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No Unemployment in New China
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EVERY able-bodied person among China's nearly 800 million population is guaranteed a job. The severe unemployment inherited from the old society is a thing of the past.

At the time of liberation in 1949, there were over 4 million jobless workers and intellectuals in the cities, one out of every three. In the countryside were tens of millions of bankrupt and jobless peasants. Many became beggars.

**Roots of Unemployment**

Old China was a semi-colonial, semi-feudal country, a victim of oppression, exploitation and plunder because of imperialism, feudalism and bureaucrat capitalism. Imperialist powers controlled China's important trading ports, the maritime customs administration, foreign trade, and land, air, ocean and inland-river transport. This enabled them to dump large amounts of their industrial goods on her market and force Chinese agriculture to serve their needs.

The imperialists also directly operated many heavy and light industrial enterprises, using Chinese materials and cheap labor. This ruthless competition smothered industries owned by China's national bourgeoisie and prevented the development of the forces of production. Powdered milk, chewing gum, plastic combs, nylon stockings and other goods flooded the Chinese market like an ocean tide. A survey of several large Shanghai department stores in 1946 showed that 80 percent of their merchandise was imported.

The imperialist-backed bureaucrat capitalists during the Kuomintang reactionary regime used their privileged political position and economic monopoly from 1927 to 1947 to amass huge fortunes reaching U.S. $10 to $20 billion. They monopolized industrial raw materials, fuel and installations as well as finance, commerce, transport and communications.

The imperialists and Chinese bureaucrat capitalists, working in collusion, controlled China's economic lifelines. Their monopoly on capital, raw materials and the market forced many enterprises owned by the national bourgeoisie out of business. In the 18 months from the latter part of 1946 to the end of 1947, over 27,000 such factories and business firms closed down in Shanghai, Tientsin, Chungking, Hankow, Kwangchow and altogether 20-some Chinese cities. In Shanghai 3,160 of a total of 4,050 factories had closed down by the end of 1946. A huge number of workers found themselves without jobs.

In the rural areas exorbitant land rent and usury kept the peasant
masses with little or no land on the brink of starvation. When a natural disaster struck, great numbers of them abandoned their homes and begged their way to the cities, swelling the ranks of the unemployed.

University and middle-school students, from their own experience, had coined the phrase, "graduation means unemployment".

Wiping Out Unemployment

On the eve of the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, Chairman Mao observed: "In places like Shanghai, the problem of unemployment, or of feeding the population, arose solely because of cruel, heartless oppression and exploitation by imperialism, feudalism, bureaucrat capitalism and the reactionary Kuomintang government. Under the people's government, it will take only a few years for this problem of unemployment, or of feeding the population, to be solved as completely as in... other parts of the country." The way out, Chairman Mao said, was "revolution plus production".

This was what the Chinese people did. Led by Chairman Mao and the Communist Party, they carried the new-democratic revolution to victory, overthrowing the reactionary rule of imperialism, feudalism and bureaucrat capitalism and thus winning political and economic independence. They went on to make the socialist revolution and firmly establish the socialist system. This created the fundamental condition for ending unemployment.

Immediately after the people's government was set up, it nationalized all enterprises belonging to the Kuomintang bureaucrat capitalists. These were gradually reorganized and expanded. Workers and staff members in all these enterprises and employees in the former Kuomintang government (except confirmed reactionaries or notorious scoundrels) were retained in their jobs. Those national-bourgeois-owned private enterprises useful to China's economic growth continued in operation. With the state-owned sector leading the economy, they were to be transformed step-by-step. These enterprises were not allowed to freely dismiss their workers. This kept them from adding to the unemployment rolls.

In the rural land reform 40 million hectares (100 million acres) were confiscated from the landlord class and redistributed among 300 million poor peasants. This process, basically completed by 1952, eliminated once and for all the feudal exploitation which had prevailed in China for over two thousand years. The Chinese peasants quickly got organized and made a start toward prosperity through collective effort. They no longer faced the threat of bankruptcy or flowed into the cities.
The basic answer to unemployment in China was through developing socialist production. The people's government took steps to help the unemployed during the economic rehabilitation period right after liberation, and more jobs were provided by the large-scale economic construction in the First Five-Year Plan following 1953. The main measures were:

1. The labor departments placed the unemployed in jobs in accordance with the needs of production and construction and the skills and wishes of the individuals themselves.

