FRONT COVER: Peasants who have received farm implements as well as land in the division of estates under China's great land reform return home happily with their new possessions. Up to the end of 1951, the land reform had benefited 310 million of China's rural population.

BACK COVER: Rehabilitation of the Anshan Iron and Steel Works. (A woodcut by Ku Yuan.)
INTRODUCING

"CHINA RECONSTRUCTS"

Wherever you live, we wish you and your country a happy and peaceful year in 1952.

As our New Year gift, we send you the first issue of CHINA RECONSTRUCTS. The purpose of CHINA RECONSTRUCTS is to present the work and achievements of the Chinese people to people abroad who believe that all nations should cooperate for peace and mutual benefit.

The magazine will appear every two months—six issues a year. As its name indicates, it will concentrate on reporting reconstruction and new construction in our country and the changes that have come into the lives of our citizens. It will give up-to-date information on what China is doing to solve social, economic, and cultural problems—both old and new. It will describe the nature and work of our educational and welfare services—and our relief activities based on self-help, so long as the need for relief continues.

As practically everybody now knows and even the ill-disposed can no longer deny in the face of mounting facts, China has moved ahead tremendously in the two years since our People’s Government was established.

Weak and divided for many decades, our country has become united from the borders of Siberia to the borders of Burma and Viet-Nam, from the Pacific shoreline to the middle of Asia.

Long racked by malignant inflation which brought ruin to agriculture and urban occupations alike, China now has a stable price level and a nationwide economy that serves all the people. Our factories, both publicly and privately owned, are busy supplying tools and consumer goods to the peasants, 80 per cent of our population. Our villages, in their turn, are sending ample food to the cities. For the first time in 73 years, we have a favourable balance of foreign trade.

Up to two years ago, China had to import food, yet many people were hungry. Now, with the land reform, with constantly increasing production, and improved communications speeding up distribution, our people are eating well. We have even been able to ship rice to fill the needs of our neighbour, India.

Moreover, events have proved that China is now a strong country. She is strong enough to defend what has already been done and to ensure further progress along the lines that have already yielded such fruits. She is strong enough to repel all attempts to turn back the clock.

CHINA RECONSTRUCTS will chronicle the life of the Chinese people in authoritative articles, vivid features, representative photographs, drawings and charts. It will relate how difficulties are overcome and problems are solved. It will report on our resurgent art, literature, music, drama and cinema—on works that embody our best national traditions and our new experiences.

CHINA RECONSTRUCTS will introduce you to some of the people who are helping to build the nation, the rank-and-file men and women who are the makers and motive power of our progress. It will report how old and young, workers, peasants, scholars, scientists and professionals, industrialists and businessmen, people of various religious beliefs and no religion, of various political parties and of no party, are cooperating in tasks that benefit all.

In placing this first issue in your hands, we want you, the reader, to feel that CHINA RECONSTRUCTS exists to serve your needs. If you have questions, write us about them. If you have criticisms or suggestions, let us know. We welcome praise too—but most of all we want to know how we may help fill gaps in your knowledge of the fields we cover. That is the way we hope to bring closer the peoples of China and the countries where our readers reside.

Once again, we wish you a year of advance toward peace.

THE EDITORIAL BOARD
There is a direct correlation between world peace and welfare work. They run parallel to one another, prosper under the same conditions and deteriorate from the same causes. Build peace and you enhance welfare. Destroy peace and you eliminate welfare. It follows, therefore, that the attitude of a government towards war and peace determines the welfare programme it plans and operates for its people.

The unprecedented progress of welfare work in the new China this past year reflects our ardent desire for peace. For example, labour insurance has become the law of our land for the first time. Its many benefits are gradually spreading, reaching millions of workers and their families. In other sectors of our national life, giant and fundamental solutions have been undertaken for age-old problems, such as the floods with which the Huai river has plagued our people for thirty centuries. Child care, medical services, workers' housing and modern facilities for workers' districts, rural services of many varieties—all are growing and raising the living standards of the people right before our eyes. Such progress can only result from a policy which prizes peace and pursues the aim of peaceful relations among all nations.

We have such a policy. It arises directly from the needs of the Chinese people and the progress that it has brought is the result of their strength. The new welfare programme of our country emphasizes the use of the people's might to overcome all problems, a basic approach clearly formulated by Vice-Premier Tung Pi-wu at the All-China People's Relief Conference held in 1950. In his detailed speech on that occasion, Vice-Premier Tung described how welfare work is now in the hands of the people, how it has become part of a tremendous overall reconstruction effort and how it is founded on the principle of self-reliance.

Such policies, principles and progress are possible only in nations that are truly independent—nations that allow no infractions of their own right of self-determination while at the same time seeking cooperation with all who respect that right. In fact, the effort a government puts into people's welfare is not only an accurate measure of its devotion to peace; it is also a reflection of its status among the nations of the world.

We know that in countries which are still in colonial or semi-colonial bondage, welfare work for the people is either nil or exists merely as a deceptive showcase, serving only a tiny percentage of those who need it. Vivid confirmation of this may be found even in the reports submitted by the colony-owning powers themselves to economic and trusteeship organs of the United Nations, although these obviously put the best possible face on a situation that is actually much worse than they admit.

History has shown too that when the rulers of any country seek to perpetuate colonial slavery or to dominate the entire world by force, their own people are among the first sufferers, as exploitation rises and welfare programmes disappear to make way for arms budgets. Published facts on "wage-freezes," skyrocketing prices, speeding up of workers, material shortages and falling educational and health expenditures in the United States, Britain Four of the 106 youngsters from Shanghai workers' families who got a month's summer vacation from the China Welfare Institute as a reward for good school work.
and western Europe, provide many illustrations of this axiom right now.

On the other hand, rising living standards and welfare provisions are evident in every country where the people rule, where state power serves the majority instead of small minorities, either domestic or foreign. Whether we look at China, or the Soviet Union, or central and eastern Europe, we find that the damage of war has been repaired, new industries are growing, wages have risen and prices fallen in the last few years. Welfare and educational facilities, both in terms of total budget outlays and in terms of tangible improvements in the lives of working people, are increasing steadily and very fast. At the same time, mutual aid among these countries helps each one to accelerate its gains. All these facts are not only recorded in their own reports but admitted in serious studies by persons and groups who are not at all well-disposed towards them. Here again the economic publications of the United Nations can be cited.

That China is on the side of peace, yet at the same time able both to defend herself and help her neighbours, is of special interest to the other peoples of Asia. They have seen how our peasants are now the masters of their own fields, how our workers have become masters in some of our factories and equal partners in others. They have seen how this has released the creative and productive forces of our people so that the output of material wealth in China grows both generally and in terms of each worker. They know that, in two years, we have not only solved our food problem but begun to export grain, something unheard-of in the past. They have witnessed how our welfare work has grown to be an integral part of the nation's life, developing in the healthy atmosphere of a country that controls its own destiny.

Such is the status of welfare work in the People's Republic of China, which is one of the staunchest bulwarks of world peace.

Our people have absolutely nothing to gain from war. Only peace is in our interest, so that we may further develop our services to the people and enlarge our contribution to the welfare of the world.

It should be clear too that the progress we have made is precious to us. Any aggressor will find that we will defend it with every ounce of our strength and courage. We will neither allow ourselves to be oppressed nor deny aid to others who suffer oppression. We stand for a peace among equals, with each people determining its own life.

We desire friendship and cooperation with all countries and peoples who are willing to live at peace and to trade for mutual benefit, regardless of what their form of government may be or what views they may hold.

This outlook, uniting a country of 475,000,000 people, helps us never before to guarantee that peace will conquer war all over the world. It menaces no other nation and no honest person anywhere. It helps all who are working and fighting to make mankind's dearest dreams of peace and well-being come true in our own day.

Soong Ching Ling (Mme. Sun Yat-sen), renowned fighter for peace and democracy in China and the world, is Chairman of the China Welfare Institute and the People's Relief Administration of China. She was awarded the Stalin International Peace Prize in 1951.

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ENDING THE FLOOD MENACE

FU TSO-YI

The greatest water control effort in Chinese history is now underway in the valley of the Huai river, which contains over 50 million peasants and covers one seventh of all China's cultivated land.

The work was begun in November 1950. Eight and a half months later, in July 1951, its first phase had been successfully completed. This result was achieved thanks to the planning and leadership of the Chinese Communist Party and the Central People's Government. It was brought about by the organized energy of 2,200,000 peasants who did the excavation work, of thousands of Chinese workers and technicians whose labour and ingenuity supplied machinery and installations which previously always had to be imported, and of hundreds of conservancy engineers applying advanced but at the same time economical methods developed in the Soviet Union.

The primary aim of the project is to put an end to the constant flood menace in the Huai valley. Already, as a result of the first phase, the population is safer from floods than ever before. When the whole scheme is completed, within three to five years, floods will be banished altogether. Hundreds of miles of waterways will become navigable. Millions of acres of farmland will be secured against drought by irrigation. The waters of the Huai and its tributaries will begin to generate large amounts of electric power for the people.

The accomplishments to date include the creation of 1,120 miles of earth dykes, the dredging of 480 miles of river beds and the building of 56 concrete locks and other installations. Approximately 158 million cubic feet of earth have already been moved. Work has begun on 16 major reservoirs, several large dams and a great network of irrigation ditches, culverts and other drainage facilities throughout the area.

What has been done in these months testifies to the tremendous energies awakened by our revolution. Already it exceeds, in volume and effectiveness, all the work done in the Huai valley in hundreds of years of past history.

The Huai and Its History

The Huai is one of the big rivers of China. Rising in the Tung Po mountains, it runs for 683 miles through the three important provinces of Honan, Anhwei and Kiangsu. In the north the Huai valley connects with that of the uncontrolled Yellow River. In the south it connects with the Yangtze valley. In the east, the Huai river flows into the Yellow Sea.

Passing through Honan and northern Anhwei, the river is fed by ten large tributaries and many smaller ones. Some of them, flowing down steep mountains, are extremely rapid and turbulent. The Huai itself by contrast is wide and deep, calm and navigable for most of the year. But in the rainy months of July and August the inflow from the tributaries frequently causes it to flood great areas. This tendency is aggravated by four "bottle-necks" along the river's course. When in flood, the "young maiden," as the Huai has been called in tribute to its usually serene disposition, has often turned into a bearer of death and destruction.

Another cause of floods on the Huai river, and much more serious than the almost annual inundations of the tributaries has been its northern neighbour, the great Yellow River. There are no mountain ridges to divide the Yellow River from the Huai. The plateau that separates them is 100 to 150 feet higher in the north than in the south. When the Yellow River overflows, its waters often come down the slope to try and usurp the bed of the Huai, filling it up with silt. This has often caused the Huai, in its turn, to burst south into the Yangtze.

For 661 years of Chinese history, between 1194 A.D. and 1855 A.D., the Yellow River emptied into the sea through the Huai and had no other outlet. During these centuries, it filled the Huai with sediment, raised the water-level in many of the lakes connected with it, and generally slowed its course. It also wrecked the whole lake system between the Huai and the Yangtze and created a constant threat of flood to 10 million mou (about 1.7 million acres) of rice fields along the Grand Canal.

In 1855, when the Yellow River abandoned its southern course and began to flow into the sea north...
of the Shantung peninsula along its present bed, the Huai river also changed its habits completely. Its old mouth became completely blocked with silt. Instead of reaching the sea, the Huai began to flow into the Yangtze.

The situation remained more or less constant until the reactionary Kuomintang government, caring nothing for the people, broke the Yellow River dykes at Huayankow in Honan for what it considered to be a temporary military advantage. As a result, tremendous areas were flooded. The Yellow River once more invaded the Huai, and flowed to the sea through the Huai for nine years, until 1947. The whole drainage system of the Huai valley was destroyed. The mouths of many of its tributaries were stopped with mud. Much of the network of irrigation ditches in the Huai valley was completely obliterated. The bed of the Huai itself filled up considerably. The flow of the Huai river at Pengpu fell from 307,000 cubic feet per second in 1931 to 297,000 cubic feet per second in 1950. Nevertheless the water level rose by about three feet in the same period. The reduced capacity of the Huai resulted in a further increase in flood threats.

A Thousand Floods—And Nothing Done

What the Chinese people have suffered from failure to control the Huai river may be gathered from one figure. Our historical records count no less than 979 floods along its course between 246 B.C. and 1948 A.D. In other words, the Huai has produced a flood every two years for some seventy generations!

There are three basic conditions making for floods along the Huai. They have always been the same and have been known for centuries. In the headwaters and along the tributaries of the Huai, there have not been enough installations to check and hold water. Its middle reaches have lacked storage reservoirs. In its lower valley, close to the sea and the Grand Canal, the outlets were too limited to hold the flow. It has been known for a long time that no single one of these conditions could be remedied independently. The river could be controlled only if all three types of work were undertaken at once.

Such an overall job of reclamation was precisely what old China,
Ch‘ien Chen-ying directed the construction of the giant Jenhochi dams. She is assistant chief engineer for the entire Huai river project.

with its predatory special interests, clashes between regional groups of exploiters and ultimate semi-colonial subservience to imperialism had neither the motive nor the capacity to undertake. On the contrary, the feudal and dynastic conflicts of the old society, its long decay and the disintegration that attended its death-throes frequently destroyed even the local attempts at control in which the people themselves invested so much labour.

After the Yellow River rushed into the Huai in 1194, neither the rulers of the Sung dynasty nor those of the Yuan (Mongol) dynasty which succeeded it undertook any measures at all.

The two subsequent dynasties, the Ming (1368—1644) and the Manchu Ching (1644—1911 A.D.) did allocate great sums of money for work on the Yellow and Huai rivers. These sums, wrung in taxes from the people, were quite sufficient to return the Yellow River to its old course and dredge and adjust the entire Huai. What happened, however, was that a part was misappropriated by officials and the rest was used in a greedy and short-sighted way.

With the capital established in Peking, the Ming and Ching emperors thought only of the Grand Canal which carried about 200,000 tons of tax rice to Peking annually for the needs of the court. Instead of getting at the root of the Huai floods, they piled up ever-higher dykes and embankments to keep them away from the canal. This kind of dyke building merely aggravated the floods in higher areas by damming them up. When the pressure of water proved too great and the canal dykes were breached, which happened frequently, the lower valley of the Huai, in north Kiangsu, also suffered disastrous inundations.

In 1855, when the Yellow River turned once more to its northern sea exit, the Manchu empire could think of nothing but to "let nature take its course." The warlord rulers of the early years of the Republic did no better. After the calamitous floods of 1931, the Kuomintang regime, which had by then been in power for four years, began to speak loudly about conservancy work on the Huai. But the reactionary Chen Kuo-fu, then Chairman of the Kiangsu Provincial Government, insisted that work be done in his province alone. The interests of the inhabitants of the upper valley, and the correct method of controlling the Huai, were again ignored for the interests of local landlords. Money was squeezed from the people as usual, some construction work was begun, but the whole "plan" and its execution soon dissolved in the rackets and corruption typical of "politics" at the time.

By breaking the Yellow River dykes in 1938, and thus deliberately destroying the Huai river system no less effectively than the natural floods of 1194 and 1855 A.D., the Kuomintang reactionaries exposed their own complete bankruptcy and left the people a heritage of woe.

The Project’s Origin and Goals

As a result of past abuses, another serious flood took place in the Huai valley in 1950, the year of its liberation. More than 40 million mou (6.6 million acres) of cultivated land were submerged. The distress that attended this flood, however, was much less than in comparable occurrences in the past. The People’s Government undertook immediate remedial measures which saved lives and property. Flood-stricken people were rapidly organized for labour and hundreds of thousands of tons of rice were brought to feed them. Clothing was collected throughout the country and those who had lost their own effects were re-equipped. The people who had never experienced such care and aid from the government and the whole country before, worked with will and hope to mend dykes and otherwise limit the spread of the flood. There was no starvation.
The 1950 flood occurred in July. In August, the Administration Council of the Central People's Government, acting on a directive from Chairman Mao Tse-tung, met to consider how to harness the Huai. In September, it adopted a resolution to initiate the giant project now under way. Water conservancy experts from all parts of the country, summoned to Peking, drew up necessary plans in the short space of two months. By November, work was in progress on the actual sites.

Out of consideration for the people, the time-table for the first phase was so arranged as to rid the Huai valley of the threat of serious floods from 1950 on. Successful meeting of the July deadline has made this goal a reality. When the rainy season arrived last year, the Huai was protected not only by relatively advanced works of a permanent nature but also by temporary structures to take care of current emergencies. There was no flooding in 1951.

