was appointed.

Pipeline linking Shanghai with Pootung completed.

General MacArthur denied supporting Prince Konoye in constitution revision.

235 American C-46 transport planes assigned to China for transportation.

The United Nations Educational and Cultural Conference opened at London.

November 2—Lieutenant General Carlton de Wiart, personal representative of the British Prime Minister, and Special Military Representative to Generalissimo

Chiang arrived at Shanghai on an inspection tour.

November 3—The International Labor Conference adopted resolution on full employment.

Mr. Roy Hendrickson, Deputy Director of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, arrived at Chungking at the invitation of President Chiang.

November 4—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang gave a farewell tea party to Kim Koo and Kiusic Kim, President and Vice-President of the Korean Provisional Government.

Lieutenant General Carlton de Wiart defined his mission as to serve as a liaison between President Chiang and Premier Attlee and to assist the work of the British Embassy.

The Ministry of Finance announced that the Central Bank of China had been authorized to issue scrips for circulation in the Northeastern Provinces.

The International Labor Conference adopted resolution concerning protection of children and young workers.

November 5—General Yu Feipeng, Minister of Communications, revealed that 1,413 kms of railways had been destroyed by Communists since the surrender of Japan.

Kim Koo and Kiusic Kim, President and Vice-President of the Korean Provisional Government, left Chungking for Shanghai on way to Korea.

It was revealed that the National Government has decided to appropriate a sum of \$600,000,000 as credit loan to farmers in Kwangtung.

The International Labor Conference closed today; many important decisions were adopted.

It was announced that more than 15,000 U.S. Army vehicles had been turned over to the Chinese Army.

General MacArthur ordered the Japanese Government to cease diplomatic relations with neutral representatives in Japan.

U.S. Assistant Secretary of War John J. McCloy, returned to Washington from a seven-week tour in Europe and Asia.

General Lu Han, Commander of the 1st Army, arrived at Chungking from Hanoi to report to President Chiang.

November 6—The Executive Yuan decided to set up a Committee to handle Government-owned materials in India.

Roy Hendrickson, Deputy Director of UNRRA, called on President and Madame Chiang.

General Liu Shih revealed Communist sabotage and subversive activities in Honan.

Communists troops were preparing widespread attacks in Shansi, Suiyuan, Honan and Hupeh.

The Far Eastern Advisory Commission met in Washington without Soviet Russia.

General de Gaulle resigned as Provisional President of France.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer arrived in Peiping from U.S.

November 7—Roy Hendrickson, Deputy Director of UNRRA, conferred respectively with General Yu Fei-peng, Minister of Communications, on communications problems, and Hsueh Tu-pi, Chairman of the National Water Con-

servancy Commission, on conservancy problems.

Ernest Bevin, British Foreign Secretary, and Winston Churchill, Opposition Leader, joined in an attack on Russia at a debate in the House of Commons and favoured Americans' keeping atomic bomb secret.

It was revealed that the Central Government had decreed the postponement of the collection of overdue land tax for one year.

November 8—Roy Hendrickson, Deputy Director of UNRRA, called on Y. T. Tsur, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry to discuss relief measures.

Communists continued attacks on Government forces in Shansi Province. The Shantung sector of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway was again destroyed.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer arrived at Shanghai from Peiping.

Disarmament of the Japanese troops in Peiping area commenced.

November 9—General Lu Han declared that the primary mission of the Chinese military authorities in Indo-China was the disarming of Japanese troops and that they had not the slightest intention to interfere with the civil administration.

Roy Hendrickson, Deputy Director of UNRRA, conferred with Hsu Kan, Minister of Food, on food problems.

Allied Reparations Conference opened at Paris.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer returned to Chungking.

Regulations concerning the control and the wholesale purchase and sale of tung-oil, tea, pig bristles and silk were abolished.

November 11—Military Conference for the Rehabilitation and Readjustment of the Armed Forces opened in Chungking.

It was announced that the Central Government would appropriate CN\$600,000,000 as relief funds from now to the end of next year.

The Board of Directors and Supervisors of the Changchun Railway Company was organized.

The National Government announced that National Assembly would be convoked on May 5, 1946.

Truman-Attlee-King Conference began in Washington.

November 12—General Hsiun Shih-hui, Director of the Generalissimo's Headquarters in the Northeast, arrived at Chungking to report to President Chiang on the situation in the Northeast.

Robert P. Patterson, U.S. Secretary of War, said that the U.S. forces in China would assist the Central Government in disarming and evacuating the Japanese troops in China but would not participate in civil strife unless attacked.

Hull was awarded Nobel Peace prize of 1945.

November 13—The Japanese economic agencies in Tientsin were ordered to cease functioning.

General de Gaulle was elected President of the Provisional Government of France.

President Truman, stressing importance of UNRRA aid to China, asked Congress in a message to appropriate U.S. \$1,350,000,000 for UNRRA's program for 1946 and part of 1947.

The Chinese Government and UNRRA concluded basic agreement regarding supply of relief

goods, technical assistance and other cooperative measures.

Elwin Pauley, Head of U.S. Reparations Commission, arrived at Tokyo.

British Foreign Secretary Bevin stated that the U.S. had agreed to cooperate with Britain in investigating the question of European Jews in general and the Palestine problem in particular.

November 14—T. F. Tsiang, Director of CNRRA and Roy E. Hendrickson began their inspection tour from Chungking to Liuchow, Kweilin, Canton, Hengyang, Changsha, Hankow, Tientsin, Peiping and Shanghai.

The Military Conference for the Rehabilitation and Reorganization of the Armed Forces was concluded after 4-day session.

The World Conference of Red Cross Societies opened in Paris.

Director Lehman of UNRRA told U.S. House Foreign Affairs Committee that UNRRA had sent to the Chinese 32,000 tons of supplies.

Ambassador Hurley, accusing the Chinese Communists of plotting to destroy the Government of the Chinese Republic, warned: "It would assure a prolonged civil war in China if the United Nations permitted the Japanese to surrender, or to transfer their arms to war lords or bandit organization or to any armed political party."

Mr. McCloy resigned as U.S. Assistant Secretary of War.

General Stilwell was appointed President of U.S. Army Board.

Restrictions on entry of persons into Hongkong removed.

President Truman ordered continuation of lend-lease supplies to China to assist her in disarming Japanese troops.

November 15.—The Atomic Bomb Conference ended in Washington. Joint declaration issued urging early establishment of commission for control of atomic energy.

November 16.—National Assembly delegates and PPC members appealed for cessation of civil strife.

Repatriation of Japanese troops from Tientsin started.

General de Gaulle resigned following failure to form a coalition government.

President Chiang issued a circular order to local authorities, instructing them to assist the American Military authorities in tracing the missing men.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer announced that he had authorized U.S. Commanders in North China "to take appropriate action" to halt firing on U.S. Marines guarding coal trains between Chinwangtao and Tangshan in Hopei.

U.S. State Department clarified its policy towards Korea.

November 18.—General MacArthur ordered abolition of Japanese aviation by December 31.

November 19.—Admiral Kinkaid left Shanghai for U.S. to assume his post as Commander of the Western Sea frontier; Vice-Admiral Daniel E. Barbey succeeds him as Commander of the U.S. Seventh Fleet.

U.S. Under-Secretary of Navy Gates arrived at Tsingtao to confer with Vice-Admiral Barbey.

An editorial in Life Magazine bearing the headline "China, What Price Peace?" commented "if we mean what we say about internationalism we will stick by our war-time friends now."

French Assembly gave confidence vote to General de Gaulle, asking him to make another attempt to form a government.

November 20.—General MacArthur ordered to take over Emperor Hirohito's fortune and blocked all Imperial Household financial transactions.

General Ho Yao-tsu resigned as Mayor of Chungking. General Chang Tu-lun succeeded.

General Yen Hsi-shan, Commander of the Second War Zone and concurrently Governor of Shansi, left Chungking for Taiyuan.

President Truman announced the following appointments: Gen. Eisenhower, U.S. Army Chief of Staff; Admiral Nimitz, Chief of Naval Operations; Gen. Joseph McNarney, Commander of U.S. Forces in Europe and American representative on the Allied Control Commission; and Admiral Raymond Spruance, Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet. He also added that General Marshall and Admiral King would retire.

The International Military Tribunal began trial of Nazi war criminals.

November 21.—New French Provisional Government formed.

The Allied Control Council announced that it would approve the application of 16 United Nations to send ten-man military missions to Germany.

November 22.—U.S. Under-Secretary of Navy, Gates and Mr.

Edwin Pauley, Head of the U.S. Reparations Commission, arrived in Chungking from Shanghai.

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, in his reply to the joint statement of atomic bomb, declared that the Chinese Government subscribed to the view of consolidating and extending the authority of the United Nations Organization and hoped the early establishment of the Commission for the control of atomic energy.

Month-old siege of Paotou by Communists lifted.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer returned to Shanghai from Chungking.

Vatican estimated the World War II killed 22,000,000 and wounded 30,400,000.

Herbert Lehman, Director-General of UNRRA, made a nationwide radio plea to Thanksgiving Day listeners for an immediate allocation by U.S. Congress of additional funds to UNRRA for relief in Europe and China.

Mr. Byrnes, U.S. Secretary of State, declared that U.S. Marines were remaining in China until the completion of the disarmament of the Japanese troops.

November 23.—Kim Koo arrived at Seoul from Shanghai.

British-American Communications Conference opened.

New York Times, in an editorial on "Poicy in China," said that American forces in China were not to fight the Chinese Communists but to complete the Japanese surrender. It also declared that American aid to China should be extended to the Chinese National Government only.

November 24.—U.S. Commerce Department stated that the U.S. made a total of \$986,000,000 in cash disbursements in China for the period from July 1, 1940 to June 30, 1945.

All atomic research equipment in Japan was destroyed.

Preparatory Commission of the United Nations Organization opened in London.

November 25.—Communist leader Chou En-lai left Chungking for Yen-an.

China requested the British and Netherlands Governments to accord protection to Chinese nationals and their properties in Batavia.

November 26.—Mr. Edwin Locke, President Truman's representative to China, left Chungking for U.S.

Foreign press party left Chungking for Yen-an.

The Supreme Economic Council was established. President Chiang, in an address at its first meeting declared that the council had been established to aid the people by bringing every possible effort to bear on task of peacetime reconstruction and development.

Dr. Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education, returned to Chungking from an inspection tour in Nanking, Hangchow, Peiping, Tientsin and Shanghai.

Dr. Jose Arce, the newly appointed Argentine Ambassador to China, reached Chungking.

U.S. House Foreign Affairs Committee approved the authorization of US\$1,350,000,000 to UNRRA.

The International Women's Congress held meeting at Paris.

November 27.—The National Government announced that September 3rd should be officially regarded as the date of formal end of war of resistance.

The Supreme Economic Council decided to abolish the War Production Board and the War Transport Board.

Hsu Tao-lin resigned as Director of the Department of Political Affairs of the Executive Yuan.

Patrick Hurley, charging that professional diplomats in U.S. State Department were sabotaging the basic principles of the American foreign policy, resigned as Ambassador to China. General Marshall was named special envoy of China with the rank of Ambassador.

November 28.—Brigadier General Paul Caraway assumed his post as Deputy Chief of Staff at the Headquarters of U.S. Forces, China Theater.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer, Commanding General of U.S. Forces in China, and Vice-Admiral Daniel Barbey, Commander of U.S. Seventh Fleet arrived in Chungking to confer with President Chiang.

General Marshall conferred with President Truman and Secretary of State Byrnes.

Mr. Lockes, U.S. Secretary of the Interior announced that U.S. Reclamation Bureau had agreed to help the Chinese Government work out plans for flood control program in Yangtze River basin.

November 29.—The members of the Investigation Party for the Restoration of Cultural Objects in Japan was appointed.

It was announced that China and U.S. had signed Yangtze River Dam Contract.

The International Federation of Women was inaugurated.

November 30.—U.S. Secretary of State James Byrnes in a letter to Representative Jack I. Anderson, of California, outlined America's policy in China as seeking to aid that country in achieving "internal unity and stability."

December 1.—General Lu Han, new Governor of Yunnan, assumed his post.

The International Women's Congress adjourned.

Roy Hendrickson, Deputy Director General of UNRRA, issued a statement regarding the problems of relief in China, urging improvement of transport facilities.

General MacArthur ordered the arrest of 59 additional war criminal suspects, bringing the total number to 318.

December 2.—A new Japanese war criminal list was published.

The departure of the personnel of U.S. 10th and 14th Air Force started.

It was revealed that China and Chile had decided to raise their respective diplomatic missions to the status of embassies.

It was disclosed that Soviet Russia had agreed to the withdrawal of her troops from Northeast by January 3, 1946 instead of December 3, 1945 as originally agreed upon.

Chang Kia-ngau, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the China-Changchun Railway and Chiang Ching-kuo, Special Commissioner of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for the Northeast left

Chungking for Changchun via Peiping to discuss with Marshal Malinovsky, Soviet Commander in the Northeast, problems relating to the withdrawal of Soviet troops.

December 4.—Jose Arce, new Argentine Ambassador to China, presented his credentials to President Chiang.

Chiang Mon-lin was appointed as Chairman, and Tu Kiang-tsu as Chief Secretary, of the Reparations Investigation Commission.

It was announced that 45 nations had ratified United Nations Charter.

Chang Kia-ngau and Chiang Ching-kuo left Peiping for Changchun.

Japanese Minister of Finance Keize Shibuzawa said that a total of almost 30,000,000 yen, forming two-thirds of Japanese overseas assets, had been invested in China.

It was disclosed that the Chinese Government had agreed to the Italian Government's proposal to send Signor Francesco Frasoni as Ambassador to China.

The China Textile Reconstruction Company held its first meeting Chungking.

The United Nations Preparatory Commission agreed that the organs of the United Nations should be concentrated in one place except the World Court.

U.S. Senate passed United Nations Organization Bill.

December 5.—The first Szechuen Provincial People's People's Political Council was opened at Chengtu.

The Sino-Netherland Treaty was ratified; the ratifications of Sino-Soviet Treaty were exchanged.

Major-General Hurley told the Senate Foreign Relations Committee that career diplomats under the leadership of George Atcheson, Jr., wanted to give Lend-Lease arms to the Chinese Communists with the deliberate purpose of destroying the Chinese Central Government.

U.S. Senate approved to appropriate \$550,000,000 for UNRRA.

December 6.—General MacArthur ordered arrest of Konoye, Kido, Ogata and other six Japanese leaders.

U.S. Army and Navy commanders in the Pacific and China held a conference concerning the demobilization and repatriation of Japanese troops in China and the allocation of Japanese resources.

The Anglo-American financial agreement was announced. Rules concerning the freezing of foreign deposits in U.S.A. were abolished.

December 7.—Hsu Mo was recommended as candidate for judge of the International Court of Justice.

U.S. Secretary of State Byrnes, in a note to the Iranian Foreign Minister Nodjm, pledged that U.S. policy in Iran remained to be the maintenance of Iranian independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity.

December 8.—The United Nations Preparatory Commission adopted rules of procedure for the Trusteeship Council.

Peace was restored at Changchun as Communists evacuated. Hsu Cheng, Chairman of the Liaoning Provincial Government, arrived at Chinchow.

It was announced that the Anglo-Chinese Chamber of Commerce had been inaugurated in London.

December 9.—Lieutenant General Wedemeyer and Admiral Barbey returned to Shanghai from Tokyo after conferring with U.S. Army and Navy commanders in the Pacific and China.

The Japanese premier Shidehara, discussing Japan's future diplomacy in the Lower House, quoted from a speech he made twenty years ago that "the principle underlying the Empire's diplomacy is that Japan will safeguard her justifiable interests and exert herself for securing peace in the Far East and the Pacific ultimately the world."

General MacArthur ordered the Japanese Government to carry out a reform of agriculture, abolishing the general system of landownership.

December 10.—The annual conference of the Political Board of the National Military Council was held in Chungking with Generalissimo Chiang presiding.

December 11.—General Kuan Lincheng, Garrison Commander of Yunnan, was dismissed from his post for mishandling student incident in Kunming.

The Political Affairs Department of the Executive Yuan was abolished.

President Chiang visited Peiping for first time in ten years.

U.S. Senate Foreign Relations Committee, after examining secret State Department records, dropped the investigation on Major General Hurley's charges.

U.S. Secretary of State, Byrnes, assured that the foreign ministers of U.S., United Kingdom and U.S.S.R. would not reach any agreement concerning China and France who were not represented at the Moscow Conference.

He also announced that the British had rejected U.S. proposal to withdraw Russian, British and American troops from Iran by January 1, 1946.

December 12.—President Chiang issued a proclamation to the people in North China urging them to inform him of their suffering during the Japanese occupation and of all the illegal acts.

General Pechkoff, French Ambassador to China, was honored at a farewell dinner party given by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh.

December 13.—It was announced that the Executive Yuan had ordered all military and judicial organizations to speed up the trial of Chinese traitors.

The Franco-British agreement on the settlement of the Syrian-Lebanese issue was signed.

December 14.—General Pechkoff, French Ambassador to China, left Chungking for France.

Lieutenant General Sir Adrian Carton de Wiart, Prime Minister Attlee's personal representative to President Chiang returned to Chungking from his one week visit to Shanghai and Peiping.

December 15.—General MacArthur ordered the Japanese Government to withdraw its sponsorship and financial support from State Shintoism.

President Truman issued an important statement on U.S. policy toward China, saying that a strong,

united and democratic China was of the utmost importance to the success of the United Nations Organization and world peace.

General Marshall left Washington for China.

The United Nations Preparatory Commission decided to locate the permanent headquarters of the United Nations Organization in U.S.

Dec. 16.—President Chiang, in an address to the students in Peiping, urged them to prepare for national reconstruction work.

Prince Fumimaro Konoye committed suicide.

The British, U.S. and Russian Foreign Ministers held a conference in Moscow.

The Communist delegation to the Political Consultative Council consisting of Chou En-lai, Yen Chien-ying, Wu Yu-chang, Teng Ying-chao, Lu Ting-yi and their assistants arrived at Chungking.

Dec. 17.—It was announced that the U.S. Government was determined to build for China a navy strong enough to maintain peace in the Pacific.

Dec. 18.—President and Mme. Chiang arrived at Nanking.

The trial of war criminals began in Japan.

Dec. 19.—Emperor Hirohito of Japan dissolved the House of Representatives.

Dec. 20.—General Marshall arrived at Shanghai.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer declared that American forces would remain in China until future American military objectives were completed.

Anti-Chinese activities occurred in Malaya.

Dec. 21.—General Marshall arrived at Nanking to confer with President Chiang.

Lieutenant General Wedemeyer, in a memorandum addressed to Generalissimo Chiang, denied charges by Chinese Communists that American planes had strafed trains and villages in North China and that American troops had engaged in combat against the Communist Eighth Route Army.

Dec. 22.—General Marshall arrived at Chungking.

The Changchun branch of the Central Bank of China opened.

Dec. 23.—President and Mme. Chiang returned to Chungking from a tour of Peiping and Nanking.

Dec. 25 The Lanchow-Ningsia Highway was opened to traffic

Dec. 26.—The Chinese Army Headquarters issued regulations governing the confiscation of monies, gold or other precious metals found in the possession of Japanese prisoners of war.

Wang Keh-ming, head of the puppet North China Political Affairs Council, died in the Peiping Jail.

Major-General Chiang Ching-kuo left Chungking for Moscow as a special representative of President Chiang to secure a general exchange of views on matters relating to Sino-Soviet cooperation.

Dec. 27.—The Japanese troops in the Tsinan-Tsingtao-Tehchow area signed surrender.

The talks between Government and the Communists resumed in Chungking.

The Big Three Foreign Ministers Conference ended in Moscow.

Twenty-nine countries signed the Bretton Woods Fund and Bank Agreement.

The administration of the city of Mukden was taken over.

Dec. 30.—Chungking held popular election for City Council for the first time.

Chiang Ching-kuo had an interview with Marshal Stalin.

U.S. Secretary of State Byrnes in his report to the American people on the Moscow Conference declared that various agreements and understandings were reached in Moscow and the interests of China were taken into full account.

Dec. 31.—The National Govern-

ment proposed cessation of armed conflicts.

The Resident Committee of the People's Political Council completed the examination of the Government's 1946 budget.

The Koreans, opposing Big-3 decision on trusteeship for Korea, made demonstrations and strikes.

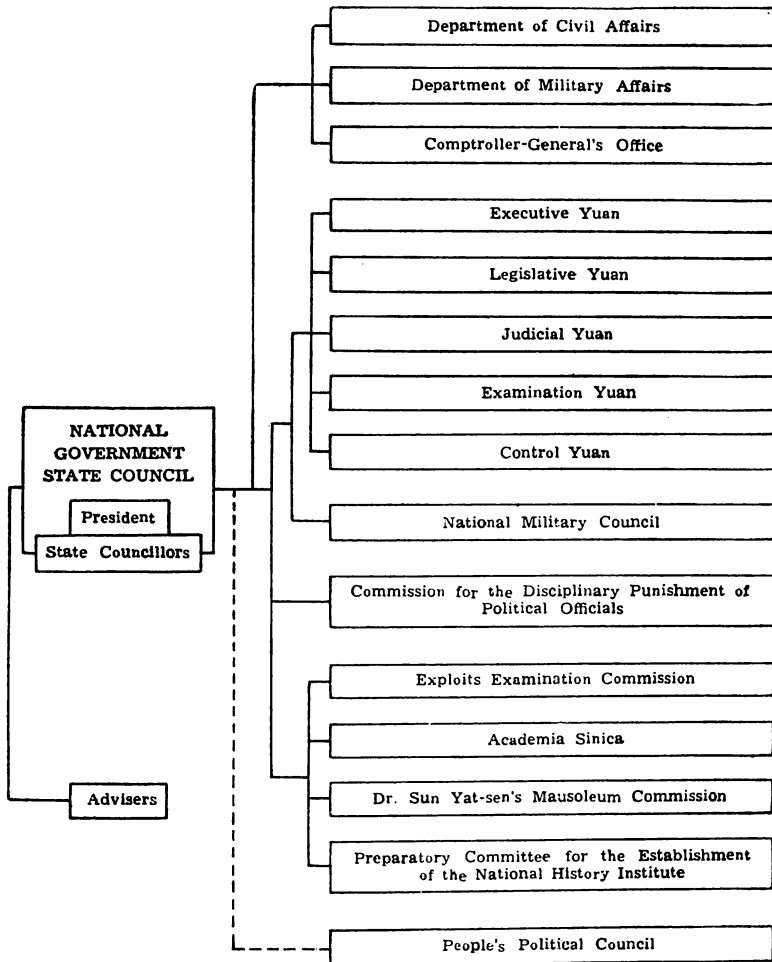
U.S. Secretary of State Byrnes reassured that the Moscow decision on Japan did not impair General MacArthur's authority; neither did it affect the U.S. dominant role in Japan.

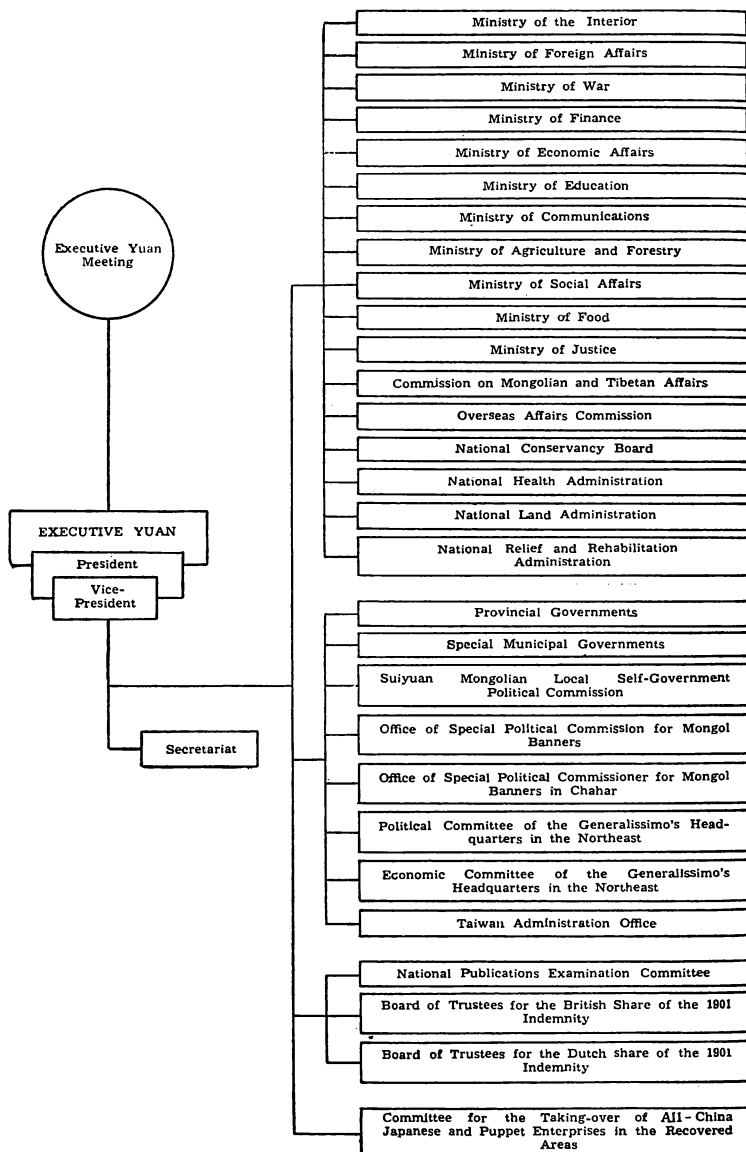
The Headquarters of the Chinese Navy abolished. Its functions were transferred to the Naval Administration of the Ministry of War.

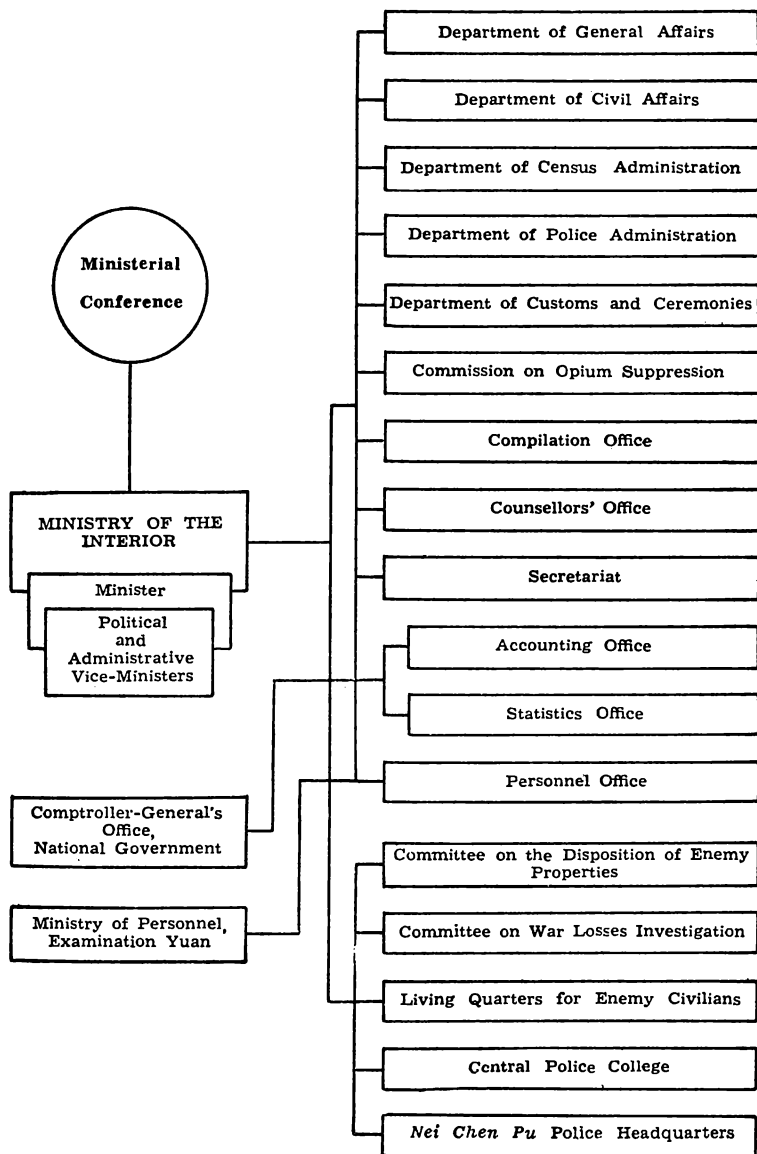
GENERAL APPENDIX

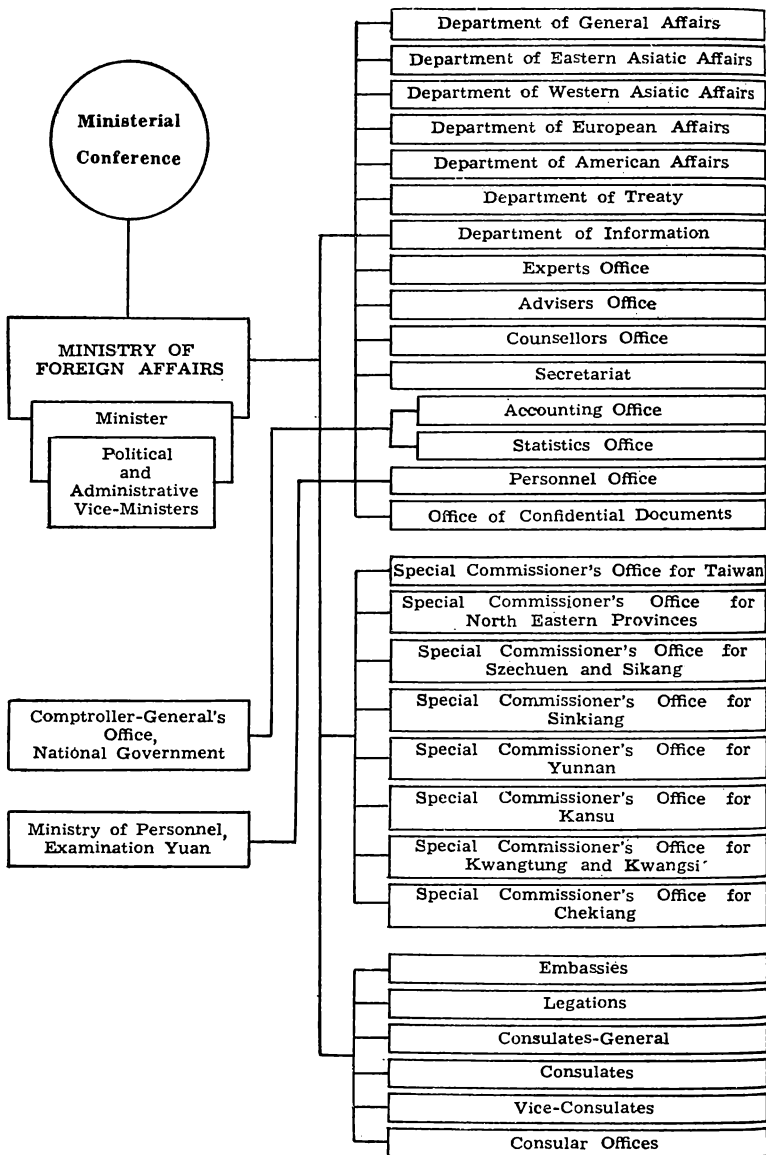
GENERAL APPENDIX

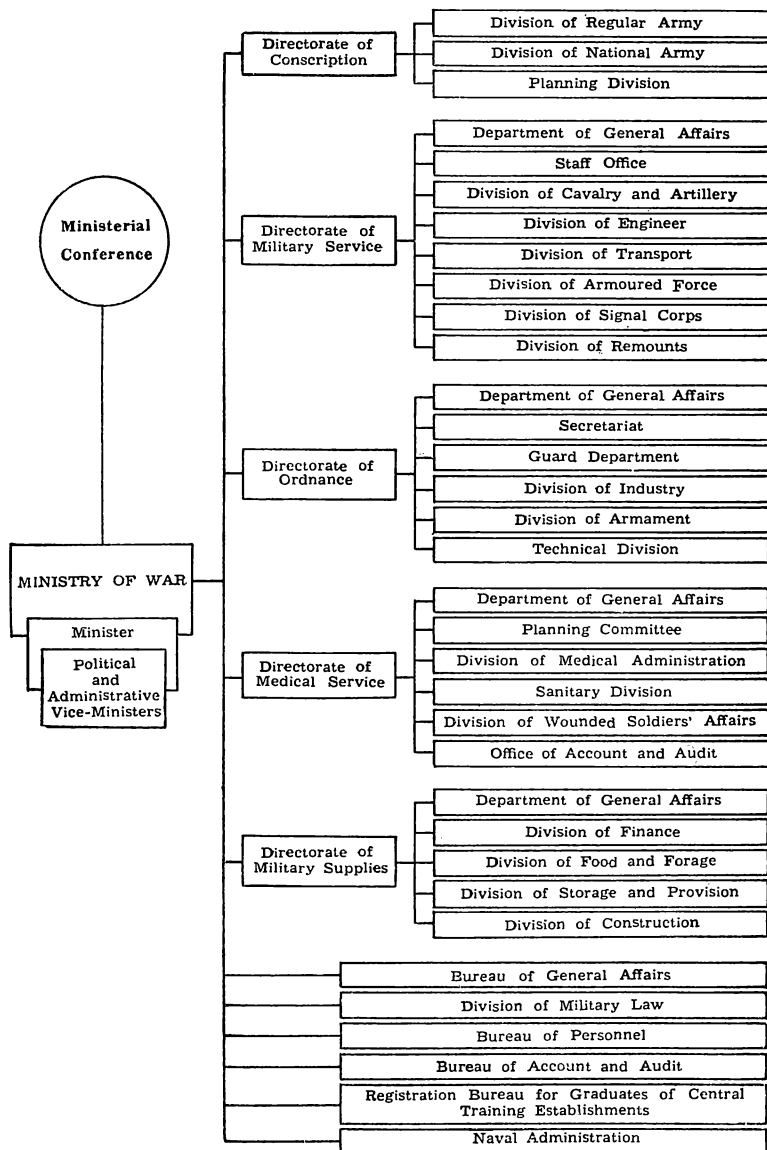
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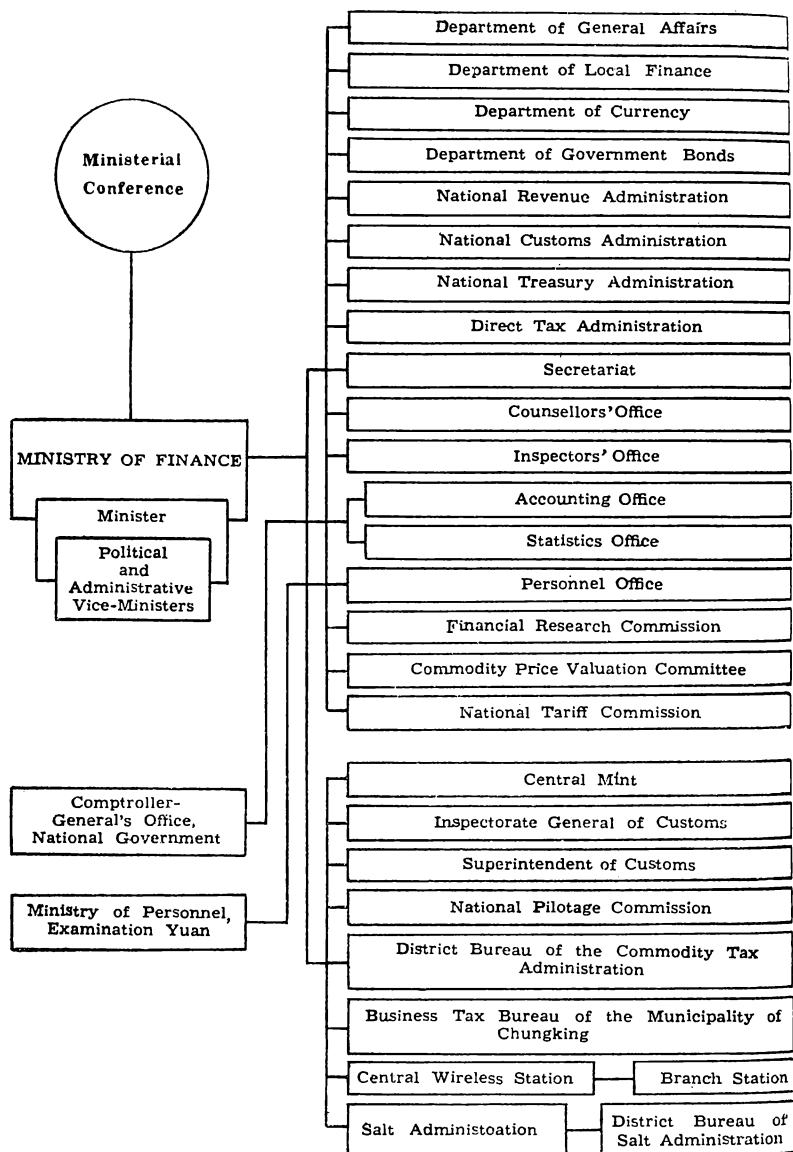