2. For those without special skills the government opened training courses leading to jobs in the machine building, electrical, chemical and construction fields.

3. With the government providing funds, handicraftsmen were helped to form cooperatives on a voluntary basis which provided services or produced goods. Most of these have since become state enterprises.

4. Many people got temporary work on government-funded public works and municipal projects such as dredging rivers and building roads and parks. As socialist construction developed most of these people were taken on as permanent workers in the construction fields.

5. Peasants who had drifted into the cities were urged to return to their villages and urban dwellers who could do farm work were mobilized for it.

6. The government gave regular or temporary material assistance to city dwellers who had financial difficulties but who were yet unable to get work to ensure them a decent living.

By 1956 the country had in the main completed the socialist transformation of capitalist industry and commerce and the organization of handicraft and agricultural producers' cooperatives. This change of private ownership of the means of production into state or collective ownership of a socialist nature eliminated the root cause of unemployment and put industry and agriculture entirely within the socialist framework. The whole economy was thus able to develop in a planned way and proportionally. In 1956 the problem of unemployment was basically solved.

The big leap forward which began in 1958 brought about a still bigger change in the employment situation. In the rural areas the agricultural producers' cooperatives amalgamated into people's communes. Larger in size and with more manpower, the communes undertook big water conservation projects, transformed mountains and rivers and developed a diversified economy which included farming, forestry, animal husbandry, sideline production and fishery. Production rose rapidly. There was no idle labor power in the countryside, instead there was a labor shortage in many areas. Industrial expansion in the cities also demanded more labor power. Not only were the remaining jobless absorbed into the labor force, but 56 million housewives throughout China who had formerly not worked outside the home began to take part in socialist construction.

Right to Work
China's Constitution provides that "Citizens have the right to
A glimpse of the Shanghai No. 1 Department Store on Nan-
king Road. The development of China's socialist industry fills
stores with many kinds of attractive goods and eager
customers. Inset: Before liberation stores on the same
street tried to attract customers with big "Sale" signs when
dumping of foreign goods caused the closing of many Chi-
nese firms and severe unemployment.

work". They are able to fully
realize this right because the
government follows the socialist
principles, "He who does not work
does not eat" and "From each ac-
cording to his ability, to each ac-
cording to his work". Placing
of labor power is done in a planned
way and the state makes careful
arrangements for young people en-
tering the labor force from the
schools each year.

The majority of these live in the
countryside, the home of over 80
percent of the Chinese population.
They are placed by the commune
production teams to which they
belong according to each person's
ability and situation. A lot of labor
power is needed for water con-
servation projects, soil improve-
ment, commune-run industries,
work on mechanization, scientific
farming and a diversified economy,
and the development of education,
cultural activities and medical and
health work. Not only are the
countryside's own young people
needed but skilled workers and
school graduates from the cities.

Students are taken into the uni-
versities, colleges and secondary
technical schools according to state
plan. After graduation they are
given jobs in line with their train-
ing and the needs of the country.
Some of the ordinary secondary
school graduates are assigned to
jobs in industry, commerce, trans-
port or construction. The rest—
over 8,000,000 in recent years—go
to the rural areas to work in
agriculture.

These young people have done
an outstanding job. Many have
become members of the Chinese
Communist Party or the Com-
munist Youth League. Quite a few
have been chosen by the masses
to go to universities. Some have
been elected to the leading bodies
of the central, provincial and munici-
pal government or Party units. A
great number have become "bare-
foot doctors", teachers or agricul-
tural technicians in the commune
brigades or teams. School grad-
uates settling in the countryside
is a necessary measure both for
promoting the mechanization of
agriculture and for bringing up
millions of successors who will
carry on the revolutionary cause of
the proletariat.

Chinese women, emancipated
since liberation, of course also have
the right to work. Millions of them
have taken up work outside the
home. Full of socialist enthusiasm,
they are playing a great role in the
various fields of construction.
Creches, kindergartens and cafet-
arias in factories, mines, govern-
ment offices and schools make it possible for them to do so.
Equal pay for equal work for both
men and women is the rule in both
town and country.
Disabled persons such as the blind and deaf, in addition to getting medical treatment, are helped to acquire literacy and technical skills. The people's government finds suitable work for them. Those completely unable to work and without any means of support can live in government-run institutions or old people's homes, where both medical and living expenses are borne by the state.