Longer-range river control plans, for the first time in history, were based not on regional claims but on the needs of the Huai valley as a whole, the upper reaches as well as the lower, the battle against droughts as well as the battle against floods. The irrigation systems that will arise will store water from six to nine million mow (one to 1.7 million acres) of land in the upper reaches of the river and 35 million mow (6 million acres) each in the middle and lower valley. In navigation, the controlled river will carry transport where it is most needed, between points that play an important part in the interchange of commodities between city and country, producers and markets. Steamers plying the Grand Canal will be able to turn westward and proceed along the Huai to points in Honan beyond the Peking-Hankow railway. The Tientsin-Pukow and Peking-Hankow railways will be connected by a new water link.

As for electric power, there are no natural sites for its production in the broad, flat Huai valley. But the new reservoir, dyke and sluice systems will provide opportunities to generate a sizable supply for the needs of both agriculture and industry in the region.

Work Done and to be Done

I would now like to outline in some detail how the Government Administration Council analyzed conditions on the Huai river and the remedial measures already taken and to be taken.

Generally speaking, it was found that the existing drainage system of the Huai was capable of holding only half its water load in cases of flood on the scale of 1931 or 1950. Since the rainfall in the Huai valley in July, August and September is out of all proportion greater than that in other parts of the year, the risk of comparable floods would be constant so long as this situation was not changed.

At the same time, due to the uneven distribution of rainfall, the valley generally suffered from droughts in the spring, when the peasants were most in need of water for their fields. The problem with regard to the Huai was therefore not merely to speed up the flow to the sea, but to store the water where it would be required for irrigation purposes in the dry season.

To prevent the river from becoming unduly swollen by rains, it was decided to dredge the entire drainage system of the Huai of the Yellow River silt that blocks it. To store water where it is needed, dams and reservoirs were planned at suitable places.

In the mountainous upper reaches of the Huai, trees are being planted and small basins, tanks and dams constructed to slow the flow of water and prevent soil from being washed off the hills by torrential downpours. The sixteen big artificial reservoirs comprising the system, with a total capacity of 100 billion cubic feet, are to be installed along the upper tributaries—the Hung, Hsi, Kuan, Pu and Ying rivers. One, the Shihman-tan reservoir at the headwaters of...
the Hung, has already been completed. Two others will be in operation by the end of 1951. Drainage of excess water from the slopes is to be accomplished by local ditches dug by the organized effort of the people.

The new reservoirs are being supplemented by work on the Lo-wang, Chiaoting, Tung and Wusung lakes in Honan province. These “lakes” were formerly no more than low-lying marshes connected with the course of the river, too frequently flooded to serve as cropland yet not storing enough water at the right times. The job of converting them for storage purposes is to be finished in 1951. With their help, the total storage capacity in the upper reaches of the Huai will be brought to 60 billion cubic feet, helping greatly to secure the region against flood while the new reservoir system is still incomplete. Moreover, since water will be allowed to flow into them only when flood conditions require it, the lake beds will be cultivated to produce at least one crop a year. This will greatly benefit the entire area and its people.

Lower down, in north Anhwei province, there are other marshy lakes on either side of the Huai. Excluding the big Hungtse lake, they have an area of 741,320 acres. Their capacity will be brought to 254 billion cubic feet by the end of 1951. In this way the flow of the Huai in its middle reaches will be brought under effective control.

The main control installation in the middle reaches, located at Jenhochi in northern Anhwei province, has already been built. It consists of three parts. The first is a fixed deep channel 255 feet wide. The second is a long movable dam 984 feet wide, with nine sluice gates—five of 147 feet each, one of 69 feet and three of 48 feet—across the broadened river bed. The third is a 585-foot movable dam at the entrance with two sluice gates of 147 feet each and four of 69 feet.

Work at Jenhochi was begun in April and finished in July 1951. To achieve it over 200,000 tons of industrial material, mainly cement and steel, were brought to the site. The 1,300 tons of steel sluice gates and machinery, of a type China always imported in the past, were successfully made in Shanghai in the space of two months and installed by technicians and workers from that city who came to Jenhochi. Concrete mixers on the dam sites were also of Chinese manufacture. The fulfillment of this project was an impressive demonstration of the organizational and industrial capacities already present in our country but never previously used.

The Shihmantan reservoir, the Jenhochi installations and the dyke construction elsewhere have already considerably mitigated the danger of flood in the part of the Huai valley that lies in Honan province, secured northern Anhwei against dyke breaches and guaranteed the wheat crops in that area against flood damage.

The work in the lower reaches, directed mainly at strengthening dykes along the Grand Canal and renovating local waterways leading into the Huai, will do the same thing for north Kiangsu.

The removal of the perennial causes of floods along the Huai is thus already considerably advanced. With the completion of the entire project, the scourge of thousands of years will cease to exist.
How Our People Are Working

I myself travelled along the entire course of the Huai river earlier last year, inspecting the progress of the work over a distance of more than six hundred miles.

What impressed me most of all on this trip was the change in the outlook of our peasants following the land reform, which for the first time has given them land of their own, free of both rents and debt. This change is decisive for the harnessing of the Huai, because the peasants engaged on the project know they are toiling for themselves. They work with an enthusiasm inconceivable in the water conservancy undertakings of the past, when they were employed or driven by landlord interests which reaped the full benefit of any improvements achieved. It is their own land, their own crops that they are now protecting—and they know it.

Needless to say this proud consciousness has also improved the relations between the workers and the leading and technical personnel. With all ranks now working for the same goal instead of one exploiting the other, mutual confidence and appreciation have replaced the former hostility and compulsion. One has only to see these millions of people working in a harmonious and organized manner, in the full knowledge of what they are doing and why, to realize that our country has at last really risen to its feet. With the titanic force this has generated one feels there is nothing we cannot accomplish!

Another strong impression is the closeness of the people to the Communist party and the government—their party and their government. In giving the people land and power over their own destinies, the party and government sank deep roots in every village and hamlet. In the 1950

(Top) Steelwork on a reinforced concrete dam.

(Middle) To feed the workers, thousands of tons of rice were brought to Huai river building sites.

(Bottom) Rails were laid for the transport of broken stone and other materials.

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The beat of drums and clash of cymbals can be heard all along the Huai during rest periods and at night, as groups of workers relax with dancing and music.

flood, tens of thousands of party and government personnel moved into the afflicted areas, sharing the dangers and privations of the peasants, leading them in the fight for food, helping them in the autumn planting of devastated fields, organizing mutual aid groups and subsidiary occupations such as mat-weaving, hemp processing and fishing—in a word, saving their lives. This experience, unheard of in the old China, has created a unity and intimacy as strong and close as that of flesh and bone. Now the government has only to call and millions of peasants respond.

In responding to the mobilization to free their valley of floods altogether, the people of the Huai river have seen trains, steamships, motor-driven junks, wooden boats and long lines of trucks come unendingly from all parts of the country bringing needed materials, administrators, technical men, doctors, nurses, teachers, and lecturers, actors and mobile moving picture teams. They have convinced themselves once more that they have only to work for their own interest to receive all the aid and comfort that all of China can give. They understand that they are no longer isolated, no longer ignored or oppressed but great, strong and self-reliant.

The viewpoint of the peasants themselves is no longer local. They know that it was Chairman Mao Tse-tung who decided to tame the Huai river and avert new calamities without delay, without being deterred by the other grave and urgent problems that face the country. They know that the People’s Government has cut through all the old regional selfishness to lay strong hands on the Huai and turn it from a tyrant into a servant of the people. They know that water conservancy, and the Huai river work in particular, has been assigned a high percentage of the national budget.

The unprecedented Huai river project both benefits our agriculture and helps prepare for great new steps in our industrialization. It is changing the face of a large section of the country. While howls for war are heard throughout the imperialist world, China is engaged in a gigantic peaceful effort that once more demonstrates not only the constructive ability of our people but their will and their strength for peace.
Villages in China's cotton-growing areas were festive during the sale season in 1951. The buyer was the People's Government. Prices were good. Carts and pack-mules loaded with huge bags of cotton were colourfully decorated with red and green flags reading, “Join the Sell-Cotton-to-the-Government Patriotic Contest.” Peasants accompanied the carts and mule trains beating on drums and cymbals and dancing the popular yangko (harvest dance).

In each district, peasants competed to be the first to sell stocks to the government. Many growers also wrote letters to textile workers in Shanghai, Tientsin and Taingtao, pledging to keep the mills supplied. Village challenged village to bring more cotton to market. Buyers sent by the National Cotton & Yarn Corporation stayed up late into the night working on their accounts.

Problem Last Year

At one period during the spring of 1951, textile mills in Chinese cities found themselves in difficulties. Land reform and government assistance to cotton-growers had made 1950 a good year for the peasants. They had plenty of cash in their pockets after selling only a portion of the cotton crop in the fall, and were therefore not particularly interested in further sales in the spring. The peasants stored their cotton as city people save money. Some hoarded against a coming wedding. Others wanted to keep the cotton “for the women to spin.” One peasant simply said: “It does my heart good to see it there, all white and puffy, when I come in from the fields. Besides, I don't need cash right away.”

The Government Calls

On June 1, 1951 the People's Government published a directive, frankly describing the seriousness of the situation. It called upon the peasants to sell their cotton stocks at once. The price offered was a fair one. Peasants who did not wish to sell immediately were urged to deposit their cotton in government warehouses, to be paid for at the current price any time they wished. “This will be considered a patriotic action, an important contribution from the peasants to the nation,” the directive said.

In villages in every cotton-growing area, along the Yangtze and Yellow rivers, in the north-eastern provinces and the vast plains of the Northwest, peasants gathered to discuss the directive. None of them had realized up to then that it made much difference whether they sold their cotton or held it until they needed more money.

Discussion in the Villages

The assembled peasants recalled the past. They related how, before liberation, they used to sell all their cotton and still not have enough to pay rent and taxes. The crop had hardly been picked when the Kuomintang paochia chang (constable) would appear with de-
mands for money. Most families could not keep enough cotton to make padded winter garments, and had to shiver through the cold weather in thin rags. The spring often found them with no rice. Many was the year when whole villages lived on weeds and tree bark till the next harvest.

By contrast, the peasants could now point to all the new property that they had been able to buy after the People's Government relieved them of the load of supporting landlords and corrupt officials in luxury. The general sentiment was well expressed by peasant Shen Ping, who declared at one village meeting: "We mustn't forget past pain just because our wounds have healed. To protect our present good life, let's help the government which has helped us."

Husbands and Wives

As a result of similar meetings conducted by the Democratic Women's Federations, the peasant women soon came to vie with their husbands in offering cotton for sale to the government.

Peasant Wang Tien-tai of Hoting had made a pledge to sell 1,100 lbs. to the cooperative in his village. He found a little trouble in explaining just why he had done it to his wife at home. To his surprise, when the women held their own meeting, his wife got up to speak, mentioned the amount of cotton in the house, and offered it herself "to make our good life last."

Another woman, Wang Ching-chih, stood up and said: "If the men can be patriotic, I don't see why we can't. I went through enough hell when the Japanese devils were here. I'm not going to go through the same thing with the Americans. I have some ginned cotton stored up, and I'm going to sell it to the government."

In a cotton village, in Chengan district, each family met separate-

Why Peasants Responded

Why did such simple discussions suffice to bring cotton to the sale stations? Because the People's Government had already won the loyalty and confidence of the growers, not by words but by real proofs of concern for their interests.

The government had been responsible for keeping the ratio of cotton to grain prices at a constantly fair rate, enabling producers to eat well at all times. It had protected them from loss due to their own actions. In the summer of 1950, when many had dumped stocks fearing that the Korean war would spread to Chinese cities and mills would no longer buy, the government had kept speculators from pushing prices down.

The government had also helped cotton growers to improve their work with technical advice, providing them with equipment and services. When cotton was being planted last April, it sent specialists to the countryside to help the cotton growers conquer drought. It extended loans to sink thousands of new wells, and dig irrigation ditches. It mobilized six million peasants in Hopei province to spray 1,480 tons of insecticide, which saved 2,000,000 acres of the cotton crop.

The government had sold soybean cake, a high-grade fertilizer, to growers at low prices and on easy credit terms. Finally it had helped cotton-growing villages in every problem of livelihood, seeing that they were supplied at all times with food, cloth, salt and other daily needs. It had also sold

Peasant seller talks grade and price with a buyer for the cooperatives.
them cheap fuel for cooking and winter heating, a constant problem to Chinese cotton farmers who have no stubble and straw to burn like grain-growers.

Since liberation, large amounts of coal have been brought to the villages. In the past, only city people in China had coal to burn.

More Abundant Life

As a result of this varied aid, production increased and the livelihood of the farmers improved beyond recognition. In 1950, even though the growers did not sell their whole crop, their purchasing power outstripped the goods within reach.

An investigation in Hantan, Hopei province, showed that peasants were eating fine flour and polished rice instead of the coarse foods of the past. During January 1951, no less than 1,170,000 feet of cloth were sold in the district; a third more than in January 1950 when there was an inflationary buying spree. Peasant women had new flowered dresses and bedspreads. Children’s clothes were fresh and gay.

Weddings increased, with consequent good business for the silk merchants in Kiangsu and Chekiang provinces. New houses had tile floors instead of oiled paper in the windows. Flashlights and bicycles were in big demand. In Weihsi village, after the 1950 harvest, every one of the 400 families bought a new electric torch and one out of every four families acquired a bicycle.

The peasants themselves can’t stop talking about their new prosperity. They tell each other: “There used not to be a bicycle in the whole village; and now look!” Stockings, rubbers, sweaters, knitted underwear, thermos bottles are becoming necessities to people who used none of these things in their whole previous lives. Many village girls now buy high-grade face towels, hair lotions and cold cream of Shanghai manufacture. A pedlar has only to push his cart into a cotton-growing village to find his needles, combs, hairpins and other goods disappear and himself the possessor of a thousand or so pounds of cotton.

The technical equipment of cotton farms is also growing rapidly. Hundreds of new carts, as well as used auto tires, to replace the previous iron wheel-rims, have been sold in Hantan district since the harvest. In Hunghsiang alone, hardware merchants sold 63½ tons of metal farm implements in one month. Not long ago, cotton growers of Hsiaoho village sent delegates to Peking to have a look at some tractors.

More and More Cotton

The area under cotton in 1951 was 30.2 per cent greater than in 1950. It was more than 17 per cent greater than the highest acreage recorded in pre-war years.

Owing to the working enthusiasm and improved technique of the peasants, the average yield per acre was also higher, by 33 per cent, than the best pre-war figure.
Anyone familiar with the so-called medical services and medical work in old China would be extremely surprised to see what great strides in public health have been made in the two brief years since the formation of the People's Republic of China. Even a superficial survey, or merely a quick trip through some part of the country, would reveal intensive health work going on in the cities and countryside, in mills, mines and factories, on trains and in village schools. Today hardly any corner of our vast country has been left untouched by the broadly conceived and efficiently executed public health programme, which draws in all medical workers and is directed toward the whole population.

On all the main railways, as for example the Peking-Hankow line, special cars are reserved for mothers and children. A medical attendant is available at all times on the train. In the course of any long journey several organized talks are given to the mothers on child and maternal health care—covering such subjects as child feeding, children's infectious diseases and their prevention, child clothing, what to do in various emergencies, what to do during a pregnancy and so on. Over the general loudspeaker system, providing music, entertainment and news for the passengers, there are additional talks on health topics such as diet, prevention of intestinal diseases like diarrhoea and typhoid, or prevention of respiratory diseases. Other health talks relate to regional endemic diseases and their prevention (such as malaria in the south or typhus in the north).

Personal hygiene and the exposure of old superstitious practices are also favourite themes. The trains themselves are clean and regularly disinfected.

If you went into a local primary school and visited the “Health Room” between 8 and 9 a.m. you would ordinarily find either a doctor making routine physical examinations of the pupils or a local public health nurse or school nurse (in larger schools) giving eye treatments for trachoma and conjunctivitis, dressing some small finger or treating some skin disease. Looking into a classroom you would see that a great majority of the children now seem well-nourished and healthy. Supplementary feeding with soy-bean milk at the schools is partly responsible for this, coupled with the general improvement of food conditions.

Almost every factory having over a hundred workers possesses a busy medical clinic. First aid stations and kits are set up in the shops. Prominently placed posters advise how to prevent accidents. Many varieties of safety devices and machine-guards are in use—often suggested and built by the workers themselves with the aid of the factory management. Our Labour Insurance Act, already in operation, includes, among many other things, health protection and medical treatment, free of charge, for both the worker and his dependents. No deduction for this is made from the worker’s wage. Insurance funds are handled and controlled by his labour union. The average factory may not have a hospital of its own, but it has a part share in the local Workers Hospital set up jointly with a number of other factories in that district.