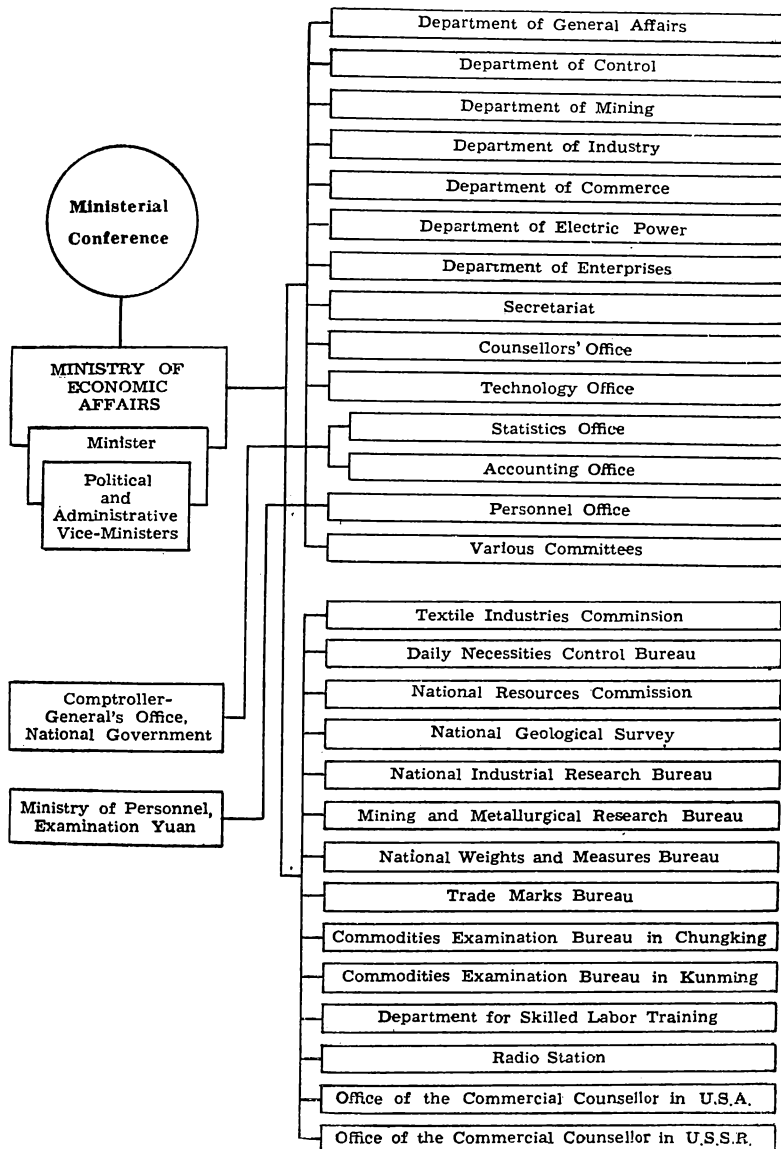


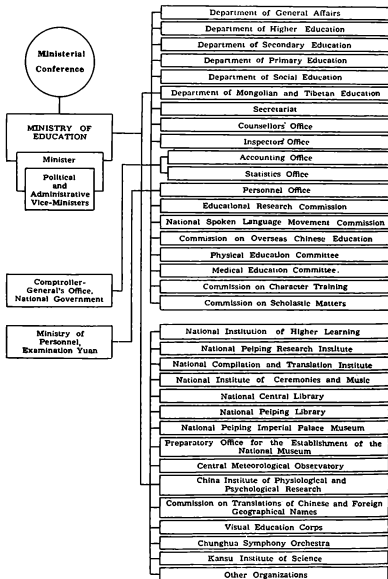


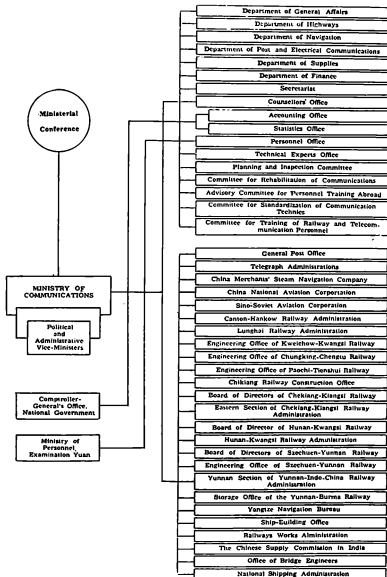


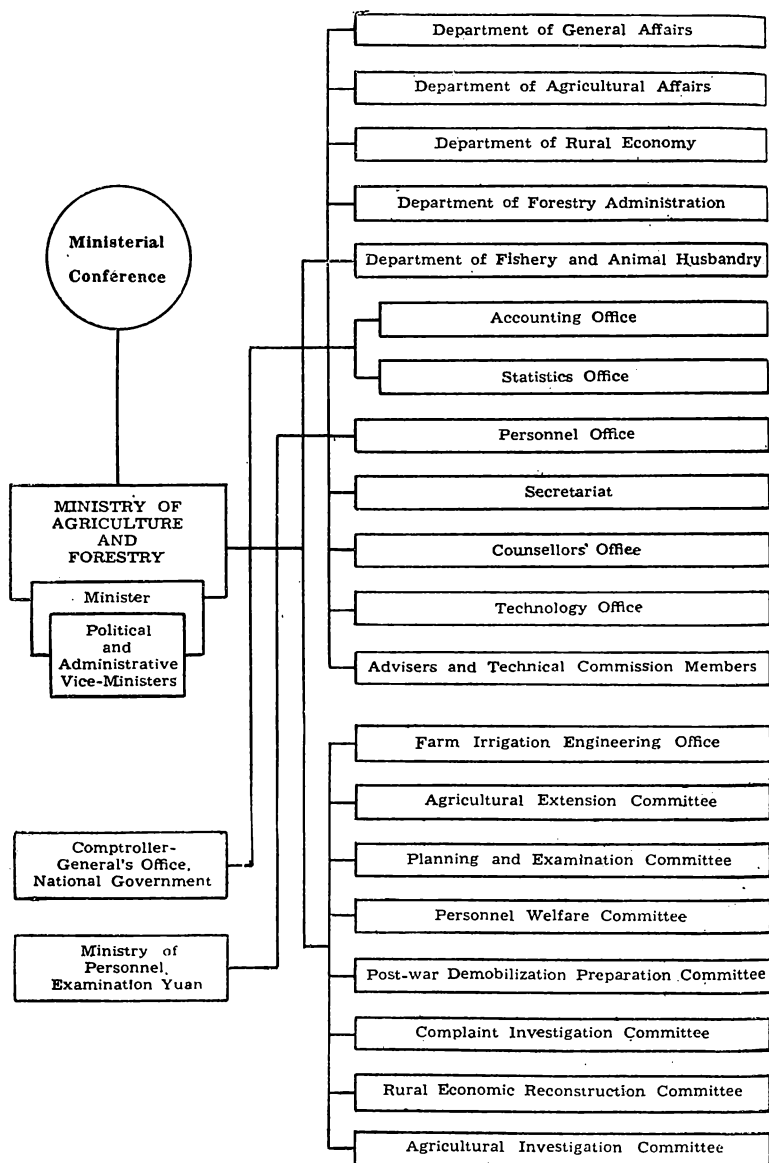


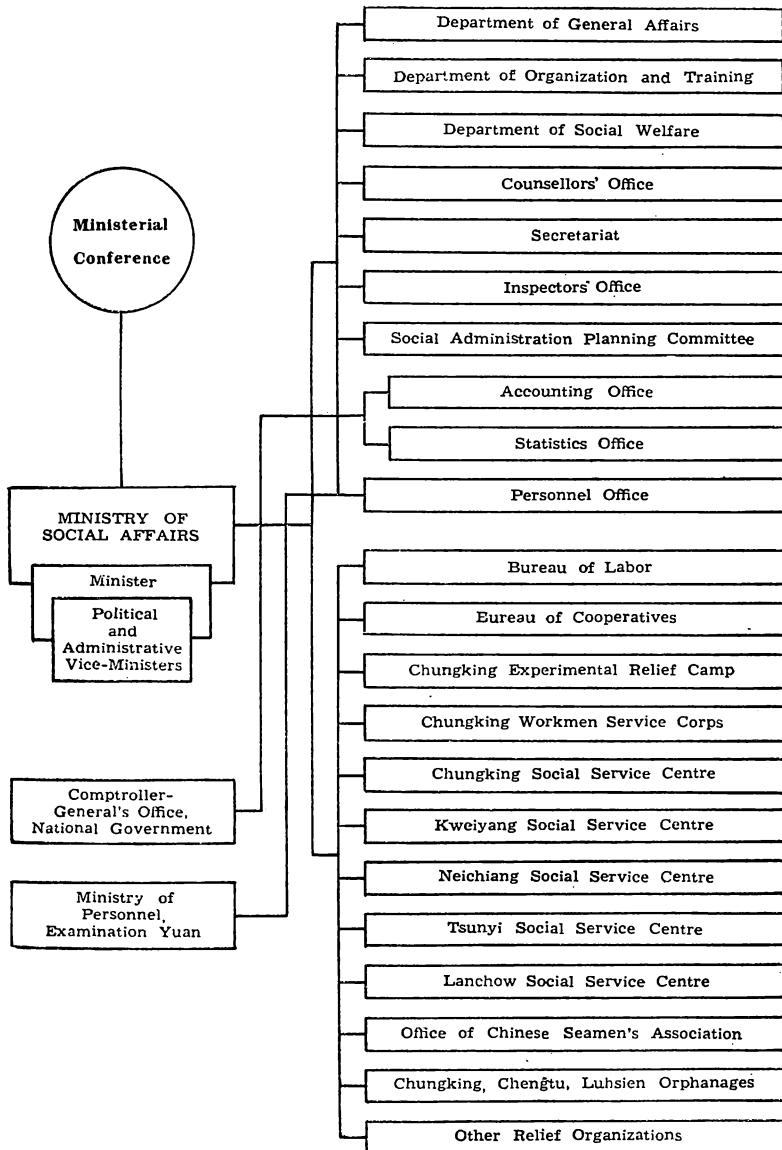


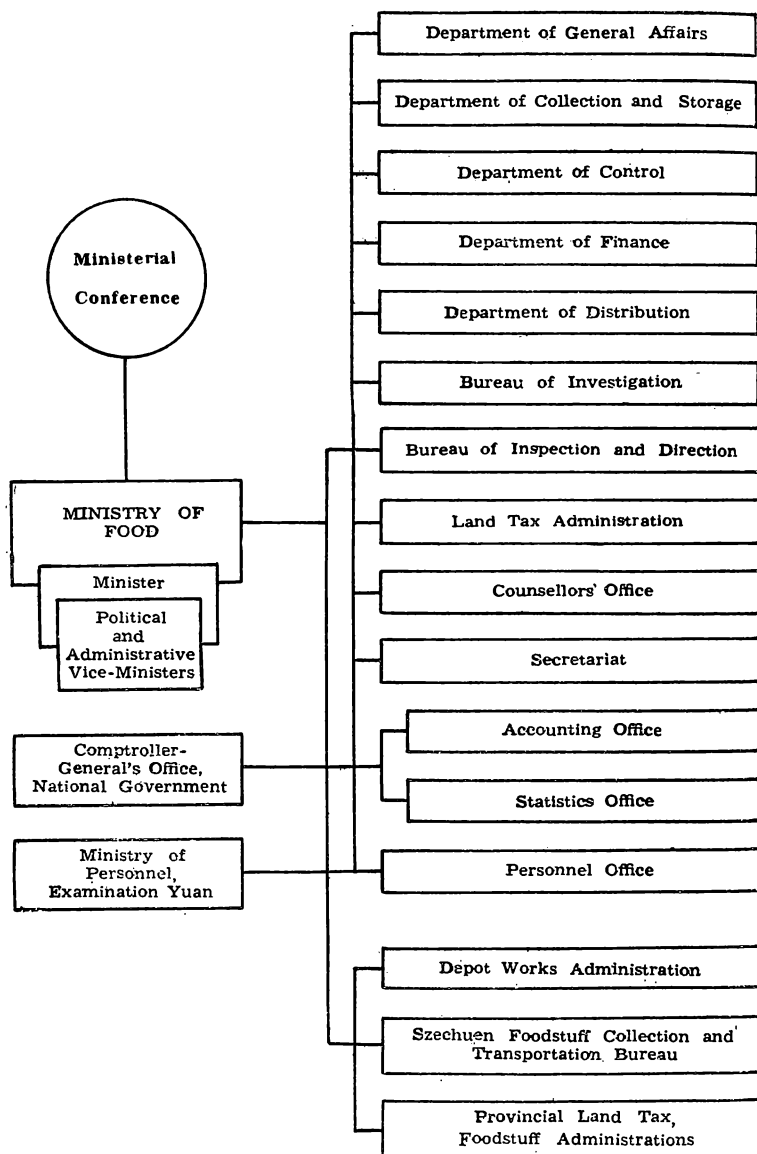


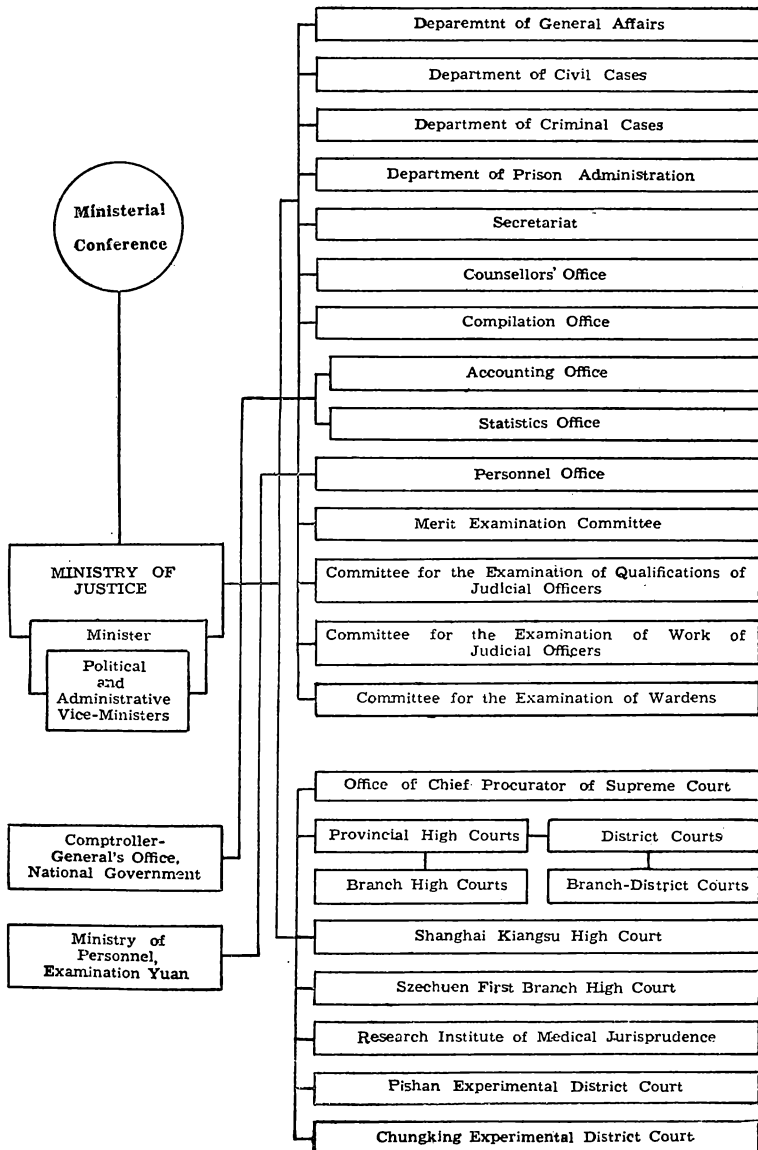


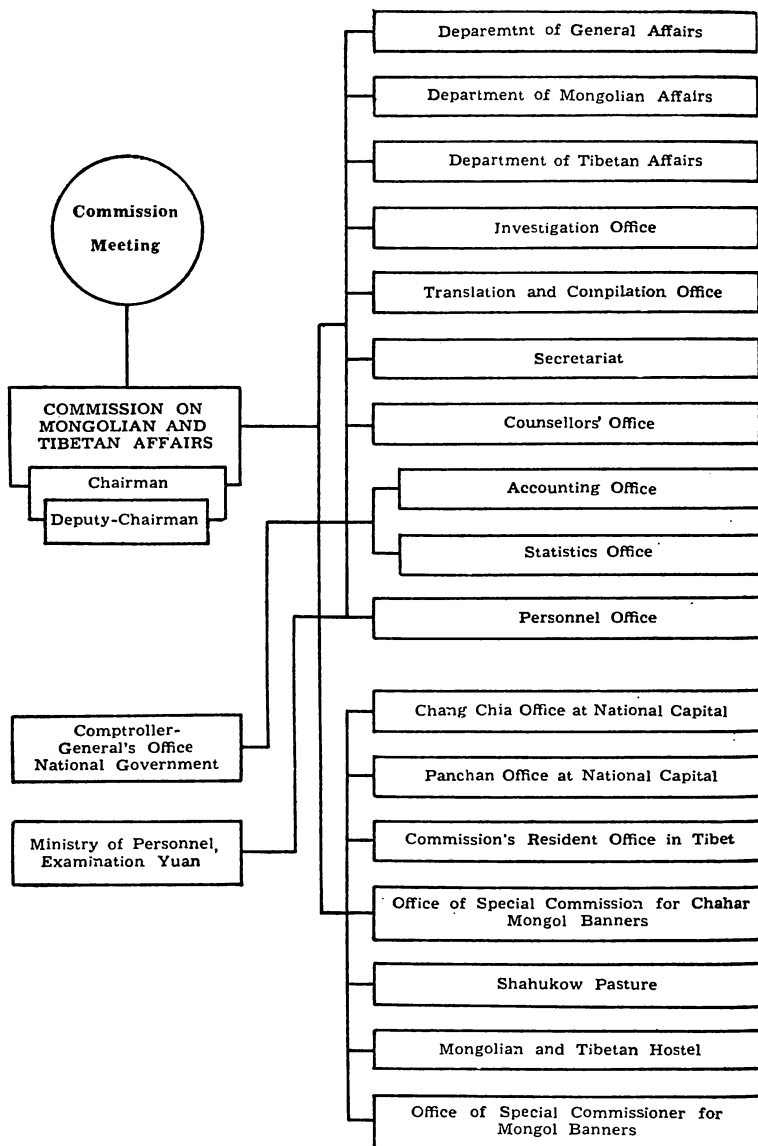


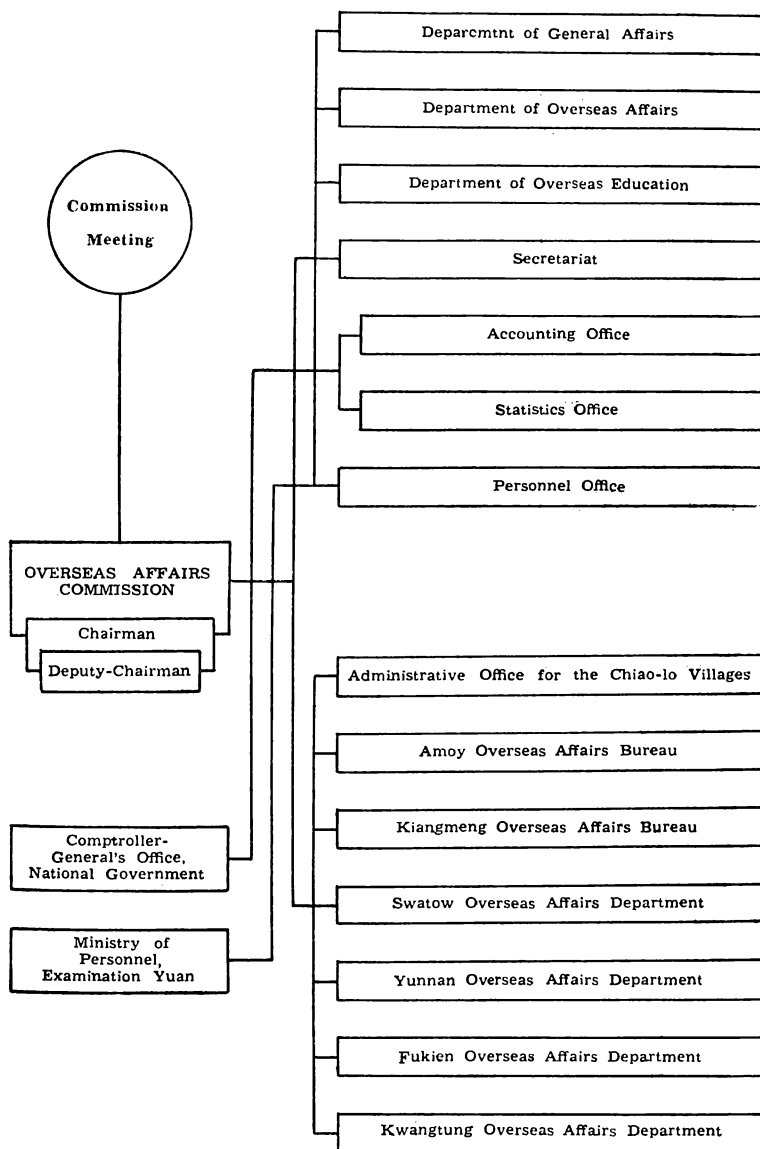


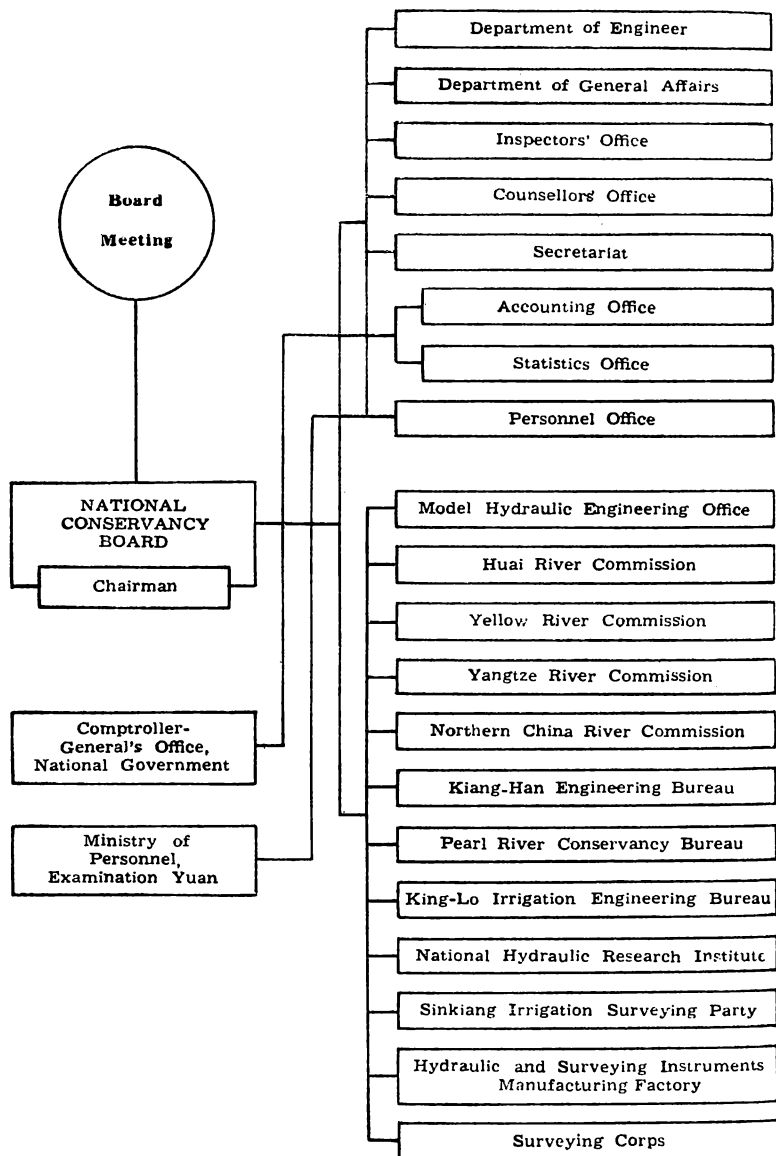


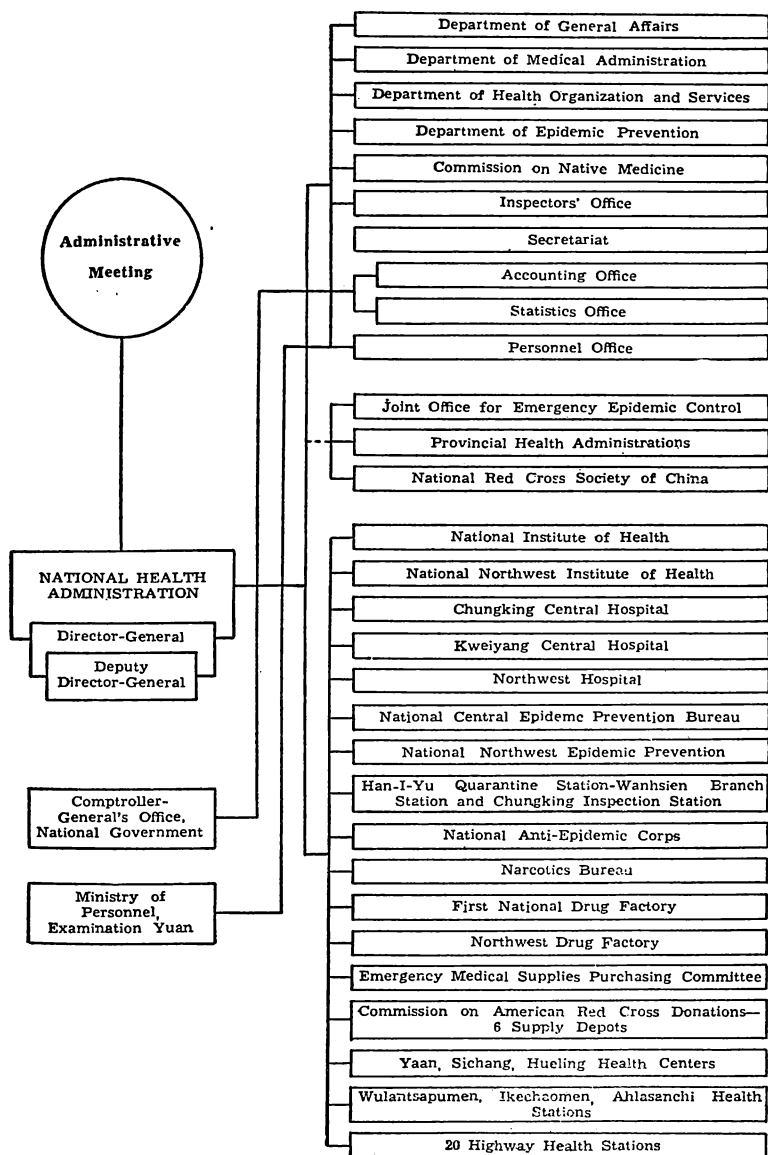


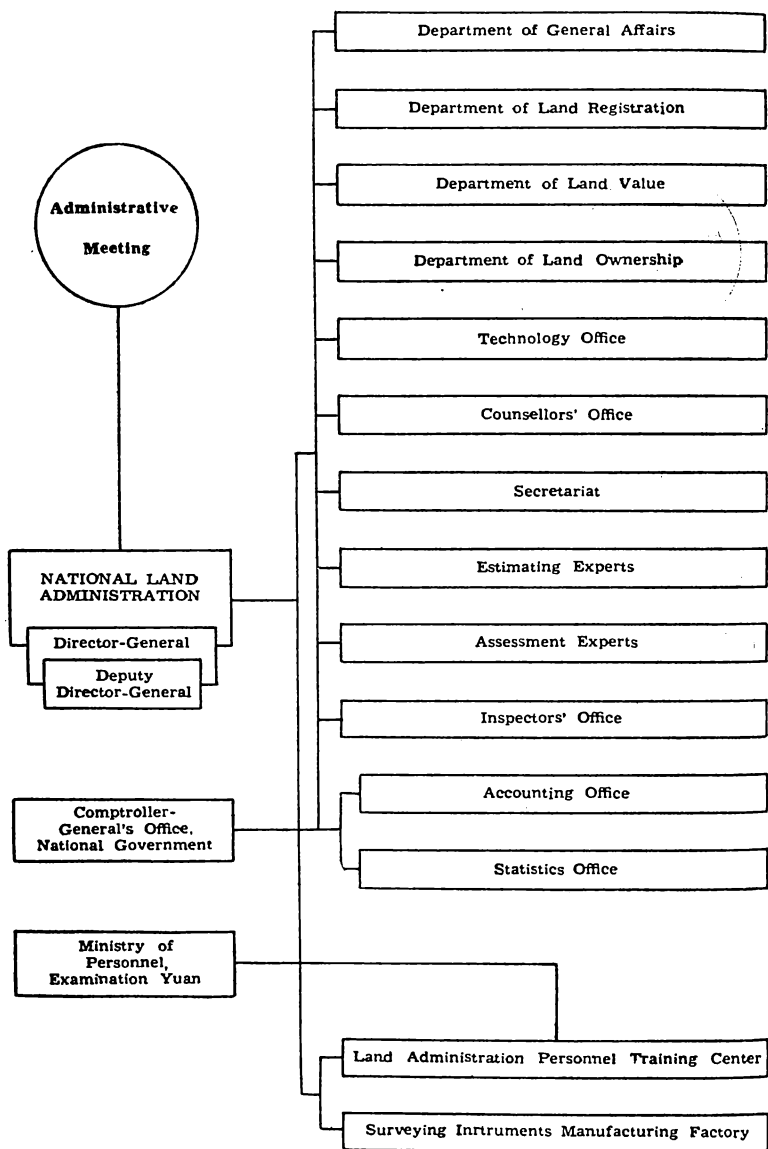


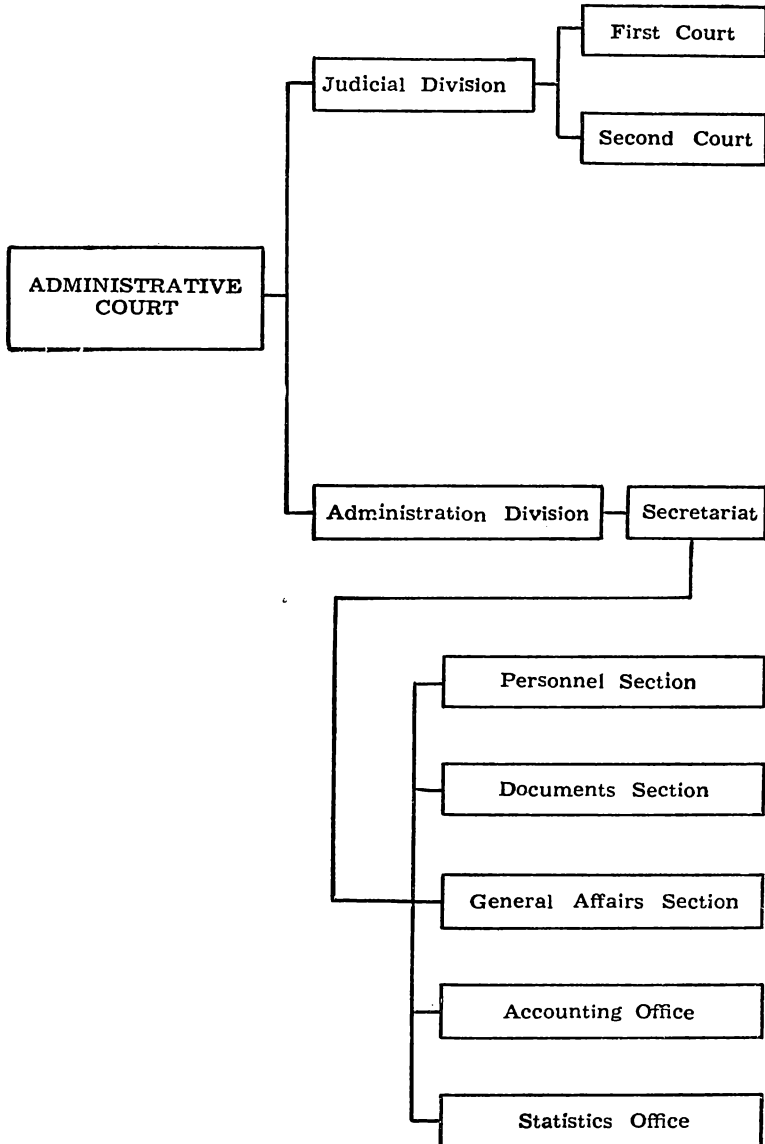


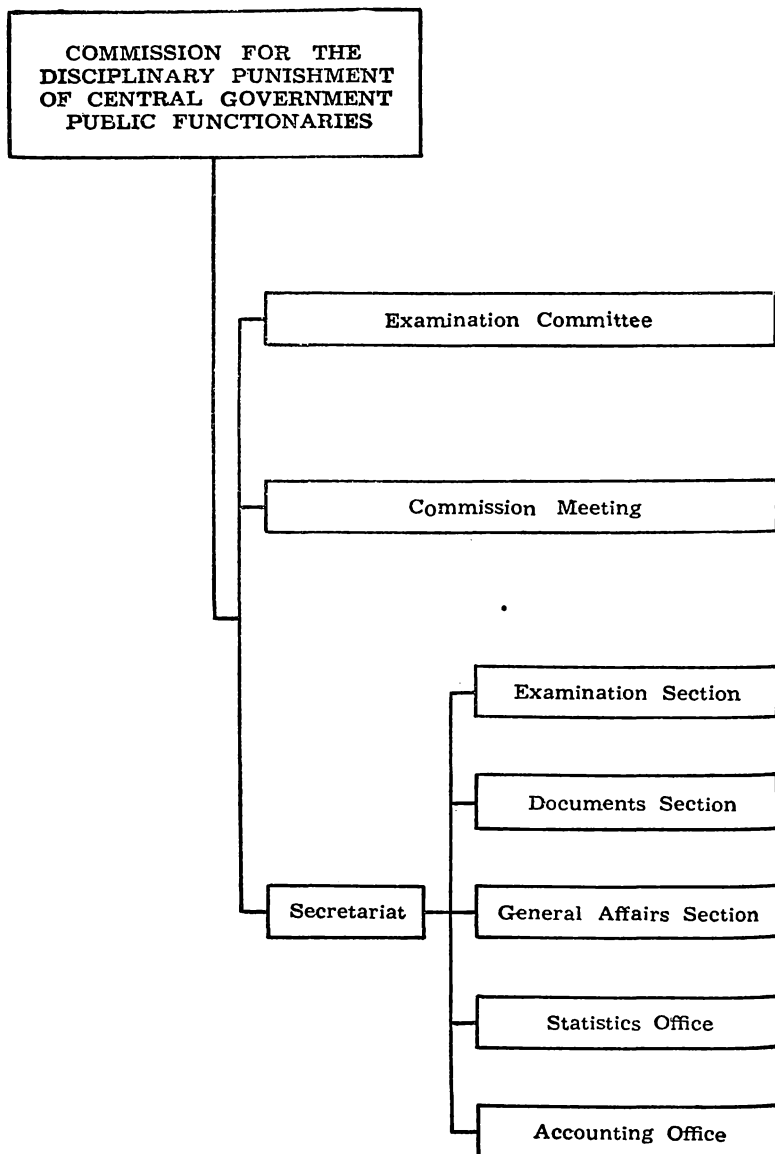


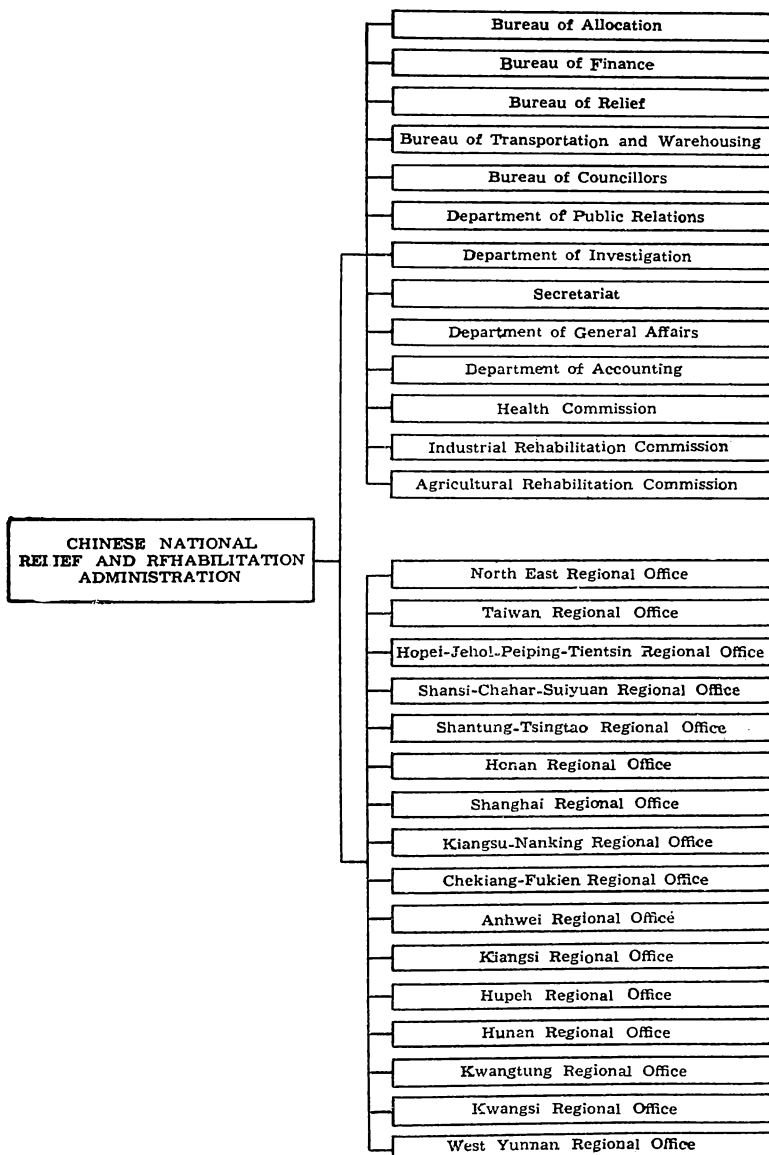


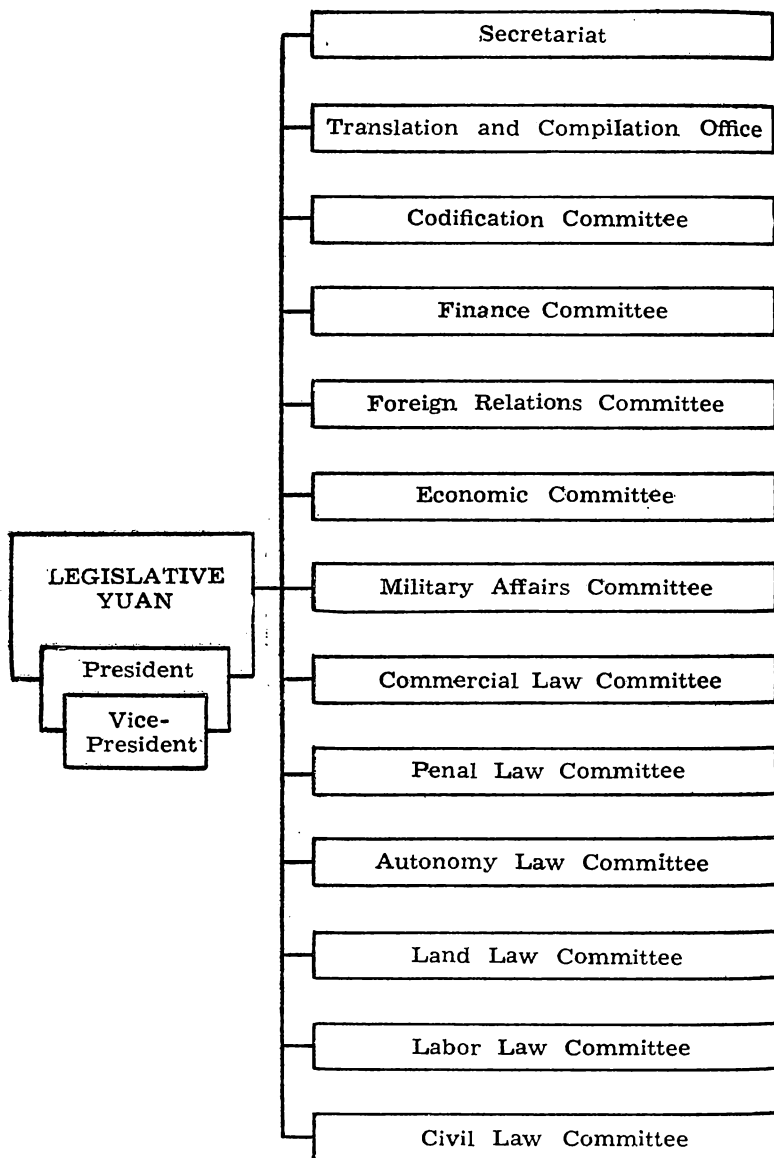


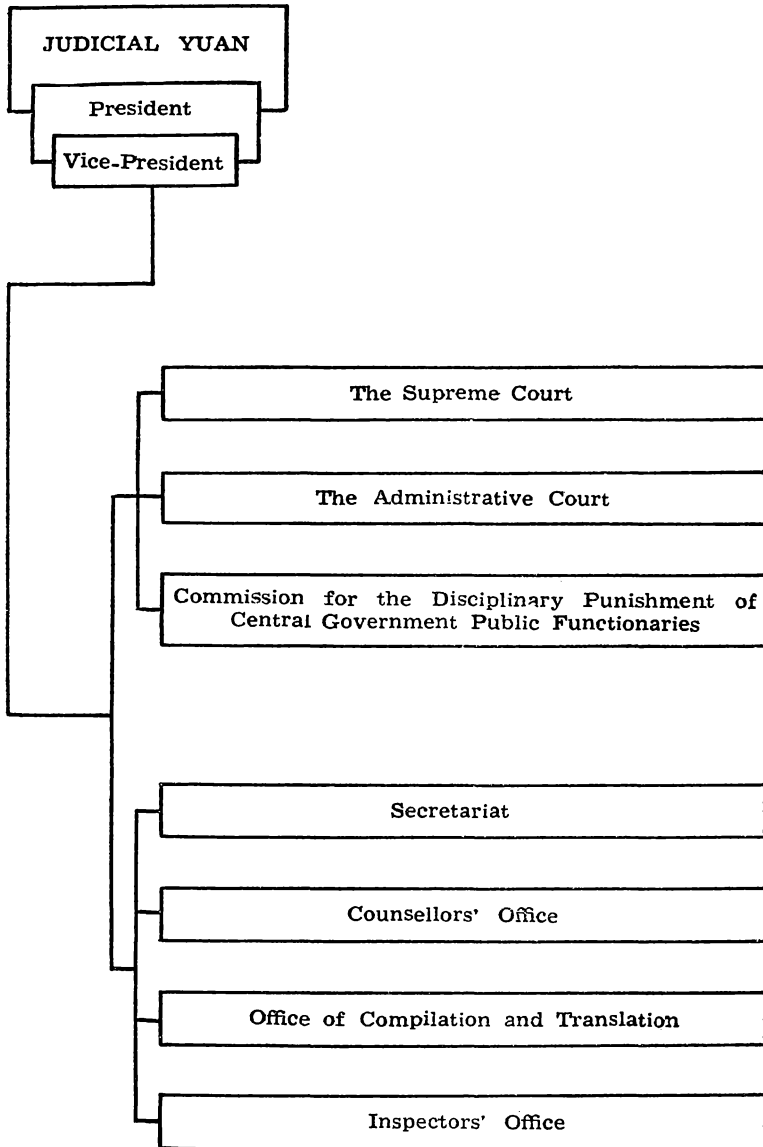


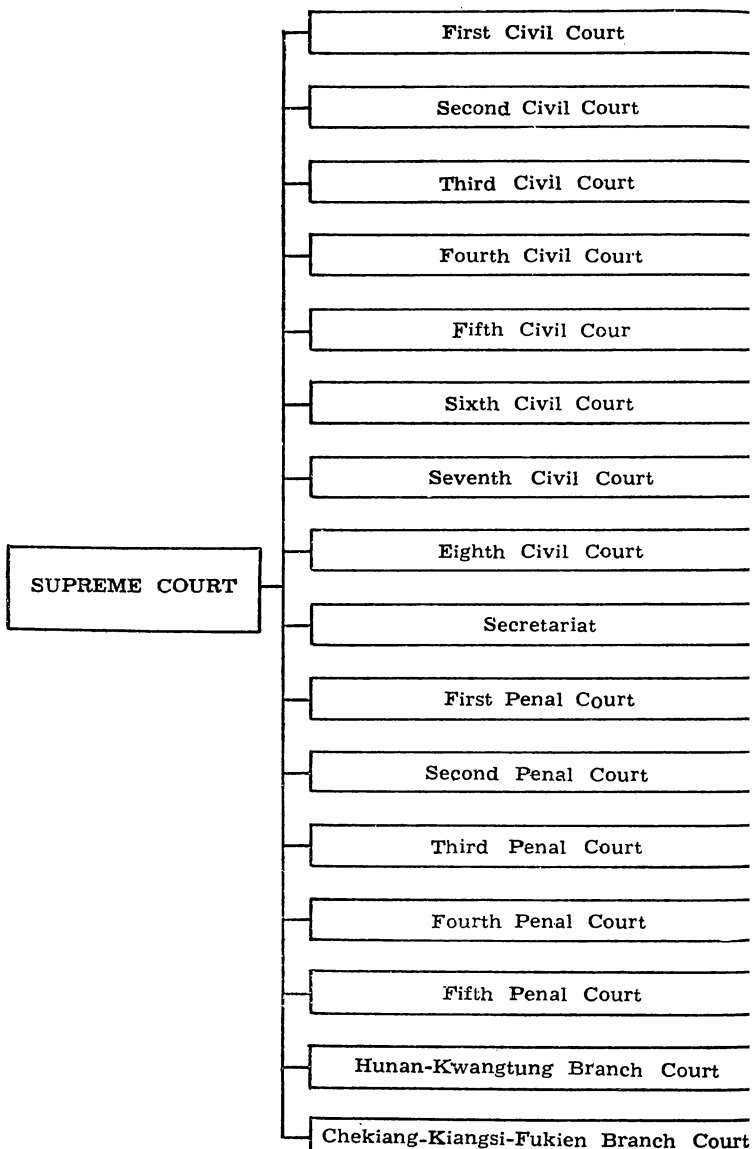


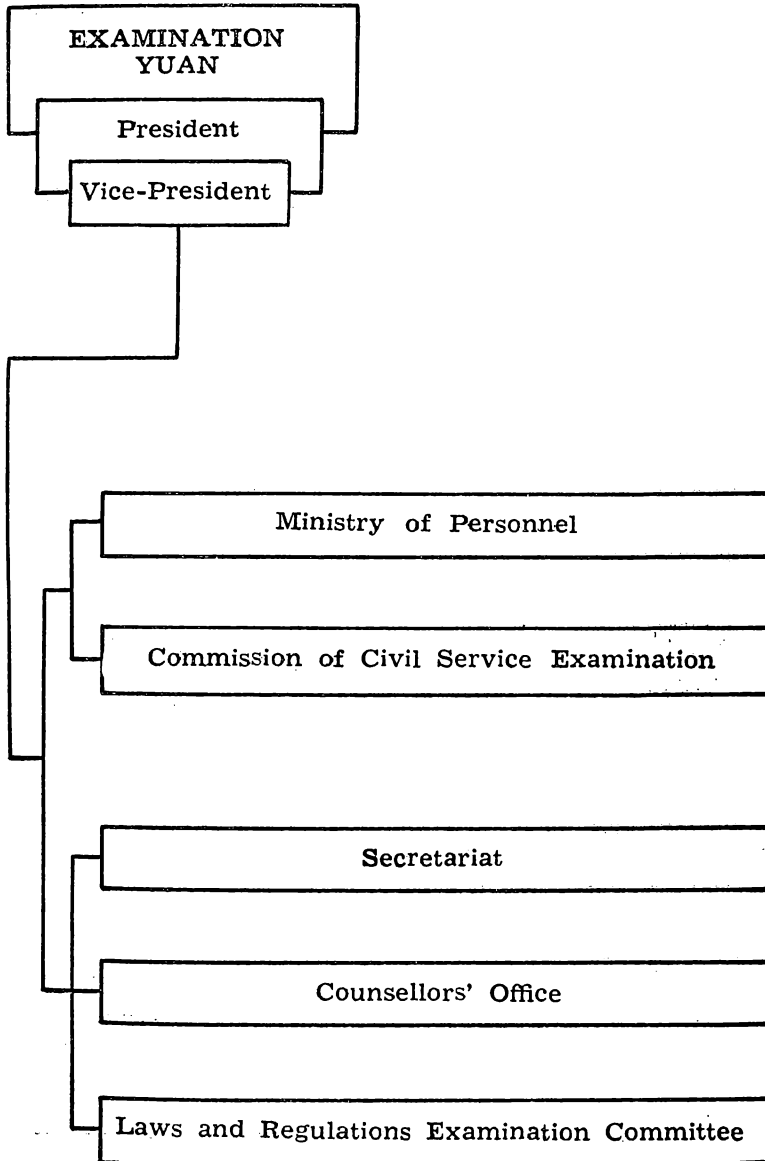


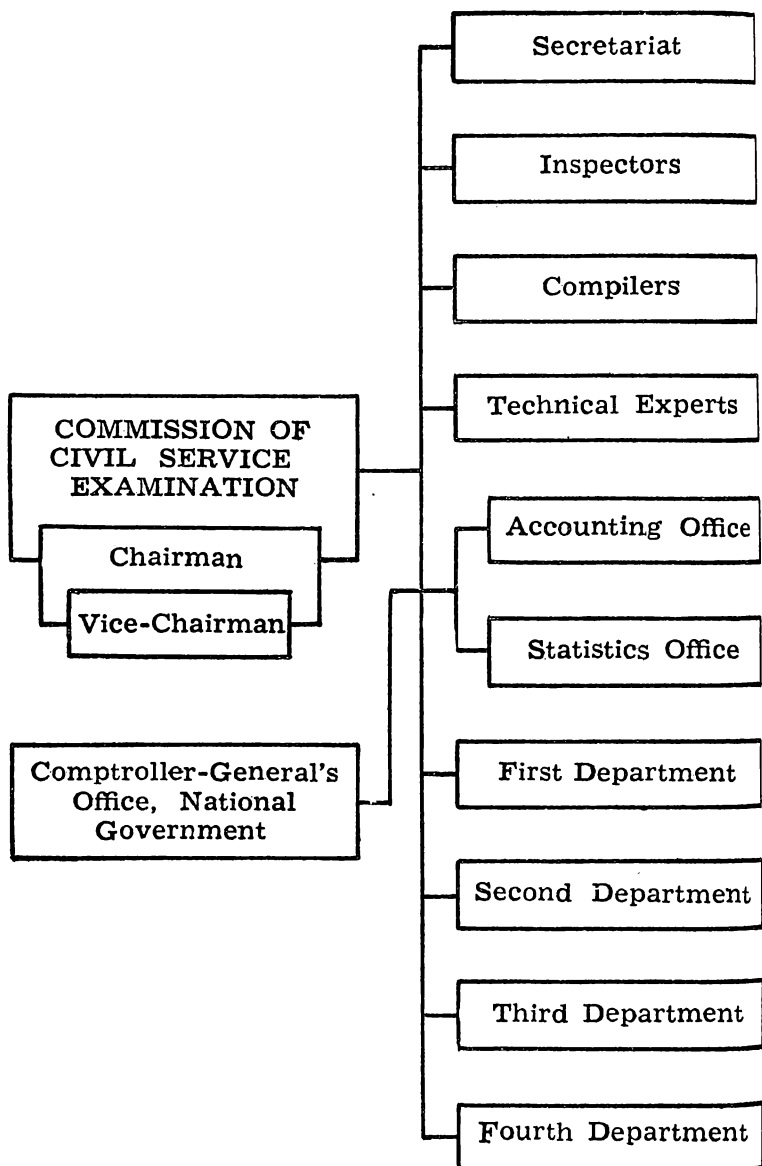


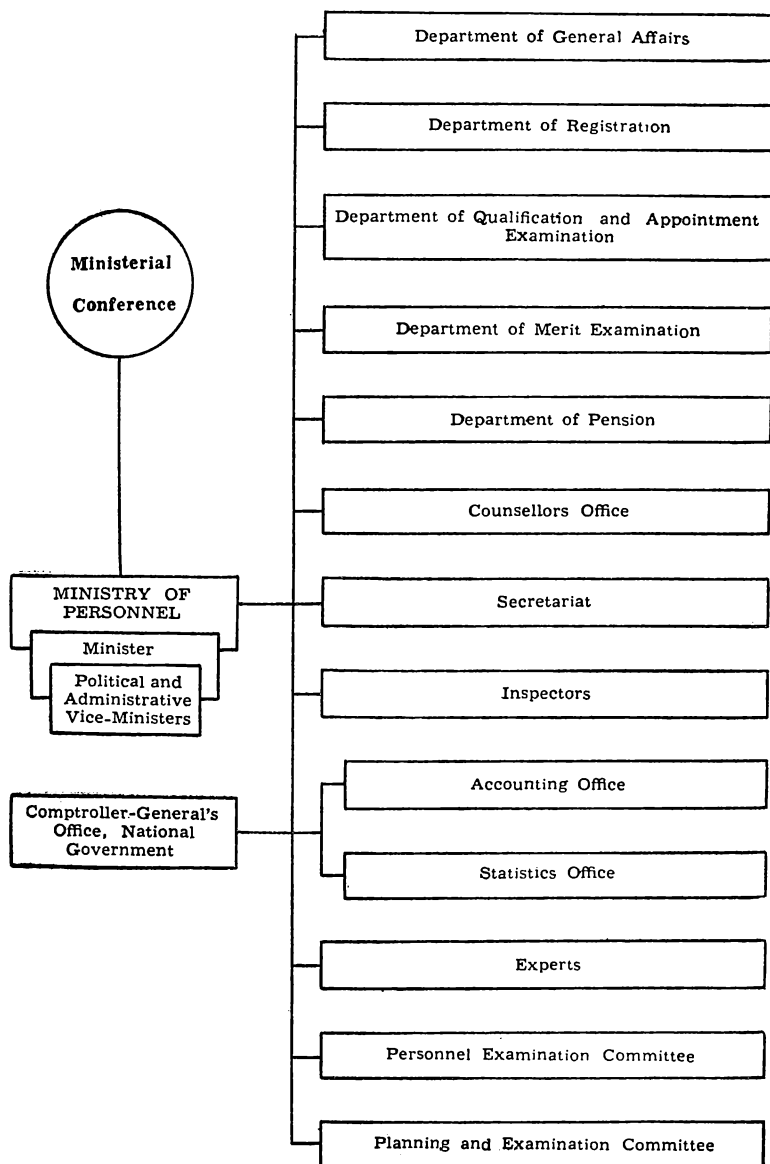


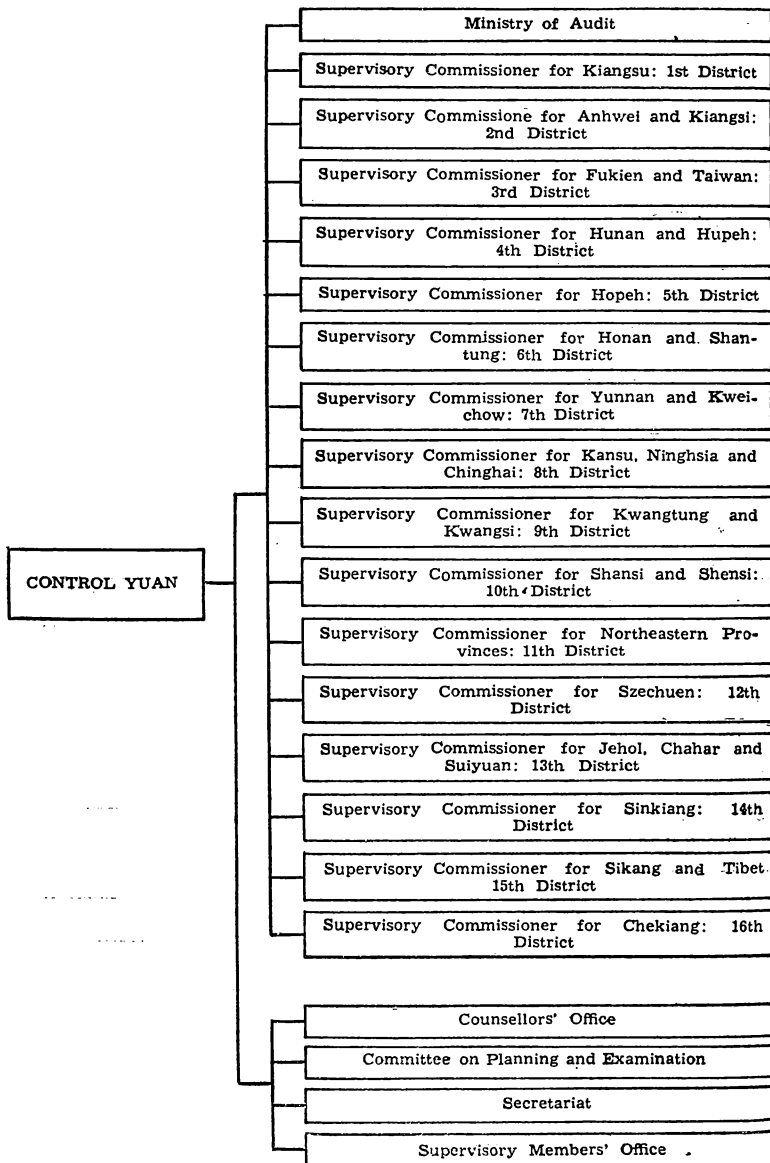


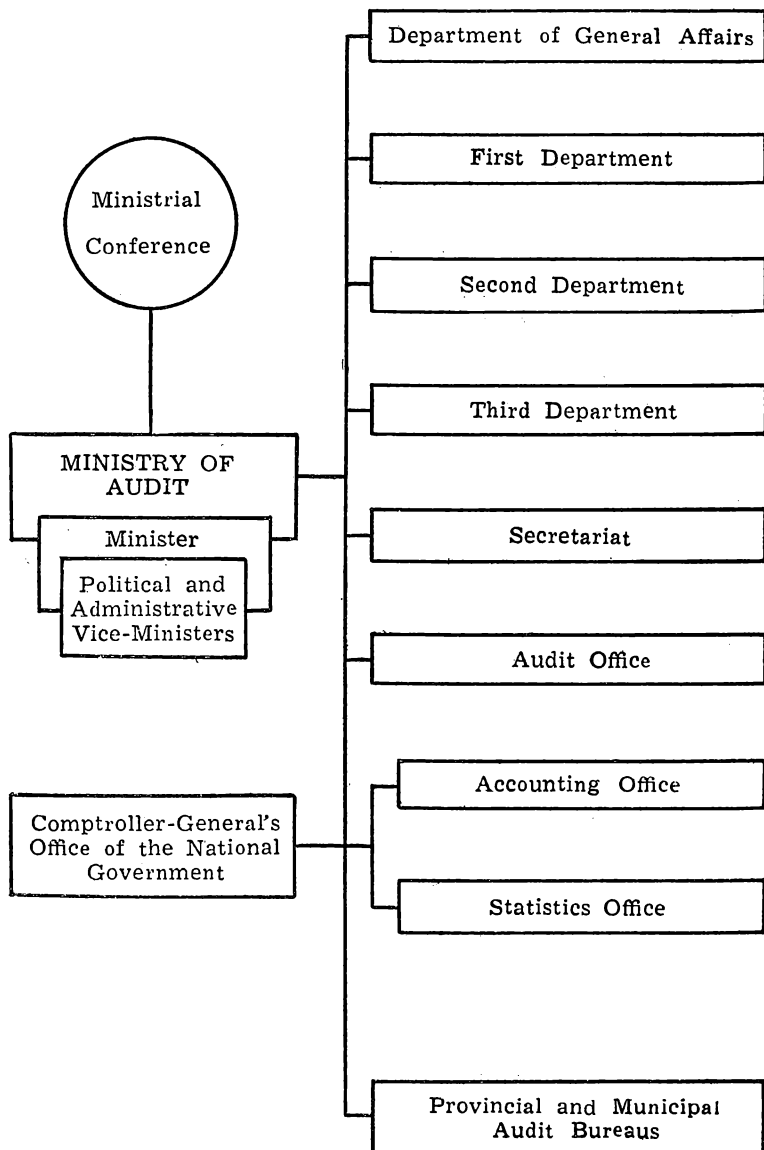