As China further mechanizes and automates her industry through mass technical innovation and reformation, a part of the industrial labor force will be released. This will not create unemployment, as this labor force will be sent by their industries to where it is needed to help expand production.

Many skilled workers and engineers from the Anshan Iron and Steel Company in northeast China, for instance, have gone to help set up new iron and steel works elsewhere in China. The Taching oil field has sent over 10,000 of its workers to help open the Takang oil field on China's east coast. Shanghai's glove-knitting industry increased its labor productivity nearly tenfold through introducing electronic numerical program control. Some of the workers thus released have stayed to expand production in the industry; the greater number have been transferred to jobs in the new synthetic fiber industry.

In the same way, labor power released through mechanization and modernization of agriculture is being put to use to promote faster growth of farm production and realize other undertakings in the rural areas.

How Shanghai Wiped Out Unemployment

HU PAO-KANG

HU PAO-KANG, male, 18, native of Nantung county, Kiangsu province. Family origin: poor peasant. Present status: unemployed.

This was a form I filled out not long after Shanghai was liberated. For me it was the beginning of a great change.

I was born about a hundred kilometers from Shanghai. My family, like so many others in old China, was heavily exploited through land rent and usury. We could not make even the barest living from our two mu of land and had to rent more from a landlord. We harvested a pitiful 200 jin of grain per mu and 70 percent of this went to the landlord as rent.

When I was 14 my family went completely bankrupt. I was old enough to be on my own, so I left home and found my way to Shanghai, hoping to make a living there. I was taken on as apprentice in a small factory making thermos bottles. I worked 12 hours a day at a foot-operated punch but my frail body seemed such a poor investment that after a few days the capitalist kicked me out.

A relative who was a worker took me in but he was having a hard enough time feeding his own family. With the help of some of his friends I found work in a small noodle shop. As an apprentice I had to crank the dough-cutting machine from morning to evening until I was exhausted. Before and after that work the owner's family used me as a servant. I looked after the children, did the washing and cooked at the bidding of the boss's wife. Scoldings and beatings were my lot. Once when the boss yelled at me I snapped back. He flew into a rage and struck me, breaking one of my fingers. I had to pay for the medical treatment myself.

After three years of this slave's life I was completely worn out and fell ill. The boss promptly found an excuse for dismissing me. Again I was out of a job.

Mine was the experience of thousands of workers in old China. Unemployment haunted us the year round and the ranks of the jobless kept on growing. With the imperialists dumping their goods on our market, Chinese commodities did not stand a chance. Many industrial and commercial firms run by national capitalists were driven out of business. I remember seeing bright-colored imported plastic bags and plastic leather shoes in the shops. With such competition, many Chinese leather factories were forced to close down. Imported powdered milk, butter and condensed milk had the same effect on Shanghai's dairies. The milk cows were slaughtered for meat and the dairy workers found themselves walking the streets.

At the time of liberation some 800,000 out of Shanghai's 5 million population — or one in every three able-bodied persons — were out of work. They were cold and hungry and many were homeless. During the winter of 1948 two philanthropic institutions recorded 1,738 dead bodies they had picked up on the streets.

The New Society's Masters

Shanghai was liberated in May 1949. The working people became masters of the country.

The Shanghai municipal people's government, led by the
The Chinese Communist Party, quickly implemented Chairman Mao's instruction: "Relief work for the unemployed workers and intellectuals must be helped systematically to get work."

A committee was formed to tackle the problem. Under it was an office for finding suitable jobs for the unemployed. Factories and other enterprises were asked to register all those who had been laid off and neighborhood organizations registered all residents without jobs as a basis for relief work.
The government set up a liaison group, staffed by people chosen from among the unemployed, to help explain to the jobless the government's policy of suitable allocation of jobs under overall planning, and the specific measures it would take. This group also kept the government appraised on the employment situation. As one of the workers in this group I saw at first hand the Party and government's concern for the working class and how they solved the unemployment problem by mobilizing the working people's enthusiasm for socialism.

The Party and government also organized classes in which the unemployed could attain literacy or improve their general education and also learn something about revolutionary theory. We who had been deprived of political rights and the right to education in the old society learned for the first time what Chairman Mao and other Marxists had written about classes, class struggle and the history of social development. We learned that we were poor because we were exploited and oppressed, that it is part of the capitalist system to have so many people out of jobs. We learned that it is labor that creates the world and that in the new society the working class is the leading class.