Cleaning Up the Cities

Urban sanitation has been improved by enlisting large numbers of people in the work. If you happened to live in Peking and you were visited on the 15th or 30th of the month by a delegation of four old men with venerable beards and long gowns whom in the past you might have associated with carrying a favourite bird in a cage, or spending the morning feeding their gold fish, you would be surprised to learn that they are now the local street health committee. And if you had been a little lax in cleaning out your garbage, or if your share of the street or alley or yard was not swept regularly, you would receive a very firm and detailed lecture on...
sanitation and a request for improvement before their next regular visit.

Incidentally, Peking at the time of liberation had 201,638 tons of garbage and refuse piled up in the city, which took the efforts of 73,537 volunteers and sanitary workers, using 35,407 carts and over 800 trucks, to clean up. At Tangshan, in Hopei province, exposed garbage and refuse dating from twenty years back has been successfully removed. Well-functioning garbage disposal systems now operate in these two cities and scores of others which never had them before.

In nearly all the major cities of China sewers are being cleaned out and repaired. Water pipes are being laid to bring fresh, clean piped water to workers homes and districts.

In Peking, for example, the infamous "Dragon Beard Ditch" once wound its filthy way for several miles behind the famous Temple of Heaven, through a quarter where only working people lived. It was a public health menace of the first order. Dating back 300 years, it was stagnant, filled with garbage, rotting matter, dead dogs, dead cats and worms. In summer it was a breeding place for flies and mosquitoes and was responsible, in large measure, for many of the epidemics that raged among the 400,000 people that it "serviced." Under the old regime nothing was done about this. The People's Government, in five months from May to September 1950, eliminated the ditch and laid five miles of concrete conduits instead. Piped water was brought into the area for the first time. An old man living on the bank of the ditch said afterwards: "I have been here for 72 years but this is the first year I have lived in a clean place, with no flies, mosquitoes or worms to bother me."

Other Urban Services

The tremendous amount of public health work going on in our cities cannot even be outlined in a short article. There is now a vast network of creches and nurseries caring for more children, and caring for them better, than ever before. Countless mothers are active in the peace campaign as the most concrete expression of child protection; because both mothers and medical workers realize that no matter how healthy a child is, or anyone else for that matter, there can be no safety of life or limb unless war is prevented.

Other health changes in the cities include physical culture activities on an unprecedented mass scale; special measures for the protection of women in industry; the increase and expansion of hospitals, clinics and dispensaries; institution of isolation hospitals and public health laboratories; establishment of chemical and medical equipment factories and a greater number of medical universities and colleges. These vast developments cannot even be treated in the present article.

Fighting Rural Epidemics

But 80 per cent of China's population is rural. What about the countryside? What public health and medical work is going on in the hsien (counties) and farm villages?

Let us visit a hsien in what was previously a plague epidemic region in northeast China. In the county-seat there is the county public health department with three major sections under it—epidemic prevention and sanitation, protection of mother and child health, and medical administration. In this particular hsien, in addition to sanitation, public clinics and permanent work along preventive lines against smallpox and measles, the main task is the prevention of plague. Throughout the county there are plague prevention stations where a constant watch is kept for any signs of infection in humans, rats or fleas. Posters, lectures and plays for the population in this area center on plague. Around each village there is a newly-dug circular ditch with sharp, steep-cut sides. Patrolling the ditch are members of the Young Pioneers organization with red kerchiefs and long red-tasseled spears. They are on the lookout for rats in the ditch, which serves to prevent rats from coming into the village or escaping from it. Often one may see the children spearing a rat.

Although in the past 3,000 cases of plague might occur in a single year, there were only a few sporadic cases and no epidemics from 1950 on. The mobilized people in the endemic regions caught and killed 20,916,330 rats in 1950 alone, by an actual count of rat tails turned in to stations in
northeast China. In addition to rat eradication and house-to-house sanitation, 5,933,700 inoculations against plague were given in 1950.

In Shantung province in East China, county health services are organized along the same lines, but here the main task is centered around the kala-azar eradication campaign. Shantung now has many kala-azar treatment stations and several mobile teams with doctors, laboratory equipment and trained injectors. In heavily infested regions prevention teams work on control of the sand-fly. Treatment is free of charge and, according to incomplete statistics, more than 60,000 cases of kala-azar were treated in 1950. Even so, the battle against this disease is only beginning.

Further south, in Kiangsu and Chekiang provinces, district health departments fight against schistosomiasis, which has the snail as its intermediary host and reservoir of infection. Methods are being worked out to control and eradicate these snails, which unfortunately are not as susceptible to copper sulfate as is the Egyptian variety, which transmits schistosomiasis in that country. Control of faeces (a source of infection) is being carried on with cooperation from the mobilized peasantry.

The peasantry, after having had explained to them the danger from raw human faeces being used as fertilizer and in this way transmitting the disease, have organized a “three tank system” for treating them. Only faeces that have been stored for a month or more (and thus made harmless from the point of view of schistosomiasis transmission) are used in the fields. The peasants and the whole population are now well aware of the danger from snails and there are constant snail-picking campaigns during the winter slack season. In winter the snails climb up on the banks of the streams and rivers. They are picked up with bamboo forceps. A recent champion snail picker collected 400 in a single hour. Eradication of snails would wipe out the disease. Suggested new methods to do this in a quicker and less laborious manner are now under study.

Along the Kiangsu-Chekiang provincial border in 1950, more than 30,000 cases were treated involving more than a half-million intravenous injections and 444,459 stool examinations. All medicines used in the treatment are now manufactured in China whereas previously there was complete dependence on imported drugs, even for the few cases treated. The cost was prohibitive, and those most in need of treatment could least afford it. Now all treatment is free of charge.

Health on National Construction Projects

In some hsien, health protection of the peasants working on water conservancy is the main concern. This is true along the Huai river, the middle course of the Yangtze and Han rivers, the middle and lower reaches of the Yellow River, the Pearl River and waterways in North China. In the spring and early summer of 1951, nearly 5,000,000 peasants were at work on water conservancy and flood control projects. The health protection of these workers is of prime importance for the completion of the urgent tasks of raising production and preventing floods. The Ministry of Health and other Area and Provincial Health departments have organized Epidemic Prevention Corps to supplement the efforts of the hsien health departments in this respect. There are 88 such corps throughout the country and a large number are assigned to this work.

What has already been accomplished by these epidemic prevention corps? The following are some sample answers.

A detachment of the Third Epidemic Prevention Corps provided health protection for 340,000 peasants of 10 hsien working on flood control. A total of 169,440
smallpox vaccinations were administered. Complete delousing was carried out and 1,236 cases of relapsing fever were treated, with the result that the spread of this disease was stopped. Latrines and faeces-disposal were organized. Water purification by chemicals was carried out on all work sites. Regular talks on hygiene were given to the workers.

When the flood control job was completed ahead of time, the team divided into two sections—one for kala-azar work, one for mother and child health training. The kala-azar section operating in nine hsien of the Huaiyin region treated 9,669 cases, trained 464 injectors locally, mobilized local medical personnel and, together with the county medical department, set up a permanent apparatus to clean out kala-azar from the region. The mother and child health section organized a three-month course in midwifery and child care for women cadres from the hsien women’s organizations and other women workers, training 243 persons. In addition 69 old-style midwives were re-trained. Since the area in which both sections were operating was also a typhoid endemic region, hygienic measures were instituted and special areas for using river water to wash vegetables and clothes organized. The teams gave typhoid-cholera inoculations to 58,807 people, cleaned and purified wells and built new sanitary privies.

Nurseries were organized in the rural areas of central Hopei province in the busy June-July agricultural season. In Tali village, for example, a seasonal temporary nursery was set up on the basis of mutual exchange of labour. Four women, one of whom is a public health worker, are in charge of 51 children, in exchange for which their farm work is done by the women whose children they are minding. The mothers also prepare midday meals for the nursery-workers’ husbands. The nursery is housed in the Yuehwang Temple which also houses the primary school. This method of seasonal nurseries was adopted from the Soviet Union and is proving a great success.

**Rural Medical Cooperatives**

Many rural areas now have self-supporting medical cooperatives. This is an extremely important development. I would like to describe a typical and successful example which serves Hsuiwu and Taiwang, in Pingyuan province in North China.

When this area was liberated in 1948, medical attention was confined to the well-to-do and drugs were available only at two old-style Chinese pharmacies, which sold them at prohibitively high prices. In February 1949, the local People’s Government and its medical department called a meeting, attended by fourteen doctors, to consider how to improve the situation. The proposal to form a medical cooperative was made and, after thorough discussion, adopted. Sixty shares were issued and distributed among a total of 31 doctors, both Chinese-style and modern, who paid for them in services, millet, equipment or medicines. A modern-trained doctor was named to head the medical staff of six and two clerks were hired. The co-op clinic began work in premises donated free of charge by the local government.

Peasants began to flock to the cooperative at once. They were given medicines and treatment on credit (it is the local custom to pay all bills after the harvest.) As a result, both supplies and funds were quickly exhausted. A crisis meeting was urgently called, and decided to issue more shares to be sold to peasants as well as doctors. These shares were quickly bought up by the eleven surrounding villages. Treatment was still available to everyone, but member-patients received a 10 per cent discount. There were no profits the first year but, as a result of the co-op’s operations, the local price of medicines dropped 50 per cent.

The co-op has since expanded greatly. In addition to giving ambulatory treatment and dispensing medicines, it now buys up locally grown medicinal herbs and sells them to other regions. This provides additional earnings for many peasants as well as for the cooperative itself. With the extra income, new services have been started: free treatment for families of People’s Liberation Army soldiers, free smallpox vaccinations, health education and anti-epidemic campaigns undertaken jointly with the county health department.
The cooperative is now a going concern and the pride of the Taiwang and Hsuwu peasantry, who regard it as their own.

Rural health cooperatives are spreading. Numbers of them already exist even in such formerly backward provinces as Jehol.

Citizens' Voluntary Health Work

In addition to the work of county health departments, epidemic prevention corps and medical cooperatives, great masses of people participate in public health activity through the Chinese Red Cross, the local Joint Medical Associations, labour unions, women's, youth and peasant associations and educational circles. A few instances will be enough to show the nature and scope of such voluntary action, the change in the people themselves and the great reserves of popular energy available in our new China.

In Linhsien, Pingyuan province, the county Joint Medical Association is now headed by Ko Hushien, an old-style Chinese doctor 62 years of age. Dr. Ko is a fervent advocate of preventive medicine and has been able to pass on his enthusiasm to others. He has mobilized over eighty doctors in his area into six groups which supplement the work of the County Health Department in no less than 52 villages. These volunteer medical men have in turn organized 1,074 village block health committees (each covering an area inhabited by ten families). The committees are active in public health propaganda, sanitary inspection, getting people to be vaccinated, reporting the occurrence of disease and registering births and deaths. Not a single one of these services existed in the countryside under the old regime, or indeed at any time in China's past history. Nor could they have begun now if we did not have a government based on the people.

In Linhsien, too, Dr. Ko organized, on his own initiative, what is known as the "Three Clean Movement": 1. Clean homes, streets and yards; 2. Clean food, water and cooking utensils; 3. Clean beds, bedding and clothes. The "Three Clean" movement has now become a regular feature of county health work. Dr. Ko has also brought local doctors together for common study and exchange of experience, mobilized primary school teachers to teach hygiene and led in forming three emergency epidemic-prevention corps which have been successful in halting outbreaks of diphtheria, measles and diarrhoea.

When the smallpox vaccination campaign in Linhsien county threatened to bog down owing to the conservatism of the peasants, Dr. Ko called a meeting in his own village. After explaining the reasons and benefits of vaccination, he brought his own children and grandchildren on the platform and vaccinated them in full view of the people. After this the campaign met with no further difficulties.

The result of leadership given by this energetic and public-spirited practitioner, who had no modern medical training or ideas in the past, may be seen from Linhsien's health statistics. In the year before the Joint Medical Association was formed, the county reported over 6,700 cases of disease and 296 deaths. After the Association had been active for a year, and with a more thorough reporting system, there were 3,599 cases of illness and only 144 deaths.

The example set by Dr. Ko is being publicized and imitated throughout our country.

Schoolteachers and Health

Schoolteachers are among those most responsible for changing the entire public health picture in our country.

In Chiahsiang county, Pingyuan province, the people elected Miss Mi Pao-yin "Model Health Worker for 1951." Miss Mi with no previous medical education has done more for the people's health than many a doctor. At the County Primary School Teachers' Conference she led in mobilizing teachers to fight smallpox. When she returned to her own school, she not only taught the children why vaccination was necessary but organized them to agitate for it among their families. Later, with her pupils, she went from house to house, vaccinating the people.

Difficulties did not deter Miss Mi. She used every possible avenue of popular education, including a play she wrote and staged herself, with the children as actors. In a month's time she had personally vaccinated the entire school (226 pupils) and 3,202 peasants. By the time she had completed work in her own country town, the school yard was filled each day with people from...
The number of nurses in China is increasing. No less than 85,000 middle-grade medical workers, including nurses, are to be trained in the next five years.

Subsequently, when the County Health Department sent its own teams to carry out inoculations for typhoid, they found the ground already prepared. Again with Miss Mi's active help, they inoculated 5,222 people. In the course of one year, Miss Mi, who teaches music, composed 34 songs on health topics. The songs exposed harmful local superstitions, described the symptoms and dangers of various common diseases in easily remembered terms, pointed out the evils of old-style midwifery and so on.

In all China in 1950, the number of persons vaccinated for smallpox reached the unprecedented figure of 57,325,417. Typhoid and cholera inoculations exceeded 13 million. These results would never have been achieved without the energy and devotion of thousands of leaders like Dr. Ko and Miss Mi.

Saving the Newborn

No one can count the hundreds of millions of babies and mothers who perished in old China due to the insanitary practices of the traditional-style midwife. Now these women are retraining themselves and becoming fighters for public health instead of a danger to it.

Midwife Wang Chi-ying of Linhsien, Pingyuan province, is a tall, thin woman of 43 who still has bound feet. She is the daughter, granddaughter, and great-granddaughter of midwives and has practised her profession for two decades. Up to a couple of years ago she regularly lost more than half her deliveries from "convulsions" (tetanus). This proportion was regarded as "inevitable."

When the local People's Government began a course to re-train old midwives, Wang Chi-ying joined with hesitation. But soon she became one of the best students and asked regularly in the classes: "Why did no one tell us these things before?" A kind and conscientious woman, she often exclaimed with deep feeling: "How many children have died from my ignorance!"

Since she completed the course, Wang Chi-ying has delivered 43 babies, including seven difficult cases, without losing a single one. She has taught the new way personally to three other old midwives in her village and organized a Midwives' Association covering several villages. Many midwives, stimulated by her example, have gone to training schools. She is recognized as a local health leader, inspects the work of other midwives and is called as a consultant in difficult deliveries. Wang Chi-ying is now attending a night school for adults, to learn to read and write.

In 1950, alone, more than 46,371 old-style midwives throughout the country were re-educated with special emphasis on sterilization and asepsis, of which many of them had never heard before. As a result, sample figures from many counties already show a half to two-thirds decrease of infant deaths from tetanus. Every one of the 1,491 rural County Health...
Departments already fully established in China is charged with re-training these women, on whom the majority of Chinese mothers must necessarily depend until huge numbers of new personnel are graduated.

Medical Education

The effort being put into training new personnel may be gathered from one figure. Graduates from medical schools in the year 1950 exceeded by six times the highest number in any year under the reactionary Kuomintang regime.

In 1951, the chief emphasis was on the training of middle-grade medical and public health workers, a classification that did not exist in old China at all. Twenty institutions to train such personnel have already been set up. A number of special schools where old-style Chinese doctors can receive supplementary training have also been started in different parts of the country. Many research centres now study the value of the traditional Chinese drugs.

All health and medical personnel, old and new, have been imbued with the spirit of serving the people. The result of their selfless efforts may now be seen in China’s rapidly improving public health. The emphasis on preventive medicine, born of the government’s concern for the people is already producing results. The absence of epidemics formerly considered “normal” helps to increase both agricultural and industrial production, and improve standards of living.

Medical workers are responsible citizens and are therefore prominent in every nationwide effort and campaign. They are volunteering in thousands to take part in the movement to resist U.S. imperialist aggression and to aid Korea, at present a major feature of our national life. Surgical, medical and epidemic prevention teams from different areas of China are now working on the Korean front where medical teams of the Chinese Red Cross are also active among both troops and people.

Achievements in 1951

In the meantime, the programme for 1951 has been carried out. Not all the figures are as yet available, but those announced for the first ten months of the year are most impressive.

Two hundred million people were vaccinated against smallpox as compared to 57 million in 1950.

By November 1951, health departments had been established in 1,865 counties—85 per cent of all the counties in China.

Several national conferences had been held on various aspects of public health and medicine to undertake further planning and organization.