DIRECTORY OF HIGH-RANKING OFFICIALS OF CENTRAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

A. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

National Government State Council

國民政府委員會

President: Chiang Kai-shek (蔣中正)

State Councillors:

T. V. Soong	(宋子文)	Yen Hsi-shan	(閻錫山)
Wong Wen-hao	(翁文灝)	Soong Ching-ling	(宋慶齡)
Sun Fo,	(孫科)	Chang Chi	(張繼)
Yeh Chu-tsang	(葉楚傖)	Hsiung Ke-wu	(熊克武)
Chu Chen	(居正)	Pai Wen-wei	(柏文蔚)
Chin Chen	(章振)	Li Lieh-chun	(李烈鈞)
Tai Chuan-hsien	(戴傳賢)	Li Wen-fan	(李文範)
Chou Chung-yu	(周鍾嶽)	Chu Chia-hua	(朱家驊)
Yu Yu-jen	(于右任)	Chang Chia	(章嘉)
Liu Shang-ching	(劉尚清)	Hu I-sheng	(胡毅生)
H. H. Kung	(孔祥熙)	Niu Yung-chien	(鈕永建)
Chang Jen-chieh	(張人傑)	Liu Cheh	(劉哲)
Tsou Lu	(鄒魯)	Mai-sze-wu-teh	(麥斯武德)
Feng Yu-hsiang	(馮玉祥)	Wei Huai	(魏懷)

Advisers:

Teng Chia-yen	(鄧家彥)	Chou Chen-lin	(周震麟)
Huang Fu-sheng	(黃復生)	Yao Yu-ping	(姚雨平)
Hsu Chung-hao	(許崇灝)	Li Pei-chi	(李培基)
Chiao I-tang	(焦易堂)	Hsu Shih-ying	(許世英)
Feng Tzu-yu	(馮自由)	Chang Kuo-kan	(張國淦)
Chiao I-sheng	(喬義生)	Sun Tan-lin	(孫丹林)