With the new understanding that we were masters of the country, we felt we could not simply sit around receiving relief and wait for jobs. With leadership from the Party and government, we joined the people of the whole city in building a new socialist Shanghai.

Building New Shanghai

As the economy recovered and developed, skilled workers quickly found jobs. For those without skills the government opened special training programs preparing them for jobs such as operating electrical machinery, construction work, driving and health work. Altogether 210,000 unemployed studied under this program and later got jobs.

The government also provided considerable funds for a self-help program which assisted the unemployed to get started in production on their own. Some 50,000 people who had some kind of handicraft skill were organized into cooperatives which produced shirts, leather shoes, wooden articles and powdered milk. Another 280,000 who had no special skill went to work on municipal construction projects — building roads and railways, dredging river channels and constructing sports fields, parks and clubs.

I worked on three of these projects, one to lay a rail line from the city district to Wusung at the mouth of the Yangtze River, another to dredge the channel of the river linking the city center with Chipao in the distant countryside, and a third to fill in the filthy Chaochiapang Ditch and turn it into a wide tree-lined street. Whenever I pass these places I experience a feeling of pride for having contributed to building the new Shanghai.

Big Changes

In 1955 I joined the Chinese People's Liberation Army. While I was away big changes took place in Shanghai. In 1956, beating drums and gongs, its people greeted the nationwide high tide of socialist transformation. All private enterprises there were transformed into joint state-private ones and became a part of the socialist planned economy. Handicraftsmen in the city and nearby towns and the peasants in
the surrounding countryside organized themselves into producers' cooperatives.

These changes in the main ended private ownership of the means of production, the root cause of unemployment. Revolution spurred production. The self-help cooperatives became state enterprises. People who worked on municipal projects became regular construction workers with steady jobs.

Between 1949 and 1957 — the years of economic recovery and the First Five-Year Plan — the value of Shanghai's industrial production increased at an annual rate of 18 percent. In 1958, guided by Chairman Mao's general line to "go all out, aim high and achieve greater, faster, better and more economical results in building socialism", industry and agriculture in and around Shanghai made great strides. Old enterprises expanded, new ones were set up, neighborhood factories mushroomed. The peasants amalgamated their producers' cooperatives into people's communes, and these set up many of their own industrial units. Shanghai's industrial output value increased 50 percent in one year. The fast economic growth not only ended unemployment for good but created a host of new jobs.

When I came back to Shanghai to visit my family in 1958, the year of the big leap forward, I was impressed by the great social changes. That year 250,000 housewives left the confines of the home and went out into society to work. Some took jobs in factories. Some went to work in collectively-owned neighborhood production groups which processed orders from the bigger factories making electrical parts, meters, clocks and watches. They became an indispensable part of the industrial force. Still others worked in collectively-owned service units such as nurseries, public dining rooms and other undertakings set up to free women from their home duties. My sister, who had been at home caring for her many children, became a worker in a plastics factory.

Today 310,000 women in greater Shanghai work in 6,000 such production or service units. When Melon Lane was a slum before liberation, most of its inhabitants lived by begging or picking over garbage dumps. Today, both husbands and wives in most of 1,800 families there have regular jobs.

**Plans for More Jobs**

I was assigned to work in the municipal labor department when I returned to Shanghai in 1960 after army service, and later assumed a leading position there. Working with the planning, management, training and placing of the city's labor force has made me realize more vividly than ever that only under the socialist system can full employment be guaranteed.

Socialist economy is developed in a planned and proportionate way. Shanghai, one of China's industrial bases, plans its production according to the needs of the economic growth of the whole country. With government approval the factories add to their work force yearly in line with their expansion.

Take the shipbuilding industry. Before liberation Shanghai built no ships but did only repairs. Since the cultural revolution began, the industry has been turning out 10,000-ton ships in large numbers. It employs 13 times as many people as in the early days after liberation. New workers are also needed to fill jobs vacated by those of retirement age. The main source for these are the school graduates. In the past few years the government has placed an an-
annual 200,000 of these young people. Some are given jobs in factories or other enterprises or government offices, some go to new factories and mines elsewhere, some go to state farms or rural people's communes in response to the call to settle down in the countryside. A number of junior middle school graduates are in secondary technical schools where they participate in a work-and-study program. While there they get a monthly subsidy and free medical care.