China’s medical workers are confident that, with the aid of the mobilized people and the leadership of the People’s Government, our new China will be healthy as well as happy and free.
New Rise Of Industry

CHEN HAN-SENG

China has a mixed and composite economy. It includes no less than five types of enterprises.

The most widespread form is still individual small-scale economy, which includes family farms and all handicrafts.

The second type is private capitalist enterprise which still forms more than 80 per cent of the trade capital in China.

The third is state capitalist enterprise, representing at present a combination of state and private capital.

Cooperative enterprise, which is of a semi-socialist character, is the fourth type. China now has more than 48,000 cooperatives of various categories, with a total of over 30,000,000 members.

Fifth, and most important of all, there are the new nationalized enterprises, socialist in nature, which now account for half of China's modern industrial production. In heavy industry, the nationalized sector is about 80 per cent of the whole. In light industry it is over 50 per cent.

The nationalized enterprises, operated by the state, represent the leading force in the new Chinese economy. They are advancing rapidly, but not at the expense of productive activity by the other forms listed. On the contrary, the strengthening of state industry in the present period ensures better tools, supplies and markets for the individual small producer. It stimulates private capital to engage in production necessary to the country and people by providing it with secure conditions and profitable orders. It curbs speculation, and, by purchasing raw materials and guaranteeing an even flow of necessary goods to the countryside, enlarges the scope of cooperative as well as private trade.

Task of Coordination

To manage and coordinate all these types of productive enterprise is obviously the first step toward industrialization. For this purpose the People's Government has set up four ministries in Peking: Heavy Industry, Fuel Industry, Textile Industry, and Light Industry (including the food industry). In the past two years numerous national conferences, attended by delegates from all over the country, had been held to discuss administrative and technical problems.

There have been conferences for the iron, steel, electrical, mechanical, chemical and non-ferrous metallurgical industries. There have also been coal mining, electric power, petroleum, and hydraulic engineering conferences, as well as conferences dealing with the manufacture of paper, matches, medicine, rubber and leather. These conferences have tackled problems of raw material supply, production costs, transport, and marketing, standardization of products, factory budgets and administration. They have also been instrumental in adjusting the relations between private and state capital in the various categories.

The guiding principle in this coordinating activity has been to organize the advance of all industry under the leadership of the state-operated enterprises. Private industry has been directed toward activity useful to the people and helped to avoid unplanned production and competition resulting from overcrowding of individual fields.

Problems Encountered

There is no doubt that the industrial world in China faces many problems, some of which are unprecedented.

First and foremost is the general impoverishment of the country, intensified by the 22-year rule of Chiang Kai-shek (1927-1949) and of his imperialist supporters.

During the eight years of war against Japanese aggression, between 1937 and 1945, China lost about 10 million people and sustained property losses amounting to no less than $22 billion American dollars. Wild inflation during the three and half years of civil war (1946-1949) greatly accelerated the decline in trade and industry.

Former Pattern of Industry

As a result of imperialist domination of the country, modern industry in China was scarcely developed at all. Even in 1937, on the eve of the war with Japan, the total number of working lathes in the whole country was about 80,000.

Iron and steel production was about 700,000 tons.

Total electric power output was less than 2,000,000 kilowatts.

In the textile industry, spindles numbered not more than 5,000,000.

In a word China was predominantly a nation of handicraft industry. Her modern industry was extremely modest. Her heavy industry was feeblest of all.

As is typical for semi-colonial economics, whatever modern industry was developed in China was more or less dependent on foreign capital.

There was a time when the import of American motor vehicles into China totalled 10,000 a year. For the repair of these, no less than 100 fairly large machine shops were maintained, but their 3,000 workers laboured mainly for the benefit of Henry Ford and other American manufacturers.

In the chemical industry, the manufacture of cosmetics flourished. But manufacture of soda and sulphuric acid was very minor.

Even in the light industry, manufacture catered almost exclusively to the urban market and not for rural inhabitants who comprise 80 per cent of the Chinese people.
Successes in Reconstruction

When the Central People's Government was inaugurated in 1949 it faced a two-fold industrial problem: to restore industrial production and at the same time to correct all the defects derived from China's past status, so as to launch a new path for industrialization. This was by no means an easy task.

The iron and steel industry, for instance, was 90 per cent destroyed between 1937 and 1949. Electric power capacity was 50 per cent destroyed during the same period. Moreover, the Japanese surrender practically denuded China's Northeast—where most of industry is located—of technicians. This was because it had been the policy of the Japanese, who occupied the area from 1931 to 1945, to confine such work to their own nationals. As a result, when the industrial plants in the Northeast were restored by the Regional People's Government, many technicians and skilled workers had to be recruited from east and south China.

Nevertheless the task was successfully carried out. In the past two years the Northeast has achieved speedy industrial recovery, and factories in other administrative regions have also been resuscitated.

The cement factories at Lanchow in the Northwest, and in Chungking in the Southwest; the iron mines in south Chahar and in the Northeast; the paper factories in Szechuan and Kwangtung; the manufacture of steel rails in an important steel works in the Southwest: these are all examples of successful restoration.

As early as October 1950, 82.4 per cent of all textile spindles and 84.2 per cent of all power looms in the country had been put to work.

Basically the restoration of modern industrial production in China has been guaranteed by the advance of political democracy for the people. It has been achieved by the united efforts of workers, peasants, the middle class, and the patriotic industrialists, led by the People's Government.

Modernization and industrialization have been the common aim, as modernization and industrialization are the basis for improving people's livelihood. It has been a constant aim of our economic policy to guarantee that the progress of industry and the improvement of the workers' livelihood go hand in hand.

Better Life for Labour

Statistics from the Northeast show that average wages in that region increased by 27 per cent in 1949, by 12.5 per cent in 1950, and by an estimated 10 per cent in 1951. There has been a more or less similar rise in other administrative regions.

The People's Government in 1950 promulgated a safety and health law for factories and installed a system of factory inspection. As a result, sickness and deaths in textile factories in Tientsin, for instance, decreased by 62 per cent in 1950.

The Labour Insurance Law was published in 1951. Since last May, all factories employing 100 or more workers have taken out labour insurance. In other words, some 2,300,000 industrial workers and staff people, or about 10,000,000 people if the families are included, are protected by this law. In the nationalized textile mills, workers' insurance is equivalent to 12 to 15 per cent of the total wage.

Many sanatoria and homes have been set up for disabled, old and retired workers. More than 1,700 factories have organized workers' clubs. Workers' living quarters have already been greatly improved in many places.

Workers have made great advances in their culture. An estimated 1,300,000 have joined study classes of one kind or another.

The Chinese worker is no longer a slave of the machine. He now feels a new zest for life. He knows that he is a master of the country. In the factory, he has practical experience of the fact that every step in increasing production is a step forward in his earnings and general welfare. Instead of being docile and passive, he now exhibits initiative.

The productive enthusiasm of labour, its support of the policy of rapid restoration and industrialization, is the main moving force in the new rise of Chinese economy. This enthusiasm and this support find organized form—through the trade unions—in two great movements, the rationalization movement and production emulation (work competitions).

Workers Raise Productivity

In textile and other factories, during 1950 alone, no less than

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24,000 proposals for administrative and technical improvements were made by the workers and adopted by management. Competition groups have been organized and involve over 2,220,000 workers in all.

Thanks to the enthusiasm of labour, backed by improved planning and administration, factories in many different industries, especially in iron and steel, produce from four to eight new records during one month. In the large Ta Chang silk filature in Wusih, the 1951 production was the highest in fourteen years in both quantity and quality. In 1950 all textile factories in the country taken together exceeded their highest production records of the past. Total yarn production in 1950 was 0.28 per cent higher than in 1930, the previous all-time high. In cloth production it was 7.8 per cent higher than 1936, the previous peak in this branch.

Private Industry Aided

This situation applies to both state and private industry. Under the leadership and with the support of the former, the latter is enjoying prosperity.

In 1950 the Ministry of Heavy Industry placed orders with many private factories. Two-thirds of the orders for steel manufacturers and one-third of those for electric appliances went to privately owned plants. State textile mills also passed on semi-finished goods to private mills for further processing.

Compared with 1949, yarn production increased 39.39 per cent in 1950; while power loom production increased 59.11 per cent in the same year. Printing and dyeing in private factories increased 33 per cent. Privately-controlled gunny-sack production increased by 76.08 per cent in the same year.

Private industry has been greatly benefited by the new flood control projects. In 1951, more than 200 private workshops, including some 70 steel and machine shops in Shanghai, filled orders for implements and material used on the great Huai river project. These factories employ a total of 30,000 workers.

In both private and state factories, remarkable progress has taken place. Waste of materials has been greatly reduced in the gunny-sack mills in Tientsin. In Canton, certain steel processes which used to require forty days now take only twenty-eight. In another steel plant, in the Southwest, 94 per cent of the products are up to standard, as compared to only 70 per cent formerly.

Base for New Progress

The average daily coal production per miner in the Northeast was 0.33 tons per day in 1946. It is now nearly double this figure. In 1949 the value of industrial products in the Northeast represented only 35 per cent of the total industrial and agricultural production. By 1950 it had risen to 43 per cent, and the 1951 target was to increase it to 47 per cent.

Statistics for the entire country show that coal production increased nearly one and a half times between 1949 and 1950, production of machinery three times, cement nearly four times, steel more than seven times, and pig iron eleven and a half times. The textile plan for 1951 was to increase the number of spindles by 162,000; and to manufacture 2,000 machine looms.

This is the outline of the new rise of industry in China. To the casual observer it may appear to be merely “restoration.” But a true understanding of the nature of the present democratic transformation of China, and of the actual industrial progress made so far, reveals, that during this process of restoration, many of the former defects have been corrected. It shows that China is already well on the way towards a genuine process of industrialization that will pave the way for prosperous livelihood for her people and contribute to world peace.
How Workers Move Industry Forward

One of the prime factors in the speedy restoration of Chinese economy from the effects of long years of war is the initiative and inventiveness of the workers. An illustration of this is the significant rise in national industrial output started by the 47-year-old lathe operator Ma Heng-chang and nine of his shop mates at the government-owned Fifth Machine Building Plant in Mukden, Northeast China.

What did Ma Heng-chang and his friends do? Inspired by the new situation in which Chinese workers work for themselves and the only limit on their prosperity is the undeveloped state of national industry, they discussed for ten months how to improve their work. They kept trying out every likely answer on the job until they finally came up with the real one.

How did this small event become a great one and affect the whole of China's heavy industry? The answer is simple. Since the People's Government, the people's press and the whole body of Chinese labour are eager to increase and improve production, the experience of Ma Heng-chang's little group was publicized in detail throughout China. Today more than 6,000 production teams are applying and developing the example they set.

Ma Heng-chang had been a worker for 27 years. His past had been like that of millions of other Chinese workers. "Under the warlords, the Japanese and the Kuomintang, I did not have enough to eat or wear," he wrote recently in a Peking trade union newspaper. "If there was anything wrong with our work we were either beaten up or sacked. Once when a Japanese supervisor told me to pick up a ruler and I didn't catch what he meant, he came up and smashed my face."

The impact of liberation on Ma Heng-chang was also typical. He has written about this too, in a frank, open worker's way. "After liberation our new factory director told us, 'We rely on the workers.' To tell you the truth, we didn't believe him at first. All the factory directors we'd ever known had been rotten. Why should the Communists be different? Then I called on the director just to see how he lived. I found that his wife and children dressed and ate just like us. What was more, he accepted any reasonable suggestions we made." Thus Ma Heng-chang's cautious skepticism gradually faded away.

As a result, Ma began to stir up everyone in his shop to work better. During lunch periods, he and his mates would sit around over a blueprint of the job on hand and think how to use their lathes to greater effect. Soon Ma Hung-ju, a milling machine operator, came up with a way of completing in 15 minutes a part that had formerly taken two hours to machine. The whole group devised a new method of dividing up another job so as to finish it in half their previous time.

All agreed to make full preparations before starting their machines, to care for them better than they had in the past, to wipe and oil them and put away all tools and parts before leaving. They also undertook to explain all unfinished work fully to the next shift. Without "speed-up" or additional physical strain, simply as a result of more rational organization, the team's output went up and up. So did the wages of its members.

Ma and his friends concerned themselves not only with quantity but also with quality. Each week they held a careful review of the reasons why any job had been rejected by the inspectors. When the cause was discovered, they set out to remedy it and to warn other workers against similar mistakes.

In addition older workers began patiently to explain to each apprentice the nature of the machine to which he was assigned, sometimes staying after working...
hours to do it. In this way, apprentices could begin to work independently after three months instead of after several years as formerly. In contrast to the past, the apprentices were encouraged to ask any questions that came to their minds. The age-old system under which worker-teachers purposely slowed down the training of apprentices in order to put off the day when they would become masters was abandoned. So was the feudal abuse of making the apprentices sweat while the older men smoked, chatted or walked around. These things could only take place, of course, in an atmosphere in which no one feared for his job or his old age.

After ten months, eight of the workers in Ma Heng-chang’s team had achieved a record of no rejected work whatsoever. Seven of them broke production records. The team as a whole improved 18 tools on which its members were working. In a work competition that took place during this period, it accomplished two months’ work in 28 days.

Advancing constantly in skill and cooperation, Ma Heng-chang’s team began to issue emulation challenges to others, first in its own plant, then throughout the country. Last May Day it announced that it had saved 22 days and seven hours on a four-month job during which 33 individual records were broken and the quality rating of the whole team’s output was 99.81 per cent.

In July 1951, the Ma Heng-chang team achieved the high targets it had set itself one day ahead of schedule. Its products were 99.3 per cent up to standard. Four new records were established, raising productivity from two to 6½ times.

In August the brigade was challenged to increase its production by a value equivalent to 44 tons of grain by the end of the year. On October 25 it announced that it had already over-fulfilled this target by 47 per cent, having produced an extra value equal to 65 tons of grain.

These advances in productivity were a result of the team’s study and mastery of high-speed metal-cutting techniques developed in the USSR and of the Kovalev method, in which workers showing high efficiency in various phases of an operation are studied and a procedure combining the best achievements of each becomes the general standard. During the month, the team did a day’s extra voluntary work for the campaign to aid Chinese volunteers in Korea, donating its earnings for the purchase of arms.

Ma Heng-chang and his workteam could not have existed in the old China but only in the new. To give birth to such people and such work, certain conditions are necessary. There must be no conflict but a community of interest between the authorities and the workers. The workers must know for a fact that they benefit personally from every productive advance. The government must so respect ordinary working people and their experience that it looks to them, not only to books and learned engineers, for solutions to economic problems.

Fear of unemployment and depression must be so effectively wiped out that neither individual workers nor individual factories hang on to “trade secrets,” but on the contrary share them willingly, without fear of loss to themselves.

These conditions now exist in China. That is why Ma Heng-chang’s story is there to tell.
Flowers from peasant children to air force pilots taking part in the war against locusts in Hopei province.

Locusts have long been one of the great plagues of the Chinese countryside. Many was the year when a fine crop ripened, heavy-eared after ample rainfall and sunlight—only to be eaten by these insects. The locusts swept down on the fields in dark clouds, leaving whole regions stripped of grain and foliage, dooming hundreds of thousands of people to hunger. They chewed the window-paper out of the houses and even bit the faces and noses of farmers' children. The peasants fought them, by hand and with flails, but often failed to control them.

Last July, locusts were again spotted in nine provinces in China: along the coast, among the reeds round the lakes in the central part of the country and in the grass plains of the Northwest. The threat in Hopei, Shantung and northern Anhwei provinces was the worst in a generation. But in contrast to other years, the swarms did not get the crop. Something new and unprecedented happened. The people triumphed over the locusts.

The victory, which ushers in a new period in Chinese farm history, was won with the help of the air force. Hearing of the danger to crops in three provinces, the government equipped planes with sprayers and sent them to the areas of greatest concentration of the locusts—Hwanghua and Ssu-hung counties. The planes made 214 flights in two weeks and succeeded in destroying the swarms. What the planes did not finish off the peasants on the ground did, with hand-sprayers and insecticides that kept pouring in from Peking and Tientsin by trucks which traveled day and night.
Some time later, when another locust swarm threatened some 10,000 acres of ripe crops in Tien-mien and Hanchwan counties, Hupeh province, the air force set out again. The aid of planes was especially necessary in this area because the locusts were breeding in soggy marshland, difficult to reach by other means.

The appearance of the air force created great excitement among the peasants. They could not stop talking about how a few planes had killed more locusts than 10,000 men could destroy in three days. They made up many sayings about how the People's Air Force fights all aggressors against the Chinese people, be they humans or insects. Tired farmers jumped with joy when they saw the planes shuttling over the affected areas. When the planes landed, they ran to the pilots and presented them with delicacies: eggs, salt fish and almonds.