NATIONAL GOVERNMENT HEADQUARTERS

Department of Civil Affairs

(文官處)

Director: Wu Ting-chang (吳鼎昌)

Senior Secretaries:

Shen Li	(沈璣)	Tsao I-yuan	(曹翼遠)
Chen Hsin-hsueh	(陳新燮)	Shen Chang-huan	(沈昌煥)
Tan Tao	(但嘉)	Yeh Shih-chih	(葉實之)
Mao Ching-hsiang	(毛慶祥)	Li Pai-hung	(李白虹)
Chu Yun-kwang	(朱雲光)	Chou Hung-tao	(周宏濤)
Chang Nai-kung	(張乃恭)	Tung Hsi-chin	(董希錦)
Wang Chao-chuan	(王兆荃)	Ho Chu-chiang	(賀楚強)
Chang Ling	(張齡)	Tsao Sheng-fen	(曹聖芬)
Wu Chun	(吳椿)	Chiang Chao-yu	(姜超猷)

Chief, Bureau of Documents: Hsu Chin-chih (許靜芝)
 Chief, Bureau of Political Affairs: Chen Fang (陳方)
 Chief, Bureau of Printing and Engraving: Chou Chung-llang (周仲良)
 Chief, Personnel Office: Mei Lin-kao (梅嶼高)
 Chief, Accounting Office: Wu Chih-pu (吳治普)
 Chief, Statistics Office: Wang Liang-pi (王良弼)

Department of Military Affairs

(參軍處)

Director: Shang Chen (商震)

Military Councillors:

Li I-tzu	(李益滋)	Huang Ping-heng	(黃秉衡)
Wang Hsiao-chen	(王孝鎮)	Feng Sheng-fa	(馮聖法)
Hsiao Chin	(蕭芹)	Tang Tsung	(唐縱)
Lin Shou-hsiang	(林叔向)	Ma Tse	(馬策)
Lin Yuan-chuan	(林元銓)	Shih Chueh-min	(施覺民)
Chu Shih-ming	(朱世明)	Pi Tsung-kan	(皮宗敬)
Wang Lieh	(王烈)		

Chief, Bureau of Military Affairs: Yu Chi-shih (俞濟時)

Deputy Chiefs: Chao Kuei-sen (趙桂森) Mao Ching-piao (毛景彪)

Chief, Bureau of Ceremonies: Tien Shih-chieh (田士捷)

Chief, Bureau of General Affairs: Chen Hsi-tseng (陳希曾)

Chief, Secretariate: Chen Hung-chen (陳宏振)

Senior Secretaries: Chai Tsu-ying (柴祖蔭) Yang Teh-chuan (楊德銓)

Chief, Code Office: Mao Ching-hsiang (毛慶祥)

Deputy Chief: Chang Ting-chen (張廷楨)

Chief, Personnel Office: Lu Tung-ping (陸東平)

Chief Accountant: Hsu Hsueh-keng (徐學鏗)

Chief, Statistics Office: Chu Mou-chun (朱懋俊)

Chief, Guard Office: Li Tieh-han (黎鐵漢)

Deputy Chiefs: Chen Shang-chou (陳善周)

Chu Pel-chi (竺培基)

Comptroller-General's Office

(主計處)

Comptroller-General: Chen Chi-tsai (陳其采)

Comptrollers:

Yang Ju-mei	(楊汝梅)	Fan Tsung-cheng	(范宗成)
Wu Ta-chun	(吳大鈞)	Lu Jung-kuang	(陸榮光)
Wen Yi-yu	(聞亦有)	Chu Chun-i	(朱君毅)

Senior Secretary: Chao Chang-fu (趙章黼)

Senior Inspector: Sun Hsi-wen (孫希文)

Chief, Bureau of Budget: Yang Ju-mei (楊汝梅)

Deputy Chief: Fan Tsung-cheng (范宗成)

Chief, Bureau of Accounting: Wen Yi-yu (聞亦有)

Deputy Chief: Lu Jung-kuang (陸榮光)

Chief, Bureau of Statistics: Wu Ta-chun (吳大鈞)

Deputy Chief: Chu Chun-i (朱君毅)

Chief, Personnel Office: Chen Lang-chiu (陳朗秋)

Chief, Accounting Office: Chen Chung-tao (陳鍾燾)

Academia Sinica

中央研究院

Acting President: Chu Chia-hua (朱家驊)
 Secretary-General: Sah Pen-tung (薩本棟)
 Director, Institute of Mathematics: * Chiang Li-fu (姜立夫)
 Director, Institute of Astronomy: Chang Yu-cheh (張鈺哲)
 Director, Institute of Physics: Ting Hsieh-lin (丁燮林)
 Director, Institute of Chemistry: Wu Hsueh-chou (吳學周)
 Director, Institute of Geology: Li Szu-kuang (李四光)
 Director, Institute of Zoology: Wang Chia-chi (王家楫)
 Director, Institute of Botany: Lo Tsung-lo (羅宗洛)
 Director, Institute of Meteorology: Chu Co-ching (竺可楨)
 Director, Institute of History & Philology: Fu Szu-nien (傅斯年)
 Director, Institute of Social Sciences: Tao Meng-ho (陶孟和)
 Director, Institute of Medicine: * Lin Ke-sheng (林可勝)
 Director, Institute of Physical Anthropology: * Wu Ting-liang (吳定良)
 Director, Institute of Engineering: Chou Jen (周仁)
 Director, Institute of Psychology: Wang Chin-hsi (汪敬熙)
 Director, Institute of Fine Arts in Tenghuang: Chang Shu-hung (常書鴻)
 Acting President, Council of Evaluation: Chu Chia-hua (朱家驊)
 *under organization

Secretary:

Wong Wen-hao	(翁文灝)	Wang Chung-yu	(王寵佑)
Sah Pen-tung	(薩本棟)	Ping Chih	(秉志)
Chang Yu-cheh	(張玉哲)	Lin Ke-sheng	(林可勝)
Ting Hsieh-lin	(丁燮林)	Chen Chen	(陳楨)
Wu Hsueh-chou	(吳學周)	Chien Chung-shu	(錢崇澍)
Li Szu-kuang	(李四光)	Tai Fang-lan	(戴芳瀾)
Wang Chia-chi	(王家楫)	Hu Hsien-su	(胡先驕)
Lo Chung-lo	(羅宗洛)	Chu Chia-hau	(朱家驊)
Chu Co-ching	(竺可楨)	Hsieh Chia-jung	(謝家榮)
Fu Szu-nien	(傅斯年)	Chang Yun	(張雲)
Tao Meng-ho	(陶孟和)	Lu Chun	(呂炯)
Chou Jen	(周仁)	Tang Yueh	(唐鈺)
Wang Chin-hsi	(汪敬熙)	Wang Shih-chieh	(王世杰)
Chiang Li-fu	(姜立夫)	Ho Lien	(何廉)
Wu Yu-hsun	(吳有訓)	Chou Kang-sheng	(周鯨生)
Li Shu-hua	(李書華)	Hu Shih	(胡適)
Hou Teh-pang	(侯德榜)	Chen Yuan	(陳垣)
Tseng Chao-lun	(曾昭掄)	Chao Yuan-jen	(趙元任)
Chuang Chang-kung	(莊長恭)	Li Chi	(李濟)
Ling Hung-hsun	(凌鴻勳)	Wu Ting-liang	(吳定良)
Mao I-sheng	(茅以昇)	Chen Yin-ko	(陳寅恪)

Exploits Examination Commission

稽勳委員會

Members:

T. V. Soong	(宋子文)	Yeh Chu-tsang	(葉楚傖)
Wong Wen-hao	(翁文灝)	Chu Cheng	(居正)
Sun Fo	(孫科)	Chin Cheng	(章振)

Tai Chuan-hsien	(戴傳賢)	Wang Shih-chieh	(王世杰)
Chou Chung-yu	(周鍾嶽)	Chia Ching-teh	(賈景德)
Yu Yu-jen	(于右任)	Chen Shu-jen	(陳樹人)
Liu Shang-ching	(劉尚清)	Lei Ying	(雷殷)
Chang Li-sheng	(張厲生)		

Chief Secretary: Hsu Chin-chih (許靜芝)

Secretaries:

Wen Chun-tien	(聞鈞天)	Sung Wen-lan	(宋文瀾)
Kiang Sheng-jang	(江聖壤)	Li Ping-han	(李秉漢)

Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Political Officials

政務官懲戒委員會

Commissioners:

Yeh Chu-tsang	(葉楚傖)	Tsou Lu	(鄒魯)
Chang Jen-chieh	(張人傑)	Niu Yung-chien	(鈕永建)
Chang Chi	(張繼)	Liu Cheh	(劉哲)
Li Wen-fan	(李文範)		

Chief Secretary: Chu Yun-kuang (朱雲光)

Senior Secretaries:

Wang Ju-i	(王汝翼)	Hsu Chao-tung	(徐朝桐)
Chiang Chao-yu	(姜超猷)	Feng Pai-ping	(馮百平)

National Military Council

軍事委員會

Chairman: Chiang Kai-shek (蔣中正)

Councillors:

Yen Hsi-shan	(閻錫山)	Cheng Chien	(程潛)
Feng Yu-hsiang	(馮玉祥)	Tang Sheng-chih	(唐生智)
Chen Shao-kuan	(陳紹寬)	Hsiung Shih-hui	(熊式輝)
Li Tsung-jen	(李宗仁)	Wen Li-huang	(衛立煌)
Li Chi-shen	(李濟琛)	Wan Fu-lin	(萬福麟)

Ex-Officio Councillors:

Hsu Yung-chang	(徐永昌)	Chang Chih-chung	(張治中)
Ho Ying-chin	(何應欽)	Chen Cheng	(陳誠)
Pai Chung-hsi	(白崇禧)	Lung Yun	(龍雲)

Chief, General Staff: Ho Ying-chin (何應欽)

Acting Chief, General Staff: Cheng Chien (程潛)

Deputy Chief, General Staff: Pai Chung-hsi (白崇禧)

Director, Main Office: Ho Kuo-kuang (賀國光)

Assistant Director: Yao Tsung (姚瑩)

Director, Foreign Office: Ho Hao-jo (何浩若)

Assistant Director: Wang Shih-ming (汪世銘)

Chief, Board of Military Operations: Hsu Yung-chang (徐永昌)

Deputy Chiefs: Liu Fei (劉斐) Chin Teh-shun (秦德純)

Chief, Board of Military Training: Pai Chung-hsi (白崇禧)

Deputy Chiefs: Wang Chun (王俊) Liu Shih-yi (劉士毅)

Chief, Board of Political Training: Chang Chih-chung (張治中)

Deputy Chiefs: Huang Shao-ku (黃少谷) Yuan Shou-chien (袁守謙)

Director, Personnel Office: Chien Cho-lun (錢卓倫)
Assistant Directors: Yu Chi-shih (俞濟時) Liu Yung-yao (劉詠堯)
Minister, Ministry of War: Chen Cheng (陳誠)
Vice Ministers: Lin Wei (林蔚) Yu Ta-wei (俞大維)
Chief, Military Advisory Council: (龍雲)
Deputy Chiefs: Yu Hsueh-chung (于學忠) Chang Fang (張鈐)
Director, Commission on Aeronautical Affairs: Chou Chih-jou (周至柔)
Assistant Directors: Huang Kuang-jui (黃光銳) Mao Pang-chu (毛邦初)
 Wang Shu-ming (王叔銘)
Chairman, Commission on Pensions: Ho Chien (何鍵)
Vice-Chairman: Wu Szu-yu (吳思豫)
Director, Bureau of Investigation & Statistics: Tai Li (戴笠)
Director, War Production Board: Yu Fei-peng (俞飛鵬)
Assistant Director: Kung Hsueh-sui (龔學遂)
Commander, Headquarters of Service of Supply:
 Huang Chen-chiu (黃鎮球)
Deputy Commanders: Tuan Mu-chieh (端木傑) Shih Hua-lung (石化龍)
Director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Kweilin: Pai Chung-hsi (白崇禧)
Director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Wuhan: Cheng Chien (程潛)
Director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Hanchung: Li Tsung-jen (李宗仁)
Director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Peiping: Li Tsung-jen (李宗仁)
Director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in the North East:
 Hsiung Shih-hui (熊式輝)
Director, Headquarters of Pacification in the frontiers of Szechuen, Kweichow, Hunan and Hupeh: Pan Wen-hua (潘文華)
Director, Headquarters of Pacification in Chuchow: Yu Han-mou (余漢謀)
Director, Headquarters of Pacification in Chengchow: Liu Chih (劉峙)
Deputy Commander, Garrison Headquarters in Nanking and Shanghai:
 Cheng Tung-kuo (鄭洞國)
Commander, Gendarme Headquarters: Chang Chen (張鎮)
Commander, Chungking Garrison Headquarters: Wang Tsuan-hsu (王績緒)
Commander, Taiwan Garrison Headquarters: Chen Yi (陳儀)

Executive Yuan

行政院

President: T. V. Soong (宋子文)
Vice President: Wong Wen-hao (翁文灝)
Secretary-General: Monlin Chiang (蔣夢麟)
Assistant Secretary-General: Chu Chung-tao (朱忠道)
Counsellors:

Chang Ping-chun (張平羣)	Li Pu-lin (李溥霖)
Chen Ke-wen (陳克文)	Hsu Shih-chun (許世瀾)
Sun Hsi-wen (孫希文)	Chu Fu-ting (朱佛定)
Yu Wang-teh (于望德)	Li Wan (黎琬)
Kuan Ou (管歐)	Chen Shih-chen (陳石珍)

Senior Secretaries:

Fang Shu-chang (方叔章)	Hsueh Chuan-tseng (薛銓曾)
Wang Jih-chang (汪日章)	Tseng Ta-chun (曾大鈞)
Fan Shih (范實)	Hsiao Tzu-cheng (蕭自誠)
Jan Peng (冉鵬)	Chen Sheng-lan (陳盛蘭)
Wu Tzu-chun (吳子雋)	Kuo Tseng-kai (郭增愷)

Chief Accountant: Hu Shang-heng (胡善恆)

Ministry of the Interior

內政部

Minister: Chang Li-sheng (張厲生)

Political Vice-Minister: Chang Wei-han (張維翰)

Administrative Vice-Minister: Lei Fa-chang (雷法章)

Counsellors:

Sun Ke-kuan	(孫克寬)	Wang Yi-lin	(汪炎林)
Ma Po-an	(馬博庵)	Liu Sui-chang	(劉遂昌)
Teng Hung-fan	(鄧鴻藩)	Chen Tun	(陳 屯)

Senior Secretaries:

Shih Lien-fang	(師連芳)	Chin Jung-chia	(秦榮甲)
----------------	-------	----------------	-------

Director, General Affairs Department: Chou Chung-nan (周鍾南)

Director, Civil Affairs Department: Yang Chun-mai (楊君勳)

Director, Census Administration Department: Pao Hui-seng (包惠僧)

Director, Police Administration Department: Feng Yu-kun (鄧裕坤)

Director, Construction Department: Harris Hsiung-wen Ha (哈雄文)

Director, Customs & Ceremonies Department: Wen Chun-tien (聞鈞天)

Senior Inspectors: Hsu Ning-sheng (許凝生) Peng Kuo-tung (彭國棟)

Chairman, Opium Suppression Commission: Wang Te-fu (王德溥)

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

(外交部)

Minister: Wang Shih-chieh (王世杰)

Political Vice-Minister: Kan Nai-kuang (甘乃光)

Administrative Vice-Minister: Liu Chieh (劉 鋈)

Counsellors:

Kuo Ping-chia	(郭斌佳)	Chu Shao-yang	(朱紹陽)
Chen Chin-jen	(陳欽仁)		

Senior Secretaries:

Chen Tsung-hsi	(陳崇熙)	Yin Pao-yu	(尹葆宇)
Pao Yi	(葆 毅)	Wang Teh-fang	(王德芳)

Director, General Affairs Department: Chen Ying-ching (陳英競)

Director, Eastern Asiatic Department: Yang Yun-chu (楊雲竹)

Director, Western Asiatic Department: Po Tao-ming (卜道明)

Director, European Department: Wu Nan-ju (吳南如)

Acting Director, American Department: Cheng Hsi-meng (程希孟)

Director, Treaty Department: Wang Hua-cheng (王化成)

Director, Information Department: Ho Feng-shan (何鳳山)

Director, Protocol Department: Li Chun (李 駿)

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for

Kwangtung and Kwangsi: Kuo Teh-hua (郭德華)

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for

Yunnan: Wang Chan-chi (王占祺)

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for

Peiping and Tientsin: Wu Ai-chen (吳霽辰)

Acting Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Kansu: Pao Hsu (葆煦)

Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for

the Northeast: Chiang Ching-kuo (蔣經國)

*Special Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for**Taiwan:* Huang Chao-chin (黃朝琴)*Chief, Personnel Office:* Cheng Chen-yu (鄭震宇)*Chief Accountant:* Huang Ching-hua (黃慶華)**Ministry of War**

(軍政部)

Minister: Chen Cheng (陳誠)*Political Vice-Minister:* Lin Wei (林蔚)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Yu Ta-wei (俞大維)*Counsellors:*

Li Hua-ying (李華英)

Tai Kao-hsiang (戴高翔)

Wang Chia-lieh (王家烈)

Tsai Tsung-lien (蔡崇濂)

Hsieh Ko (謝珂)

Kiang Chia-chiu (江家球)

Chang Hsiu-chin (張修敬)

Senior Secretary: Hsieh Chung-yuan (謝鍾元)*Chief, Bureau of General Affairs:* Chien Shou-heng (錢壽恆)*Director-General, Directorate of Military Affairs:* Fang Tien (方天)*Assistant Director-General, Directorate of Military Affairs:*

Chou Peng-shang (周彭賞) Kuo Ju-kuei (郭汝瑰)

Director-General, Directorate of Military Supplies: Chen Liang (陳良)*Assistant Director-General, Directorate of Military Supplies:*

Wu Tzu-i (吳子澗) Yen Kuan (嚴寬)

Director-General, Directorate of Medical Service: Lin Ko-sheng (林可勝)*Assistant Director-General, Directorate of Medical Service:*

Wu Yun-an (吳雲庵) Chen Li-kai (陳立楷)

Director-General, Directorate of Ordnance: Yu Ta-wei (俞大維)*Assistant Director-General, Directorate of Ordnance:*

Yang Chi-tseng (楊繼曾)

Director-General, Directorate of Conscription: Hsu Szu-ping (徐思平)*Assistant Director-General, Directorate of Conscription:*

Cheng Ping-ju (鄭冰如) Tu Hsin-ju (杜心如)

Director-General, Naval Administration: Chou Hsien-chang (周憲章)*Director, Personnel Bureau:* Chen Chun-lin (陳春林)*Director, Division of Military Law:* Liu Chien-chun (劉千俊)*Chief Accountant:* Li Yeh (李鄴)**Ministry of Finance**

(財政部)

Minister: O. K. Yui (俞鴻鈞)*Political Vice-Minister:* Lu Pei-chang (魯佩璋)*Acting Administrative Vice-Minister:* Li Tang (李儼)*Counsellors:*

Li Yu-wan (李毓萬)

Cheng Lai (鄭萊)

Tien Yu-shih (田雨時)

Cheng Ta-cheng (程大成)

Sung Yuan (宋沅)

Sun Ching-kung (孫靜公)

Ku Tsung-ying (谷宗誠)

Liang Chin-chun (梁敬璋)

Senior Secretaries:

Chou Yung-neng (周雍能) Shih Chen-yu (石振玉)
Wang Chuan-tseng (王傳曾) Huang Tsu-yao (黃祖耀)

Director-General, Customs Administration: Li Tang (李 儼)

Director-General, National Revenue Administration:

Chiang Shu-kuo (姜書閣)

Director-General, National Treasury Administration:

Yang Mien-chung (楊綿仲)

Director-General, Direct Tax Administrations: Li Jui (李 銳)

Director, General Affairs Department: Wang Shao-chai (王紹齋)

Director, Government Bonds Department: Chen Ping-chang (陳炳璋)

Director, Currency Department: Tai Ming-li (戴銘禮)

Director, Local Finance Department: Cheng Yuan-fan (程遠帆)

Director, Personnel Department: Wu Hsing-chou (吳興周)

Director, Salt Department: Miu Chiu-chieh (繆秋杰)

Senior Technical Expert: Liu Chang-ching (劉昌景)

Chief Inspector: Chang Tsu-chi (張子奇)

Ministry of Economic Affairs

(經 濟 部)

Minister: Wong Wen-hao (翁文灝)

Political Vice-Minister: Tan Pai-yu (譚伯羽)

Administrative Vice-Minister: Ho Lien (何 廉)

Counsellors:

Chen Yu (陳 郁) Chao Kuan (趙 冠)
Chen Fei-shih (陳匪石) Chang Kuang-yu (張廣輿)
Chang I-hui (張貽惠) Liu Yin-fu (劉蔭弗)

Senior Technical Experts:

Tang Hsi-hung (鄧熙鴻) Hu Po-yuan (胡博淵)

Senior Secretaries:

Wu Wen-tien (吳聞天) Hu Chu (胡 適)

Director, Department of General Affairs: Wu Pei-chun (胡培均)

Director, Department of Control: Li Ching-lu (李景璐)

Director, Department of Mining: Li Ming-ho (李明赫)

Director, Department of Industry: Ou-yang Lun (歐陽倫)

Director, Department of Electric Power: Chang Chia-chih (張家祉)

Director, Department of Commerce: Teng Han-liang (鄧翰良)

Director, Department of Enterprises: Chuang Chih-huan (莊智煥)

Chairman, National Resources Commission: Wong Wen-hao (翁文灝)

Vice-Chairman: Chien Chang-chao (錢昌照)

Chief Accountant: Wang Wei (王 瑋)

Chief, Statistics Office: Wu Pan-nung (吳半農)

Ministry of Education

(教 育 部)

Minister: Chu Chia-hua (朱家驊)

Political Vice-Minister: Chu Ching-nung (朱經農)

Administrative Vice-Minister: Han Li-wu (杭立武)

Senior Secretaries:

Liu Ying-shih	(劉英士)	Sha Meng-hai	(沙孟海)
Tai Ying-kuan	(戴應觀)		

Counsellors:

Wang Ju-chang	(王汝昌)	Hsiang Chu-tan	(相菊潭)
Chen Shih-chen	(陳石珍)	Chao Tai-mou	(趙太侔)

Director, Department of General Affairs: Ho Shih-chun (賀師俊)
Director, Department of Higher Education: Chou Hung-chung (周鴻經)
Director, Department of Secondary Education: Tsao Chu (曹翥)
Director, Department of Primary Education: Ku Shu-sen (顧樹聲)
Director, Department of Social Education: Yang Yin-kang (楊寅康)
Director, Department of Mongolian and Tibetan Education:
 Ling Shun-sheng (凌純聲)

Ministry of Communications

(交通部)

Minister: Yu Fei-peng (俞飛鵬)*Political Vice-Minister:* Kung Hsueh-sui (龔學遂)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Ling Hung-hsuan (凌鴻勳)*Senior Secretaries:*

Wang I-hoo	(汪一鵠)	Tung Ti-teh	(童第德)
Lin Hsiang-tzu	(林祥慈)	Tang Hoo-i	(湯鵬逵)

Counsellors:

Chin Shih-hsuan	(金士宣)	Chen Shun-hou	(陳純侯)
Wang Fu-yi	(王輔宜)	Ho Mo-lin	(何墨林)
Chen Ta-ching	(陳大經)	Shih Chi-yin	(史濟寅)

Senior Technical Experts:

Wei I-fu	(韋以毅)	Wang Hsi-cheng	(汪穉成)
Sah Fu-chun	(薩福鈞)	Sung Hsi-chang	(宋希尚)
Shu Chen-tung	(舒震東)	Li Fa-tuan	(李法端)
Cheng Fang Heng	(鄭方衡)	Wu Ching-ching	(吳競清)
Yang Yi	(楊毅)	Hung Kuan-tao	(洪觀濤)
Hsu Chien	(許鑑)		

Director, Department of General Affairs: Chou Chao-tang (周兆棠)*Director, Department of Personnel:* Wang Wen-shan (王文山)*Director, Department of Finance:* Peng Hsi-tung (彭熙同)*Director, Department of Supplies:* Hua Shou-sung (華壽嵩)*Director, Department of Railways:* Shih Chih-jen (石志仁)*Director, Department of Posts & Electrical Communications:*

Tao Feng-shan (陶鳳山)

Director, Department of Navigation: Kao Ting-tzu (高廷梓)*Chief Accountant:* Lu Jung-kuang (陸榮光)**Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry**

(農林部)

Minister: Chou I-chun (周詒春)*Political Vice-Minister:* Yen Shen-yu (嚴慎于)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Chien Tien-hao (錢天鵠)

Counsellors:

Chou Ya-ching	(周亞青)	Tang Chi-yu	(唐啓宇)
Yeh Chien-chi	(葉謙吉)	Chao Lien-fang	(趙連芳)

Senior Secretaries:

Hsu Fu-chih	(徐輔治)	Chen Chih	(陳植)
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Senior Technical Expert: Pi Tso-chun (皮作瓊)*Director, General Affairs Department:* Chang Tao-hung (張道宏)*Director, Agricultural Affairs Department:* Ma Pao-ch-h (馬保之)*Director, Rural Economy Department:* Chao Pao-chuan (趙葆全)*Director, Forestry Administration Dept.:* Li Shun-ching (李順卿)*Director, Fishery & Animal Husbandry Department:* Liu Hsin-chi (劉行驥)*Adviser:* Sun Hung-fen (孫洪芬)*Technical Experts:*

Lin Hu-kuang	(林祐光)	Li Hsiang-yuan	(李象元)
Pan Chien-liang	(潘簡良)	Chiao Jung-sheng	(喬崇丹)

Ministry of Social Affairs

(社 會 部)

Minister: Ku Cheng-kang (谷正綱)*Political Vice-Minister:* Hung Lan-yu (洪蘭友)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Huang Pai-tu (黃伯度)*Senior Secretaries:*

Wu Chien	(吳健)	Yang Fang	(楊放)
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Counsellors:

Li Kan-chun	(李幹軍)	Hsieh Cheng-fu	(謝徵孚)
Huang Yu-ying	(黃友郢)	Huang Meng-fel	(黃夢飛)

Director, General Affairs Department: Min Chien-mei (閔劍梅)*Director, Organization & Training Department:* Lu Ching-shih (陸京士)*Director, Social Welfare Department:* Chang Hung-chun (張鴻鈞)*Chief Accountant:* Sheng Chang-chung (盛長忠)*Director, Labour Bureau:* Ho Chung-han (賀衷寒)*Assistant Director:* Shih Wei-huan (史維煥)*Secretary:* Tsao Chung-lin (曹鍾麟)*Inspectors:*

Wu Hsiang-ho	(吳相和)	Hsu Ke-huang	(許克黃)
Ting Wen-an	(丁文安)	Tsai Chi-sheng	(蔡結生)

Director, Cooperative Administration: Shou Mien-cheng (壽勉成)**Ministry of Food**

(糧 食 部)

Minister: Hsu Kan (徐堪)*Political Vice-Minister:* Liu Hang-shen (劉航琛)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Pang Sung-chou (龐松舟)*Senior Secretaries:*

Chang Ching-yuan	(張清源)	Yu Erh-pu	(于爾普)
Yin Wen-chin	(尹文敬)		

Counsellors:

Cheng Yen-cho	(鄭延卓)	Chen Hsi-hsiang	(陳錫襄)
Chen Pai-ching	(陳柏青)	Chen Han-ping	(陳漢平)
Chung Pu-sheng	(鍾樸生)	Chen Chih-hsueh	(陳志學)
Yeh Shih-fu	(葉實夫)	Shao Peng-heng	(邵本恆)

Director, General Affairs Department: Yin Hao-jo (殷灝若)*Director, Control Department:* Pu Meng-chiu (濮孟九)*Director, Collection & Storage Department:* Wang Yuan (汪元)*Director, Distribution Department:* Chen Hsi-hsiang (陳錫襄)*Director, Finance Department:* Wang Chi (汪騰)*Chief, Investigation Bureau:* Li Tien-min (李天民)*Director-General, Land Tax Administration:* Li Chung-nien (李崇年)*Senior Technical Expert:* Hu Kuang-tao (胡光燾)*Senior Inspectors:*

Wan Pang	(萬邦)	Yen Hsi-chiu	(嚴錫九)
Sun Chung-o	(孫中岳)	Mao Tsu-chi	(茅祖榮)

Ministry of Justice

(司 法 行 政 部)

Minister: Hsieh Kuan-sheng (謝冠生)*Political Vice-Minister:* Hung Lu-tung (洪陸東)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Hsieh Ying-chou (謝瀛洲)*Senior Secretaries:*

Chou Huan	(周還)	Hsiao Han-cheng	(蕭漢澄)
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Counsellors:

Chen Ko-min	(陳箇民)	Wu Tsei-han	(吳則韓)
Liu Chen-chung	(劉鎮中)	I Cheng-ao	(倪徵璽)

Director, General Affairs Department: Ku Ju-hsun (顧汝勳)*Director, Personnel Department:* Wang Chi-pao (汪揖寶)*Director, Civil Cases Department:* Yu Chueh (余覺)*Director, Criminal Cases Department:* Li Tai-san (李泰三)*Director, Prison Administration Dept.:* Chu Wei-min (朱維敏)**Commission on Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs**

(蒙 藏 委 員 會)

Acting Chairman: Lo Liang-chien (羅良鑑)*Vice-Chairman:* Chao Pei-lien (趙丕廉)*Commission Members:*

Tung Pen	(東本)	Min-chu-tseh-wang-	(敏珠策)
Li Chun-lin	(李春林)	to-chi	(旺多濟)
Su Lu-tai	(蘇魯岱)	Pan-ta-jao-kan	(邦達鏡幹)
Pai Yun-ti	(白雲梯)	Kang Chi-min	(康濟敏)
Chen Hsiao-fan	(陳效蕃)	Wang Ying-yu	(王應瑜)
Sun Chi-tan	(孫際旦)	Chao Hsi-chang	(趙錫昌)
Mao Ho-tien	(馬鵬天)	Chiao Mu-lu	(嘉木祿)
Lo-sang-chien-tsan	(羅桑堅贊)	Tu-tan-tsan-lieh	(土丹參烈)
Ma Pu-ching	(馬步青)	Chiu Chia	(邱甲)

Wu Shu-jen	(吳淑仁)	Tien Kun-shan	(田崑山)
Sun Shun-wu	(孫繩武)	Chu Ming-shan	(楚明善)
Ta-li-cha-ya	(達理扎雅)	Shen Tsung-lien	(沈宗濂)
Tang Ko-san	(唐柯三)	Kung Ching-tsung	(孔慶宗)
Chang-chia-hu-tu-ke-tu	(章嘉呼圖克圖)	Chou Kun-tien	(周昆田)

Counsellors:

Li Wei	(李煒)	Chao Chen	(趙鎮)
Yuan Cheng-lin	(阮承霖)	Pai Feng-chao	(白鳳兆)

Senior Secretaries:

Ni Shih-hsiung	(倪世雄)	Wang Chi-chung	(王氣鐘)
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Director, General Affairs Department: Chang Tsai-i (章載一)*Director, Mongolian Affairs Department:* Chu Ming-shan (楚明善)*Director, Tibetan Affairs Department:* Hsiung Yao-wen (熊耀文)**Overseas Affairs Commission**

(僑務委員會)

Chairman: Chen Shu-jen (陳樹人)*Vice-Chairman:* Chou Chi-kang (周啓剛)*Director, Oversea Affairs Department:* Kan Yun (甘濤)*Director, Oversea Education Department:* Chou Shang (周尚)**National Conservancy Board**

(水利委員會)

Chairman: Hsueh Tu-pi (薛篤弼)*Members:*

Hsiung Pin	(熊斌)	Ma Hung-kuei	(馬鴻逵)
Shen Yi	(沈怡)	Liu Mao-en	(劉茂恩)
Yang Chih-chun	(楊志春)		

Chief Secretary: Ma Chao-hsiang (馬兆驤)*Secretaries:*

Chou Yang-wen	(周仰文)	Yang Shih-ta	(楊式達)
Chen Pao-yin	(陳寶蔭)	Kuang Jen-hung	(光仁洪)

Chief, General Affairs Office: Kung Ke-chung (鞏克志)*Chief, Engineering Office:* Sung Tung (宋彤)*Senior Technical Expert:* Hsu Kai (須愷)*Chief Counsellors:*

Han Shou-chin	(韓壽晉)	Hsu Shih-tai	(徐世大)
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Chief, Personnel Office: Jen Tien-hsi (任天錫)*Chief Accountant:* Huang Teh-hsing (黃德馨)*Chief, National Hydraulic Research Institute:* Cheng Chao-ching (鄭肇經)*Chief, Kiangnan Conservancy Bureau:* Chen Chan-en (陳湛恩)*Chief, Pearl River Conservancy Bureau:* Yang Hua-jih (楊華日)*Chairman, Yellow River Commission:* Chao Shou-yu (趙守鈺)*Vice-Chairman:* Li Shu-tien (李書田)

Chairman, North China River Commission: Peng Chi-chun (彭濟羣)
 Chairman, Yangtze River Commission: Fu Ju-lin (傅汝霖)
 Chairman, Huai River Commission: Chiang Kai-shek (蔣中正)
 Vice-Chairman, Huai River Commission: Shen Pai-hsien (沈百先)