Production is expanded not merely by adding more workers or equipment. A more basic way is by raising labor productivity through technical innovation and reform and tapping latent potential. Today labor productivity in Shanghai industry is 59.5 percent higher than in 1966 when the cultural revolution began.

The rise in labor productivity means less labor is needed. In the old society this meant people would be thrown out of work. With socialism, under unified state planning workers released by technical reform get jobs expanding production elsewhere. Therefore there is no surplus labor power in China.

An example of this is shop No. 1 of the Shanghai No. 2 Steel Mill, which grew out of a small rundown factory with only one single-pass wire rod mill. The greater part of the work was done by manual labor. During the cultural revolution workers and technicians reconstructed the mill and raised its productive capacity 130-fold. Most of the 200 workers released by this have taken other jobs in the mill's seven new shops. The rest were transferred to new steel enterprises elsewhere.

Shanghai's industrial productivity today is 5.5 times that of pre-liberation days. The value of her industrial output is 17 times that of 1949. Socialist planned economy is constantly creating new jobs.

Today of the 5.7 million in the city proper, all able-bodied adults — 3 million — are working.

Chemical Water Lane by the stinking Soochow Creek was Shanghai's biggest slum before the liberation. Its 10,000 inhabitants were jobless workers and impoverished peasants who had drifted into the city. Only four to five percent of the people had any
regular source of income. The majority depended on odd jobs, pulling rickshaws, picking over cinders and scavenging in rubbish heaps for something which would bring in a few cents.

Today 3,500 families, totalling 14,000 people, live in the lane. Every able-bodied person is working — 5,000 in state-owned factories or communications and transport work, 1,500 in collectively-owned factories, 400 in government offices, schools, and financial and trade units.

The experience of any single family now living in this lane in moving from unemployment to regular jobs typifies the general change.

FORTY-FIVE years ago, when Hao Ming-lung was 12 years old, a severe flood hit north Kiangsu province and his village was inundated. His parents abandoned their home and set off with Ming-lung for Shanghai in a small wooden boat. They tied up in the Soochow Creek. Using the worn-out boat awning, some mats, and laying a little straw to cover the damp ground, they built a shelter on the bank outside a chemical works. They were one of many poor peasant families who had come there, hoping to find jobs in the chemical works or the nearby cotton and silk mills. As more and more shacks were put up the place came to be known as Chemical Water Lane.

Day after day, Hao Ming-lung's parents searched for work. Finally his mother got a job in a silk mill. A year of the hard work in the mill killed her. Hao Ming-lung's father remained jobless but Ming-lung was taken on as a child laborer in a smithy. He was only there a short time when, without cause, the boss kicked him out. Picking over cinders and garbage, Ming-lung and his father managed to survive. Ming-lung's first regular job was in a wood-oil plant and he remained there until he was 28. Then he had a severe attack of malaria which kept him from going to work, and he was sacked.

While in the wood-oil plant Ming-lung had married a textile worker and had three children. Now the family was dependent on his wife's meager wage. Prices were soaring and the money she earned was not enough to feed them all. Weak and ill, Hao Ming-lung dragged himself around searching for work. Sometimes he picked up an odd job, more often he walked a whole day on an empty stomach without bringing back a cent.

This miserable existence continued for five years, until in 1949 Shanghai was liberated. All unemployed workers were registered by the people's government and Hao Ming-lung was quickly sent to a factory as a temporary worker. In 1956 he was given a permanent job in the foundry of the Shanghai Machine Building Plant.

Hao Ming-lung, now 57, has built himself a small two-story brick house and has been able to buy all the furniture and household utensils the family needs. Because of his age and health, the plant gives him light work. His wife has retired on a pension. His eldest daughter, a graduate from a secondary medical school, is a hospital nurse. Three children are factory workers. Two others are
Bus driver Chiang Tsung-jung

in the countryside, one in a state farm, another in a rural people's commune. The youngest has joined the People's Liberation Army.