At a welcoming celebration in Hwanghua county, peasant Ni Peng-shan made a speech in which he said: "We used to have four enemies. The People's Government has already wiped out three: bandits, tyrannical landlords and floods. Now Chairman Mao has sent planes to wipe out our last enemy—the locusts."

To the farmers of the affected districts, "Chairman Mao's Anti-Locust Air Force" is added evidence that the government has no interests apart from those of the people.

Planes make it possible to clear 150 acres of locusts in a single hour.

The trench method. Locusts which fall into these ditches are killed with "666," the Chinese-made equivalent of DDT.

The government issues sprayers and "666" to peasants for use where grass and reeds are too thick for aerial spraying to be effective.
Urban Relief and Rehabilitation

CHAO PU-CHU

One great change is obvious to every eye in the cities of China today, two years after liberation. The victims of the old society are no longer to be seen. The homeless children and old people, the destitute families starving under the open sky that used to meet one at every step—all these heartbreaking scenes have disappeared.

Our city streets have also been entirely freed from the scum of the old society—the loafers, pickpockets and professional beggars that infested them for centuries. No longer do predatory rascals and gangsters of all kinds sidle up to likely “prospects,” or pick quarrels with passers-by to gain some profit by swindling or intimidation. These things too have sunk into the past.

Such is the unmistakable evidence that we now have a government of the people and that a new society is already in the making in China. Behind it is the even more striking fact that the former starving urban poor have been provided with food, shelter, work and in many cases land; and that former city riff-raff are being reformed through useful labour.

China Helps Herself

These developments provide positive proof that the Chinese people, under their own People’s Government, can both take care of the victims of the old order and remove the cancers that it bred. They have kicked the last props from under the moth-eaten slander that China has not the resources, the will or the skill to move ahead without imperialist “advice” or “philanthropy.”

Not even the enemies of China can now deny that two years of liberation have produced results which could not even be dreamed of after the previous hundred or so years of vaunted “model” municipal administration under imperialist rule in such cities as Shanghai. No one can overlook the fact that in this brief period we have done more in relief work than was achieved by the outside relief activities of a hundred years. There can be no better demonstration that full freedom from exploitation and control by foreign profit-seekers, not investments that aim to dominate and the Point Four type of poisoned “gifts,” are what every nation in Asia needs in order to make similar progress in as short a time.

Why Relief After Liberation?

Generally speaking, the complete change in the aspect of our cities is one fruit of the emergence of China from a semi-colonial and semi-feudal condition. It could not otherwise have occurred at all.

Specifically, however, this change was due to the effectiveness of the new type of urban relief and rehabilitation work. Even after our liberation, this relief activity was called upon to overcome difficulties of an extremely grave and unprecedentedly widespread character.

Why did we then, and why do we still need relief work, since our revolution has already destroyed the root cause of the worst social evils of the past? The answer to this question lies in the conditions which we inherited.

As a general legacy from long years of misrule and merciless exploitation under previous governments, of which the Kuomintang regime was the last and worst, widespread poverty and depression permeated our whole society.

In addition, the relentless civil war, waged by the reactionaries...
against the People's Liberation Army, afflicted the people with calamities even worse than those of the Japanese invasion which had preceded it. Not only did the people lose their sons through conscription and their livelihood through taxes and requisitions. They were often unable, as a result of the war, to continue normal agricultural activity and such work as the repair of dykes. The crop-failures and floods that resulted cost the lives of millions and turned other millions into homeless refugees. Besides the refugees, the cities swarmed with hundreds of thousands of disabled Kuomintang army men, many of them completely demoralized.

Following liberation, finally, our coastal cities were subjected to naval blockade and wanton air-raids by the brigand Chiang Kai-shek and his U.S. backers. This resulted in more loss of life, destruction of houses and temporary dislocation of trade and industry.

As a consequence, our cities were full of unemployed, whose number was constantly augmented by refugees from the countryside. Every morning produced thousands of castaway infants, whom their parents had abandoned in desperation. Old people and cripples wandered, hungry and without aim, waiting only for death. Prostitution assumed monstrous proportions. Tuberculosis, venereal infections and various epidemic diseases reached unheard-of heights.

In Shanghai alone, over 800,000 persons were without any means of support and were classified as completely destitute.

The Evil Heritage

Cities like Shanghai had been strongholds of imperialist, feudal and bureaucratic-capitalist rule. They had developed as centres of commerce and ruling-class consumption rather than of healthy national industry. Their existing industries were largely geared to export markets most of which had become unavailable, and to the cheap-labour processing of imported, raw materials which had stopped coming in. Even at their most "prosperous," they had been factors in the exploitation of the country instead of its healthy development. The problem in such cities, therefore, was not merely to get the wheels of industry turning but to reorient their whole economy.

Deep-rooted conditions of this kind clearly call for relief. Just as clearly, they cannot be solved by relief alone. They can only be successfully tackled by relief, rehabilitation and basic economic reconstruction bound into one indissoluble whole under a common plan.

The First Steps

Self-help and mutual aid in the cities themselves, and mutual aid between the afflicted cities and all other parts of the country, were the key to the relief effort after liberation.

In the first period, rural areas were called upon to help the city. On a rough estimate, more than 1,000,000 unemployed and immediately unemployed persons in eight main cities—Shanghai, Peking, Tientsin, Nanking, Wuchang-Hankow, Canton, Sian and Tsingtau—were dispersed among the villages and accommodated in agricultural production. From Nanking alone, 280,000 out of a total of 400,000 unemployed were decentralized in this way. They in turn helped the villages to increase productivity with their energies and skills.

Persons re-settled from the cities were received with warm kindness and assistance by the village people. On the other hand, people remaining in the cities raised large sums of money to help rural refugees from famine-stricken areas, who were gradually re-equipped and repatriated. Winter clothing campaigns to help flood and drought victims in Anhwei, Kiangsu, Hopei and Honan provinces, regions devastated by flood, brought in 6,800,000 warm garments from the cities.

Kuomintang army men stranded in the cities were also successfully resettled. In the Central South Region alone, 699,418 were shifted to the country in the short space of six months, at a cost of more than 9 billion yuan.

The cities were made safe and social order restored through the removal of thieves, professional pan-handlers and loafers, who were put to work on various projects. A "New Man Village" for 10,000 such persons from Shanghai was set up in the nearby Kwanyuan reclamation area, in north Kiangsu province, where these former parasites are now both helping the country and laying the material basis for a secure, productive, and prosperous life for themselves.
Prostitution is ceasing to exist in our cities. Leading the nation, Peking has been entirely cleansed of this social evil. The "special quarters" infamous for hundreds of years can no longer be found. Many of the women, freed from the grip of procurers and trained in various skills, have secured good jobs, married and begun an altogether new life. A few of them have begun to work in various cultural fields.

A common saying in China nowadays is that the old society turned human beings into devils, while the new society turns devils into human beings!

**Fighting Unemployment**

In another phase of urban rehabilitation, assistance has been given to 7,983,937 unemployed workers and intellectuals out of a total of 1,500,000 throughout the country. The assistance has taken many forms: assignment to jobs, outright financial relief, provision of temporary work and subsidizing living expenses while the beneficiaries learn new skills.

Municipal construction projects, already undertaken on a considerable scale, are absorbing large numbers of the unemployed. If we assume that each person receiving such aid has three dependents, we arrive at the figure of 2,000,000 persons supported by these measures of relief and rehabilitation.

It must be remarked here that unemployment in our country is a product of the past and will soon be a thing of the past. This is already the case in Northeast China. Cities like Dairen and Harbin, which were liberated before the rest of the country, have been thoroughly rehabilitated and are rapidly acquiring new industries. In these places, there is no unemployment whatsoever. On the contrary, there is a sharp shortage of both industrial and intellectual workers, despite the fact that many persons from other parts of the country have already taken jobs there.

**Improving Health and Welfare**

While the problem of food has been solved and that of work is on its way to solution in all our cities, positive measures are already being taken on a wide scale to improve health, welfare and education.

Health centres and creches are appearing in all working-class areas, to give free medical assistance and care for the children of women workers and office employees. Hospital and maternity care is now available, free or for a nominal charge, to a much greater section of the city people than could ever hope for it in the past.

In Shanghai and Tsingtao, "youth villages" and special primary schools have been set up for children who a short time ago were homeless. As financial and economic conditions improve, other cities are acquiring similar institutions.

In Harbin there are public wedding halls and funeral parlours which can be used entirely free of charge.

China is no longer a country that depends on relief from the outside. On the contrary, we have already begun to help others.

Vice-Premier Tung Pi-wu of the Central People's Government set this as a definite policy, in a speech at the All-China People's Relief Conference in Peking. He said that relief and welfare work in our cities is no longer to be limited to "saving ourselves" but must henceforth also include "helping others."

This injunction is being carried out. Funds and supplies have been collected in large amounts for the relief of war sufferers in Korea and of Chinese refugees who have returned home from that country. In response to the call of the Chinese Red Cross Society, great numbers of doctors and nurses in many cities have formed volunteer medical teams and gone to the Korean front.

Chinese relief organizations in all big cities are aiding overseas Chinese refugees who have been compelled to leave their establishments, residences and other property in Malaya, Siam and the Philippines as a result of political and national persecution. Returning to China they have been warmly received by the people wherever they have settled, and have received financial assistance, shelter and care.

**Eliminating Imperialist Influence**

Obviously, none of the new tasks of relief work in China could be carried out by organizations based on the old ruling-class concept of "charity", or by those operated or influenced by imperialism.

A necessary preliminary, therefore, was the ridding of welfare organizations in our cities of all traces of imperialist control and attitudes, particularly those of the ruling groups of the United States who have so amply proved their enmity to the Chinese revolution both before and since its victory.

The fruits of imperialism in the relief field have been fully exposed.

In the worst cases, it produced mass extermination of Chinese children. This was proved by the death pits found in a number of "orphanages" and by their own statistics, revealing a death-rate of 99%. Such institutions, needless to say, have been reformed, while the criminals responsible for
their abuses have been punished or deported from China.

In even the "best" cases, however, the minds of beneficiaries of imperialist relief were bent into subservience to the very forces whose exploitation of China was responsible for their widespread poverty. In practically all cases relief was misused for improper interference in Chinese political life. In many, it served as a cover for foreign intelligence activities, frequently including recruiting of agents and military espionage. All such patterns of "relief" are being effectively uprooted at the present time.

Great changes have also come about in relief and welfare institutions run by Chinese nationals but largely or wholly dependent on subsidies from the United States. These were formerly under the indirect influence of imperialism. Now they have been re-oriented to a new base of support in the Chinese government and society. Freed of dependence and divided loyalties, they now have a single aim—service to the people.

Such basic policy changes have been immediately reflected in the rapid development of self-respect among the beneficiaries of relief. They see themselves in a new light. They learn that, acting collectively, they have the strength to overcome their difficulties. Daily they see indications that their future is secure, that the new China which is being constructed will assure their welfare and will not long tolerate the conditions that make relief necessary.

Former paupers now recognize their own responsibility toward their people and their country. A concrete example can be found in the orphans who had no hope till they went to "New Man Village." These youngsters lived in the streets and had no hope till they went to "New Man Village."

Relief work in China today is integrated with our entire programme of peaceful national reconstruction. Such coordination is guaranteed by basic relief policies laid down by the Central People's Government and the main goals it lays down from time to time. In deciding the actual programme to be carried out in any given place, local conditions and requirements are carefully studied. There is no undifferentiated, blanket approach.

Principles and Procedures

Relief is not conducted independently in each locality. It is recognized that urban and rural relief are inseparable. Refugees cannot be resettled from cities to the land without the aid of the villages. The villages cannot lessen the burden on the cities unless they themselves receive aid which the cities can give, in tools and supplies.

Close and friendly contact is maintained with government organs. No large-scale medical work can be done, for example, without cooperation with Public Health Bureaux. Big groups of people cannot be moved without help from transportation authorities. Loafers and underworld characters cannot be turned to production without assistance from the Public Security Bureaux. Resettlement cannot have satisfactory results if responsibilities are not assumed by the trade, industrial and publicity departments of local and regional administrations.

Relief and welfare activities can only be on a puny scale if they do not involve the masses; they can accomplish important tasks only when they themselves are a form of mass action. In the new China, labour unions, peasant, youth and women's associations, the cooperatives with their millions of members, as well as other public organizations, have been drawn into the work. Their great pooled strength provides a sure base for a wide and many-sided attack on every social evil. It was in this way that the drive for relief funds for unemployed workers and winter clothes for the village poor was successfully carried out all over the country.

The solid accomplishments of the past two years prove that the Chinese people can perfectly well put their own house in order, overcoming all difficulties. Mainly benefiting the working population, our relief work not only heals the deep social wounds of past oppression, but contributes to the advances in production and culture which are building a new, prosperous China.

In brief, the objectives marked by Vice-Premier Tung are being put into practice. Within a very short space of time, the Chinese people have not only "saved themselves" but begun to "help others" as well.
HOLIDAY IN PEKING

**Sunday in Peking is a day for sports and excursions, particularly in the summer months, when these photographs were taken.**

- After a week of hard work, some people visit the famous historic spots of the capital. (Left page, right.)

- Others dance in the spacious parks and squares. (Left page, below.)

- Still others picnic informally or swim in the many fresh, clean lakes. (Right page.)
WOMEN DRIVE TRAMS IN PEKING

An elderly passenger sitting next to me on the tram markeed as he glanced admiringly at the young woman driver, "Women are doing everything nowadays. We already have labour and combat heroines, women government leaders and workers, scientists, tractor drivers and railway engineers. And now women tram drivers in Peking."

The girl in charge of our tram was 20-year-old Li Yun-hua. She is one of the first six women to do such a job south of the Great Wall. The story of her personal life shows the possibilities now opened to hundreds of millions of Chinese women who have shaken off their feudal shackles and are living as free citizens for the first time in history.

Poverty and starvation in her family drove Li Yun-hua as a child to work in a clothing factory. Her wages for a 12-hour day of sweated labour were 54 lbs. of rice per month, hardly enough to keep alive. Because she was a woman, the labour bosses treated her even worse than they did the men. "Whenever I thought of the future, I felt a pain in my heart," says Li Yun-hua.

Then Peking was liberated. Li Yun-hua was still only eighteen. She learned from the films that in the Soviet Union women were doing men's jobs, that a girl in Northeast China named Tien Kwel-yeng was driving a train and that several girls had already become skilled tram drivers in Dairen. "If they can do it, so can I," she said to herself.

When Li Yun-hua answered the tramway company advertisement for women conductors she added the remark, "I hope to become a tram driver one day. Why should not Peking, too, have women tram drivers as well as Dairen?"

Accepted, Li Yun-hua began ten months' work as a conductor. These ten months were happier than any previous period of her life. She worked an eight-hour day and her wages were five times what she earned before liberation. Her family began to eat three meals a day of good, nourishing food. She attended the company's spare-time school.

Soon she was elected a brigade leader, then a model worker of the whole tramway system and finally one of the 21 delegates to the People's Representative Conference of the city of Peking. "I never thought it possible for a woman worker to discuss and supervise the government's work," she said.

Li Yun-hua's dream began to come true in May when she was chosen as one of six women to be trained as drivers. The evening she was told the news, she was writing an essay for her night school class. She chose as her subject: "The same woman—trash of the old days, but talent of the new society."

The training was intensive. An experienced, skilled worker was assigned to each student. The girls had to learn electrical theory and how to do minor repairs.

When Li Yun-hua went to the driver's platform for her first test run, the people on the streets shouted, "Hey look! A woman driver!"

Peking was surprised and pleased when women began to pilot its trams. Photographs of Li Yun-hua and the other girls were frontpaged in the newspapers. Many women wrote congratulating them on their success. Their parents were proud of them. "Parents in the old days were often disappointed when they had girl babies," Li Yun-hua recalled. "We and many other women in China are now destroying this prejudice by showing there is nothing that we can't do."

Li Yun-hua's test period ended in August. Then she was given one of the new light blue "People's Specials" to drive all by herself. The conductors on her tram are women too. Together, they are working out plans for maximum punctuality and good service to the passengers. Soon they hope to win the red banner for the best tram crew in Peking.
Applause and cheers filled the Lyceum Theatre in Shanghai. The curtain had rung down on the last act of the play "Little Snowflake," presented by the Children's Theatre of the China Welfare Institute. Long after the lights went up, the clapping continued, accompanied by the excited chatter of the aroused audience. Many of the children crowded toward the dressing rooms, shouting threats to the villain and wanting to shake hands with the hero.

Backstage a grey-haired stagehand stood looking and listening, shaking his head from side to side. He nudged the younger stagehand beside him and said: "Since the opening of this theatre twenty years ago, I have never seen an audience respond like this."