National Health Administration

(衛生署)

Director-General: P. Z. King (金寶善)
 Assistant Director-General: Shen Ke-fei (沈克非)
 Senior Secretary: Chang Wei (張維)
 Director, General Affairs Department: Wu Chi-kung (吳至恭)
 Director, Medical Administration Department: Yao Ke-fan (姚克芳)
 Director, Health Service Department: Chen Wan-li (陳萬里)
 Director, Epidemic Prevention Department: Yung Chi-yung (容啓榮)
 Senior Inspector: Tang Li-chou (湯鑫舟)
 Senior Technical Experts:

Yao Yung-cheng (姚永正)	Chu Shao-huang (祝紹煌)
Liang Chi-kuei (梁其奎)	Hsu Shih-chin (許世瑾)

National Land Administration

(地政署)

Director-General: Cheng Chen-yu (鄭震宇)
 Assistant Director-General: Chu Ping (祝平)
 Counsellors:
 Ho Chung-chieh (何崇傑) Cheng Tzu-min (程子敏)
 Chen Cheng-mo (陳正謨)
 Director, General Affairs Department: Yen En-hung (閻恩鴻)
 Director, Land Registration Department: Wang Nan-yuan (王南原)
 Director, Land Value Department: Liu Hsiu-ching (劉岫青)
 Director, Land Ownership Department: Chu Chang-pao (朱章寶)
 Senior Inspector: Chang Hui (張輝)
 Senior Technical Expert: Tseng Kuang-liang (曾廣樑)

Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration

Director-General: T. F. Chiang (蔣廷黻)
 Deputy Director-General: C. M. Li (李卓敏) Ditson Pu (浦薛鳳)
 Director of Operations: O. S. Lieu (劉鴻生)
 Deputy Director of Operations: Harry B. Price (畢範宇)
 Director Bureau of Allocation: F. S. Wang (汪伏生)
 Deputy Director: Fredrick Hung (洪絳)
 Director, Bureau of Finance: C. T. Tung (董承道)
 Deputy Director: C. L. Li (李焯林)
 Deputy Director, Bureau of Relief: Y. C. Chu (朱有霧)
 Director, Bureau of Transportation and Warehousing: K. Y. Chen (陳廣沅)
 Deputy Director: W. Wong (翁為)
 Chief Secretary: Mi Hsien-pi (宓賢弼)

Director, Department of Public Relations: Victor Shen (沈惟泰)
Director, Department of Investigation: C. Y. Hsiang (向景雲)
Director, Department of General Affairs: K. S. Hu (胡可時)
Director, Department of Accounting: C. C. Yu (余榮池)
Chief Industrial Officer, Industrial Rehabilitation Commission:
 F. H. Hua (華風翔)
Chief Medical Officer, Health Commission: Chang Wei (張維)
Chief Agricultural Officer, Agricultural Rehabilitation: F. S. Hsu (許復初)
Director, North East Regional Office: K. P. Liu (劉廣沛)
Deputy Directors: P. F. Nan (南東方) M. C. Yu (于明洲)
Director, Taiwan Regional Office: T. C. Chien (錢宗起)
Deputy Director: Kao Han (高翰)
Director, Hopei-Jehol-Peiping-Tientsin Regional Office:
 K. H. Tung (童冠賢)
Deputy Director: I. C. Yang (楊亦周)
Director, Shansi-Chahar-Suiyuan Regional Office: Y. T. Chang (張彝鼎)
Deputy Director: Yen Wei (閔緯) T. M. Tung (董彥明)
Director, Shantung-Tsingtao Regional Office: K. F. Yen (延國符)
Director, Honan Regional Office: Ma Chieh (馬傑)
Deputy Director: S. T. Wang (王式典)
Director, Shanghai Regional Office: O. S. Lieu (劉鴻生)
Deputy Director: Jennings Wang (王人麟)
Director, Kiangsu-Nanking Regional Office: Stone Loh (陸子冬)
Deputy Directors: T. S. Hsi (席德炯) T. Li (李崇德)
Director, Chekiang-Fukien Regional Office: H. L. Sun (孫曉樓)
Deputy Director: H. C. Tso (祝修爵) Lin Yun-sen (林崇森)
Director, Anhwei Regional Office: Y. L. Yeh (葉元龍)
Deputy Director: Y. F. Ko (柯育甫)
Director, Kiangsi Regional Office: K. T. Chang (張國燾)
Deputy Director: H. S. Huang (黃學詩)
Director, Hupeh Regional Office: Chambers Chow (周蒼柏)
Deputy Director: H. T. Yang (楊顯東)
Director, Hunan Regional Office: C. C. Yu (余籍傳)
Director, Kwangtung Regional Office: D. Y. Lin (凌道揚)
Deputy Director: Y. L. Lee (李應林)
Director, Kwangsi Regional Office: J. H. Huang (黃榮華)
Deputy Director: K. I. Hsieh (謝貫一)

Office of Special Commission for Mongol Banners in Chahar

(察哈爾蒙旗特派員公署)

Special Commissioner: Ma Hao-tien (馬鶴天)

Suiyuan Mongolian Local Self-Government Political Commission

(綏遠省境內蒙古各盟旗地方自治政務委員會)

Chairman: Tu-pu-sheng-chi-erh-ko-le (圖布陞吉爾格勒)
Vice-Chairman: Pa-pao-to-erh-chi (巴寶多爾濟)
 A-la-tan-e-chi-erh (阿拉坦鄂爾濟)
 Pan-ti-kung-cha-pu (潘第恭察布)
Standing Member: Jung Hsiang (榮祥)
 E-chi-erh-fu-ya-ke-tu (鄂齊爾呼雅克圖)
 Tu-pu-sheng-chi-erh-ke-le (圖布陞吉爾格勒)

Chief, Secretariat: Pa Wen-chun (巴文峻)
Chief, Counselors Office: Kang-ta-to-erh-chi (康達多爾濟)
Chief, Office of Civil Affairs: Hu Feng-shan (胡鳳山)
Chief, Office of Industry: A Ling A (阿陵阿)
Chief, Office of Commerce: Jen Ping-chun (任秉鈞)
Chief, Office of Local Defense: Wu-le-chi-pa-ya-erh (烏勒濟巴雅爾)
Chief, Office of Health: Se-teng-to-erh-chi (色登多爾濟)

Office of Special Political Commission for Mongol Banners

(蒙旗宣化使公署)

Commissioner: Chang-chia-fu-tu-ke-tu (章嘉呼圖克圖)
Senior Secretaries: Fu-hua-cha-pu (傅化札布)
 Tsang-chi-chou-wei-ku (蒼吉周威古)
Chief, Office of General Affairs: Liu Jui-lien (劉瑞蓮)
Chief, Office of Information: E-mu-chi-hu-tu-ke-tu (額穆奇呼圖克圖)

Political Committee of the Generalissimo's Headquarters in the Northeast

(軍事委員會委員長東北行營政治委員會)

Chairman: Hsiung Shih-hui (熊式輝)

Committee Members:

Mo Teh-hui (莫德惠)	Feng Yung (馮庸)
Chu Chi-ching (朱霽青)	Chang Tso-hsiang (張作相)
Wan Fu-lin (萬福麟)	Wang Shu-han (王樹翰)
Ma Chan-shan (馬占山)	Na-mu-chi-ching-se-leng (那木濟色楞)
Chou Tso-hua (周作華)	

Economic Affairs Committee of the Generalissimo's Headquarters in the Northeast

(軍事委員會委員長東北行營經濟委員會)

Chairman: Chang Chia Ngau (張嘉璈)

Committee Members:

Chang Chen-lu (張振鷺)	Chien Tien-hao (錢天鵠)
Chi Shih-ying (齊世英)	Ling Hung-hsun (凌鴻勳)
Wang Chia-chen (王家楨)	Pang Sung-chou (龐松舟)
Ma Yi (馬毅)	Ho Ya-min (霍亞民)
Ho Lien (何廉)	

Taiwan Administration Office

(台灣行政長官公署)

Director: Chen Yi (陳儀)
Chief Secretary: Ko Chin-en (葛敬恩)
Chief, Secretariat: Hsia Tao-sheng (夏濤聲)

Chief, Office of Civil Affairs: Chou I-nge (周一鴦)
Chief, Office of Education: Fan Shou-kang (范壽康)
Chief, Office of Finance: Chang Yen-chen (張延哲)
Chief, Office of Agriculture and Forestry: Chao Lien-fang (趙連芳)
Chief, Office of Mining and Industry: Pao Ke-yung (包可永)
Chief, Office of Communications: Yen Chia-kan (嚴家淦)
Chief, Police Administration Office: Hu Fu-hsiang (胡福相)
Chief Accountant: Wang Chao-chia (王肇嘉)
Chairman, Committee of Information: Hsia Tao-sheng (夏濤聲)
Chairman, Laws and Regulations Committee: Fang Hsueh-li (方學李)
Chairman, Planning and Examination Committee: Chen Yi (陳儀)
Chief Justice, High Court: Yang Peng (楊 鵬)

National Publication Examination Committee

(中央圖書雜誌審查委員會)

Chairman: Pan Kung-chan (潘公展)
Vice-Chairman: Yin Wei-lien (印維廉)

Committee Members:

Chen Sung-ping (陳頌平)	Li Huan-chih (李煥之)
Chu Tzu-shan (朱子爽)	Lo Kang (羅 剛)
Hsu Wei-nan (徐蔚南)	Lo Hsueh-lien (羅學謙)
Fu Hsien-pi (宏賢弼)	Wang Kuan-ching (王冠青)
Feng Yu-kun (鄧裕坤)	Wu Chun-sheng (吳俊升)
Lu Chiao-wu (魯覺吾)	

Chief, First Department: Yuan Cheh (袁 哲)

Chief, Second Department: Li Hao (李 灝)

Senior Secretary: Chou Ching-yu (周景俞)

Committee for the Taking-Over of All-China, Japanese and Puppet Enterprises in Recovered Areas

(行政院收復區全國性事業接收委員會)

Chairman: Wong Wen-hao (翁文灝)
Vice-Chairman: Cheng I-fa (程義法)

Commission Members:

Shao Yu-lin (邵毓麟)	Yang Chi-tseng (楊繼曾)
Ho Lien (何 廉)	Wei I-fu (韋以毅)
Chen Hsin (陳 行)	Yin Ching-fu (尹靜夫)
Lu Ching-shih (陸京士)	

Secretary-General: Tu Kuang-tsu (杜光祖)

Assistant Secretary-General: Hsiang Hsiung-hsiao (項雄霄)

Legislative Yuan

(立法院)

President: Sun Fo (孫 科)

Secretary-General: Wu Shang-ying (吳尚鷹)

Chairman, Codification Committee: Lin Pin (林 彬)

Chairman, Foreign Relations Committee: Wu Ching-hsiung (吳經熊)

Chairman, Financial Committee: Chen Chang-heng (陳長衡)
 Chairman, Economic Committee: Lou Tung-sun (樓桐孫)
 Chairman, Military Affairs Committee: Ho Sui (何 遂)
 Chairman, Penal Law Committee: Liu Ke-chun (劉克儉)
 Chairman, Commercial Law Committee: Tai Hsiu-chun (戴修駿)
 Chairman, Labor Law Committee: Wang Kun-lun (王崑崙)
 Chairman, Autonomy Law Committee: Huang Yu-chang (黃右昌)
 Chairman, Land Law Committee: Yao Chuan-fa (姚傳法)
 Director, Computation and Translation Office: Hsieh Pao-chiao (謝保樵)
 Chief Secretary: Chu Ting-hsin (區鼎新)

Legislative Members:

Liu Kuan-hsun	(劉雲訓)	Chang Feng-chiu	(張鳳九)
Lu Chung-lin	(盧仲琳)	Chao Chu-hsu	(趙巨旭)
Ma Yin-chu	(馬寅初)	Lo Yu-jen	(羅友仁)
Lo Ting	(羅 鼎)	Chao Pei	(趙 珮)
Wei Ting-sheng	(衛挺生)	Tseng Yen	(曾 彦)
Peng Chao-i	(聶兆異)	Yuan Shih-pin	(袁世斌)
Peng Yang-kuang	(彭養光)	Chen Tzu-feng	(陳澤楓)
Chao Nai-chuan	(趙迺傳)	Yeh Chiu-yuan	(葉秋原)
Chen Ju-hsuan	(陳若玄)	Chen Hsiao-tsen	(陳小岑)
Hu Hsuan-ming	(胡宣明)	Chu Wu	(屈 武)
Liu Tung	(劉 通)	Hsu Pao-chu	(許寶駒)
Wang Ping-chien	(王秉謙)	Wen Hsiung-fei	(溫雄飛)
Ti Ying	(狄 膺)	Chen Hai-cheng	(陳海澄)
Teng Hung-yeh	(鄧鴻業)	Wang I-han	(王宜漢)
Tung Chi-cheng	(童其政)	Huang Yun-su	(黃芸蘇)
Teng K'ung-hsuan	(鄧公玄)	Wang Pei-jen	(王培仁)
Chung Tien-hsin	(鍾天心)	Li Chün-fang	(李晉芳)
Chou I-chih	(周一志)	Chou Shan-chun	(鄒善春)
Mei Shu-tseng	(梅恕曾)	Tso Kung	(左 恭)
Ling Yueh	(凌 鐵)	Li Ching-lin	(李慶麟)
Lo Yun-yan	(羅運夫)	Sun Chiu-lu	(孫九錄)
Chi Chih-hou	(祁志厚)	Yen Kuo-fu	(延國符)
Chen Ku-yuan	(陳顧達)	Chien Kuan-san	(簡貫三)
Chao Shen	(趙 琛)	Chen Hsun-yu	(陳訓愈)
Yang Yu-chun	(楊幼炯)	Lu Fu	(呂 復)
Chao Mou-hua	(趙恩華)	Wu Chia Hsiang	(吳家象)
Peng Shun-shih	(彭碩士)	Tsao Ching-yuan	(曹經沅)
Mei Ju-ngau	(梅汝璈)	Sheng Chen-wei	(盛陳為)
Wang Tseng-shan	(王曾善)	Lien Sheng-hai	(連聲海)
Wang Yu-hsiang	(王毓祥)	Wang Chuan-sheng	(王康生)
Al Sha	(艾 沙)	Chen Yang-piao	(陳陽鏞)
Chang Hsi-man	(張西曼)	Liu Ke-shu	(柳克述)
Tai Hsia	(戴 夏)	Ssu-Tu Teh	(司徒德)
Hou Ke-ching	(侯克毅)	Wu Hsueh-i	(吳學義)
Wen Yuan-ning	(溫源甯)	Huang Ying-chien	(黃應乾)
Liu Pu-tung	(劉不同)	Yu Chen-ying	(于振瀛)
Huang Chin-tao	(黃金濤)	Li Yuan-pai	(李元白)
Chuan Tseng-ku	(全增嘏)	Tan Ti-wu	(譚惕吾)
Wu Yun-peng	(吳雲鵬)	Li Chao-huan	(黎照寰)
Chang Chao-yuan	(張肇元)	Chiang Shou-chun	(蔣守進)
Chen Pai-chuang	(陳伯莊)	Tou Tzu-chün	(陶子進)
Ling Chang	(凌 瑒)	Hsu Chung-ching	(許崇清)
Liu Chih-ping	(劉志平)	Li Chung-kung	(李仲公)
Ma Hsiao-chun	(馬曉軍)	Cheng Yuan-chen	(程元斟)
Hung Jui-chao	(洪瑞釗)		

Judicial Yuan

(司 法 院)

President: Chu Chen (居 正)*Vice President:* Chin Chen (章 振)*Secretary-General:* Mao Tsu-chuan (茅祖權)*Senior Secretaries:*

Li Tzu-sung (李次宋)

Liu Wei-ling (劉蔚凌)

Huang Chieh-min (黃介民)

Chu Tzu-kuei

Wu Kung-nai

Li I-tung

(朱子規)

(吳公耐)

(李翊東)

Counsellors:

Li Han-chang (劉含章)

Liu Tzu-fen (劉子芬)

Chang Chiu-wei (張九維)

Wang Ling-hsi

Chen Ming

(王齡希)

(陳 明)

Chief Accountant: Chu Kan-ching (朱幹青)*Chief Statistician:* Ho Chao (何 超)**Administrative Court**

(行 政 法 院)

President: Chang Chih-pen (張知本)*Councillors:*

Wang Huai-shen (王維琛)

Chi Shou-wen (季手文)

Wang Chih-ting (王芝庭)

Chao Ho (趙 鈺)

Su Chiu-pao

Yang Yu-ching

Li I-min

(蘇秋寶)

(楊玉清)

(李翊民)

Chief, Secretariat: Chung Meng-hsiung (鍾孟雄)**Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Central Government
Public Functionaries**

(中 央 公 務 員 懲 戒 委 員 會)

Chairman: Chin Chen (章 振)*Commission Members:*

Liu Wu (劉 武)

Tao Yeh-kung (陶冶公)

Wu Hsiang-lin (吳祥麟)

Shen Chun-tao (沈君劭)

Yu Jo-yu (于若愚)

Teng Tzu-chun (鄧子駿)

Wang Feng-hsiung (王鳳雄)

Teng Ke-yu (鄧克愚)

Chiang Shao-mo (姜紹謨)

Chang Chi-tai (張企泰)

Chief, Secretariate: Liu Tien-chiu (劉天因)

Examination Yuan

(考試院)

President: Tai Chuan-hsien (戴傳賢)
Vice-President: Chou Chung-yu (周鍾嶽)
Secretary-General: Shih Shang-kuan (史尚寬)
Chairman, Laws & Regulations Examination Committee:
 Shih Shang-kuan (史尚寬)
Chief Counsellor: Jao Yen (饒炎)
Chief, Secretariat: Sun Shih (宋淠)

Ministry of Personnel

(銓敘部)

Minister: Chia Ching-teh (賈景德)
Political Vice-Minister: Wang Tzu-chuang (王子狀)
Administrative Vice-Minister: Ma Hung-huan (馬洪煥)
Counsellors:
 Chao Keng-an (趙耕安) Wang Hui-chung (王惠中)
Senior Secretaries: Sun Huan-lun (孫奧倫) Fu Wen-chi (傅文綺)
Director, General Affairs Department: Fang Wen (方聞)
Director, Merit Examination Department: Chen Men-jo (陳曼若)
Director, Registration Department: Lo Wan-lei (羅萬類)
Director, Pension Department: Tan I-kuei (譚翼達)
Director, Qualification Department: Yang Yu-fen (楊裕芬)
Director, Appointment Department: Fan Ping-wen (范炳文)

Commission of Civil Service Examinations

(攷選委員會)

Chairman: Chen Ta-chi (陳大齊)
Vice-Chairman: Shen Shih-yuan (沈士遠)
Commission Members:
 Chen Nien-chung (陳念中) Lu Yu-chun (盧毓駿)
 Chang Mo-chun (張默君) Chang Chung-tao (張忠道)
 Chen Shih-chen (陳石珍) Chen Hsun-tzu (陳訓慈)
 Chin Ta-chun (秦大鈞) Li Ching-yung (李竟容)
 Chou Tsung-cheng (周從政)
Director, First Department: Sun I-cheng (孫執塵)
Director, Second Department: Chao Ju-yen (趙汝言)
Director, Third Department: Lu Yu-chun (盧毓駿)
Director, Fourth Department: Li Kuang-yu (李光宇)

Control Yuan

(監察院)

President: Yu Yu-jen (于右任)
Vice-President: Liu Shang-ching (劉尚清)
Secretary-General: Li Chung-shih (李崇實)

Supervisory Members:

Liu Cheng-yu	(劉成禺)	Yu Feng	(俞 奮)
Wang Ping-cheng	(王平政)	Teng Chun-kao	(鄧春膏)
Yen Chuang	(嚴 莊)	Chang Hua-lan	(張華瀾)
Hu Pai-yao	(胡伯岳)	Lin Ching	(林 景)
Pai Jui	(白 瑞)	Chin Shou-kun	(林 壽楨)
Tseng Tao	(曾 道)	Ho Ke-fu	(何克夫)
Li Cheng-lo	(李正樂)	Chien Chih-hsiu	(錢智修)
Mei Kung-jen	(梅公任)	Li Hsiao-ting	(李肖庭)
Wang Hsien-chang	(王憲章)	Tu Kuang-yun	(杜光燾)
Chu Chung-liang	(朱宗良)	Kao Lu	(高 魯)
Wang Hsin-ling	(王新令)	Mao Shao-sui	(毛紹遂)
Tsai Tzu-sheng	(蔡自聲)	Wang Tzu-hsuan	(王子弦)
Wang Tung	(汪 東)	Wu Nan-hsuan	(吳南軒)
Ma Yao-nan	(馬耀南)	Yu Shu-teh	(于樹德)
Wan Tsan	(萬 燦)	Chin Wang-shan	(秦望山)
Ku Feng-hsiang	(谷鳳翔)	Shih Yen	(石 頴)
Fan Tseng-po	(范爭波)	Chin Yu-fu	(金毓敝)
Shen Yin-mo	(沈尹默)	Wang Pi-chiang	(汪辟疆)
Tse Chueh-lin	(蔡覺林)	Wu Pen-chung	(吳本中)
Ho Han-wen	(何漢文)	Li Shih-chun	(李世罕)
Wu Chien-chang	(吳建常)	Chang Ching-chen	(張慶楨)
Pai Pen-fei	(白鵬飛)	hiu Nien-tai	(邱念臺)
Wang Shu-tseng	(王述曾)	Wang Kuan-wu	(王冠吾)
Ho Chao-tsung	(何朝宗)		

Counsellors:

Chang Yu-lun	(張有倫)	Chang Keng-yu	(張庚由)
Chen Ling-yun	(陳凌雲)	Ching Shen-an	(慶深菴)
Wei Chien	(魏 鑑)	Liu Yen-tao	(劉延濤)

Chief Secretary: Yao Wan-chu (姚鴻鵠)*Senior Secretaries:* Liu Chi-chou (劉繼周)

Ma Wen Yen (馬文彥) Kiang Yu-lin (江毓麟)

Chief, Accounting Office: Tung Kung-chen (董公震)*Chief, Personnel Office:* Hsueh Pei-keng (薛培根)*Chief, Statistics Office:* Chia Yu-ming (賈幼明)**Ministry of Audit**

(審 計 部)

Minister: Lin Yun-kai (林雲陔)*Political Vice-Minister:* Liu Chi-wen (劉紀文)*Administrative Vice-Minister:* Tsai Ping-fan (蔡屏藩)*Director, First Department:* Wang Kan-pei (汪康培)*Director, Second Department:* Chen Yuan-ying (陳元璣)*Director, Third Department:* Shih Tsan-ming (史贊銘)*Director, General Affairs Department:* Chou Wen-kuang (周文廣)*Chief Secretary:* Yang Wei-yeh (楊偉業)*Chief, Accounting Office:* Feng Cho (馮 卓)*Chief, Statistics Office:* Chang Shang-chi (張善集)*Chief, Personnel Office:* Yu Tsu-ming (余祖銘)*Auditors:*

Wang Chi-chang	(王其昌)	Shao Sui-chu	(邵遂初)
Fan Shih-yu	(范士興)	Hu Chi-hsien	(胡繼賢)
Hsi Chang-chi	(郝昌麒)	Chen Tso-yin	(陳祚蔭)

Supervisory Commissioners

Supervisory Commissioner for Kiangsu: Cheng Chung-hsin (程中行)
Supervisory Commissioner for Anhwei & Kiangsi: Chen Chac-ying (陳肇英)
Supervisory Commissioner for Fukien & Taiwan: Yang Liang-kung (楊亮功)
Supervisory Commissioner for Hunan & Hupeh: Miao Pei-cheng (苗培成)
Supervisory Commissioner for Hopeh: Li Sze-chung (李嗣聰)
Supervisory Commissioner for Honan & Shantung: Kuo Chung-wei (郭仲隴)
Supervisory Commissioner for Kwangsi & Kwantung: Liu Hou-wu (劉侯武)
Supervisory Commissioner for Chekiang: Chiang Pai-cheng (蔣伯誠)
Supervisory Commissioner for Yunnan & Kweichow:
 Chang Wei-han (張維翰)
Supervisory Commissioner for Shansi & Shensi: Tien Chun-chin (田炯錦)
Supervisory Commissioner for Kansu, Ninghsia & Chinghai:
 Kao I-han (高一涵)
Supervisory Commissioner for Sinkiang: Mai-szu-wu-teh (麥斯武德)
Deputy Supervisory Commissioner for Sinkiang: Wang Chi-tien (王稽田)

B. PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

KIANGSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Wang Mou-kung (王懋功)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Wang Kung-yu (王公燠)
Commissioner of Finance: Tung Che (董轍)
Commissioner of Education: Chen Shih-chen (陳石珍)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Tung Tsan-yao (董贊堯)
Secretary-General: Chen Yen (陳言)

Members:

 Niu Chang-yao (鈕長耀) Ko Chien-shih (葛建時)
 Chia Yun-shan (賈韜山)

Chief Justice, High Court: Sun Hung-lin (孫鴻霖)

CHEKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Huang Shao-hsiung (黃紹竑)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Juan I-cheng (阮毅成)
Commissioner of Finance: Huang Tsu-pei (黃祖培)
Commissioner of Education: Hsu Shao-ti (許紹棣)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Wu Ting-yang (伍廷黻)
Secretary-General: Li Li-min (李立民)

Members:

 Hsu Pan-yun (許蟠雲) Sun Pen-cheng (孫本成)
 Hsu Fu (徐攄) Wang Hsueh-su (王學素)
 Ho Yang-ling (賀揚靈) Sun Hsing-huan (孫星環)
 Tu Wei (杜偉)

Chief Justice, High Court: Cheng Wen-li (鄭文禮)

ANHWEI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Li Pin-hsien (李品仙)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Wei Yung-cheng (韋永成)
 Commissioner of Finance: Kuei Ching-chiu (桂鏡秋)
 Commissioner of Education: Wang Shao-lun (汪少倫)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Chu Ying-shün (儲應時)
 Secretary-General: Huang Tung-chou (黃同仇)

Members:

Lin Chung-chi (林中奇)	Chang Tsung-liang (張宗良)
Huang Shao-keng (黃紹耿)	Yang Chung-ming (楊中明)
Su Min (蘇民)	Fan Jen (范任)
Wan Chang-yen (萬昌言)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Liao Kiang-nan (廖江南)

KIANGSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Tsao Hao-sen (曹浩森)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Wang Tzu-fu (王次甫)
 Commissioner of Finance: Hsiung Sou-ping (熊漱冰)
 Commissioner of Education: Cheng Shih-kuei (程時奎)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Hu Chia-i (胡嘉詒)
 Secretary-General: Hu Chih (胡致)

Members:

Hsiao Shun-chin (蕭純錦)	Chiu Chun (邱椿)
Li Teh-chao (李德釗)	Hsiao Ping-chang (蕭炳章)
Hsiung Sui (熊遂)	Cheng Mou-hsin (程懋型)

Chief Justice, High Court: Liang Jen-chieh (梁仁傑)

HUPEH PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Wang Tung-yuan (王東原)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Wang Kai-hua (王開化)
 Commissioner of Finance: Wu Sung-ching (吳嵩慶)
 Commissioner of Education: Chien Yung-chieh (錢雲階)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Tan Yu-chuan (譚嶽泉)
 Secretary-General: Wang Yuan-i (王原一)

Members:

Chou Tsang-pai (周蒼柏)	Li Shih-chiao (李石樵)
Cheng I-chieh (鄭遂俠)	Wu Liang-shen (吳良琛)
Huang Chung-hsun (黃仲恂)	Hsu Hui-chih (徐會之)
Liu Kung-wu (劉公武)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Chu Shu-sheng (朱樹聲)

HUNAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Wu Chi-wei (吳奇偉)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Teng Chieh-sung (鄧介松)

Commissioner of Finance: Yang Jui-ling (楊銳靈)
 Commissioner of Education: Wang Feng-chieh (王鳳喈)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Li Yu-yao (李毓堯)
 Secretary-General: Liu Hsu-hui (劉旭輝)

Members:

Liu Chien-chun (劉千俊)	Liao Wei-fan (廖維藩)
Mao Ping-wen (毛秉文)	Hsiao Hsun (蕭訓)
Tan Tao-yuan (譚道源)	Chou Lan (周欄)
Fang Hsueh Fen (方學芬)	Chou I-ping (周異斌)

Chief Justice, High Court: Yu Chiao (余覺)

SZECHUEN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Chang Chun (張羣)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Hu Tzu-wei (胡次威)
 Commissioner of Finance: Teng Han-hsiang (鄧漢祥)
 Commissioner of Education: Liu Ming-yang (劉明揚)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Ho Peh-heng (何北衡)
 Secretary-General: Li Chao-fu (李肇甫)

Members:

Shen Peng (沈鵬)	Yu Cheng-hsun (余成勳)
Leng Hsun-nan (冷薰南)	Liang Yung-wen (梁穎文)
Wu Ching-pai (吳景伯)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Su Chao-hsiang (蘇兆祥)

KWEICHOW PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Yang Sen (楊森)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Yuan Shih-ping (袁世斌)
 Commissioner of Finance: Yang Kung-ta (楊公達)
 Commissioner of Education: Fu Chi-hsueh (傅啓學)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Hsieh Keng-min (謝耿民)
 Secretary-General: Li Huan (李寰)

Members:

Ho Chi-wu (何輯五)	Chang Ting-hsiu (張廷休)
Ho Yu-shu (何玉書)	Tan Ke-min (譚克敏)
Hsieh Chung-yuan (謝鍾元)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Liu Han-chang (劉含章)

FUKIEN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Liu Chien-hsu (劉建緒)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Kao Teng-ting (高登艇)
 Commissioner of Finance: Chiu Han-ping (丘漢平)
 Commissioner of Education: Li Li-chou (李黎洲)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Chu Tai-chieh (朱代杰)
 Secretary-General: Chang Kai-lien (張開建)

Members:

Chen Pei-kun	(陳培鯤)	Li Shih-chia	(李世甲)
Chang Teh-chung	(張德鍾)	Kuo Shen	(郭 桑)
Huang Tien-chueh	(天黃爵)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Sung Meng-nien (宋孟年)

KWANGTUNG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Lo Cho-ying (羅卓英)

Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Li Yang-chin (李揚敬)

Commissioner of Finance: Tu Mei-ho (杜梅和)

Commissioner of Education: Yao Pao-yu (姚寶猷)

Commissioner of Reconstruction: Pao Kuo-pao (鮑國寶)

Secretary-General: Lo Wei-hsiung (羅為雄)

Members:

Hsiao Tze-yin	(蕭次尹)	Chen Shao-hsien	(陳紹賢)
Tsai Ching-chun	(蔡勁軍)	Huang Fan-i	(黃範一)
Lo Hsiang-lin	(羅香林)	Chan Chao-yang	(詹朝陽)
Huang Wen-shan	(黃文山)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Shih Yen-cheng (史延程)

KWANGSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Huang Hsu-chu (黃旭初)

Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Chen Liang-tso (陳良佐)

Commissioner of Finance: Wang Hsun-chih (王遜志)

Commissioner of Education: Huang Pu-hsin (黃樸心)

Commissioner of Reconstruction: Kan Tsung-hua (閻宗驊)

Secretary-General: Chen Shou-min (陳壽民)

Members:

Liang Chao-chi	(梁朝職)	Ma Pao-chih	(馬保之)
Yin Cheng-kang	(尹承綱)	Chu Chao-sen	(朱朝森)
Sun Jen-lin	(孫仁林)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Shen Shou chen (申守真)

YUNNAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Lu Han (盧 漢)

Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Li Tsung-huang (李宗黃)

Commissioner of Finance: Hua Hsiu-sheng (華秀升)

Commissioner of Education: Wang Cheng (王 政)

Commissioner of Reconstruction: Lung Ti-yao (龍體要)

Secretary-General: Chu Ching-hsuan (朱景璦)

Members:

Chang Pang-han	(張邦翰)	Ma Ying	(馬 瑛)
Hu Ying	(胡 瑛)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Lu Shih-tseng (魯師曾)

GENERAL APPENDIX
SHANTUNG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Ho Szu-yuan (何思源)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Liu Tao-yuan (劉道元)
Commissioner of Finance: Chao Chi-hsun (趙季勳)
Commissioner of Education: Li Tai-hua (李泰華)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Ting Chi-shan (丁基實)
Secretary-General: Mou Shang-chai (牟尚齋)

Members:

Lin Ming-chiu (林鳴九)	Chang Hung-chien (張鴻新)
Tsang Yuan-chun (臧元駿)	Teng Chi-yu (鄧繼禹)
Kao Chuan-chu (高傳珠)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Hu Chi (胡績)

SHANSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Yen Hsi-shan (閻錫山)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Chiu Yang-chun (邱仰濬)
Commissioner of Finance: Wang Ping (王平)
Commissioner of Education: Po Yu-hsiang (薄弼相)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Kuan Min-chuan (關民權)
Secretary-General: Ning Chao-wu (甯超武)

Members:

Yen Ting-yang (嚴廷陽)	Hsu Shih-kung (徐士琨)
Li Kiang (李江)	Wang Huai-ming (王煥明)
Pai Chih-yi (白志沂)	Hsi Hsiang-chien (席向謙)
Liang Teng-hou (梁敦厚)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Chang Ping-yueh (張秉鈺)