With liberation the old society was swept away, and with it all the old slum dwellings on Chemical Water Lane. Some of the residents have built their own houses, like Hao Ming-lung. Others have moved to new workers' housing projects built by the state. Every household has electricity and running water. What a change from the old days when there were only two taps, controlled by local tyrants, and the poor had to drink the dirty, stinking water from the creek! What a change from the old days when not a single light could be seen at night because no one could afford a drop of kerosene for a lamp!

CHIANG TSUNG-JUNG, 43, is a Shanghai bus driver. Like Hao Ming-lung, he left his village with his brother and the two boys found their way to Chemical Water Lane and settled there. They scraped along, his brother pulling a rickshaw while he picked over cinders for scraps of coal. Later he worked as a child laborer in a glass factory, where his only pay was two meals of coarse grain a day. The job lasted only eight months, till a general depression forced the factory to close down. Now 16, Chiang thought of pedalling a pedicab but had no money for the deposit needed to hire one. He was helped by another pedicab man, a native of his village, who sometimes when he stopped work late at night lent Chiang his pedicab. In deep winter, wearing only a thin jacket, Chiang Tsung-jung roamed the streets in search of a fare. His earnings were barely enough to keep him from starving.

With the liberation of Shanghai, trade unions were organized among the workers, including one for pedicab men. The union issued cotton padded jackets and a relief allowance to its members, paid their medical expenses and opened a night school where they could study free of charge. Chiang Tsung-jung seized the chance and learned to read and write. By 1956 rickshaws had disappeared from the streets of the city and pedicabs began to be replaced by motor vehicles.

"If this had happened in the old society," Chiang said, "I would certainly again have been faced with no job. But now the people's government had everything planned. The several tens of thousands of rickshaw men and pedicab drivers were transferred to factories or transport, finance and trade organizations. When the big leap forward of 1958 came, more people were needed in all fields of work. My brother who had originally been a rickshaw puller became a worker in the Shanghai Steel Tubing Plant, and I joined the public transport company."

Starting as a ticket seller, Chiang Tsung-jung was afterwards trained to become a bus driver. Last year he was admitted into the Chinese Communist Party. His wife is working in a glass factory, and his eldest daughter, a junior middle school graduate, in a nearby food market. His three other children are in school.

"It is the Communist Party that has given all this to my family," Chiang said. "Without the Party we would have all been dead long ago."

LI CHIN-TI, a retired woolen mill worker, is one of Chiang Tsung-jung's neighbors. Now 56, she has lived in this lane for 40 years. Introducing her son, she said, "After graduating from middle school he went to work in a rural people's commune. At the end of two years the commune members..."
recommended that he be sent to university. He is now a second-year student at the Shanghai University of Science and Technology majoring in precision machine building. In the old society, the only right of children of the poor was to starve. We never dared dream of going to university.”

Li Chin-ti had nothing but bitter memories from the old society. When her husband lost his job and was ill, she became the sole source of support for the family. Her four-year-old boy fell sick but there was no money for a doctor. He died one night just as she was leaving for the night shift. “I looked at his small lifeless body,” she said, “but I had to swallow my grief and go to work. My sick husband and three children were waiting at home for the pittance I would bring back to buy them food and medicine.”

After liberation Li Chin-ti’s husband got a job in a seamless steel tubing plant. Later, concerned about his health, the plant arranged for his transfer to a light job in a cold storage plant, where he still received the same wage. Li Chin-ti gets a pension of 70 percent of her wage. The three daughters, after graduating from middle school, have become factory workers. “There is no end to the telling of what the Party has done for us,” Li Chin-ti said.

NOT FAR from Li Chin-ti’s home is a middle school built on the site of the old foreign-owned Kiangsu Chemical Works. Many of those now living in the lane know the horrors of having worked there. Barefooted and dressed in clothes patched together from gunny sacks, always under the eye of the boss-serving foreman, they had to risk their lives to produce sulphuric acid in a fume-laden workshop. The second generation of these workers are now masters of the new society. Their 4,000

Li Chin-ti (second from left) and her family in the park.

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CORRECTION

In the July 1975 issue of China Reconstructs, p. 28, the caption for the photo in the lower left corner should read: “A botanist collects samples in a forest in the Qomolangma Feng area.”
China’s First Electric Rail Line

The rail line between Paoki in Shensi province and Chengtu in Szechuan province is now electrified and operating with China-designed and made “Shaoshan” electric locomotives. Electrification of the 676-kilometer transport artery linking southwest China with the country’s rail network will speed up further development of China’s national economy.