"Little Snowflake" was but one of the many similar successes of the Children's Theatre since it started in the spring of 1947. Today, as a result of liberation, the young audiences of Shanghai have more than ever come to claim this troupe of youngsters as their own.

Early Steps

This project was organized by the Institute to create a theatre run for and by China's children. Prior to the liberation, it was compelled to function under the oppressive rule of the Kuomintang. Its history at that time consisted of overcoming one obstacle after another. The Kuomintang not only stifled the existing cultural activities for children, but also attempted to prevent new ones from developing. The streets of Shanghai were filled with tens of thousands of young folk. There were not enough schools, and many were too poor to attend those that existed. Thousands had no homes at all. The original members of the Children's Theatre were recruited from among the children of the streets, the homeless and the poverty-stricken. Its faculty set itself to moulding these youngsters who had known oppression from their earliest days, who were born of the masses and had the inner strength to hate and resist the causes of China's misery.

During those early days the Children's Theatre also had to overcome another obstacle. Many mothers and fathers, steeped in feudal ideas, regarded theatre work as no better than prostitution. The Kuomintang had encouraged this outlook. It had gone so far as to attempt to make all Shanghai actors and actresses register in the same category as prostitutes. Of course, the theatre workers bitterly resisted this, but many parents were influenced and withdrew their youngsters. They did this even when the theatre provided the only possible opportunity for their sons and daughters to get an education.

Nonetheless, the Children's Theatre was able to maintain a nucleus of members. After preliminary training, these boys and girls began their important job of bringing the truth, through music, dance and drama, to the youth of Shanghai. During the pre-liberation period, they produced innumerable short pieces, all closely linked with the main worries and demands of the people. When malignant inflation threatened most citizens with starvation, they staged a dance called "Who Causes High Prices?" When the Kuomintang began to force masses of young people into its tottering armies, the theatre put on its "Resist Conscription."

Two major dramas were also produced at this time. One, "The Watch," was adapted from a Soviet children's play contrasting old and new ways of education. The other, "The Little Circus," was written by the director of the Children's Theatre. It portrayed the exploitation of children and showed how, through unity, the children themselves could struggle against oppression.

Vitality Proved

In spite of persecution and under the very eyes of the Kuomintang's "cultural policemen," the children were able to take their talents, plays and dances into every corner of Shanghai. Acting as "little teachers," they performed the dances and songs of new China long before the liberation.

At times when reactionary control of the city became too strict, they would transfer their activi-
ties to the rural areas. In August 1948, for example, they visited the "Boys' Town" farm, a collecting and educational centre for Shanghai's delinquent and beggar children. A cultural troupe was organized among the youngsters, opening their eyes to the fact that, in a people's society, their lives could be filled with hope and happiness. This was a new application of the theatre's experience during the previous summer vacation, when its members had trained over 100 children so that they could organize dramatic activities in their own schools when the holiday was over.

The "Boys' Town" work brought new threats from the Kuomintang, so the Children's Theatre moved back into Shanghai. More plays were developed, and performances in a great number of schools were lined up. However, at the last minute, many teachers cancelled the scheduled shows under Kuomintang pressure. The theatre countered by establishing close contact with the progressive Teachers' Union and putting on plays with "no preparation and no publicity." Under this system, courageous teachers guaranteed that audiences could be present, mobilizing their pupils quietly. Both the Children's Theatre and the audience would show up unannounced at a prearranged time and place, and the show would go on. Many schools and thousands of young people continued to be served in such ways.

In the last days of reactionary rule, marked by frantic Kuomintang arrests and executions, the Children's Theatre split into groups which were dispersed to various parts of Shanghai. These remained in hiding, rehearsing their plays until the People's Liberation Army arrived. Then the Children's Theatre reappeared in the streets as a publicity team, performing on corners and in the lanes and terraces, explaining to the people what the liberation meant for them.

These efforts endeared the Theatre to the whole population, both children and grown-ups.

Under New Conditions

Since the liberation, the Children's Theatre has settled down to become one of the main cultural influences among the children of Shanghai and the whole nation. It is now entrusted with leadership in lifting the level of children's dramatics throughout China. Bearing this responsibility, the young members and faculty are working seriously and making long-range plans. They are struggling to lift their own technique, to deepen their own understanding of the strength of the new China. In keeping with the basic policy of the China Welfare Institute, they have begun to conduct their theatre as an experiment, as a model for the rest of the country.

The present members of the theatre are boys and girls who have been especially selected for talent. As was the case with the original members, many of whom have since grown up and entered the general stream of national cultural advance, they live and study collectively. Their training is based on the principle of linking study with practical work. They are divided into four sections: drama, dancing, music and art. In addition to receiving specialized technical training, each child also studies regular school subjects.

On the technical side, the children in the dramatic section are taught how to analyze a play and to take various parts. They are encouraged to write their own plays and have revealed great creativeness. The youngsters come mainly from working families and have themselves known both poverty and hard struggle for a better life. This brings their
writing especially close to the actual experience of the vast majority of our people, both the bitterness of the past and the great energies released now that the people know they can change all things by their own efforts.

Children in the art section are responsible for lighting, scenery, properties and costumes. Those in the music section have their own Chinese orchestra and another orchestra with European instruments. The dance section performs Chinese classical dances, ballets and modern dance. The music and dance sections try both to preserve the old national forms of China and to make them blend satisfactorily with forms originating elsewhere.

People of a New Kind

The relationship among the youngsters of the Children's Theatre is healthy and comradely. Their whole education is aimed toward developing self-government, mutual help and cooperation. Together, they summarize and draw conclusions from their work. They are taught to be open and frank at meetings, to bring up suggestions and debate hotly until they find a solution for the problems discussed. They have their own blackboard newspapers and wall bulletins, filled both with praise and criticism. Most of the theatre's youngsters have either become members of the Young Pioneers or the New Democratic Youth League, or are preparing to enter these organizations. One of the girl actors was among those selected to spend the summer in a Bulgarian Young Pioneers camp.

In brief, the members of the CWI Children's Theatre are good examples of the new type of Chinese youth, honest in mind and healthy in body, willing to receive and ready to give constructive criticism. Their qualities are the very ones on which the building of our new society is based, the qualities China prizes most highly in her citizens.

Character development of this kind helps the children in their chosen profession. Its results appear whenever the Children's Theatre performs. One can see them most vividly every June 1, on International Children's Day, the high point of each year's activity.

It was on June 1, 1950, that the Theatre first presented "Little Snowflake." The play describes the persecution of the Negro people in the United States and shows how the struggle against this persecution is organized. "Little Snowflake" went into more than thirty performances. Its young audiences followed it with unusual concentration. They loudly sympathized with the Negro hero, and demanded punishment for the bigoted villain.

On International Children's Day in 1951, the theatre presented a dance pantomime, "Always Be Prepared." The title itself is the motto of China's Young Pioneers, and the pantomime portrayed the history and present activities of the organization. Beginning with scenes of children's life in the old liberated areas it brought the story to the Mao Tse-tung era throughout the nation. Through the medium of dance, it showed why Chinese children should study hard, play hard, and develop every faculty so as to be ready at all times for the construction and defence of their country. "Always Be Prepared" played to full houses and enthusiastic audiences for three weeks.

No less than 95,000 people witnessed Children's Theatre performances in the first half of 1951.

At present, the members and faculty of the Children's Theatre continue to train and prepare. Their objective is the rapid extension and development of children's theatres as part of the tide of cultural growth in China today.
"Interflow" is a word you will hear often in China today. It is the term applied to the exchange of goods between town and village, farm and factory, workers and peasants on a nationwide basis. The reopening of old and disused channels for such exchange and the pioneering of new ones is now a major concern of China's state trading enterprises, which are also leading and assisting private business to participate.

The internal commerce of China declined catastrophically after 1937. During the years of foreign and civil war, all major avenues of communication were destroyed or blocked, causing some provinces to lose every economic link they had previously had with one another. Moreover, the peasants, 80 per cent of the Chinese people, became terribly impoverished through war and oppression. Their production fell and they ceased to buy even the few manufactured goods they had used before. In many places, the people even stopped using matches, reverting to flint and steel.

Now the situation has changed altogether. The country is unified and at peace. Barely two years after the end of the destructive civil war on the mainland, railways have been fully restored and are carrying more freight than in any prewar year. The peasants, masters of their own soil since the land reform, are producing with great enthusiasm because their output belongs to them and not to landlords. Foreign export firms and their collaborators no longer dominate the market for rural by-products such as skins, bristles, walnuts, eggs, etc.—whose prices they used to force down, leaving the producers in wretchedness. Conditions have been created not only for the restoration of "interflow" trade but for its manifold increase over the past. To the extent that the villages find an outlet for their own products, they can become a limitless market for industry.

Home Market Expands

City industry, in its turn, now looks to the villages not only for markets but also for raw material. The unhealthy situation in which Chinese textile mills, for example, used to process imported cotton and export their products, has come to an end. The growth of "interflow" has become not only the most important way to foil imperialist blockade attempts but also a prerequisite to the rapid industrialization of the country.

The economic administration organs of China have made the promotion of healthy internal commerce one of their most important jobs. They have already succeeded in driving speculators and hoarders from the field and organizing the home market on a healthy basis. State trading companies purchased 130 per cent more agricultural goods and 154 per cent more industrial goods in 1951 than in 1950. Their success has stimulated legitimate private trade to serve the national economy in the same way.

As a result, producers all over the country now find a ready market. This is one of the major reasons why the purchasing power of the population as a whole has risen by 30 per cent in the past two years. Region by region, the increase in purchasing power has been even more spectacular, amounting to 60 per cent in Southwest China and 100 per cent in the Huai river area. The demand for industrial goods and raw materials, as well as consumers' goods, constantly runs in excess of supply. "Slack seasons" in business and industry have become a thing of the past. But, again through the steadying effect of state trade, neither the level of prices nor the balance of benefits to town and country have been disturbed.

A Merchant's Story

The way the state directs private interests toward fruitful "interflow" trade may be illustrated by the following example.

Li Nien-tung is a merchant of Tsining, Shantung province.

Straw matting, woven by peasants, piled up at a cooperative ready for shipment to town.

CHINA RECONSTRUCTS
Starting with a capital of ¥30,000 People's Currency (US$1,500 or £535), he did ¥2 billion (US $100,000 or £35,700) worth of "interflow" business in ten months.

A man of 22 years' commercial experience, Li had engaged in inter-provincial trade once before. The anti-Japanese and civil wars, however, changed him into a retail shopkeeper. After the liberation, he was encouraged to put his old knowledge to use once more by repeated urgings from the authorities and by the credits offered by government banks and transport concerns.

Li began by resuming his business connections with other cities and setting up new ones. When visiting Tsinan, capital of Shantung, he met a merchant from Tientsin and learned that Tientsin people loved to eat black melon seeds from the Shantung countryside. In Tientsin, he found people lining up for diesel oil of which there happened to be considerable stocks in Canton. In Hunan, he found plenty of tung oil which was badly needed by Shantung fishermen for their boats. In Wusih he found vegetable oil factories short of soybeans, which were a drug on the market in his home town, each October.

Within a few months, Li Nien-tung's trade network spread over 12 cities in all parts of the country. He kept up a large correspondence and sent salesmen out with samples. Last spring he organized a combine of 15 firms dealing in sea food. His success brought him not only profit but also honour. The Bureau of Industry and Commerce in his native town of Tsining cited him as an example of the kind of man "who can bring benefit both to himself and to the Chinese people."

That Li Nien-tung and hundreds like him have done well in internal trade is of course no accident. With the carrying out of the land reform in most parts of China, the peasants have been working hard and busily—because they are working for themselves. An estimate made by the Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs of the Central People's Government shows that the by-products our peasants produce for sale each year, over and above their main crops, amount to over ¥40 trillion (US $2 billion) a year. Government trading companies, cooperatives and private businessmen are all coming into the market for these, and are bringing industrial products from the cities to encourage the peasants to turn them into cash. Peasant purchasing power is zooming. In some parts of the country, such as the Northeast, it went up fivefold in a single year.

Rediscovering China's Wealth

To promote the interflow of goods between town and village, Native Products Exhibitions have been held in key cities all over the country. Peasant producers from hundreds of miles away were able to send their goods there through their new co-operative marketing groups. Visitors came in millions, and enormous transactions were closed.

Nomads were helped by the government to come all the way from Sinkiang to see the exhibition in Shanghai and to order tea, silk and manufactured goods.

Businessmen who had lived along the coast all their lives were stimulated by things they heard and saw to travel thousands of miles into the interior, where they ordered furs, leather, sheepskins, herbs, tung oil, chemicals and raw materials for industry.

The results are already evident in the appearance of southern bamboo manufactures as household articles in North China, and of tropical fruits in large quantities on the markets of Peking, Tientsin and the cities of the Northeast.

Merchants and industrialists, especially, found that they had had no idea previously of the riches of their own country. Living in the coastal ports which imperialism had tied to its own economy, they had formed the mental habit of relying on imported goods for existence, and had really come to believe that China was poor in natural resources. One former importer exclaimed after returning to the north from an exhibition in Shanghai: "I had the shock of my life. Here I'd been importing expensive cork from abroad when we have tons of it, good and cheap, in our Shensi province."

This businessman is typical of many who used to consider the wide oceans no barrier while they had no idea of what materials could be found a few hundred miles inland. Now these men will start looking inside China for what they need. And they will find it, because the resources of our country are limitless.
In spring of 1950, when the willows were turning green, Chairman Mao Tse-tung ordered the promulgation of the Marriage Law of the People’s Republic of China. When the news reached Chaoyang village near Hulan county, Sungkiang province, it created quite a commotion.

The old people felt it was an outrage to modesty. Some said, “The idea! Discarding all the old laws handed down by our ancestors.” Others commented, “Everything this government thinks up is good, but this marriage law…” and they shook their heads disapprovingly.

But all the young men and women were overjoyed. Among them was a pair of lovers—a young man named Lai Hsing-ya and a girl named Chao Shu-cheng—who were happy from the bottom of their hearts. They thought secretly. “At last our road is open.”

The two of them lived in the same yard. Lai Hsing-ya had a father and mother and two younger brothers. Chao Shucheng was the only daughter of an old widower. Both families had been poor and oppressed but had “gotten up from their knees” since liberation.

Lai Hsing-ya with his strong arms was one of the outstanding young peasants of the village. The only reason he was still single at 23 was that he had been too poor to marry. This worried his 60-year-old mother more than anything. Day and night, she dreamed of holding a grandchild in her arms.

The girl, 18-year-old Chao Shucheng was also “a good worker.” She was quick and skillful at every job, both inside and outside the house. Her mother had died when she was very young, and her father treasured her as the apple of his eye. Many men came to ask for her hand, but her father refused every time. He wanted a son-in-law who would come and live with him and take care of him for the remainder of his life. He also dreamed of someone rich who would give him a lot of money so he would be able to buy a few things and get himself a new wife for his old age.

When the peasants worked in mutual aid teams in the fields, Hsing-ya often helped Shucheng and her father. Feeling that she should give something in return, Shucheng would go over to sew for the Lai family. When old Mrs. Lai saw Shucheng’s fine needlework, she took the girl to her heart and began to love her as her own daughter. Shucheng, on her part, felt that the old woman was kind and sweet. As for Shucheng’s father, who was greatly respected, he would often say of the diligent Hsing-ya, “That boy has something to him.”

When they talked together, which was often, Hsing-ya who was a member of the Democratic Youth League would tell Shucheng about many new things. Shucheng who had been to school for a couple of years would teach the illiterate Hsing-ya how to read and write. As time went on, they fell in love.

During the slack season, the peasants began to rehearse a play. When it was presented, the whole village turned out to see it. Squeezed in the crowd were Hsing-ya and Shucheng.
The play was called “Yang Hsiao-lin.” It was about a peasant boy who loved a peasant girl named Yang Hsiao-lin, and how they overcame all sorts of feudal obstacles in their fight for freedom of choice in marriage. As the play went on, Hsing-ya and Shu-cheng got more and more excited. Hsing-ya felt that “Yang Hsiao-lin” in the play was just like Hsing-ya. Blushing furiously, Shu-cheng nodded assent. Hsing-ya and Shu-cheng's “secret.” Tongues began to wag. All the young people said enviously, “They are making a free choice.” Admiringly they commented, “They are opening the road for us, good for them!”

But people who were less open-minded said, “How shocking! It seems that people will do anything, so long as the law allows.” Some even said, “It's because Shu-cheng had no mother to teach her manners.”

When the talk was carried to the ears of Shu-cheng's father, he was simply furious. He felt that his daughter had brought shame on his house. Although he had known that Shu-cheng and Hsing-ya saw each other very often, he had thought to himself, “They're only working together. There's no harm in that.” Also he had been afraid of saying anything lest he offend Hsing-ya, in which case there would be nobody to help with the heavy work.