HOPEI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Sun Lien-chung (孫連仲)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Sun Chen-pang (孫振邦)
Commissioner of Finance: Shih-Kuei-ling (施奎齡)
Commissioner of Education: Ho I-hsin (賀瑚新)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Li Chien (李捷)
Secretary-General: Shih Te-lin (時得霖)

Members:

Cheng Wei-ping (鄭維屏)	Shao Hung-chi (邵鴻基)
Li Hsi-chiu (李錫九)	Han Mei-tsen (韓梅岑)
Kao Cho-tung (高卓東)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Teng Cheh-hsi (鄧哲熙)

HONAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Liu Mao-en (劉茂恩)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Yang I-feng (楊一峯)
Commissioner of Finance: Meng Chao-tsan (孟昭璜)

Commissioner of Education: Wang Kung-tu (王公度)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Yang Chiao-lien (楊覺天)
Secretary-General: Chi Chen-ju (齊真如)

Members:

Sung Yung-chung (宋垣忠)	Chang Chen (張軫)
Chang Hsin-nan (張辛南)	Wang Yu-chiao (王幼僑)
Sung Tao (宋濤)	Kao Ying-tu (高應萬)
Li Ming-chung (李鳴鍾)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Chou Yu-tzu (周予孜)

SUIYUAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Fu Tso-i (傅作義)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Chen Ping-chien (陳炳謙)
Commissioner of Finance: Li Chu-i (李居義)
Commissioner of Education: Pan Hsiu-jen (潘秀仁)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Chang I-ting (張彝鼎)
Secretary-General: Yu Shun-chai (于純齊)

Members:

E-chi-erh-hu-ya-ke-tu (鄂齊爾呼雅克圖)	Wang Tse-ting (王則鼎)
Wang Kuo-ying (王國英)	Yen Wei (閻偉)

Chief Justice, High Court: Yu Tsung-hao (于存瀚)

CHAHAR PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Feng Chin-tsa (馮欽哉)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Pai Pao-chin (白寶瑾)
Commissioner of Finance: Hsu Shih-fu (績式甫)
Commissioner of Education: Hu Tzu-heng (胡子恆)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Chang Li-seng (張礪生)
Secretary-General: Sung Hsiu-feng (宋秀峯)

Members:

Chang Ming-ching (張明經)	Shih Yu-i (石友益)
Wang Jung-tsan (王榮燦)	Chen Hsiang-sheng (陳祥生)
Chou Hsiang-chu (周祥初)	Chao Cheng-pi (趙城璧)

Chief Justice, High Court: Wang Chin (王儼)

SHENSI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Chu Shao-chou (祝紹周)
Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Chiang Chien-jen (蔣堅忍)
Commissioner of Finance: Chen Ching-yu (陳慶瑜)
Commissioner of Education: Wang Yu-chih (王友直)
Commissioner of Reconstruction: Chu Wu (屈武)
Secretary-General: Lin Shu-en (林樹恩)

Members:

Liu Ai-ju (劉霽如)	Liu Chu-tsai (劉楚材)
Ma Shih-ju (馬師儒)	Kung Ling-hsun (孔令愷)
Yang Erh-ying (楊爾瑛)	Jen Shih-shang (任師尚)
Chang Ta-tung (張大同)	

Chief Justice, High Court: Chi Chao-chun (郝朝俊)

KANSU PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Ku Cheng-lun (谷正倫)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Chao Lung-wen (趙龍文)
 Commissioner of Finance: Hung Kuei (洪軌)
 Commissioner of Education: Cheng Tung-ho (鄭通和)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Chang Hsin-i (張心一)
 Secretary-General: Ting I-chung (丁宜中)

Members:

Tien Kun-shan	(田崑山)	Ma Cheng-wu	(馬震武)
Teng Pao-hsan	(鄧寶珊)	Ma Chi-chou	(馬繼周)
Lo Li-hsueh	(駱力學)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Yeh Tsa-chou (葉在時)

CHINGHAI PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Ma Pu-fang (馬步芳)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Ma Shao-wu (馬紹武)
 Commissioner of Finance: Chen Hsien-jung (陳顯崇)
 Commissioner of Education: Liu Cheng-teh (劉承德)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Ma Lu (馬驥)
 Secretary-General: Ma Chi (馬驥)

Members:

Han Chi-kung	(韓起功)	Hsieh Kang-chieh	(謝剛傑)
Ma Chi-yuan	(馬繼援)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Ma Shih-yung (馬師融)

SINKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Wu Chung-hsin (吳忠信)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Teng Hsiang-hai (鄧翔海)
 Commissioner of Finance: Lu Yu-wen (盧郁文)
 Commissioner of Education: Hsu Lien-chi (許連溪)
 Commissioner of Reconstruction: Sha Ling-yun (余凌雲)
 Secretary-General: Tseng Shao-lu (曾少魯)

Members:

Chou Kun-tien	(周昆田)	Liu Ping-teh	(劉秉德)
Chang Hsuan-tse	(張宣澤)	Tai Ping	(太平)
A-chi-mu	(阿奇木)	Chia-li-mu-han	(加里木汗)
A-hsi-mu	(阿西木)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Ho Chung-shan (何崇善)

NINGHSIA PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Ma Hung-kuei (馬鴻逵)
 Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Hai Tao (海濤)
 Commissioner of Finance: Chao Wen-fu (趙文府)
 Commissioner of Education: Yang Teh-chiao (楊德超)

Commissioner of Reconstruction: Li Han-yuan (李翰園)

Secretary-General: Chien Teng-tao (翦敦道)

Members:

Ta-li-cha-ya	(達理扎雅)	Wang Pei	(王沛)
Ma Chi-teh	(馬繼德)	Liu Lun-ying	(劉掄英)
Ma Ju-lung	(馬如龍)	Li Ping	(李鋼)

Chief Justice, High Court: Su Lien-yuan (蘇連元)

SIKANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Liu Wen-huei (劉文輝)

Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Chang Wei-chun (張為炯)

Commissioner of Finance: Li Wan-hua (李萬華)

Commissioner of Education: Hsiang Li-jun (向理潤)

Commissioner of Reconstruction: Liu I-yen (劉貽燕)

Secretary-General: Li Ching-hsuan (李靜軒)

Members:

Wang Ching-yu	(王靜宇)	Yang Ping-li	(楊秉離)
Ko-tsung-hu-tu-ke-tu	(格聰呼圖克圖)	Tuan Pan-chi	(段班級)
		Li Hsien-chun	(李先春)

Chief Justice, High Court: Li Yung-cheng (李永成)

LIAONING PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Hsu Cheng (徐歲)

Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Han Han (韓涵)

Commissioner of Finance: Yang Chih-hsin (楊志信)

Commissioner of Education: Pien Tsung-men (卞宗孟)

Commissioners of Reconstruction: Wei Hua-kung (魏華鵬)

Secretary-General: Lo Ta-yu (羅大愚)

Members:

Chu Chiu-ying	(朱玖瑩)	Han Ching-lun	(韓清淪)
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Chief Justice, High Court: Li Tsu-ching (李祖慶)

KIRIN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Tseng Tao-ju (鄭道儒)

Members:

Wu Chih-kung	(吳至恭)	Hu Ti-chien	(胡體乾)
Shang Chuan-tao	(尚傳道)	Hsu Ching-lan	(徐晴嵐)
Wang Ning-hua	(王寧華)	Chang Ching-szu	(張慶泗)

Chief Justice, High Court: Wei Ta-tung (魏大同)

GENERAL APPENDIX
HEILUNGKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Han Chun-chieh (韓駿傑)

Members:

Chu Han-sheng	(朱漢生)	Liu Chuan-chung	(劉全忠)
Liu Shih-fan	(劉時範)	Liu Cheng-yin	(劉政因)
Wu Yueh-chao	(吳越潮)	Yu Li-pai	(于犁伯)

Chief Justice, High Court: Meng Chao-tung (孟昭洞)

JEHOL PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Liu To-chuan (劉多荃)

Commissioner of Civil Affairs: Tan Wen-pin (譚文彬)

Commissioner of Finance: Ku Tsung-ying (谷宗誠)

Commissioner of Education: Liu Lien-ke (劉廉克)

Commissioner of Reconstruction: Mao Chao-ching (毛詔青)

Secretary-General: Mo Sung-hen (莫松恆)

Members:

Kao Peng-yun	(高鵬雲)	Li Shou-lien	(李守廉)
Wang Heng-sheng	(王恆升)	Hung Sheng	(洪聲)
Chi Chao-ting	(冀朝鼎)	Wu Shang-chuan	(武尚權)

Chief Justice, High Court: Chu Huan-lin (朱煥彰)

ANTUNG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Kao Hsi-ping (高惜冰)

Members:

Wang Tung-yin	(王同寅)	Wu Hsi-yung	(吳希庸)
Yu Hsueh-szu	(于學思)	Li Yu-shan	(李蔚山)
Wang Yu-wen	(王育文)	Liu Ho	(劉和)

Chief Justice, High Court: Sun Hsi-yen (孫希衍)

LIAOPEH PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Liu Han-tung (劉翰東)

Members:

Hsu Nai	(徐鼎)	Pai Shih-chang	(白世昌)
Chang Shih-lun	(張式綸)	Li Chung-kuo	(李克國)
Fu Fu-kuei	(傅馥桂)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Kuan Fu-sen (關福森)

SUNGKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Kuan Chi-yu (關吉玉)

Members:

Hung Fang	(洪 飭)	Liang Tung	(梁 棟)
Shih Lien-fang	(師連舫)	Wu Shao-lin	(吳紹璘)
Tien Yu-shih	(田雨時)	Yen Meng-hua	(閔孟華)

Chief Justice, High Court: Ho Yu-chuan (何宇銓)

HOKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Wu Han-tao (吳瀚濤)

Members:

Fu Pai-ping	(富伯平)	Yang Ta-chien	(楊大乾)
Ho Han-wen	(何漢文)	Yang Shou-chen	(楊守珍)
Chu Pu-tang	(祝步唐)	Li Teh-jun	(李德潤)

Chief Justice, High Court: Ho Cheng-cho (何承焯)

NUNKIANG PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Peng Chi-chun (彭濟羣)

Members:

Huang Hen-hao	(黃恆浩)	Tsang Pao-chung	(蒼寶忠)
Liang Chung-chuan	(梁中樞)	Liu Po-kun	(劉博崑)
Ning Hsiang-nan	(甯向南)	Chao Hsien-wen	(趙憲文)

Chief Justice, High Court: Chen Kuang-teh (陳廣德)

HSINGAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Chairman: Wu Huan-chang (吳煥章)

Secretary-General:

(王兆民)

Members:

Chang Chen-hsi	(張震西)	Chi-erh-ko-lang	(吉爾格朗)
Tien Shu-tzu	(田樹滋)	Chen Feng	(陳 封)
Chang Sung-han	(張松涵)		

Chief Justice, High Court: Liu Shih-ching (劉世卿)

C. MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENTS

CHUNGKING MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Chang Tu-lun (張篤倫)

Counsellors:

Kung Yun-tsun	(龔雲邨)	Chan Hsien-cheh	(詹顯哲)
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Secretary-General: Tang Hung-lieh (唐鴻烈)

Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Hsu Hung-tao (徐鴻濤)

Director, Police Bureau: Tang I (唐 毅)

Director, Finance Bureau: Shen Chih-ching (沈質清)
Director, Health Bureau: Li Chih-yu (李之郁)
Director, Public Works Bureau: Liu Ju-sung (劉如松)
Director, Education Bureau: Jen Chiao-wu (任覺五)
Director, Land Bureau: Kung Pei-cheng (貢沛誠)

PEIPING MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Hsiung Ping (熊斌)
Vice-Mayor: Chang Pai-chin (張伯謹)
Counsellors:
 Liang Shang-tung (梁上棟) Chiang Tieh-chen (蔣鉄珍)
 Wu Cheng-shih (吳承浚)
Secretary-General: Yang Hsuan-cheng (楊宣誠)
Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Wen Chung-hsin (溫崇信)
Director, Police Bureau: Chen Cho (陳焯)
Assistant Director: Chu Wei-ping (祝維平)
Director, Finance Bureau: Fu Cheng-shun (傅正舜)
Director, Health Bureau: Han Yun-feng (韓雲峯)
Director, Public Works Bureau: Tang Ping-hsun (譚炳訓)
Director, Education Bureau: Ying Chien-li (英千里)
Director, Land Bureau: Chang Tao-shun (張道純)
Director, Public Utilities Bureau: Ling Mien-cnih (凌勉之)
Chief Accountant: Ou-Yang Pao-chen (歐陽葆真)

TSINGTAO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Li Hsien-liang (李先良)
Vice-Mayor: Ko Chin (葛卓)
Counsellors:
 Chou Chia-yen (周家彥) Yang Ching-sheng (楊津生)
Secretary-General: Chiang Ke-hsun (姜可訓)
Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Ko Chin (葛卓)
Director, Police Bureau: Sun Ping-hsien (孫秉賢)
Assistant Director: Wang Chih-chao (王志超)
Director, Finance Bureau: Kung Fu-min (孔福民)
Director, Health Bureau: Kuo Chih-wen (郭致文)
Director, Public Works Bureau: Kuo Shou-cheng (過守正)
Director, Education Bureau: Meng Yun-chiao (孟雲橋)
Director, Land Bureau: Lin Ching-chen (林欽辰)
Director, Harbor Affairs Bureau: Chang Yen-hsueh (張衍學)
Chief Accountant: Pi Sung-yun (皮松雲)

NANKING MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Ma Chao-chun (馬超俊)
Vice-Mayor: Ma Yuan-fang (馬元放)
Counsellors:
 Jen Chih-yuan (任治沅) Yang Chou-kang (楊宙康)
Secretary-General: Chen Tsu-ping (陳祖平)
Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Chen Chien-ju 陳劍如

Director, Police Bureau: Han Wen-huan (韓文煥)
Director, Finance Bureau: Shih Tao-i (石道伊)
Director, Health Bureau: Wang Tsu-hsiang (王祖祥)
Director, Public Works Bureau: Chang Chien-ming (張劍鳴)
Director, Land Bureau: Chou Hsiang (周湘)
Chief Accountant: Yung Chia-yuan (雍家源)

SHANGHAI MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Chien Ta-chun (錢大鈞)
Vice-Mayor: Ho Teh-kuei (何德奎)
Counsellors:
 Chou Yung-neng (周雍能) Lin Tzu-feng (林子峯)
Secretary-General: Shen Shih-hua (沈士華)
Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Wu Kai-hsien (吳開先)
Director, Police Bureau: Hsuan Tieh-wu (宣鐵吾)
Assistant Director: Yu Shu-ping (俞叔平)
Director, Finance Bureau: Pu Cheng-tung (浦拯東)
Director, Health Bureau: Yu Sung-chun (俞松筠)
Director, Public Works Bureau: Chao Tsu-kang (趙祖康)
Director, Education Bureau: Ku Yu-hsiu (顧毓琇)
Director, Land Bureau: Chen Shih-chuan (陳石泉)
Director, Public Utilities Bureau: Chao Tseng-yu (趙曾鈺)
Chief Accountant: Min Hsiang-fan (閔湘帆)

TIENTSIN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Chang Ting-ngoh (張廷諤)
Vice-Mayor: Tu Chien-shih (杜建詩)
Secretary-General: Wang Yu-ko (王玉科)
Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Hu Meng-hua (胡夢華)
Director, Finance Bureau: Li Chin-chou (李金洲)
Director, Public Works Bureau: Yen Tzu-hsiang (閔子享)
Director, Education Bureau: Huang Yu-sheng (黃鈺生)
Director, Health Bureau: Lu Ti-huan (陸滌寰)
Director, Land Bureau: Wu Hui-ho (吳惠和)
Director, Public Utilities Bureau: Wang Hsi-chun (王錫鈞)
Director, Police Bureau: Li Han-yuan (李漢元)
Assistant Director: Mao Wen-tso (毛文佐)
Chief Accountant: Chen Chang-hsing (陳長興)

DAIREN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Shen Yi (沈怡)
Members for Taking Over Municipal Administration:
 Nieh Tzu-hsin (薛次莘) Li Ting-an (李廷安)
 Wang Hsia-min (王洽民) Chao Chi-hua (焦績華)
 Pan Pai-chien (潘白堅) Chao Hsi-meng (趙惜蒙)
 Wu Hua-fu (吳華甫) Yuan Su-hsin (原素欣)
 Hu Sul-hsiang (胡瑞祥) Mo Heng (莫衡)
 Chen Hao-chin (陳鶴琴)
Chief Accountant: Yen Hung-sheng (閔鴻聲)

HARBIN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Yang Cho-an (楊綽庵)

Members for taking over Municipal Administration:

Sun Kuei-chi	(孫桂籍)	Tsao Chung-lin	(曹鍾麟)
Yu Hsiu-hao	(余秀豪)	Chang Tsung-chen	(常存真)
Sung Feng-an	(宋鳳恩)	Kung Li-i	(龔理逸)
Chang Sung-chun	(張松筠)	Tsang Pu-ching	(臧勃鯨)
Han Chin-yuan	(韓靜遠)	Lin Yu-jen	(林有壬)
Tso Chi	(左吉)	Chu Kuang-hsin	(朱廣心)
Chen Peng-fei	(陳鵬飛)		

Chief Accountant: Chao Lin-li (趙麟理)

HANKOW MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Hsu Hui-chih (徐會之)

Secretary-General: Fan shih (范賁)

Director, Police Bureau: Jen Chien-peng (任建鵬)

Assistant Director: Wang Yeh-hung (汪業鴻)

CANTON MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor: Chen Tse (陳策)

Secretary-General: Li Tsao-chien (黎藻鑑)

Director, Police Bureau: Li Kuo-chun (李國俊)

Assistant Director: Li Ying (李英)

Director, Social Affairs Bureau: Wu Pai-liang (伍伯良)

Director, Finance Bureau: Wang To-sheng (王鐸聲)

Director, Public Works Bureau: Cheng Tien-ku (程天固)

Director, Education Bureau: Lu Yu-kang (陸幼剛)

Director, Health Bureau: Ho Chih-chang (何熾昌)

Director, Land Bureau: Ho Chi-li (何啓禮)

Director, Public Utilities Bureau: Li Chung-chen (李仲振)

OTHER MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Mayor of Hangchow: Chou Hsiang-hsien (周象賢)

Mayor of Swatow: Tan Pao-shou (譚葆壽)

Mayor of Chankiang: Kuo Shou-hua (郭壽華)

Mayor of Lienyun: Chang Chen-han (張振漢)

Mayor of Shenyang: Tung Wen-chi (董文琦)

Mayor of Hsuehow: Lo Tung-fan (駱東藩)

DIRECTORY OF HIGHER OFFICIALS OF THE KUOMINTANG **CENTRAL HEADQUARTERS**

Tsungsai (President) Chiang Kai-shek (蔣中正)

Members of the Central Executive Committee:

Yu Yu-jen*	(于右任)	Li Chung-hsiang	(李中襄)
Soong Tze-vung*	(宋子文)	Wang Fu-ling	(萬福麟)
Tsou Lu*	(鄒魯)	Teng Fei-huang	(鄧飛黃)
Pai Chung-hsi*	(白崇禧)	Chu Chen*	(居正)
Pan Kung-chan*	(潘公展)	Chen Kuo-fu*	(陳果夫)
Cheng Chien*	(程潛)	Yeh Chu-tsang*	(葉楚傖)
Chen Chi-tang*	(陳濟棠)	Feng Yu-hsiang*	(馮玉祥)
Ho Chung-han	(賀衷寒)	Chang Li-sheng*	(張厲生)
Ma Chao-chun	(馬超俊)	Chen Li-fu*	(陳立夫)
Yen Hsi-shan	(閻錫山)	Liang Han-chao	(梁寒操)
Mai-Sze-Wu-Teh	(麥斯武德)	Ku Chu-tung	(顧祝同)
Lu Chung-lin	(鹿鍾麟)	Soong Ching-ling	
Chiao I-tang	(焦易堂)	(Madame Sun	
Ti Yin	(狄膺)	Yat-sen)	(宋慶齡)
Liu Wei-chih	(劉維斌)	Ku Cheng-lun	(谷正倫)
Chou Po-ming	(周伯敏)	Liu Chien-chun	(劉繼羣)
Fang Chih	(方治)	Yu Ching-tang	(余井塘)
Ku Cheng-ting	(谷正鼎)	Wu Chung-hsin	(吳忠信)
Chen Ching-yun	(陳慶雲)	Wang Cheng-ting	(王正廷)
Po Wen-wei	(柏文蔚)	Yu Han-mou	(余漢謀)
Shen Hung-lieh	(沈鴻烈)	Chang Chun	(張羣)
Chiang Po-cheng	(蔣伯誠)	Hsiao Tung-tze	(蕭同茲)
Teng Chia-yen	(鄧家彥)	Chen Shu-jen	(陳樹人)
Peng Hsueh-pei	(彭學沛)	Ting Chao-wu	(丁超五)
Li Tsung-huang	(李宗黃)	Foo Ping-sheung	(傅秉常)
Hung Lu-tung	(洪陸東)	Tseng Yang-fu	(曾養甫)
Tai Kwei-sheng	(戴愧生)	Chen Shao-kuan	(陳紹寬)
Tang Sheng-chih	(唐生智)	Liu Chi-wen	(劉紀文)
Wang Chuan-sheng	(王泉笙)	Chen Yi	(陳儀)
Hsia Tou-ying	(夏斗寅)	Chu Chi-ching	(朱霽青)
Yang Ai-yuan	(楊愛源)	Ku Meng-yu	(顧孟餘)
Shih Tzu-chou	(時子周)	Chang Chiang	(張強)
Wu Kal-hsien	(吳開先)	Wu Pao-feng	(吳保豐)
Hsu Kan	(徐堪)	Miao Pei-cheng	(苗培成)
Mei Kung-jen	(梅公任)	Wu Yi-feng	(吳挹峯)
Lo Cho-ying	(羅卓英)	Hsiao Chi-shan	(蕭吉珊)
Kwei Yung-chin	(桂永清)	Yu Chun-hsien	(余俊賢)
Kang Tsch	(康澤)	Hsiao Cheng	(蕭錦)
Wong Wen-hao	(翁文灝)	Tien Kun-shan	(田崑山)
Chang Chen	(張鎮)	Lin Tai	(林疊)
Teng Wen-i	(鄧文儀)	Lo Mei-huan	(駱美奐)
Chen Shih-chuan	(陳石泉)	Sung Hsi-lien	(宋希濂)
Koo Hsi-ping	(顧希平)	Huang Yu-jen	(黃宇人)
Li Wei-ku	(李惟果)	Wu Shao-shu	(吳紹澍)
Tang En-po	(湯恩伯)	Huang Chung-hsiang	(黃仲翔)
Feng Ching-tsa	(馮慶哉)	Tseng Chieh-min	(鄭介民)
Wang Tsuan-hsu	(王續緒)	Sun Wei-ju	(孫蔚如)
Lou Tung-sen	(樓桐孫)	Chu Huai-ping	(朱懷冰)

Liu Yao-chang	(劉瑤章)	Mei Yi-chi	(梅貽琦)
Cheng Yen-fen	(鄭彥棻)	Kan Chia-hsing	(甘家馨)
Hu Chien-chung	(胡健中)	Hsiang Chuan-i	(向傳義)
Li I-chung	(李翼中)	Tai Chuan-hsien	(戴傳賢)
Pang Ching-tang	(龐鏡塘)	Ho Ying-chin*	(何應欽)
Chang Chih-kiang	(張之江)	Ting Wei-fen*	(丁惟汾)
Pai Yun-ti	(白雲梯)	Chen Pu-lei*	(陳布雷)
Chen Chien-ju	(陳劍如)	Chang Chih-chung*	(張治中)
Sun Fo*	(孫科)	Chang Tao-fan*	(張道藩)
Chen Cheng*	(陳誠)	Chu Shao-liang	(朱紹良)
Wu Te-chen*	(吳鐵城)	Ho Cheng-chun	(何成濬)
Li Wen-fan*	(李文範)	Ku Cheng-kang	(谷正綱)
Chu Chia-hua*	(朱家驊)	Chiang Ting-wen	(蔣鼎文)
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Fu Tso-yi	(傅作義)	Hsueh Tu-pi	(薛篤弼)
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Yu Hsueh-chung	(于學忠)	Li Ping-hsien	(李品仙)
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Liu Shih	(劉峙)	Ho Chien	(何健)
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Hsiung Shih-hui	(熊式輝)	Cheng Szu-yuan	(程思遠)
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Chou Chi-kang	(周啓剛)	Fang Ching-ju	(方青儒)
Lo Chia-lung	(羅家倫)	Chen Hsueh-ping	(陳雪屏)
Lai Lien	(賴璉)	Hsu Chen	(徐歲)
Liu Chien-hsu	(劉建緒)	Lu Fu-ting	(陸福廷)
Li Yang-ching	(李揚敬)	Shen Hui-lien	(沈慧蓮)
Miao Pei-nan	(繆培南)	Ou Yang Chu	(歐陽駒)
Lo-sang-hsien-tsan	(羅榮賢)	Chang Kuo-tao	(張國燾)
Chen Chao-ying	(陳肇英)	Hsia Wei	(夏威)
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Yeh Hsiu-feng	(葉秀峯)	Pan Kung-pi	(潘公弼)
Chao Yung-i	(趙允義)	Chi Shih-ying	(齊世英)
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Fu Ju-ling	(傅汝霖)	Chang Ting-hsiu	(張廷休)
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Koo Vi-kyuin	(顧維鈞)	Chen Kuo-chu	(陳國礎)
Chou Chih-jou	(周至柔)	Chen Hsi-hao	(陳希豪)
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Yu Wang-teh	(于望德)	Ma Chi-chou	(馬繼周)
Tang Tsung	(唐鏞)	Tsou Tso-hua	(鄒作華)
Hu Ying	(胡瑛)	Liu Kung-yun	(劉攻蘭)
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Chang Chih-pen	(張知本)	Wang Ching-kuo	(王靖國)
Chang Mo-chun	(張默君)	Tang Shih-tsung	(唐式遵)
Tan Tao-yuan	(譚道原)	Li Pei-yen	(李培炎)
Lung Yun	(龍 雲)	Yuan Yung	(袁 雍)
Li Tzu-wen	(李次溫)	Ho Kwei-chang	(霍揆彰)
Li Yen-nien	(李延年)	Sung Shu-chiao	(宋述樵)
Shang-kuan Yung-hsiao*	(上官雲相)	Lo Liang-chien	(羅良鑑)
Shao Li-tze*	(邵力子)	Chiang Meng-lin	(蔣夢麟)
Lin Yun-kai	(林雲陔)	Hsu Hsiao-yen	(許孝炎)
Chang Jen-chieh	(張人傑)	Li Yung-hsin	(李永新)
Chin Te-shun	(秦德純)	Wang Hsing-kung	(王星拱)
Li Lieh-chun	(李烈鈞)	Wan Yao-huang	(萬耀煌)
Ho Sze-yuan	(何思源)	Chu Ching-nung	(朱經農)
Chih Chen	(卓 振)	Li Ming-yang	(李 陽)
Liu Wen-tao	(劉文島)	Chia Ching-teh	(賈景德)
Hsiang Han-ping	(香翰屏)	Li Shu-sen	(李樹森)
Teng Ching-yang	(鄧青陽)	Li Chao-fu	(李肇甫)
Lu Tang-ping	(魯達平)	Liu Po-chun	(劉伯羣)
Hu Shu-hua	(胡庶華)	Chen Fang	(陳 方)
Wu Chi-wei	(吳奇偉)	Quo Tai-chi	(郭泰祺)
Cheng Tien-fang*	(程天放)	Chang Li-sheng	(張鳴生)
Li Tsung-jen	(李宗仁)	Tseng Wan-chung	(曾萬鍾)
Shang Cheng	(商 震)	Ma Hung-pin	(馬鴻賓)
Wang Tze-chwang	(王子壯)	Lei Yin	(雷 殷)
Huang Shao-hsiung	(黃紹雄)	Hsieh Kuan-sheng	(謝冠生)
Hsuen Yueh	(薛 岳)	Ma Fa-wu	(馬法五)
Li Ching-tsai	(李敬齋)	Wu Nan-hsuan	(吳南軒)
Li Fu-lin	(李蔚林)	Wu Ting-chang	(吳鼎昌)
Li Yu-ying	(李煜瀛)	Li Chi-sheng	(李濟深)
Peng Kuo-chun	(彭國鈞)	Liu Shang-ching	(劉尚清)
Li Sze-tsung	(李嗣琬)	Tsui Chen-hua	(崔震華)
Niu Yung-chien	(鈕永建)	Huang Lin-shu	(黃麟書)

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Yang Hsi-chi	(楊熙緒)	Sun Cheng	(孫震)
Li Tieh-chun	(李鐵軍)	Liu Ju-ming	(劉汝明)
Liu Heng-ching	(劉衡靜)	Hsi Jao Chia Tsou	(聶鏡嘉錯)
Tso Heng-chih	(卓衡之)	Ho Lien-kuei	(何聯奎)
Mao Ping-wen	(毛秉文)	Chen Tso	(陳譚)
Liu Ho-ting	(劉和鼎)	Chen Ku-ting	(陳國亭)
Chang Po-ching	(張伯澄)	Chen Ta-ching	(陳大慶)
Chang Chen	(張鈺)	Chou Fu-cheng	(周福成)
Chao Chung-yung	(趙中容)	Liu Lien-ke	(劉廉克)
Han Teh-chin	(韓德勳)	Chang Tu-lung	(張篤倫)
Lin Cheng-tsan	(劉成傑)	Tsui Kwang-hsiu	(崔廣秀)
Sun Chin-ya	(孫臣亞)	Hsiung Pin	(熊斌)
Mohamed I-ming	(穆罕默得尹敏)	Chung Tien-hsin	(鍾天心)
Ko Sang Tseh Jen	(格桑澤仁)	Huang Chien-chung	(黃建中)
Wang Teh-pu	(王德博)	Wang Tse-hsien	(王子弦)
Chao Lan-ping	(趙蘭坪)	Ti Lu Wa Hutukhtu	(迪魯瓦)
Huang Tien-chueh	(黃天爵)	Wang Chung-lien	(王仲廉)
Chang I	(章益)	Chien Yung-ho	(錢用和)
Yeh So-chung	(葉朔中)	Chu Hsiu-hsieh	(祝秀俠)
Tseng I-ting	(曾以鼎)	Chen Shao-hsien	(陳紹賢)
Yu Cheng-hsun	(余成勳)	Ting Teh-lung	(丁德隆)

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Chang Chen-hsi	(張震西)	Wang Ta-sui	(汪大燮)
Chang Shou-hsien	(張壽賢)		

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Lei Hung-kun	(雷鴻逵)	Liu Kuang-tou	(劉光斗)
Hou Piao-ching	(侯標慶)		

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Vice Ministers: Yu Chia-ang (余井塘)

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Secretaries:

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Chief, Statistics Office: Pan Yen-ping (潘彥斌)

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Chief, Research Office: Peng Wen-kai (彭文凱)

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Chief, Statistics Office: Lu Kuan-chun (盧冠羣)

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MEMBERS OF THE FOURTH PEOPLE'S POLITICAL COUNCIL

(國 民 參 政 會)

A. Members Elected in Accordance with Section A of the Organic Law of the People's Political Council

Szechuen:

Liu Ming-yang	(劉明揚)	Liao Hsueh-chang	(廖學章)
Fu Chang	(傅常)	Chen Ming-teh	(陳銘德)
Tan Mao-hsin	(但懋辛)	Yu Chi-tang	(余際唐)
Huang Su-fang	(黃肅方)	Kan Chi-yung	(甘緒鏞)
Chu Chih-hung	(朱之洪)	Wang Kuo-yuan	(王國源)

Hunan:

Hu Shu-hua	(胡庶華)	Hsu Hsiao-yen	(許孝炎)
Liu Hsing	(劉興)	Teng Fei-huang	(鄧飛黃)
Chang Chun	(張炯)	Tso Shun-sheng	(左舜生)
Tang Kuo-cheng*	(唐國楨)	Chiu Chang-wei	(邱昌渭)
Yu Nan-chiu	(余楠秋)	Tan Kuang	(譚光)

Chekiang:

Chu Fu-cheng	(褚輔成)	Yeh Suo-chung	(葉潮中)
Wu Wang-chieh	(吳望從)	Chu Wei-ching	(朱惠清)
Chen Chi-yeh	(陳其業)	Hu Chien-chung	(胡健中)
Liu Po-min	(劉百閔)	Chao Shu	(趙舒)
Lo Ya-tien	(羅霞天)	Lo Mei-huan	(駱美興)

Kwangtung:

Huang Fan-i	(黃範一)	Ho Chun-fan	(何春帆)
Han Han-fan	(韓洪藩)	Kuan Wei	(官緯)
Liu Hsien-ying*	(劉志英)	Chen Shao-hsien	(陳紹賢)
Chang Liang-hsiu	(張良修)	Ts'u Chih-fen	(鄒志奮)
Lu Tsung-chi	(陸宗祺)	Wang Jo-chou	(王若周)

Anhui:

Ma Ching-chang	(馬景常)	Hsi Lun	(奚倫)
Chang Heng-fang	(常恆芳)	Chin Wei-hsi	(金維希)
Liu Chi-shui	(劉啓瑞)	Kuang Sheng	(光昇)
Liu Cheng-ju	(劉興如)	Ti Shun	(翟純)
Chen Tieh	(陳鐵)	Wu Tsang-chou	(吳滄洲)