The high mountains the line crosses have been described poetically: “Even yellow cranes in flight cannot span them and monkeys trying to cross fret at the impossible climb.” After the line was built during the First Five-Year Plan (1953-1957) it played an important role in the southwest. But the steep grades and numerous tunnels and bends slowed the pace of steam locomotives and limited their carrying capacity. The line could not meet the growing demands of the country’s socialist construction.

Work on electrifying the railway started in 1958. It was stopped in 1961 when Liu Shao-chi ordered drastic cuts in many industrial and transport projects. The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution smashed the two bourgeois headquarters, one headed by Liu Shao-chi and the other by Lin Piao, making it possible to resume the project.

In the course of the construction the workers criticized the thinking that relied only on foreign specialists, and determined to do the design and construction themselves with Chinese equipment and materials. Instead of using the conventional copper conductors they devised a way to use China-made aluminum-steel ones.

To reduce interference the electrified railway could cause on nearby telecommunication, broadcasting and power transmission lines, a booster transformer and return conductor was designed and made for use on the railway. It necessitated less moving of telecommunication lines, thus shortening construction time and cutting building costs. It will prove particularly useful where electrified rail lines pass through big cities.

In the past few years workers and technicians on this line have made more than 400 technical innovations. This enabled electrification of the southern section of the line from Fengchow to Chengtu to be done at half the cost of that for the northern section undertaken during 1958-61.

The line remained open to traffic while the electrification was done. Special leading groups from Szechuan and Shensi provinces strengthened the unified leadership of the project. Socialist cooperation between designing, construction, transport, telecommunications and power transmission departments facilitated the completion of the project.
WITH the completion of a 355-km. stretch of large-bore pipeline, oil from the Taching oil field is now being piped to Peking. The line is an extension of a 1,152-km. line from Taching in northeast China to Chinwangtiao on the coast of Hopei province, which was completed in autumn 1973 (see China Reconstructs, April 1975). The Chinwangtiao-Peking section was finished last June and is now in use. Heating and booster stations along the entire route, which totals 1,507 km., ensure a steady flow of crude oil.

The pipeline serves the Tungfanghung (East Is Red) oil refinery of the Peking General Petrochemical Works. With Taching crude oil the refinery has turned out a variety of high-quality oil products. A portion of the crude oil is piped to the Shihlou railway depot near the refinery for shipment to other parts of the country.

The decision to extend the pipeline, announced in May 1974, soon brought an army of builders, mainly workers and rural militia-men, to the construction sites. They studied Marxism-Leninism and Mao Tsetung Thought and criticized Lin Piao's and Confucius' efforts to turn back history. They also recalled the deeds of "Iron Man" Wang Chin-hsi, an outstanding pioneer in building the Taching oil field, who braved bitter cold and snowstorms and defied difficulties caused by shortage of materials in the spirit of self-reliance.
and hard struggle urged by Chairman Mao.

The pipeline workers pledged to try to be like Iron Man Wang and complete the construction more quickly. Working day and night, they finished in less than half the scheduled time the task of digging the trench, which passes through 13 counties and cities in Hopei province and the Tientsin and Peking municipalities. More than 110,000 tons of steel pipes and other equipment were transported to the worksites in record time.

The “March 8” lineswomen’s team, after criticism of the 2,000-year-old Confucian idea of male supremacy, worked hard to improve their skill at pole climbing and attaching wires, greatly raising their efficiency. Close cooperation between workers, cadres and technicians made it possible in only three months to build the main part of the Shihlou booster station, which involved installation of three floating-roof tanks, a power source and other equipment.

Careful and accurate design and construction, with the pipeline workers following the conscientious working style of the Taching people, guaranteed the quality of the project. With help from the workers, the designers selected the most economical and rational route, thus saving a considerable

sum. Adhering strictly to operation procedures and treating every weld as a precision operation enabled the workers to make all of the tens of thousands of welds up to standard, tight and capable of withstanding high pressure. Pipe welding was done 40 percent faster than originally planned. Normal operation of all the booster pumps and safe and steady delivery of oil made it possible for the pipeline to go into full operation promptly after its first trial.

Pumps in the Chinwangtao booster station ensure a steady delivery of crude oil.