Old Chao first wanted to give his daughter a good scolding, but on second thought he changed his mind. He reasoned: “The child has not had the care of a mother. She has worked like a boy, and hasn't had a chance to enjoy herself.” So he ended by trying to dissuade Shu-cheng gently with: “Hsing-ya is a good boy. But his family is too poor. You will have a hard time if you marry him.”

To his surprise, his daughter didn't take kindly to his well-meant advice. She actually dared retort: “Hsing-ya may be poor now, but he's not going to be poor all his life. I like him because he's hard working, and I am ready to share any hardships with him. Besides the government believes that men and women should be allowed to choose their own lifelong partners. Parents should not interfere.”

Old Chao's eyes nearly popped out of his head. He ordered his daughter never to enter his house again. But Shu-cheng remained firm in her decision.

At Hsing-ya and Shu-cheng's request, the village leaders went to have a talk with old man Chao. They pointed out how many traditional buy-and-sell marriages had ended tragically. They quoted paragraphs from the marriage law. Finally they said, “Freedom of choice in marriage is our national law. No one is allowed to go against it.” The old man still dissented in his heart but had nothing more to say.

The bumper harvest of 1950 was something that had not been seen in over a dozen years. Every family in the village rejoiced, especially the Lai family, which had a wedding to celebrate as well. But they banged no drums and cymbals, and killed no pigs or sheep, as was the custom. All that happened was this. At sunset, Shu-cheng and Hsing-ya put on new clothes, and came back from the marriage registration office, smiles all over their faces. Afterward, there was a simple wedding ceremony. As was the old custom, the village leaders and young people went into the newlyweds' bedroom, teased them and made them tell the story of their love. The sound of their laughter greatly irritated old man Chao who lived next door. Sighing and snorting, he drank one glass of wine after another.

All eyes in the village were glued on the Lai family after this “strange” wedding ceremony. What everybody saw was that the very next day after the wedding, the bride and bridegroom went out to work on the harvest. The young couple showed even more zest than before in work and study. The Lais lived in harmony. The news spread to the villages around. Other young people followed Shu-cheng and Hsing-ya's example, choosing their own partners.

The old people were astonished. For her wedding, Shu-cheng had not conformed to any of the old superstitions. She had not stopped to consider whether the day was lucky for weddings. The young couple had not bowed to heaven and earth for blessings. Still their married life seemed perfect. Said old Mrs. Lai, “This 'freedom of choice' is really a good thing. The ceremony is simple and economical, and we old folks don't have to fuss over anything.”

Old man Chao stayed angry for some time. But he was gradually brought around by the behaviour of the Lai family. None of its members turned a cold shoulder on him for having tried to stop the marriage. On the contrary, they treated him even more kindly, and the young couple often came to see him and tell him the news. Besides, there was no more sarcastic gossip around the village. Instead, some of the former gossips were heard to say: “Those young people did the right thing.”
East China Fisheries Revive

Like every other phase of national production, China's fisheries are undergoing reconstruction and expansion.

When the Kuomintang forces were driven off the east coast and out of the Chousan archipelago 17 months ago, they left the fishing fleets depleted through neglect, extortion and deliberate sabotage.

In 1934, East China had 68,807 sea-going junks, 288 steam vessels and several tens of thousands of fresh water fishing boats. The average annual catch was 700,000 tons of marine products. At the time of liberation, only 31,509 sea-going fishing junks and 125 steam vessels were left. Most of these were damaged and unfit for service. The fishing industry of the Chousan archipelago, in particular, had been almost completely put out of commission.

Restoration Begins

Since the People's Government was founded, it has extended every type of aid to the fishing people. Administrative organs at various levels were set up and fishermen's producer cooperatives were organized on a democratic basis. Government loans to the cooperatives amounted to ¥199 billion People's Currency (US $9,950,000 or £3,553,500) in cash and 837 tons of salt to preserve their catch.

Today, 58,404 fishing boats, 56,060 sea-going junks and 131 motor vessels are engaged in fishing along the East China coast. They are equipped with 337,786 nets of various kinds. The number of fishing boats which put out to sea from January to June last year showed an increase of 71 per cent compared with the corresponding period of 1950. More boats are being launched as docks-yards are put back into commission.

The 1951 target was a catch of 500,000 tons. Preliminary figures showed that it was being met and might be considerably surpassed.

The East China Marine Products Conference held last summer set a 1952 target of 700,000 tons—nearly double the catch of 1950. It also drew up plans to strengthen the fishermen's own organizations to enlist their enthusiasm and raise production.

Cooperatives and Markets

In the past, East China's fishermen were feudally exploited by so-called fishing companies and "sales agencies" which collected arbitrary fees and were really little more than "protection rackets." These parasitic and gangster practices are now only a bad memory. Fish markets have been set up in Shanghai, Tsingtao, Chefoo, Ningpo, Wenchow, Chousan and Wusih. More than 300 cooperatives are functioning in different fishing ports to help solve problems of production, marketing and supply, and to supervise the carrying out of reforms in the industry.

Large loans have been granted to private merchants to enable them to resume curing fish for storage and shipment elsewhere.

Prices Stabilized; Business Expanded

As a result of the Shanghai Native Products Exhibition and the East China Native Products Conference, contracts for large quantities of marine products have been concluded with North, Northwest and Southwest China, reviving long lost trade relations with these areas. During the season last year, the railway administration lowered freight charges for fish, facilitating transport and the proper fulfilment of these contracts.

As a result of stability in currency and prices, and of steps taken by the government, the price of fish was maintained on an even level instead of fluctuating wildly as before. The surplus catch was put into cold storage or absorbed from the market by processing and curing establishments.

The volume of business in Shanghai last year ran at double the rate of 1950. The daily arrival of fish was often over 1,000 tons, greatly exceeding the customary past record. Yet there were no lulls in the fish market and no stocks were left to rot as "oversupply." Last year, the wholesale price averaged ¥2,000 (about 10 cents U.S. currency or 8½d.) per lb., equalling the domestic price of 1.8 lbs. of rice.
Aid by Government

The People’s Government has helped the fishermen who operate individually and constitute 90 per cent of the total. To aid them in increasing production, they have been given cash loans totalling ¥79 billion (US $3,950,000 or £1,415,000) to buy boats, fishing equipment, food, and fish salt. Salt has been made available to them in large quantities at low cost.

The people’s armed forces have rid the seacoast of pirates, so that fishermen can put out to sea and go about their work without fear or worry. As a result, the number of fishing vessels active off the Chekiang coast in 1951 doubled, and that off the Shantung coast trebled as compared with 1950.

It is natural that under these circumstances the livelihood of the fishermen has improved tremendously. At the port of Kiao-chow in Shantung, many have earned enough to begin keeping mules for transport and fattening pigs for the market.

Conservation

The East China Military and Administrative Committee on Marine Production has set up a special organ to compile data and do research into the fishing industry.

The people’s governments of various maritime municipalities and counties will enforce government laws and decrees regarding the demarcation of prohibited areas and registration of fishing rights. The ownership and utilization of fresh water fishing areas is being defined in accordance with the stipulations in the Agrarian Reform Law.

Whenever necessary and possible, fishing port facilities, lighthouses and observation points are to be rehabilitated for the safety of the fishing fleet.

Fishing grounds are now protected by a ban on the use of explosives and other destructive activities. It is forbidden either to use or to manufacture nets below standard mesh.

Wiping Out the Past

This picture is entirely in contrast to the situation before liberation. The three state-operated marine products enterprises taken over from the Kuomintang were all notorious for their corruption and waste. The Americans too had set up a “Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration” to exploit and enslave our fisheries. American and Kuomintang secret service personnel used to occupy responsible positions in the industry. Functionaries appointed by the Americans were retired navy men posing as experts in fishery.

American trawler captains drew salaries of US $900 per month, plus a bonus of US $0.0275 per pound of fish caught. Sometimes a boat load of fish was sold for barely enough to cover the bonus of the foreign captain, especially when the catch consisted of species that did not bring a good price on the market.

The “Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration” maintained 130 fishing boats, whose monthly overhead expenses amounted to ¥5.6 billion if reckoned in present currency. All the boats together caught 10,000 tons of fish in four years, which sold for only about one ninth of the expenditure claimed. Enormous sums supposedly collected for improvements went into private pockets leaving no trace in the account books. This was what the Americans called a project for relief and rehabilitation, to revive the fisheries by “scientific methods.”

The “China Marine Products Company” and the “Yellow Sea Marine Products Company,” which were merely paper organizations when taken over, have now been reorganized into the Shanghai Marine Products Company and the Shantung Marine Products Company. By the united efforts of their workers, they were purged of reactionary and corrupt elements and put into proper order.

The People’s Government is making big investments in shipbuilding and processing plants for the fisheries. Trawlers are busy at sea. Eight ice and cold storage plants, two dockyards, two net factories, two cod liver oil refineries and one cannery are now serving the fishing grounds of the East China coast.
Prosperity in Private Enterprise

After a succession of meetings between labour and management in the second half of July 1951, the Tientsin Hengyuan Textile Mill, a prosperous enterprise financed by private capital, announced new production goals for the month of August. By the end of the month these goals had been exceeded. Profits were also 23 per cent higher than had been anticipated.

The experiences of the Hengyuan mill, which has existed for 31 years but never did well in the past, are typical of the whole private textile industry of China. So is the good business, and its confidence in its prospects at the present time.

When the Hengyuan Mill was founded a generation ago, its shareholders were mostly northern warlords who quickly turned its management into a sink of corruption and bureaucracy. Every factory official, big or small, made money for himself on the side. For instance, one man who was responsible for checking the weight of coal had a monthly salary of only 10 Yuan (about US $5.00 at the time), yet he bought himself twelve houses in Tientsin at the end of a few years. No wonder Pien Shih-ching, the white-haired bespectacled old director of the mill, says when he recalls the past: “Hengyuan used to be riddled with a thousand holes and covered with a hundred sores.”

In 1938, when Hengyuan went bankrupt and closed down, no one was surprised. A year later, new bank loans were negotiated and an effort was made to reopen. Inefficiency and the competition of large amounts of Japanese yarn then being smuggled into Tientsin quickly caused its doors to shut again.

In 1936, Hengyuan was re-organized by a banking group which rid it of its feudal features and tried to run it along modern lines. Business was beginning to look up when Tientsin was occupied by the Japanese.

The Japanese were soon trying to get control of the Hengyuan mill, offering to “cooperate” with its owners. When this failed, they attempted to buy up all the shares. Failing again, they simply broke into the mill and robbed it of one-third of its machinery. Moreover, through a system of cotton rationing, they starved it of raw material. By 1942, only 800 of the 30,700 spindles were operating.

Victory over Japan did not help Hengyuan either. The new manager who took over under the Kuomintang gave key positions to incapable relatives and friends, whom the workers secretly called by such names as “The Thirteen Tyrants” and “The Four Bullies.” These parasites cared nothing for the mill but took advantage of the Kuomintang inflation to make money on the black market while the enterprise itself rapidly heaped up debts.

A New Situation

In January 1949, Tientsin was liberated by the People’s Army. A new economic policy was laid down to ensure that both labour and capital would benefit from a joint effort to increase production. But although the worst elements in its ranks no longer ruled the roost, Hengyuan’s management did not at first understand the policy. Nor did the workers.

The leaders of the labour union were afraid that if they worked to increase production they would appear to be toadyng to the capitalists and would therefore lose the confidence of the members who looked to them for better living conditions above all else.
On the other hand, the capitalists were filled with apprehension. They were not sure that they could make money under the new conditions. They were timid about making a real effort to promote production. They did not consult the labour union on their problems, because they thought it was out for higher wages only, and had no other concerns. To show that they were "progressive," they gave the union anything that it asked for, but they did it grudgingly.

In May, Liu Shao-chi, vice-chairman of the government and a senior leader of China's Communist Party, came to Tientsin and gave his famous talk on "benefits for both capital and labour." This greatly clarified the situation. The mill-workers came to understand that to produce more was the only way to improve their standard of living. Industrial output rose almost at once.

**Labour-Capital Conferences**

Regular conferences between labour and the mill-owners to discuss how to increase production, began in February, 1950.

At first, the management representatives were very dubious and uneasy about such conferences. On the one hand, they had seen how workers in state-owned factories organized themselves to push production forward and thought the Hengyuan mill might derive similar benefits. On the other hand, they were afraid the discussions might get "out of hand." What if a worker got up at a public meeting and asked embarrassing questions about deadwood administrative personnel who might be holding jobs not because of any ability but as a result of ties of friendship or family with the owners?

To put it briefly, the management first thought only of how it might use the union rather than cooperate with it for the common good. It was this outlook which caused it to make the suggestion that, instead of joint meetings, two union delegates might be allowed to attend meetings of the administration.

The union turned down this offer, because it felt that it would reduce the role of its representatives from joint leadership in production to merely answering questions. To ease the fears of the owners, the union repeated once more that the only purpose of the production conferences would be to raise output, and that no decisions would be taken on which both sides did not agree. If either management or labour disagreed on a problem, no decision would be made. The owners fully accepted this formula and the conferences began on a regular basis.

**Why Production Rose**

Workers' delegates to the talks reported regularly to the rank-and-file, raising their sense of participation and consequently their enthusiasm. As a result, many knotty problems were solved. Here are some examples.

"One of the spinning shops successfully increased its yarn output, but the winding shop, which was next in the production line, could not keep up with it. As a result, the unwound yarn piled up in great quantities. Management had tried to solve this problem by getting the winders to work overtime. This had only resulted in fatigue and illness among the workers without improving the situation.

When the question was submitted to the conference, the union undertook to seek the workers' advice on how to remove the bottleneck by improving work methods and granting bonuses, instead of overtime or speed-up. The management was skeptical saying, "Let's see if you can convince them?" The results fully justified the union suggestion, and the lag was successfully eliminated.

In the weaving department, the owners had tried long and unsuccessfully to get each worker to mind eight looms instead of four or six. The union pointed out that the trouble lay not in technique but in the wage system. When the workers themselves were enlisted in working out an equitable wage scale, the previously "insoluble" question turned out to be quite simple.

**Hengyuan Becomes a Model**

Another spectacular improvement took place in the elimination of waste. The union mobilized the workers to devise ways of cutting it down. As a result, the average daily waste was reduced from 500 lbs. to 270 lbs. It was then that director Pien declared: "I've been running factories for scores of years, but I could never imagine anything like this before."

Last spring, after a year of experience, the Conference of
Labour and Capital had acquired enough confidence to launch a three-month work competition. This led to the breaking of all previous production records at the Hengyuan mill. The mill was subsequently elected a model industrial enterprise of Tientsin.

In July 1951, a further step was taken. The Hengyuan mill, for the first time in its history, drew up a comprehensive production plan. This plan was thoroughly discussed at production conferences in each shop. It not only set output targets but also a system for checking up on quality.

Work competitions are now a regular feature of Hengyuan's life. Every one of those already completed has corrected some technical or organizational fault hitherto characteristic of private factories in China. More scientific procedures have resulted from each.

**Better Work: Better Life**

Wage standards have been re-adjusted. All workers, technicians and management personnel are now paid according to actual function and ability on the job—not according to custom or connections.

Personnel-shifts have been made in accordance with the needs of productive efficiency.

The mill owners have come to modify their idea that low wages are the only source of prosperity. They have learned from facts the importance of satisfying the workers' demands for a better life.

Appropriations from profits have been used to improve the mill hospital and to build spare-time schools for the workers and creches for their children. The workers now eat meat and polished rice instead of rough grains as before.

The business of the Hengyuan cotton mill is better than it has ever been. Profits by the end of 1949 were already sufficient to pay off all its accumulated debts, with plenty to spare. Since then a substantial surplus has been built up.

No longer menaced by the causes which made life for Chinese factories so precarious in the old days of bureaucratic extortion and unfair imperialist competition, the owners of the Hengyuan cotton mill are now buying new machinery and planning to set up a mill in west China. They have also sent out salesmen all over the country to collect orders for Hengyuan's constantly growing output.
The People's Relief Administration of China

The natural calamities which afflicted the people of China for centuries were really largely man-made. They drew such heavy toll only because the people had lost all power to avert disasters and limit their effects. The cause of this situation was the long-standing robbery of the country by imperialism, feudalism, and bureaucratic monopoly. As a result, the working people of China lived under the constant threat of hunger and death.

Today the Chinese people have risen from their knees. They are rapidly rebuilding their economic life, social relationships and national defence. Relief and social welfare work in both town and country have ceased to be isolated and become a part of the general peaceful reconstruction of the country.