Shantung:

Fan Yu-sui	(范予遂)	Ting Chi-shih	(丁基賢)
Kung Ling-tsan	(孔令燦)	Chao Hsueh-feng	(趙雪苓)
Wang Li-tsa	(王立哉)	Liu Tzu-hsiao	(劉次蕭)
Chao Kung-lo	(趙公魯)	P'ang Chin-tang	(龐鏡塘)
Fu Ssu-nien	(傅斯年)	Wang Chung-yu	(王仲裕)

Honan:

Wang Yin-san (王隱三)
 Li Han-chen (李漢珍)
 Chang Yu-sheng (張雨生)
 Yao Ting-fang (姚廷芳)
 Chang Chin-chen (張金鑑)

Liu Ching-chien (劉景健)
 Ti Tsang-lu (翟倉陸)
 Yen Hua-tang (燕化棠)
 Tien Pei-lin (田培林)
 Wang Yung-ching (王雲青)

Hupei:

Li Chien-ting (李薦廷)
 Yang Ju (楊如)
 Lu Yu-chih (喻育之)
 Liu Shu-mo (劉叔模)
 Li Szu-kuang (李四光)

Shih Hsin-chia (石信嘉)
 Yao Feng-huang (饒鳳璜)
 Kung Keng (孔庚)
 Chang Nan-hsien (張難先)
 Huang Chien-chun (黃健中)

Kiangsi:

Chang Kuo-tao (張國燾)
 Wang Yu-yung (王又庸)
 Wang Chen-hsin (王枕心)
 Yang Pu-ping (楊不平)
 Li Chung-hsiang (李中襄)

Kan Chia-hsing (甘家馨)
 Wang Teh-yu (王德興)
 Wang Kuan-ying (王冠英)
 Hsiung Tsa-wei (熊在渭)
 Wu Chien-tao (吳健陶)

Kiangsu:

Leng Shih (冷適)
 Hsueh Ming-chien (薛明劍)
 Hsiao I-shan (蕭一山)
 Chiang Heng-yuan (江恆源)

Koo Chieh-kang (顧頡剛)
 Wang Pao-hsuan (汪寶瑤)
 Chen Yuan (陳源)
 Chang Wei-chen* (張維楨)

Hopeh:

Keng Yi (耿毅)
 Wang Chi-kiang (王啓江)
 Ho Chi-hung (何基鴻)
 Liu Yao-chang (劉瑤章)

Wei Yuan-kuang (魏元光)
 Wang Hua-min (王化明)
 Chang Chih-kiang (張之江)
 Ma Hsi-fan (馬洗繁)

Shensi:

Chang Feng-hui (張鳳翽)
 Chang Tan-ping (張丹屏)
 Wang Wei-tse (王維之)
 Kao Wen-yuan (高文源)

Chao Ho-ting (趙和亭)
 Yang Ta-chien (楊大乾)
 Li Chih-ting (李芝亭)
 Chang Shou-yueh (張守約)

Fukien:

Shih Lei (石磊)
 Lin Hsueh-yuan (林學淵)
 Kiang Yung (江庸)
 Kang Chao-chou (康紹周)

Yeh Tao-yuan (葉道淵)
 Cheng Kuei-i (鄭揆一)
 Li Yu (李鉦)
 Liang Lung-kuang (梁龍光)

Kwangsi:

Huang Chung-yueh (黃鐘岳)
 Yang Shao-pao (楊叔保)
 Cheng Szu-yuan (程思遠)
 Lin Hu (林虎)

Su Hsi-hsun (蘇希洵)
 Liao Chin-tien (廖競天)
 Lei Pei-hung (雷沛鴻)
 Chiang Pei-ying (蔣培英)

Yunnan:

Li Pei-yen	(李培炎)	Chao Shu	(趙樹)
Li Chien-tze	(李鑑之)	Wu Shun-wu	(伍純武)
Chang Pang-chen	(張邦珍)	Yen Shun	(嚴鈺)
Fan Chen-shun	(范承植)	Chen Keng-ya	(陳賡雅)

Kweichow:

Wang Ya-ming	(王亞明)	Shang Wen-li	(商文立)
Chou Su-yuan	(周素園)	Chang Ting-hua	(張定華)
Huang Yu-jen	(黃宇人)	Ing Shu-hsien	(尹述賢)

Kansu:

K'ou Yung-chieh	(寇永吉)	Lu Hsi-kuang	(陸錫光)
Chang Tso-mo	(張作謀)	Tuan Tso	(段焯)
Ko Yu-sen	(柯與參)	Ma Yuan-feng	(馬元鳳)

Shansi:

Liang Shang-tung	(梁上棟)	Li Hung-wen	(李鴻文)
Pan Lien-ju	(潘連茹)	Wu Shao-hsu	(武肇煦)

Liaoning:

Kao Hsi-ping	(高惜冰)	Chang Chen-lan	(張振鷺)
Chi Shih-ying	(齊世英)	Chien Kung-lai	(錢公來)

Kirin:

Li Hsi-en	(李錫恩)	Wang Han-sheng	(王寒生)
Chen Chi-yung	(陳紀澄)	Chang Chien-hua	(張潛華)

Sinkiang:

Ha Ti Erh	(哈的爾)	Liu Wen-lung	(劉文龍)
Wu Ma Erh	(烏馬爾)	Kwei Fang	(桂芳)

Chungking:

Pan Chang-yu	(潘昌猷)	Teng Hua-min	(鄧華民)
Chen Chieh-sheng	(陳介生)	Hu Chung-shih	(胡仲實)

Chahar:

Chang Chih-kuang	(張志廣)	Li Yu-tien	(李毓田)
Chiao Ting-chi	(喬廷琦)		

Suiyuan:

Chiao Shou-hsien	(焦守顯)	Li Shu-mou	(李樹茂)
Su Ting	(蘇珽)		

Shanghai:

Hsi Yu-shu	(奚玉書)	Tao Po-chuan	(陶百川)
Chen Ting-jui	(陳廷銳)		

Chinghai:

Li Chia	(李洽)	Li Teh-yuan	(李德淵)
Ma Teng-yun	(馬騰雲)		

Sikang:

Chang Chi	(張 輝)	Ko Sang Tseh-jen	(格桑澤仁)
Huang Ju-chien	(黃汝鑑)		

Ninhzia:

Ma Shao-chi	(馬兆琦)	Chou Sheng-cheng	(周生楨)
Yu Kuang-ho	(于光合)		

Heilungkiang:

Ma Yi	(馬 毅)	Wang Yu-chang	(王宇章)
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Jehol:

Tan Wen-pin	(譚文彬)	Wang Wei-hsin	(王維新)
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Nanking:

Chen Yu-kuang	(陳裕光)	Chang Tung	(章 桐)
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Peiping:

Tao Meng-ho	(陶孟和)	Chen Shih-chuan	(陳石泉)
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Tientsin:

Chang Po-ling	(張伯苓)	Chang Lo-ku	(張樂古)
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Sian:

Han Chao-ngo	(韓兆鶚)
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Note.—Those marked with * are woman members.

**B. Members Elected in Accordance with Section B of the Organic Law
of the People's Political Council**

Mongolia:

Ti-lu-wa Hutukhtu	(迪魯瓦)	Li Yung-hsin	(李永新)
Chin Chih-chao	(金志超)	Chi-mu-kun-wang-cha-la-lu-tan	
Yung Chao	(榮 照)		(齊木棍旺扎勒拉卜旦)

Tibet:

Lo-sang-cha-hsi	(羅桑扎喜)	An-wang-chien-tsan	(阿旺堅贊)
La-min-i-hsi-chu-chen	(拉敏益喜楚臣)		

**C. Members Elected in Accordance with Section C of the Organic Law
of the People's Political Council**

Kuang Ping-cheng	(鄺炳舜)	Chen Yung-fan	(陳榮芳)
Lien Ying-chou	(連鑑州)	Soohoo Mei-hong	(司徒美堂)
Li Wen-chen	(李文珍)	Lim Keng-nien	(林慶年)
Ho Pao-jen	(何葆仁)	Feng Tsan-li	(馮澤利)

**D. Members Elected in Accordance with Section D of the Organic Law
of the People's Political Council**

Shao Tsun-en	(邵災恩)	Hsu Ping-chang	(徐炳昶)
Chang Lan	(張瀾)	Chen Chi-tien	(陳啓天)
Huang Yen-peí	(黃炎培)	Cheng Hsi-meng	(程希孟)
Chen Pao-yin	(陳豹隱)	Sah Meng-wu	(薩孟武)
Mao Tseh-tung	(毛澤東)	Ta Pu-sheng	(達浦生)
Yang Tuan-lu	(楊端六)	Hu Shih	(胡適)
Chin Pang-hsien	(秦邦憲)	Chang Nai-teh	(常乃真)
Wu Yi-fang*	(吳貽芳)	Yang Cheng-sheng	(楊振聲)
Chou Ping-lin	(周炳林)	Wang Shih-yin	(王世穎)
Liu Heng-ching*	(劉衡靜)	Kuo Jen-sheng	(郭任生)
Chen Shao-yu	(陳紹禹)	Cheng Chen-wen	(鄭振文)
Teng Ying-chao*	(鄧穎超)	Wu Yu-chang	(吳玉章)
(Mrs. Chou En-lai)	(馬彥鳳)	Chang Po-chun	(章伯鈞)
Ma Cheng-feng	(余家駒)	Wu Yun-chu	(吳鑑初)
Yu Chia-chu	(許德珩)	Wang Yun-wu	(王雲五)
Hsu Teh-heng	(羅衡)	Li Huang	(李璜)
Lo Heng*	(李文碩)	Chou Tao-kang	(周道剛)
Hsu Wen-hsiang	(梁實秋)	Chiu Ao	(仇鰲)
Liang Shih-chiu	(彭革陳)	Chou Lan	(周覽)
Peng Ke-chen	(胡木蘭)	Chang Yi-shu	(張翼樞)
Hu Mu-lan*	(席振華)	Chien Tuan-cheng	(錢端升)
Hsi Cheng-to	(何魯之)	T'ao Hsuan*	(陶玄)
Ho Lu-chih	(周恩來)	Wu Chi-mei	(伍智梅)
Chou En-lai	(梁秋溟)	Tan Pin-shan*	(譚平山)
Liang Shu-min	(端木愷)	Tung Pi-wu	(董必武)
Tuan Mu-kai	(于謙)	Hu Chiu-yuan	(胡秋原)
E. shop Yupin	(王曉籟)	Chang Hsi-jo	(張義台)
Wang Hsiao-lai	(章士釗)	Hsieh Ping-hsin*	(謝冰心)
Chang Shih-chao	(曹琦)	Hu Lin	(胡霖)
Tseng Chi	(晏陽初)	Mo Teh-hui	(莫德惠)
Yen Yang-chu	(林祖函)	Chen Po-sheng	(陳博生)
Lin Tsu-han	(成舍我)	Kiang I-ping	(江一平)
Cheng Sheh-ngo	(張之勤)	Wang Pu-han	(王普涵)
Chang Chun-mai	(錢永銘)	Hsi-jao-chia-tsuo	(聶鏡嘉措)
Chien Yung-ming	(張東蓀)	Chou Chien-chung	(周謙沖)
Chang Chi-yun	(陳逸雲)	Lu Kwang-sheng	(盧廣聲)
Chen Yi-yun*	(呂雲章)	Leng Pao-tung	(冷驤東)
Lu Yun-chang*			

Note: Those marked with * are woman members.

INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA

December, 1945

National Universities

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
National Central University	Shapingpa ..	Wu Yu-hsun ..	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 Northwestern University	Chengku, Shensi	Liu Chi-hung ...	—
National Sun Yat-sen University	Meih sien, Kwangtung	Chin Tseng-cheng (Acting)	Formerly in Ping-shhek
National University of Communications	Chungking . . .	Wu Pao-feng (Acting) . . .	Formerly in Shanghai, Branch school in Kweichow
National Tung-chi University	Nanchi, Szechuen	Hsu Sung-ming.	Formerly in Shanghai
National Chinan University	Kienyang, Fukien	Ho Ping-sung ..	Formerly in Chenju, near Shanghai
National Wuhan University	Loshan, Szechuen	Chou Keng-seng	Formerly in Wuchang
National Northeastern University	Santai, Szechuen	Chang Chi-fang.	Formerly in Shengyang, Liaoning
National Chekiang University	Tsunyi, Kweichow	Chu Ko-cheng	Formerly in Hangchow, Chekiang
National Szechuen University	Chengtu, Szechuen	Huang Chi-lu ..	—
National Hunan University	Shenchi, 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 Kwangsi University	Yunkiang, Kwangsi	Li Yun-hua ..	Formerly in Kweilin, Kwangsi ..
National Chung-cheng University	Ningtu, Kiangsi.	Hsiao chu .. .	Formerly in Taiho, Kiangsi, Established in 1940
National Honan University	Paochi, Shensi .	Tien Pei-ling ..	Formerly in Sungshien, Honan
National Fudan University	Peipei, Szechuen	Chang Yi	Formerly private in Shanghai

National Kweichow University	Kweiyang, Kweichow	Chang Ting-hsiu	Established in 1942
National Chungking University	Shapingpa, Szechuen	Chang Hung-yuan	—
National Shansi University	Ichow, Shensi	Wang Huai-ming	Formerly in Tai-yuan, Shansi
National Ying Shih University	Yunho, Chekiang	Tu Tsu-chow	

Private Universities

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Soochow University ..	Kukoaig, Kwangtung	Sheng Chengwei (Acting)	Formerly in Soochow, Kiangsu
University of Nanking	Chengtu, Szechuen	Cheng Yu-kuang	Formerly in Nanking
St. John's University	Shanghai	Z. L. Sung (Acting)	—
Tatung University ..	Shanghai	Hu Tun-fu (Acting)	---
Kwanghua University .	Shanghai	Chang Shou-yung	Branch in Chengtu
Great China University	Shanghai	Ou Yuan-huai .	Branch school in Ch'ih Shui, Kweichow
Yenching University ..	Chengtu, Szechuen	Mei Yi-pao (Acting) ..	Formerly in Peiping
Foo-Jen (Catholic) University	Peiping ..	Cheng Yuan-an	—
University of Shanghai	Shanghai	Lin Hsien-yang (Acting)	Night School
Associated College of Commerce and Law of Shanghai and Soochow Universities	Chungking	Lin Hsien-yang, Sheng Chengwei	---
Chung-Hua University of Wuchang	Chungking	—	Formerly in Wuchang
Lingnan University ..	Meih sien, Kwangtung	Li Ying-lin ..	Formerly in Canton
Kuomin University of Kwangtung	Ch'un Yang, Kwangtung ..	Wu Ting-hsin ..	Formerly in Canton
Franco-China University	Kunming	Li Lin-yu	Formerly in Peiping
Cheeloo University ..	Chengtu, Szechuen	Wu Ke-ming ..	Formerly in Tsinan
Central China University	Tali, Yunnan ..	Wei Cho-min ..	Formerly in Wuchang
University of Canton .	Hsianing, Kwangtung	Chen Ping-chuan	Formerly in Canton
Chen-Tan (Aurora) University	Shanghai	Hu Wen-yao ..	Maintained by Catholic Mission
West China Union University	Chengtu, Szechuen	Chang Ling-kao	—
Fukien Union University	Shaowu, Fukien	Lin Ching-jen ..	Formerly Fukien Union College at Foochow

GENERAL APPENDIX
National Independent Colleges

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
National Shanghai Medical College	Kol-shan, Chungking	Chu Heng-pi ..	Formerly in Shanghai
National Chung-cheng Medical College	Changting, Kiangsi	Wang Tsu-kan	Formerly in Nanchang
National Kiangsu Medical College	Peipei, Szechuen	Hu Ting-an ..	Formerly in Chinkiang, Kiangsu
National Northwestern College of Medicine	Lanchow, Kansu	Hou Chung-lien	Formerly in Nancheng, Shensi
National Hsiang Ya College of Medicine	Chungking . .	Chang Hsiao-chien	Formerly private in Changsha
National Teacher's College	Suipo, Hunan .	Liao Shih-cheng	Formerly in Anhua, Hunan
National Northwestern Teacher's College	Lanchow, Kansu	Lee Cheng . .	—
National Northwestern College of Engineering	Chengku, Shensi	Pan Chen-hsiao	Formerly College of Engineering of National University in Peiping
National Northwestern College of Agriculture	Wukung, Shensi	Tien Pei-lin ..	Formerly College of Agriculture of National University of Peiping
National Teacher's College for Women	Pei-sha, Kiang-ching, Szechuen	Hsieh Hsun-chu	—
National College of Social Education	Pishan, Szechuen	Chen Li-chiang .	—
National Kwei-yang Teacher's College	Kweiyang, Kweichow	Chi Pan-lin ..	—
National College of Commerce	Chienchen, Hunan	Chang Po-chin .	Branch school in Yuanlin, Hunan
National Kweilin Teacher's College	Ping-yueh, Kwangsi .	Tsao Cho-chung	Formerly in Kweilin
National Hupeh Teacher's College	Enshih, Hupeh	Wong T'ien-chi .	—
National Kan-su College	Lanchow	Sung Chio ..	Formerly Kansu Provincial College

Provincial Independent Colleges

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Sinkiang Provincial College	Tihua, Sinkiang	—	—
Sinkiang Provincial College for Women	Tihua, Sinkiang	Chiu Yu-fang ..	—
Kwangtung Provincial Hsiangchen College of Commerce	Hsinyi, Kwangtung	Huang Tien-yuan	Formerly in Kungkong, Kwangtung
Kwangtung Provincial College	Loting, 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	Li Ting-hsun . .	Formerly Provincial School of Medicine of Fukien . .
Kwangsi Provincial College of Medicine	Sankiang, Kwangsi	Yeh Pei (Acting)	Formerly in Kweilin
Fukien Provincial College of Agriculture	Yungan, Fukien	Yen Chia-hsien .	—
Hupei Provincial College of Agriculture	Enshih, Hupei .	Kuan Cheh-liang	Formerly Provincial School of Agriculture of Hupei
Hupei Provincial College of Medicine	Enshih, Hupei .	Chu Yu-pi . . .	—
Kiangsu Provincial College	Sanyuan, Fukien	Tai Ke-hsien . .	—
Anhui Provincial College	Lihuang, Anhwei	Chu Fu-ting . . .	—

Private Independent Colleges

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Shanghai College of Law and Political Science	Tunchi, Anhwei.	Li Hsu-yang (Acting) . .	—
Nantung College . . .	Shanghai	Cheng Yu (Acting)	Formerly in Nantung, Kiangsu
Chung-Kuo College . .	Peiping	Wang Cheng-ting	—
Chaoyang College . . .	Pahsien, Szechuen	Hsia Ch'in . . .	Formerly in Peiping
Shanghai College of Law	Hsiuning, Chekiang	Chu Feng-i (Acting) . .	Formerly in Shanghai Branch school in Wansien, Szechuen
Ginling College for Women	Chengtu, Szechuen	Wu I-fang . . .	Formerly in Nanking
Hangchow College . .	Shaowu, Fukien (1944) Chungking (1945)	Li Pei-en —	Formerly in Hangchow —
Fukien College	Minching, Fukien .	Kuo Kung-mu . .	—
Chen-Ming College of Arts	Shangjiao, Chekiang	Chiang Wei-chiao	Formerly Cheng-feng College in Shanghai
Min-kuo College of Peiping	Anhua, Hunan . .	Lu Tang-ping . .	Formerly in Peiping
Hua-Nan College for Women	Nanping, Fukien	Wang Shih-ching	Formerly in Fochow
Tientsin College of Engineering and Commerce	Tientsin	Liu Pin (Acting)	—
Women's Medical College of Shanghai	Shanghai	Lao Ho-li (Acting)	—

Tung-teh College of Medicine	Shanghai	Ku Yu-chi . .	—
Southeastern College of Medicine	Shanghai	Kuo Chi-yuan .	—
Kuang-Hua College of Medicine	Macao . .	Chen Yen-fen ..	Formerly in Canton
Nan-Hua College . .	Meih sien, Kwangtung	Yen Lu-chai ..	—
Szechuen-Sikang College of Agriculture and Engineering	Chengtu, Szechuen	Wei Sze-luan ..	—
Ming-Hsien College ..	Chintang, Szechuen	Yang Wei	—
Peiping Union Medical College	Peiping ...	—	—
College of Rural Reconstruction of China	Pahsien, Szechuen	Yen Yang-chu .	Established in 1940
Ta-Jen College of Commerce	Tientsin ..	—	—

National Technical Schools

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
National School of Music	Pih sien, Chungking	Wu Fo-tsao ..	—
National Shanghai School of Music	Pih sien, Chungking	Tai Sui-lun ..	—
National School of Fine Arts	Chungking . .	Pan Tien-shou .	—
National Central Technical and Vocational School of Industries	Chungking . .	Wei Yuan-kuang	Formerly in Nanking
National School of Pharmacy	Chungking . .	Hsueh Yu . . .	Formerly in Nanking
National Teacher's School of Physical Education	Peipei, Szechuen	Chang Tze-kiang	—
National Central School of Technology	Loshan, Szechuen	Chang I-tseng (Acting)	—
National Northwestern School of Agriculture	Lanchow, Kansu	Tseng Tsi-kuan .	—
National Tzukung School of Industries	Tzukung, Szechuen	Ma Chieh .. .	—
National School of Technology of Sikang	Sichang, Sikang	Lai Cho-wen ..	—
National School of Drama	Peipei, Szechuen	Yu Shang-yuan.	Formerly in Nanking
National Frontier School	Chungking . .	Wang Yen-kang	—
National Teacher's School of Physical Education	Kiangching, Szechuen	Kiang Liangkwei	—

National School of Oriental Languages	Chungking . .	Yao Nan . . .	
National Fukien School of Music	Yunan, Fukien .	Tang Hsueh-yung	Formerly Provincial School of Music of Fukien
National School of Hydraulic Engineering	Paochi, Shensi .	Liu Te-jeu . .	Formerly in Cheng-ping, Honan

Provincial Technical Schools

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Chekiang Provincial School of Medicine and Pharmacy	Linhai, Chekiang	Wang Chi . . .	—
Kiangsi Provincial School of Industries	Yutu, Kiangsi .	Li Yu-hsiang . .	Formerly in Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial School of Medicine	Ningtu, Kiangsi	Hsiung Chuan .	Formerly in Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial School of Veterinary Science	Kiangsi . . .	Wang Cheng-chun	—
Shantung Provincial School of Medicine .	Wanhsien, Szechuen	Yin Hsin-nung	Formerly in Tsinan
Shensi Provincial School of Medicine .	Sian, Shensi . .	Chang Nai-hua	—
Kiangsu Provincial School of Sericulture	Chiating, Szechuen	Cheng Pi-kiang	Formerly in Shanghai
Fukien Provincial Normal School	Nanping, Fukien	Li Lee-chow . .	—
Kwangtung Provincial School of Fine Arts	Loting, Kwangtung	Chao Ju-ling . .	Formerly in Kungkong, Kwangtung
Szechuen Provincial School of Fine Arts	Chengtu, Szechuen	Li Yu-hsin (Acting)	—
Shensi Provincial School of Commerce	Sian, Shensi . .	Li Hsun . . .	—
Shensi Provincial Normal School	Sian, Shensi . .	Hau Yao-tung .	—
Szechuen Provincial School of Accounting	Chengtu, Szechuen	Wang Ying-chu.	—
Kiangsi Provincial Teacher's School of Physical Education	Kiangsi .	Yu Yung-cho	—
Kiangsi Provincial School of Agriculture	Wuhan . .	Chan Chen-chieh	—
Yunnan Provincial School of English Language	Kunmin, Yunnan	Hsui Tien-tung .	—
Kwangtung Provincial School of Industries	Kwangtung . .	Tan Mong-hsin .	—
Szechuen Provincial School of Physical Education	Chengtu, Szechuen	Yuan Chun . .	—

GENERAL APPENDIX
Private Technical Schools

<i>Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Li Hsin School of Accounting	Peipei, Szechuen	Pan Hsu-lun ..	Formerly in Shanghai
Soochow School of Fine Arts	Shanghai	Yen Wen-liang .	Formerly in Soochow
Chiu Ching School of Commerce	Chungking . . .	Yang Chung-hsi	—
Northwestern School of Pharmacy	Sian, Shensi . .	Hsueh Tao-wu .	—
Shanghai English School	Shanghai	Chin Wei-cheng	—
Kiangsu Cheng-Tsei School of Fine Arts	Pishan, Szechuen	Lu Feng-tse ...	—
Chung-Huei School of Commerce	Chungking . . .	Chin Tsu-mou .	Night school
Chu-Tsai School of Agriculture	Chungking . . .	—	—
Hua-chung School of Industries and Commerce	Chungking . . .	—	—
Wushih School of Chinese Classics	Peiliu, Kwangsi.	Feng Cheng (Acting)	Branch School in Shanghai
Wen-Hua (Bonne) Library School	Kiangpei, Chungking	Shen Tsu-yung.	Formerly in Wuchang
Wuchang School of Fine Arts	Kiangching, Szechuen	Chang Chao-ming	Formerly in Wuchang
Far East School of Physical Education	Shanghai	Chen Meng-yu .	—
Shanghai School of Fine Arts	Shanghai	Hsieh Hai-yen (Acting)	—
Hsin Hua School of Fine Arts	Shanghai	Wang Ya-chen (Acting)	—

**EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS REGISTERED
WITH THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION**

December, 1945

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Year of Registration</i>	<i>Names of Responsible persons</i>	<i>Address</i>
Sino-French, Belgian and Swiss Cultural Association	Sept., 1939	Wu Ching-heng Mao Ching-hsiang	24 Shun Cheng Kai, Ling Kiang Men, Chungking
Chinese Popular Cultural Institute	Nov., 1938	Yao Kiang-Pin Po Yuan-cheng	Chen Lu, Shih Miao Tze, Chungking
Chinese Scientific Movement Association	Aug., 1933	Chen Li-fu Chang Po-hai	c/o Mr. Hsu Ke-chun, No. 282 Kuo Fu Lu, Chungking
Sun Yat-sen Institute	May, 1935	Liang Han-chao Hsu En-tseng Wang Sou-fang.	3 Chang Chia Garden, Chungking
Northeastern Youth Society	July, 1940	Li Yin-chun.	B 10 Li Tze Pa, Chungking
Diplomatic Problem Research Society	Mar., 1940	Wang Chung-hsi Chang Tao-hsin, Huang Cheng-ming	c/o Mr. Chang Tao-hsin, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Chungking
Chinese Labour Problem Society	Apr., 1939	Wu Wen-tien	164 Chung Cheng Road, Chungking
Northwestern Construction Association	Sept., 1935	Chen Li-fu	14 Chun Sen Road, Chungking
Chinese Frontier Research Society	July, 1939	Chang Hsi-mei	Box 255, Chungking
Chinese Frontier Culture Promotion Society	Mar., 1939	Chen Li-fu Ma Liang	Northeastern Resistance and Construction Association, Tung Yuan Men, Chungking
Chinese Ethnological Society	1936	Huang Wen-shan, Ling Shun-sheng, Ho Lien-Kwei	c/o Mr. Hsu Yi-tang, University of Nanking, Chengtu, Szechuen
Chinese Frontier Society.	Mar., 1942	Ku Chueh-kang	1 Tai Chia Yuan Tze, Hsiao Lung Kan, Chungking
Chinese Frontier Problem Research Society	Nov., 1942	Chu Yuan-Mou.	c/o Ministry of Education
Chinese Wartime Social Problem Research Society	Jan., 1943	Lo Wei	c/o Mr. Lo Wei, Ministry of Social Affairs
South Seas Research Society	Nov., 1945	Huang Yin-yung Chen Chin-chung	Chungking
Chinese Science Institute	—	Wong Wen-hao Yang Hsiao-shu	533 Albert Road, Shanghai
Chinese Geological Society	1936	Ing Tsan-Hsun	Peipei, Palsien, Szechuen

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Year of Registration</i>	<i>Names of Responsible persons</i>	<i>Address</i>
Chinese Chemical Society	Aug., 1933	Wu Cheng-lo	c/o Mr. Kao Tsi-yu, National Central University, Chungking
Chinese Meteorological Society	1925	Chu Ko-cheng	Box 200 Peipei, Szechuen
Chinese Geographical Society	—	Hong Wen-hao Hu Huan-yung	c/o National Central University, Chungking
Chung Hwa Mathematics Research Society	1929	Yu Kai-shih	c/o Ginling Girls' College, Chengtu
Chinese Weights and Measures Society	Nov., 1930	Wu Cheng-lo	56 Hsin Tsun, Peipei, Szechuen
Chung Hwa Natural Science Institute	June, 1939	Tu Chang-ming	c/o Central University, Szechuen
Chinese Astronomical Society	1930	Yu Ching-sung Chen Cheng-wei	20 Hsiao Tung Cheng Chiao, Kunming
Chinese Physics Society	1932	Wu Yu-hsun	National Southwest Associated University, Kunming
New China Mathematics Society	Feb., 1942	Ch'iang Li-fu	Box 96, Kunming
West China Science Institute	Aug., 1943	Lu Tso-fu	Peipei, Szechuen
Chung Hwa Agricultural Society	1930	Liang Hsi	National Central University, Chungking
Chung Hwa Forestry Society	1929	Yao Chuan-fa	c/o Mr. Yao Chuan-fa, Legislative Yuan, Peipei, Szechuen
Chinese Institute of Engineers	1933	Chen Li-fu Ku Yu-hsiu	B 194 Shang Nan Chu Road, Chungking
Chinese Hydraulic Engineering Society	1935	Shen Pai-hsien	I Lu, Fang Nu Ping, Ching Hsui Ki, South Bank, Chungking
Chinese Mechanical Engineering Society	1936	Chuang Chien-ting	71 North Gate Street, Kunming
Chinese Chemical Engineering Society	June, 1930	Chang Hung-yuan	National Szechuen University, Chengtu, Szechuen
Chinese Institute of Civil Engineers	July, 1936	Hsia Kuang-yu	National College of Agriculture and Engineering of Kweichow
Yellow Sea Research Institute of Chemical Engineering	June, 1939	Fan Jui	Wu Tung Chiao, Szechuen
Chinese Architectural Society	Apr., 1932	Liang Szu-cheng	Hsin Kuo An, Mai Ti Tsun, Lung Chuan Cheng, Kunming
Chinese Institute of Electrical Engineers	Dec., 1936	Chang Ting-chin	c/o Ministry of Education
Society of Chinese Architects	Nov., 1942	Tung Ta Yu	
Chinese Medical Association	Oct., 1931	Shih Szu-ming	National Health Administration, Hsin Chiao, Chungking

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Year of Registration</i>	<i>Names of Responsible persons</i>	<i>Address</i>
Chinese Medical Education Society	Nov., 1938	Chen Yue . Li Yi .	Chinese Medicine Hospital, Fu Tse Chih, Chungking
Chinese and Foreign Medical Research Institute	1935	Kao Teh-ming Sung Ta-jen Hung Chih-tze Pao Hsin-cheng	33 Lane 235, Yu Yuen Road, Shanghai
Chinese Medicine Self-supporting Research Society	1941	Chen Shui-chi	Ta Yang Kung Chiao, Shapingpa, Chungking
Chinese Society of Pharmacy	Oct., 1942	Chen Pu	Shih Pi Shan Chiao, Hsin Chiao, Chungking
Chinese Nurses' Society	Dec., 1942	Hsu Ai-chu	Koloshan, Chungking
Chinese Preventive Medicine Research Institute	1940	Hu Ting-an	Kiangsu Medical College, Peipei, Szechuen
Research Institute of Tropical Diseases	1923	Hung Shih-lu	36 Chung Shan Road, Peipei Szechuen
Chinese Society of Philosophy	Oct., 1942	Ho Lin	National Southwest Associated University, Kunming
Chinese Classics Institute	Dec., 1940	Ku Shih	Futan University, Peipei, Chungking
Chung Hwa Society of Fine Arts	—	Chang Tao-fan	Central Political Institute, South Spring, Chungking
Chinese Society of English	July, 1942	Yang Yu-yun	68 Lien Kwan Kung So Kai, Chengtu
Chinese Economic Reconstruction Association	Jan., 1940	Huang Po-Chiao Shen Yi . Wu Yun-chu	Hong Kong
Chinese Society of Land Administration	Jan., 1933	Hsiao Cheng	Hung Lu, Shang Ching Tse, Chungking
Chinese Auditing Society	July, 1937	Yang Ju-mei	Bureau of Budget, Comptroller-General's Office, National Government
Chinese Statistics Society	Feb., 1930	Wu Ta-chun Chu Chun-yi	Bureau of Statistics, Comptroller - General's Office, National Government
Chung Hwa Political Economics Society	July, 1933	Chu I-fai . Lu Tung-sun Chen Yao-tung	1 Chiao Lu, Chung I Road, Chungking
Chinese Political Science Society	Sept., 1932	Wang Shih-chieh Han Li-wu . Chou Keng-seng	Yu Chuan Building, Liang Lu Kou, Chungking
Chinese Economics Society	1923	Ma Yin-chu	
Examination Administration Society of China	Feb., 1935	Chu Lei-chang Huang Wen-chi	c/o Mr. Huang Wen-chi, Ministry of Education
Chinese Society of Law	Oct., 1928	Ho Yuan-ming Mao Yung . Shen Heng-shan	Footung Building, Edward Avenue, Shanghai

<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Year of Registration</i>	<i>Names of Responsible persons</i>	<i>Address</i>
Administrative Problem Research Institute of China	Jan., 1939	Chang Chi-fang	30 Shih Yeh Kai, Chengtu
Chinese Cooperative Society	Oct., 1935	Chen Kuo-fu Wang Shih-ying	Pai Hao Ling, South Spring, Chungking
Chinese Society of Sociology	Nov., 1930	Wu Che-lin	Great China University, Kweiyang
Chung Hwa Auditing Society	June, 1939	Yu Wei-yuan	83 Liang Fu Chih Road, Chungking
Chinese Political Reconstruction Society	Mar., 1939	Tien Yu-shih	12 Sze Teh Li, Chung I Road, Chungking
Chinese Rural Economics Research Institute	May, 1940	Leng Yung	3 Lo Chia Wan, Chungking
Chinese Psychological Reconstruction Society	Dec., 1942	Wang Han-sen	204 Cheng Hsien Tung Kai, Chungking
Chinese Political Science Research Society	Aug., 1943	Chang Tao-hsin	Chi Ming Fang, Chung Erh Road, Chungking
Chinese Local Autonomy Association	1935	Li Chung-huang	Chungking
Chung Hwa Vocational Education Society	June, 1931	Huang Yen-pei. Chien Yung-ming	56 Chang Chia Garden, Chungking
Chinese Social Education Society	1922	Yu Ching-tang. Liang Shu-min.	Textile Experimental Centre, Sung Kai, Chungking
Chung Hwa Child Education Society	1929	Ma K'o-tan. Chen Hao-chin	Chungking Normal School, Peipei, Chungking
Chinese Society of Education		Chang Tao-shih	c/o Ministry of Education
Chinese Society of Education for People's Livelihood	1936	Shao Shang-chiu	70 Chang Chia Garden, Chungking
Chinese Society of Geographical Education	1936	Hu Huan-yung	National Central University, Chungking
Chinese Society of Educational Motion Picture	July, 1932	Chen Li-fu. Chang Tao-fan. Pan Kung-chan	112 Chung Szu Road, Chungking
Chinese Society of Tests and Measurements	Mar., 1931	Ai Wei. Hsiao Hsiao-yung	National Central University, Chungking
Chinese Society of Health Education	1935	Chen Kuo-fu	Chien Kuo Book Store, Peipei, Szechuen
Society of Education for Life	Dec., 1938	Tao Hsin-chih	146 Box, Kweilin
Szechuen Popular Education Promotion Society	Mar., 1939	Kao Hsien-chien. Wu Tai-jen	Kiangtsin, Szechuen
Chinese Society of Mental Hygiene	Apr., 1936	Wu Nai-hsien	National Futang University, Peipei, Chungking
Chung Hwa Society of Library	Dec., 1928	Yuan Tung-li	Office of National Library of Peiping, Shapingpa, Chungking
Contemporary Education Research Society	Feb., 1942	Wang Wen-hsin	c/o Mr. Wang Wen-hsin, Ministry of Education

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<i>Name of Organization</i>	<i>Year of Registra-</i>	<i>Names of Res- ponsible persons</i>	<i>Address</i>
Chinese Society of Boy Scout Education	Jan., 1944	Wu Chao-tang	c/o Mr. Wu Chao-tang, Central Training Camp, Chungking
Chinese Physical Exercise Research Society	Aug., 1937	Chang Chih- kiang	National Teacher's School of Physical Exercise, Peipei, Szechuen
Chung Hwa Physical Education Society	Mar., 1936	Ho King-sheng	Ministry of Education
Chung Hwa Deaf and Blind Society	July, 1937	Ho Yu-lin	320 Park Road, Shanghai
Research Institute of Science for National Defence	Dec., 1944	Wan I	Chungking
Chinese Association of Educational Bodies	Aug., 1945	Chang Pe-ling	National Central University, Chungking
Research Institute of Overseas Chinese Education	Dec., 1945	—	Chungking
Fan Memorial Institute of Biology	Aug., 1945	Tung Chih-chin	Chungking

CHINESE DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE ABROAD

(March, 1945)

Afghanistan

Kabul	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Tsou Shang-yu
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Arabia

Jidda	<i>Consulate</i> Vice-consul in charge	Wang Shih-ming
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Argentina

Buenos Aires	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary . .	Chen Chieh
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Australia

Canberra	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Cheng Ye-tung
Sydney	<i>Consulate-General</i> Additional Vice-consul in charge	K. D. Hung
Melbourne	<i>Offices</i> Vice-consul	L. M. Wang
Perth	Consul	D. T. Lee

Belgium

Brussels	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary . .	Wunsz King
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Brazil

Rio de Janeiro	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary . .	Ching Tien-ku
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British Empire

<i>Embassy</i>		
London	Ambassador Plenipotentiary . .	V. K. Wellington Koo
New Delhi, India . .	1st Secretary in charge . .	Hsueh Shou Heng
<i>Consulates-General</i>		
London	Consul-General	Tan Pao-shen
Johannesburg S. Africa	"	Chao-ying Shih
Calcutta, India . . .	"	Chen Chick-ping
Wellington, New Zealand	"	Wang Feng
Rangoon	"	Yin Lu-Kwang
Singapore, F.M.S. . .	"	Kao Ling Pai
<i>Consulates</i>		
Liverpool, England . .	Consul	Lo Ming Shan
Bombay, India	"	Li Chin
Kingston, Jamaica . .	"	Hong Check-Kwang
Port of Spain, Trinidad	"	Chou Ting-chuan
Colombo, Ceylon . . .	"	Yang Mien-huang
George Town, British Guiana	"	Liang Shao-wen
Mauritius, Africa . .	"	Cheng Shao En
<i>Vice-Consulates</i>		
Manchester, England . .	Chancellor in Charge	Keneth H. C. Lo
Suva, Fiji Island . . .	Vice-consul	Ven-chi Tsang
Apia, Samoan Island . .	"	Cheng Chia-hua

Canada

<i>Embassy</i>		
Ottawa	Ambassador Plenipotentiary . .	Liu Shih-shun
Vancouver	Consulate-General	Li Chao
Toronto	"	Hsung Ying-tso
<i>Consulate</i>		
Winnipeg	Consul	Wen-tao Weng

Chile

<i>Legation</i>		
Santiago	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Chaucer H. Wu

Colombia

<i>Legation</i>		
Bogota	Minister to Cuba in charge . .	Ti-tsun Li

Costa Rica

<i>Legation</i>		
San Jose . .	Concurrently Minister to Panama	Yuen-tan Tu

Cuba

<i>Legation</i>		
Havana	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Ti-tsun Li
<i>Consulate-General</i>		
Havana . . .	Consul in charge	Liou Kia Kui

Czechoslovakia

<i>Embassy</i>		
Praha	Ambassador to Belgium in charge	Wunsz King

Dominica

<i>Legation</i>		
Ciudad Trujillo . .	Minister to Cuba in charge . .	Ti-tsun Li

Egypt

<i>Legation</i>		
Cairo .	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Hiu Nien-tseng
<i>Consulate</i>		
Alexandria . .	Consul	Chen Kai-mou

France

<i>Embassy</i>		
Paris	Ambassador Plenipotentiary	Tsien Tai
<i>Consulates-General</i>		
Hanoi, Indo-china	Vice-consul in charge	William E. Chu
Tahiti, Society Island	Consul-General	Yao Ting-chen
<i>Consulates</i>		
Marseilles	Consul	Tcheng Tchoung-kuan
Tananarive, Madagascar	"	Kou Chao Fing
Saigon, Indo-China	"	Ing Fong-tsao

Guatemala

<i>Consulate-General</i>		
Guatemala City	Consul-General	Tchou Che-tsien

Holy See

<i>Legation</i>		
Vatican	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Cheou-Kang Sie

Honduras

<i>Legation</i>		
Tegucigalpa	Concurrently Minister to Panama	Yuen-tan Tu

Iran

<i>Embassy</i>		
Teheran	Ambassador Plenipotentiary	Li Tieh-tseng
<i>Consulate</i>		
Meshed	Consul	Tien Pao-chi

Iraq

<i>Legation</i>		
Baghdad	Ambassador to Iran in charge	Li Tieh-tseng

Italy

	<i>Embassy</i>	
Rome	Charge d'Affaires	Sih Kwang-tsien

Mexico

	<i>Embassy</i>	
Mexico City	Ambassador Plenipotentiary	C. T. Feng
	<i>Consulate</i>	
Tampico	Consul	Jonyor Liao Sung-yang
	<i>Vice-Consulates</i>	
Mexicali	Vice-consul	Mao Chi-hsien
Mazatlan	"	L. M. Shen Ming
Tapachula	"	Tsung Woo Ding

Netherlands

	<i>Embassy</i>	
The Hague	Ambassador Plenipotentiary	L. Tung
	<i>Consulate-General</i>	
Batavia, Java	Consul-General	Tsiang Chia-tung
	<i>Consulate</i>	
Willemstad, Cauraco	Consul	She Zaubeh
	<i>Vice-Consulate</i>	
Paramaribo, Dutch Guiana	Vice-consul	Su Sang-chi

Nicaragua

	<i>Consulate-General</i>	
Managua	Consul-General	Z. T. Ing

Norway

	<i>Embassy</i>	
Oslo	Ambassador to Belgium in charge	Wunsz King

Panama

Panama City	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Yuen-tan Tu
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Peru

Lima . . .	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary	Chun Jien Pao
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Poland

London	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador to Belgium in charge	Wunsz King
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Portugal

Lisbon	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Henry K. Chang Chien
Lisbon	<i>Consulate-General</i> Concurrently Consul-General First Secretary	Hsien-tseng Yang

Salvador

San Salvador	<i>Legation</i> Concurrently Minister to Panama	Yuen-tan Tu
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Sweden

Stockholm	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Wei-lin Hsieh
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Switzerland

Berne	<i>Legation</i> Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Lone Liang
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GENERAL APPENDIX

Turkey

Ankara	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary	Hsu Mo
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VENEZUELA

Caracas	<i>Legation</i> Minister to Cuba in charge	Ti-tsun Li
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U.S.S.R.

Moscow	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary	P. S. Foo
<i>Consulates-General</i>		
Vladivostok	Consul-General	Thang Tai-tien
Blagovestchensk	Vice-consul in charge	Li Shih-kuei
Khabarovsk	Consul-General	Lou Fong
Tashkent	"	Chin Shao-fen
Novo-Sibirsk	Consul in charge	Hsu Teh-kwang
<i>Consulates</i>		
Chita	Consul	Shen Wei-fan
Alamatu	"	Yin Ken-hu
Andijan	Student-consul in charge	Tsai Pa
Zaizan	Consul	Sun Wen-tou
Semipalatinsk	Student-consul in charge	Chang Chien

United States of America

Washington, D. C.	<i>Embassy</i> Ambassador Plenipotentiary	Wei Tao-ming
<i>Consulates-General</i>		
San Francisco	Consul-General	Tse-chang K. Chang
New York	"	T'ung-chi Yu
Chicago	"	Chang-lok Chen
Honolulu	"	Mui King-chow
Manila	"	Mao-lan Tan
<i>Consulates</i>		
Seattle	Consul	Yi-seng Kiang
Portland	"	Silwing P. C. Au
Los Angeles	Vice-consul in charge	Tsao Kuo-pin
New Orleans	Consul	Wang Gung-hsing
Houston	Vice-consul in charge	Yu Sien Yung
Boston	"	Wang Kung-shau

FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC SERVICE IN CHINA

December 1945

Ambassadors

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Date of Assumption of Office</i>
Great Britain ..	H. E. Sir Horace James Seymour .. .	Mar. 7, 1942
Netherlands ..	H. E. Mr. A.H.J. Lovink .. .	Apr. 23, 1943
Canada . . .	H. E. Major-General Victor Odlum .. .	Mar. 16, 1944
Brazil . . .	H. E. Mr. Joaquim Eulalio do Nascimento e Silva	June 12, 1944
Turkey .. .	H. E. Mr. Hulusi Foat Tugay .. .	June 12, 1944
Czechoslovakia	H. E. Mr. Stanislav Minovsky .. .	Oct. 26, 1944
Belgium .. .	H. E. Mr. Jacques Delvaux de Fenffe .. .	Jan. 9, 1945
Iran .. .	H. E. Mr. S. Ali Nasar .. .	Feb. 20, 1945
U.S.S.R. .. .	H. E. Mr. A. A. Petrov .. .	May 8, 1945
Mexico .. .	H. E. Major-General Heliodoro Escalante Ramirez	—
Argentina .. .	H. E. Dr. Jose Arce .. .	Dec. 4, 1945
France .. .	H. E. Mr. Jacques Meyrier .. .	Nommé
Italy .. .	H. E. Mr. Fransonni .. .	Nommé

Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary

Sweden .. .	H. E. Mr. Sven Allard .. .	Dec. 20, 1944
Australia .. .	H. E. Dr. Douglas Berry Copland C.M.G. ..	Nommé
Portugal .. .	H. E. Mr. Alberto da Veiga Simoes .. .	Nommé

Charges d'Affairs a.i.

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Date of Assumption of Office</i>
Iran .. .	Mr. Asghar Parsa .. .	Apr. 25, 1945
U.S.A. .. .	The Honorable Walter S. Robertson .. .	Sept. 21, 1945
Australia .. .	Mr. Patrick Shaw .. .	Oct. 25, 1945
Portugal .. .	Dr. Joao Rodrigues Affra .. .	Nov. 5, 1945
Norway .. .	Mr. T. A. Rustad .. .	Dec. 3, 1945
Argentina .. .	Mr. Eduardo Squirru .. .	Dec. 5, 1945
France .. .	Mr. Jean Daridan .. .	Dec. 14, 1945

Special Agent

India .. .	The Honorable Kumar Padma Silvesankara Menon	Oct. 10, 1943
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GENERAL APPENDIX

Argentine

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
H. E. Dr. Jose Arce	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary (Absent)	Mme. Arce (Absent)
Lt. Colonel Octoio A. Soria ...	Military Attaché	—
Mr. Eduardo Squirru .. .	Charge d'Affairs a.i. . . .	—

Australia

H. E. Dr. Douglas Berry Cop- land, C.M. G.	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary (Nommé)	— —
Mr. Patrick Shaw .. .	First Secretary	Mme. Shaw (Absent)
Mr. Charles Lee	Charge d'Affairs a.i. . . .	—
Mr. F. B. Hall	Second Secretary	—
Mr. F. B. Hall	Third Secretary	—
Mr. W. H. Bray	Attaché	—

Belgium

H. E. Mr. Jacques Delvaux de Fenffe	Ambassador Extraordinary and plenipotentiary	Mme. Delvaux de Fenffe (Absent)
Mr. R. Rothchild .. .	First Secretary	Mme. R thschild (Absent)
Mr. Joseph Pieters	Second Secretary	Mme. Pieters
Mr. Maurice Thiry	Secretary	Mme. Thiry (Absent)

Brazil

H. E. Mr. Joaquim Eulalio do Nascimento e Silva	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mme. J. Eu'elio (Absent)
Mr. M. B. Peixoto de Magalhaes	Second Secretary	—

Canada

H. E. Major-General Victor Odum	Ambassador Extraord'nary and Plenipotentiary	—
Dr. George S. Patterson .. .	Counsellor (Absent) . . .	—
Brigadier William N. Bostock	Military Attaché	—
Mr. Chester Ronning	First Secretary	—
Mr. Peter G. R. Campbell .. .	Third Secretary	—

Czechoslovakia

Names	Ranks	Dames
H. E. Mr. Stanislav Minovsky	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mme. Minovska (Absent)
Lt.-Colonel Jaroslav Sustr.	Military and Air Attaché	—
Jaroslav Stepan	Secretary	Mme. Stepanova
Mr. Emanuel Mazac	Secretary	—

France

H. E. Mr. Jacques Meyrier	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary (Nommé)	—
Mr. Jean Daridan	First Counsellor Charge d'Affairs	—
Mr. Andre Guibaut	Second Counsellor (Nommé)	—
Col. Louis Tapie	Air Attaché	—
Mr. Jacques Roux	First Secretary	—
Mr. Jean Keim	Chief of the Information Service	—
Major Jacques Guillerymaz	Military Attaché p.i.	—
Mr. A. Granger	Cultural Attaché	—
Mr. Pierre Pelen	Second Secretary	—
Mr. Jean Brethes	Second Secretary	Mme. Brethes
Mr. Roger Pignol	Press Attaché	—
Mr. Jacques de Buzon	Secretary	—
Mr. Guillaume de Vernidy	Vice-Consul (Nommé)	—
Mr. Jean de Dianous	Third Secretary	—
Mr. Henri Lestquoy	Attaché	—
Mr. Nicolas Fieschi	Attaché	—

Great Britain

H. E. Sir Horace James Seymour K.C.M.G., C.V.O.	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Lady Seymour
Mr. Geoffrey Arnold Wallinger	Counsellor	Mme. Wallinger
Captain E. W. Bilyard-leake D.S.O., R.N.	Naval Attaché	—
Brigadier-General L. F. Field	Military Attaché	—
Air Commodore G. Bartholomew, R.A.F.	Air Attaché	Mme. Bartholomew
Mr. J. C. Hutchison, O.B.E.	Counsellor (Commercial)	Mme. Hutchison (Absent)
Mr. L. H. Lamb, O.B.E.	Counsellor	Mme. Lamb (Absent)
Mr. W. H. Evans-Thomas, O.B.E.	Counsellor	Mme. Thomas (Absent)
Sir Allan Mossop	Counsellor (Legal)	Lady Mossap (Absent)

Names	Ranks	Dames
Professor P. M. Roxby	Counsellor	Mme. Roxby
Dr. Joseph Needham	Counsellor	Mme. Needham
Mr. H. M. Eyres	First Secretary	—
Lt.-Col. W. G. Harmon	First Secretary	—
Mr. Stanley Smith	First Secretary	—
	(Chief of the Information Service)	Mme. Smith (Absent)
Mr. E. R. Talamo	Adviser to Counsellor (Commercial)	—
Colonel A. G. Clark	Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Clark
Mr. P. D. Coates	First Secretary	—
Mr. J. Y. Mackenzie	Second Secretary	—
Mr. A.H.B. Hermann	Second Secretary	—
	(Assistant to Commercial Counsellor)	Mme. Hermann (Absent)
Major D. Fraser	Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Fraser (Absent)
Wing Commander N. P. Simmons	Assistant Air Attaché ..	—
Mr. J. F. Crawshaw	Assistant Press Attaché ..	Mme. Crawshaw (Absent)
Mr. Cecil Lowe	Assistant Press Attaché ..	—
Mr. H. A. Martin	Assistant Press Attaché ..	Mme. Martin (Absent)

Iran

H. E. Mr. S. Ali Nasar	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary (Absent)	—
Mr. Asghar Parsa	Second Secretary	—
	Charge d'Affairs a.i.	—

Italy

H. E. Mr. Frasoni	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary (Nommé)	—
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India

Mr. Kumar Padma Sivesankara Menon	Agent-General for India	Mme. Menon
Major A. Napier	First Secretary	—
Capt. R. D. Sathe	Second Secretary	—
Mr. K. E. Mathew	Press Adviser	—

Mexico

Names	Ranks	Dames
H. E. Mapor-General Heliodoro Escalante Ramirez	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	—
Col. F. Pamanes Escobedo ..	Military Attaché	—
Mr. Alfonso Castro Valle ..	First Secretary	—

Netherlands

H. E. Mr. A.H.J. Lovink ..	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mme. Lovink
Mr. Jan van den Berg ..	Minister Counsellor	Mme. van den Berg (Absent)
Mr. L. Stark	Counsellor (Commercial)	Mme. Stark
Dr. R. H. van Gulik	First Secretary	Mme. van Gulik
Major D. van den Brandeler ..	Military Attaché a.i. ..	—
Mr. Th. F. Valck Lucassen ..	Second Secretary	—
Baron C. W. van Boetzelaer ..	Second Secretary (Nommé)	—
Mr. J. D. Carriere	Attaché	Mme. Carriere

Norway

H. E. Mr. Nicolai Aall	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary (Nommé)	—
Mr. Rolf Rose-Anderssen ..	Counsellor (Commercial)	—
Mr. T. A. Rustad	Secretary (Commercial)	—
	Charge d'Affairs a.i. ..	—

Poland

Mr. Deren'cz	Charge d'Affairs (Nommé)	—
Mr. Tablonski	Counsellor (Nommé) ..	—

Portugal

Dr. Joao Rodrigues Affra ..	Charge d'Affairs a.i. ..	Mme. Rodrigues Affra (Absent)
Mr. J. Fausto das Chagas ..	Secretary-Interpreter ..	Mme. Chagas
Mr. Mario R. das Chagas ..	Attaché	

Sweden

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
H. E. Mr. Sven Allard ..	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	Mme. Allard
Mr. P.T.H. Pripp	First Secretary	—
Mr. Sten Gosta Ronnhedh ..	Commercial Secretary ..	—

Turkey

H. E. Mr. Hulusi Foat Tugay .	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mme. Tugay
Mr. Necdet Ozmen	Second Secretary	—
Mr. Ercumend Tataragasi ..	Second Secretary	—

United States of America

The Honorable Walter S. Robertson	Minister-Counselor Charge d'Affairs a.i.	Mme. Robertson (Absent)
Mr. Robert L. Smyth	Counselor	Mme. Smyth
Capt. William T. Kenny USN ..	Naval Attaché and Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mme. Kenny (Absent)
Col. Henry A. Byroade, GSC,	Military Attaché	Mme. Byroade (Absent)
Lt.-Col. Otto R. Haney, A.C. . .	Military Attaché of the Air Force	Mme. Haney
Mr. Owen L. Dawson	Agricultural Attaché	Mme. Dawson (Absent)
Mr. A. Bland Calder	Commercial Attaché	Mme. Calder (Absent)
Mr. Solomon Adler	Financial Attaché	Mme. Adler (Absent)
Mr. Neil A. Gorman	Petroleum Attaché	Mme. Gorman (Absent)
Mr. Melville H. Walker	Commercial Attaché	Mme. Walker (Absent)
Mr. Knight Biggerstaff	Chinese Secretary	Mme. Biggerstaff (Absent)
Mr. J. Hall Paxton	Second Secretary	Mme. Paxton (Absent)
Mr. Harry E. Stevens	Second Secretary	—
Mr. Harvey L. Milbourne	Second Secretary	Mme. Milbourne (Absent)
Mr. Ralph J. B'ake	Second Secretary	—
Mr. Charles S. Millet	Second Secretary	Mme. Millet (Absent)
Mr. John F. Melby	Second Secretary	Mme. Melby (Absent)
Mr. Edward D. Cuffe	Economic Analyst	Mme. Cuffe (Absent)
Mr. Edward Anderberg	Economic Analyst	—
Mme. Wilma C. Fairbank	Officer of Cultural Relation	—

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
Capt. Thomas V. Z. Gudex USN	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mme. Gudex (Absent)
Lt.-Col. Wm. R. Wendt USMC ..	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mme. Wendt (Absent)
Commander Wilfred G. MacDonald USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mme. MacDonald (Absent)
Commander Gould H. Thomas USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	—
Major Sobert B. Rigg, AUS	Assistant Military Attaché (Nommé)	—
Major Roy P. McNair, Jr., INF	Assistant Military Attaché	—
Major Harold G. Gelwicks, INF	Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Gelwicks (Absent)
Lt. Commander Donald M. Davies, USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force (Nommé)	—
Lt. Commander Simon H. Hitch, USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force (Nommé)	—
Lt. Commander William H. Noble Jr., USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force (Nommé)	—
Lt. Harold W. Jacobson, USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	—
Lieut. Geo. H. Kerr	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	—
Lieut. W. S. Doering, USNR ..	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mme. Doering (Absent)
Lieut. (jg) Andrew J. Young, USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	—
Capt. Harold Des Brisay Whallon	Assistant Military Attaché	—
Lieut. (jg) R. I. Hislop, USNR	Assistant Naval Attaché and Assistant Attaché of the Naval Air Force	Mme. Hislop (Absent)
Ensign Walter P. Southard, USNR	—	—
Ensign Albert P. Fonda, USNR	—	—
Ensign Lawrence B. Cushman, USNR	—	—
Lieut. Herbert B. Falkenstein, AUS	Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Falkenstein (Absent)
Mr. Lauren W. Casaday	Assistant Financial Attaché	Mme. Casaday (Absent)

<i>Names</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>Dames</i>
Mr. Ralph N. Clough	Third Secretary	Mme. Clough (Absent)
Mr. James L. O'Sullivan	Third Secretary	—
Mr. Meredith P. Gilpatrick ..	Attaché	Mme. Gilpatrick (Absent)

Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics

H. E. Mr. Apollon Alesandrovich Petrov	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary	Mme. J. P. Petrova
Mr. N. P. Shiriaev	Commercial Representative	Mme. K. F. Shiriaeva
Mr. L. M. Miklashevsky	Counsellor	Mme. A. K. Miklashevskaja
Major-General N. V. Roschin	Military Attaché	—
Mr. N. S. Ananiev	First Secretary	—
Mr. B. I. Pankratov	First Secretary	Mme. Pankratova
Mr. N. E. Fedorenko	First Secretary	Mme. Fedorenko
Mr. A. M. Ledovsky	First Secretary	Mme. Ledovskaia
Mr. M. F. Ageev	Assistant Commercial Representative	—
Col. A. I. Orischenko	Superior Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Orischenko
Col. P. P. Voronin	Superior Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Voronina
Lt.-Col. G. M. Gorev	Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Goreva
Mr. S. L. Tihvin'ky	Second Secretary	—
Mr. B. S. Issaenko	Second Secretary	Mme. Issaenko
Mr. A. M. Dorofeev	Second Secretary	Mme. Dorofeeva
Mr. M. S. Kapitsa	Second Secretary	Mme. Kapitsa
Major S. P. Andreev	Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Andreeva
Capt. P. S. Aldabaev	Inferior Assistant Military Attaché	Mme. Aldabaeva
Mr. A. A. Orlov	Third Secretary	Mme. Orlova
Mr. P. F. Novikov	Third Secretary	Mme. Novikov
Mr. I. G. Kalabuhov	Third Secretary	—
Mr. E. M. Vinogradov	Third Secretary	—
Mr. K. A. Krutikov	Third Secretary	—
Mr. A. V. Serebriakov	Third Secretary	—
Mr. A. A. Alexandrov	Third Secretary	Mme. Alexandrova
Mr. S. S. Seregin	Third Secretary	Mme. Seregina
Mr. N. A. Vladyskin	Third Secretary	Mme. Vladyskina
Mr. I. V. Jukov	Attaché	—
Mr. N. N. Shmigol	Attaché	Mme. Shmigol
Mr. N. G. Senin	Attaché	Mme. Senina
Mr. U. I. Fomin	Attaché	—
Mr. Petrakov	Attaché	Mme. Petrakova
Mr. E. F. Sharov	Attaché	Mme. Sharova
Mr. A. A. Jomkov	Attaché	—
Mr. A. S. Shistov	Attaché	—
Mr. O. V. Kavinsky	Attaché	Mme. Kavinskaia
Mr. A. M. Maxin	Attaché	—
Mr. V. A. Kalinin	Attaché	—
Mr. A. P. Smirnov	Attaché	Mme. Smirnova
Mr. A. S. Titov	Attaché	Mme. Titova
Mr. N. I. Timofev	Attaché	Mme. Timofeva

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

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE STANDARD AND THE MARKET SYSTEMS

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Names in Standard System Rendered into English .</i>	<i>Original Names in French</i>	<i>Equivalents in Market System</i>
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 tso kung cho kung ho kung sheng kung tou kung tan kung ping	milliliter centiliter deciliter liter decaliter hectoliter kiloliter	1 shih tso 1 shih cho 1 sh' h ho 1 sh' h sheng 1 shih tou 1 sh. h tan
Mass or Weights	kung 'ze kung hao kung lee kung' fen kung chien kung liang kung ching kung heng kung ten kung tcn	milligram centigram decigram gram decagram hectogram kilogram myriagram qu'ntal tonneau	3.2 shih 'ze 3.2 shih hao 3.2 shih lee 3.2 sh' h fen 3.2 sh' h chien 3.2 sh' h liang 2 sh' h ching 2 sh' h tan

CONVERSION BETWEEN THE MARKET AND THE FOOT-POUND SYSTEMS

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Names in Standard System Rendered into English</i>	<i>Relative Value</i>	<i>Conversion into Foot-Pound System</i>
Length	shih hao sh' h lee sh' h fen sh' h tsun shih ch' h sh' h chang shih yin shih li	10 hao 10 lee 10 fen 10 tsun 10 ch' h 10 chang 10 yin or 1,500 ch' h	0.0013 inch 0.0131 " 0.1312 " 1.3123 " 1.6936 feet 10.9361 " 109.3614 " 0.3107 mile

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Area	shih hao		7.1750 sq. ft.
	shih lee	10 hao	71.7591 "
	shih fen	10 lee	0.0165 acre
	shih mow	10 fen	0.1647 "
	shih ching	100 mow	16.4736 acres
Capacity	shih tso		16.232 minims
	shih cho	10 tso	0.02113 pint
	shih ho	10 cho	0.2113 "
	shih sheng	10 ho	0.2642 gallon
	shih tou	10 sheng	2.6418 gallons
	shih tan	10 tou	26.4178 "
Mass or Weights	shih sze		0.0048 grain
	shih hao	10 sze	0.0482 "
	shih lee	10 hao	0.4823 "
	sh'h fen	10 lee	4.8226 grains
	shih chien	10 fen	0.1102 ounce
	shih liang	10 chien	1.1023 ounces
	sh'h ching	16 liang	
	shih tan	100 ching	

MARKET SYSTEM TO OLD, STANDARD AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS

Classification	Market System	Standard System	Old System	English System
Length	1 shih chih	1/3 meter	1.0417 builder's ch'h or 0.9875 tailor's ch'h	1.0936 feet or 0.3345 yard
	1 shih li (1,500 sh'h ch'h)	kilometer	0.3381 old li	0.3107 mile
Capacity	1 shih sheng	1 liter	0.9357 old sheng or 0.9703 sheng of Tsao-hu	0.32 gallon or 0.2779 (American gallon)
Weight	1 shih ching	1/2 kilogram	0.9472 Hui-kuan chen or 0.8325 Tsao-ping or 0.8119 Sze-ma chen of S'hai or 0.8378 Ku-ping or 0.8277 chen of Haikwan	1.1023 pound avoirdupois
	2,000 shih ching	1 tonne		0.9842 long ton or 1.1023 short tons
Area	1 sh'h mow (6,000 square sh'h ch'h)	6,6667 or 20/3 are	1.0851 old mow	0.1644 acre

OLD SYSTEM TO NEW SYSTEM AND ENGLISH SYSTEM

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Old System</i>	<i>Standard System</i>	<i>Market System</i>	<i>English System</i>
Length	1 builder's chih	3.3200 m.	0.9600 shih chih	1.0499 feet
	1 S'hai tailor's chih	0.3556 "	1.0667 "	1.1605 "
	1 old li=1,800 builder's chih	0.5760 km.	1.1520 shih li	0.3579 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	1.1637 pound
	1 ching of Tsaoping	0.5865 "	1.1730 "	1.2930 "
	1 ching of Ku-ping	0.5968 "	1.1936 "	1.3158 "
	1 ching of Hai-kwan	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

<i>Classification</i>	<i>English System</i>	<i>Chinese New System</i>	
		<i>Standard (Metric)</i>	<i>Market</i>
Linear Measure	Inch=12 lines	25.4 mm.	0.762 shih tsun
	Foot=12 inches	0.3048 m.	0.9144 shih chih
	Yard=3 feet	0.9144 "	2.7432 "
	Fathom=2 yards	1.8288 "	5.4086 "
	Rod=5½ yards	5.0292 "	15.0876 "
	Chain=4 rods or 22 yds.	20.1168 "	60.3503 "
	Furlong=40 rods or 220 yards	201.1678 "	603.5034 "
	Mile=8 furlongs	1.6093 km.	3.2187 shih li
	Sea-mile	1.8519 "	3.7037 "
Measure of Surface	Sq. inch	6.4516 sq. cm.	0.5806 sq. shih tsun
	Sq. foot	0.0929 sq. m.	0.8361 sq. shih chih
	Sq. yard=9 sq. feet	0.8361 "	7.5251 "
	Sq. rod=30¼ sq. yds.	25.2930 "	227.6370 "

GENERAL APPENDIX

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Measure of Weights	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 " 28.8500 shih ching
	Measures 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	1,42061 deciliter 0,568245 liter 1,136500 " 4,546000 " 9,091900 " 3,6368 decaliter 2,909416 hectoliter 14,547080 "	1,4206 shih ho 0,5682 shih sheng 1,1365 " 4,5460 " 9,0919 " 3,6368 shih tou 2,9094 shih tan 14,5470 "
	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. 6,3503 " 12,7006 " 50,8024 " 1,016 t.	0,2074 shih fen 5,6701 " 9,0718 " 0,9072 shih ching 12,7006 " 25,4012 " 101,6047 " 2,032,0941 "
		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 0,7465 "
		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 chien 0,9953 shih liang 0,7465 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 tso 3,5515 " 2,8412 shih cho 0,5682 shih sheng 4,5600 "

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