How It was Organized

The People's Relief Administration of China (PRAC) has the task of achieving this integration throughout China. It was set up after the All-China People's Relief Conference held in Peking in April 1950. The conference was called by the Chinese Liberated Areas Relief Administration (CLARA) which had previously operated in the old liberated areas of China. It was attended by representatives of the All-China Federation of Labour, the All-China Federation of Democratic Youth, the All-China Student Federation and the All-China Federation of Literature and Arts, relief and welfare organizations, the Chinese Red Cross and medical associations, Chinese returned from abroad, peasants, national minorities, industrialists and businessmen, religious workers, refugees and local and central government departments concerned with relief. At this meeting, the People's Relief Administration of China came into being.

In a sense, PRAC is the successor of CLARA. The older organization had collected material on Japanese atrocities and sent it abroad as proof of its accusations against the Japanese invaders. It had also reported, in its Chinese and English language publications, on the widespread relief work it was doing in the liberated areas. This brought in large contributions of cash and relief goods from peace-loving and progressive people in other parts of China and in many other countries: CLARA had distributed these contributions, which came chiefly through Soong Ching Ling (Mme. Sun Yat-sen), to refugees from flood and drought in the liberated areas and to the International Peace Hospitals. It had also negotiated with UNRRA for relief goods.

A People's Organization

The People's Relief Administration of China is not a government department. It is a people's organization. Its chairman is Soong Ching Ling, who had previously contributed so much to the welfare of the people of the liberated areas. She is concurrently chairman of the China Welfare Institute. The vice-chairmen of PRAC are Tung Pi-wu, former chairman of CLARA; Hsieh Chueh-tsai, a welfare worker with decades of experience; Li Teh-chuan, (Mme. Feng Yu-hsiang) vice-chairman of the All-China Federation of Democratic Women and chairman of the Chinese Red Cross; and Wu Yao-tsun, a man long prominent in religious work and an outstanding leader of the Chinese YMCA. Led by this distinguished group, PRAC has been carrying on large scale relief and welfare work by mobilizing society to help care for those in distress and by assisting refugees and destitute people to earn a livelihood through production.

Productive employment has become the principal method of administering relief to the needy in both urban and rural areas of our country. All over China, institutions have been set up where refugees and city poor may learn a craft, enabling them to maintain themselves. In these places, former beggars, pickpockets, and prostitutes are also re-educated for production.

PRAC executive committee members sign papers governing the take-over of U.S.-subsidized welfare institutions after serious abuses had been discovered in them.
In 1949, there were floods in China, but we succeeded in overcoming them successfully. The People's Government sent supplies and money for the victims while people all over the country donated winter clothing and other necessities. Distribution of relief goods in the affected areas was entrusted to PRAC. The government, through PRAC and local authorities, helped the flood sufferers to organize and maintain themselves by fishing, chopping wood, weaving straw mats, preparing saltpetre, making vegetable oil, embroidering, spinning and weaving, so that everybody in the countryside was busy and earning something.

The same method was applied in administering relief to unemployed city workers. In the year May 1950 to May 1951, the number of unemployed workers in China decreased by two-thirds.

China is a country of 475,000,000 people with tremendous manpower, natural and financial resources. Our great potential, even at the present level of economy, may be illustrated by one example. In the autumn of 1950, PRAC began a campaign for winter clothes for flood refugees in north Anhwei. In three short months, over 6,800,000 winter outfits had been contributed by sympathetic people all over China, more than enough to clothe all the refugees warmly. This spirit of helping others in distress is a part of the Chinese character. Today it has full opportunity to develop.

China has many private welfare and relief organizations. Some are international, some are national, some are nation-wide and some are local. Some of these organizations exist only in name, and are no longer effective. But a number of private welfare and relief institutions have real capacity for useful work. Since it was set up in 1950, PRAC has been helping them improve their activities and apply them in an effective way.

Helping Others

The work of the People's Relief Administration of China now extends to sufferers from disasters and oppression outside our own borders. For example, British colonial authorities have been persecuting Chinese living in Malaya, deporting many to China after the loss of all their property. To meet this situation, PRAC and the Association of Returned Chinese from Overseas have jointly organized the Chinese People's Relief Committee for Refugees from Malaya. This committee is now very active.

Since the beginning of the war in Korea, tens of thousands of Koreans have lost home and livelihood. PRAC is carrying on a donation campaign to help them which has already produced large quantities of foodstuffs, blankets, cloth, clothing, cotton, shoes, stockings, medicine and such household necessities as needles and thread.

Taking Over U.S. “Charities”

Another job of PRAC has been to take over charities formerly subsidized by funds from the United States. To attain its own purposes, American imperialism directly or indirectly carried on various “charities” in China. Later, again for its own political purposes, it suddenly stopped all subsidies to these charities. Obviously, the aim of such manoeuvres was not really to further the welfare of the Chinese people, but rather to smooth the road to U.S. domination over China.

Following liberation, it was discovered that Chinese children had been subjected to mental and physical torture in imperialist-run orphanages. It was proved conclusively by material evidence that tens of thousands of children had died in these institutions, some of which showed a death rate of from 70 to over 90 per cent in their own registration books. Children who were so fortunate as to survive were also found to be in shocking condition.

Faced with such a situation, the Government Administration Council directed that U.S.-subsidized charities be taken over. A meeting was called in Peking to discuss procedures, which were then successfully applied in many cities. In place of the funds which stopped coming from America, PRAC has financed those institutions which have continued to operate, as well as guided them in the improvement of their work.

PRAC now has offices in all the big cities of China. PRAC believes that, with China's increasing prosperity, the number of people in need of relief will gradually decrease year by year. With this in mind, PRAC aims to turn gradually from relief to welfare work.
The China Welfare Institute

The China Welfare Institute has a history of 13 years. It was founded and is still headed by Soong Ching Ling (Mme. Sun Yat-sen), one of the greatest personalities in China’s struggle for freedom from oppression and poverty. Since its inception in 1938, it has worked to serve the best interests of the Chinese people.

The organization began its work during the Sino-Japanese war as the China Defence League, a name that became known to friends of democracy everywhere. Throughout the war years it served as a focal point for the distribution of funds and supplies sent by friends of China from all parts of the world to aid the fighters against Japanese invasion. It helped set up and support the renowned International Peace Hospitals, founded nurseries and orphanages for the child victims of the war and gave impetus to the formation of industrial cooperatives to bolster the war-torn economy and provide employment, free of exploitation, for large numbers of refugees. CDL projects were located where the fighting was heaviest and had taken the greatest toll. Many of them were behind the Japanese lines, in the guerilla areas.

Battle Against Obstacles

After V-J Day, the CDL changed its name and the forms of its work to fit the new circumstances. As the China Welfare Fund, it expanded its original projects in the interior regions. At the same time, it contributed to the overall rehabilitation of the country by instituting new projects.

The last years of the Kuomintang regime threatened to drown all ideas of reviving China in inflation, corruption and outright official suppression of everything new. But despite the obstacles, and because of the inspired leadership of Chairman Soong, the China Welfare Fund continued its work. During the Liberation War, the Fund led the nationwide demand that UNRRA and other international relief and welfare aid be allocated fairly where the people needed it most, whether the Kuomintang controlled the areas or not. It not only demanded such distribution but set an example of it in its own activity. Within Kuomintang territory it demanded that aid go to the famine areas of South China and shouldered the task of keeping starving children off the streets and roads. It demanded that help be given to the city poor, and demonstrated what could be done by establishing, in the slums of Shanghai, children’s centres which provided literacy training, medical care and distribution of food and clothing on a mass scale. It also created the Children’s Theatre both to entertain and educate thousands of workers’ children.

The third phase of the organization’s history began with the liberation of the Chinese mainland and the convening of the All-China People’s Relief Conference in April 1950. It changed its name once more, becoming the China Welfare Institute. Then it embarked on the new development for which the people’s victory now provided unparalleled opportunities.

Present Work

The present task of the CWI is to set up model projects for nationwide welfare and cultural work for the wives and children of workers, farmers and soldiers. Since liberation, its staff has grown tenfold to the present total of over three hundred. Its field units have increased from four to eleven. Instead of the makeshift and crowded rented quarters of the past, it is now housed in a handsome office building of its own in Shanghai.

Current CWI projects range from nurseries to the publication of a children’s magazine, from maternity and child health centres to a Children’s Theatre. It has

The First International Peace Hospital, housed in caves in Yenan during the war with Japan.
established the first Children's Cultural Palace in China, opened formally in October 1951, and created a network of free public libraries for the children of Shanghai.

All of these projects are either new to the CWI, and indeed to China, or represent the present form of old programmes which have had to be totally revamped to meet the long-neglected needs of the people.

An example of totally new work is the Children's Cultural Palace. A beautiful, spacious building has been erected to house this work. The project aims to stimulate national interest in youth cultural activities and to pioneer similar palaces throughout the country. Youth organizers from far and wide are to be brought to this institution to see how it works. They will observe how appreciation for music, science and other subjects is stimulated, and what teaching methods and materials are used. They will carry the results of their observations back to their own communities.

An example of old work which has been reorganized is the CWI network of maternity and child health centres and stations. Such programmes are not new to China, but the objectives they now pursue are. Their present aim is not to serve a few "cases" but the largest numbers of workers. This requires a changed point of view, both on the part of the technical personnel and the women themselves. Much education and publicity is being carried on to re-orient technicians toward work for the greater number of people, and to convince the people to accept modern methods in childbirth and sanitation. The responsibility that has fallen on the CWI is great, since the results it obtains will be critically studied and used throughout the land.

Facing the Future

Thus the China Welfare Institute now occupies one of the foremost positions in welfare work in China. Its representatives sit on the executive committee of the People's Relief Administration of China, which is the leading organization for all relief and welfare nationally. On the operational level, CWI delegates participate in working committees and attend national and local conferences on welfare, culture and education. The head of its maternity and child health section, for instance, is a delegate to the National Health Conference held annually in Peking. Regionally, CWI cultural workers took part in the East China Conference which determined the cultural programme for an area with a population of 140 million people. The CWI has also been represented internationally. One of its staff members was a delegate to the Second World Peace Congress held in Warsaw.

The advances and accomplishments of the China Welfare Institute are a manifestation of the general improvement that has come about in the lives of the Chinese people since the founding of the People's Republic of China. As the country's economic position gradually gains strength, more funds and facilities will be made available for welfare work. The CWI looks forward to the future. It is preparing itself to assume new and heavier duties in the service of our people.
CHILDREN'S CULTURAL PALACE

In the past Shanghai was well known for the appallingly crowded and insanitary conditions in which thousands of workers lived, ate, slept and died. Few children went to school. They never dreamed that they might have cultural facilities. Their playgrounds were the dusty, crowded lanes and streets. But these conditions are being rapidly changed.

One step toward the change was made when the CWI officially opened its Children's Cultural Palace last July in the Yunlin factory district, where there are 40,000 youngsters. The Palace will supplement the education the children get in schools. It will work to raise the cultural level of the most promising children through a variety of activities including music, dancing, acting, study of natural history and other subjects. A library with an initial 4,000 books has been installed and will be built up further.

CWI IN SHANGHAI WOMAN AND CHILD HEALTH COMMITTEE

CWI health workers have accepted a leading role in the newly-organized Shanghai Woman and Child Health Committee. The Committee is composed of representatives of 17 organizations including the Shanghai Trade Union Council, the Health Bureau, the Democratic Women's Association, and the CWI. Its functions will include planning and coordinating of all activities in the field; preparation of plans for woman and child health work; coordination of work by private and public health workers; intensification of health education and publicity, and training of cadres; investigation and improvement of techniques and efficiency.

NEW WAYS TO MODERN MEDICINE

One-act playlets portraying childbirth under old and modern conditions respectively were performed continuously before audiences totalling 16,000 people during a seven-day Mother and Child Health Exhibition organized by the China Welfare Institute and the District People's Government of Jiangning, Shanghai in July 1951. In the month following this experiment, the number of delivery calls to the CWI clinic in the district doubled by actual count. This was a very important achievement, because one of the main problems in reducing the infant mortality rate in China is to convince women that modern medical care in the delivery of babies is more reliable than that of an old-fashioned midwife.

Realism was the secret of the exhibition's success. To see the childbirth scenes, the audience filed through two rooms. In the first, the mother (a dummy) was propped up in the traditional sitting position in extreme discomfort, with no arrangements for sterilization anywhere in sight and only a superstitious midwife to assist. When it became apparent the woman was having difficulty, the midwife had no way to 'help' except by lighting candles and praying loudly.

In the second room the woman was lying comfortably in bed, a number of sterile instruments were being sterilized and a doctor in clean overalls and rubber gloves was helping with the delivery. Raconteurs described exactly what was happening in both tableaux. They explained why one way was bad and the
other good, and what consequences might be expected from each.

Other sections of the exhibition showed how to provide cheap, nutritious meals for children and how best to clothe and care for them so that they might be healthy and strong.

In a room devoted to diet, the comparative food values of easily obtained foods such as cabbage, beans and soybean milk, were explained and demonstrated. The whole approach was different from that too often adopted in previous “show window” exhibits which blandly advised people to eat plenty of oranges, vitamin pills and other things that they could not possibly afford.

Also included in the exhibition were a nursery and a hospital room. The nursery emphasized cleanliness and the importance of frequent changes of clothes for children. It also showed the best types of toys and illustrated model five years old.

A one-act play in the hospital room showed a father bringing in his sick child, a diagnosis of diphtheria, the treatment given the child when left in the hospital, and its final return home after recovery. The play aimed at breaking down people's inhibition was reflected in the following comments in the visitors' book.

"After seeing the exhibition, we changed our minds about having our

bodies delivered by old-fashioned midwives."

—Two pregnant workers
China Sun Dyeing Factory

"After seeing the exhibition, I feel that women workers urgently need this kind of practical education. It greatly increases the knowledge of women and child health. I also feel that it demonstrates that the People's Government is truly thinking of the benefit of the people and the happiness of the next generation."

—Hsu Ching, Wing On Textile Mill No. 3.

SOVIET EXPERT VISITS NURSERY

The CWI Nursery in Shanghai, which cares for 190 children from two to five years old, received a visit from an experienced Soviet woman and child health worker, Dr. Tzibulskaya on May 30, 1951. After examining the children, buildings and equipment, the doctor asked many questions concerning the diet, daily schedule and general operation.

In a discussion with staff members afterwards, Dr. Tzibulskaya expressed her approval of what was being done and gave some practical advice. She recommended that every possible use should be made of sunshine and fresh air to build up the resistance of the children and make them grow healthy and strong. She thought it was a mistake to let them rest in rooms with curtained windows but that they should be accustomed to sleep in broad daylight. Generally, she emphasized that they should not be coddled.

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Our Contributors

SOONG CHING LING, chairman of the China Welfare Institute and the People's Relief Administration of China, has devoted her life to the progress and welfare of the Chinese people and to the cause of peace and democracy throughout the world. She was the wife and secretary of the late Dr. Sun Yat-sen. In the darkest period of reaction in China she headed the China Civil Rights League, and during the Anti-Japanese War, the China Defence League (then the China Welfare Institute). She has been one of the Vice-Chairmen of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China since its establishment in 1949.

FU TSO-YI is Minister of Water Conservancy in the Central People's Government and a member of the National Council of the People's Political Consultative Conference and the People's Revolutionary Military Council.

LI TEH-CHUAN, daughter of a preacher, comes of a family that has been Christian for three generations. In her youth, she worked as a teacher and as secretary of the Young Women's Christian Association in Peking. At 29, she married the late General Feng Yu-hsiang, widely known as "the Christian General." During the Sino-Japanese war, Li Teh-chuan was a leader of the women's movement in Chungking. After V-J day she spent much of her time in child welfare work and organized the Child Welfare Association of China. She is now Minister of Health in the Central People's Government, chairman of the Chinese Red Cross, vice-chairman of the People's Relief Administration of China and the All-China Federation of Democratic Women.

CHEN HAN-SENG is a member of the World Peace Council. Formerly he was professor of History at the National University of Peking and more recently Walker-Ames Professor at the University of Washington, Seattle, U.S.A. From 1939 to 1942 he was Secretary of the International Committee for the Advancement of Chinese Industrial Cooperatives. He is now Deputy Chairman of the Chinese People's Institute of Foreign Affairs.

CHAO PU-CHU is a noted relief and welfare worker, a member of the Executive Committee of the People's Relief Administration of China and Vice-Chairman of its Shanghai branch. He was active in mobilizing material resources and manpower for the people's warfare in the Anti-Japanese and National Liberation wars and was a religious group (Buddhist) delegate to the People's Political Consultative Conference in 1949, where he was elected a member of the National Committee.

JEN TEH-YAO, dramatist, graduated from the National College of Drama in 1939. He is now director of the Children's Theatre, China Welfare Institute, with which he has been connected since 1947, and for which he composed the well-received children's opera "Always Be Prepared." In 1951, he went to Warsaw as a member of the Chinese delegation to the World Peace Congress.