Cheers as the first Taching crude oil arrives by pipe in Peking.
The curtains part to reveal craggy mountains shrouded in smoke. It is autumn 1947 in the Yimeng Mountains of southern Shantung province. The Chinese people’s war for liberation has shifted from strategic defense to strategic offense. The People’s Liberation Army is withdrawing temporarily from its base there to join other units and concentrate a superior force to wipe out enemy units one by one. Kuomintang troops and landlords’ armed corps are returning but meeting stiff resistance from the local Communist-led armed work teams and militia. Song of the Yimeng Mountains opens against this historical background.

Discovery of an army towel reveals to the enemy that there is a wounded PLA man in the area. PLA platoon leader Fang Tien-chun has lost it when he was wounded. At the orders of a Kuomintang officer, landlord Lai Chun-fu’s men comb the mountains to find the wounded man. Ying-sao, a poor peasant woman out digging wild roots, discovers Platoon Leader Fang, unconscious and badly injured in the leg, his empty flask beside him. What should she do? It is a long way to go home for water, and also unsafe to leave him here alone. Ying-sao is a nursing mother, so she fills the flask with her own milk and revives the wounded soldier with it.

She hides him in a cave and brings him food and medicine. At home she kills her only hen to make broth for him. She also enlists the help of other villagers. They come and go with such caution that the enemy is unable to find the man.

Finally the enemy snatches away Ying-sao’s baby and threatens to throw it over a cliff if she does not reveal the hiding place. Ying-sao stands firm, but Platoon Leader Fang suddenly reveals himself in time to save the baby.

The villagers then form a protective ring around him, defying the landlord’s men as they close in. The armed work team and a PLA unit arrive in time to wipe out the enemy and save the villagers. As the army and people go on to new battles, Platoon Leader Fang, now recovered, leaves for the front.

Children of the Grasslands is about the life of children who are taking part in the struggle to build socialist society. It is the spring of 1964 and the whole countryside is responding to the call to learn from Tachiag in agriculture. The ballet begins with a daybreak scene at the Chaoktu production brigade on the Inner Mongolian grasslands. The children are learning to milk the cows while the adults are busy readying the milk for delivery to the commune center. The liveliness of the socialist scene is emphasized by a joyous dance of the milkmaids.

In another scene, Bayan, a reactionary former herdowner, vents his hatred for socialism by lashing at a flock of sheep. Their bleating brings Timur, his sister Sujin and other children. They demand to know why Bayan is beating the sheep and break into a dance which is a spontaneous denunciation of the class enemy.

The brigade Communist Party secretary commends the brother and sister for taking the whip away from Bayan. He agrees that they can herd a flock of the commune’s sheep.

As the children are out with the animals on the grassland a sudden snowstorm begins. They get the flock back into the fold, but unseen by them Bayan steals up and cuts the rope holding the gate shut and the sheep get out and scatter again. Arriving back on the scene, Timur and Sujin discover the cut rope, and also the shawm from Bayan’s knife which he has dropped in his haste. They go out after the sheep, also keeping a lookout for the troublemaker. As they move farther into the grassland, Timur takes off his red scarf and ties it to a tree branch to mark their way. Meanwhile the brigade members and PLA men stationed nearby begin to search the plains on horseback for the children and sheep.

The two children, though hungry, exhausted and frostbitten, encourage each other and do all they can to keep the sheep together. Bayan has been tailing them. Now, as the tired Sujin lies sleeping, he tries to take the knife sheath from her. The children struggle with him. They are injured but the herdsmen arrive in time to save them and the sheep and capture Bayan. Dances in which the children battle the blizzard and grapple with the enemy show their courage and resourcefulness.

Dances Portray Heroes

The two productions are staged by the China Ballet Troupe. Their choreography and music are the result of applying Chairman Mao’s principles of critically assimilating useful techniques from both Chinese traditional and foreign art and of making innovations. The works are a successful blending of ballet and folk dance technique to create a language of the dance suitable for proletarian heroes and heroines.

In Song of the Yimeng Mountains the movements of Ying-sao’s dances are designed to express the characteristics of a typical woman of the poor peasantry in the revolutionary bases—devotion to the revolution, readiness to come to its aid at the most difficult times, diligence, sincerity and a love for the people’s army.

In Act II, while the landlord’s henchmen burn, kill and ransack the area for grain, she lights a fire and makes chicken broth for the
wounded man. A simple act, yet typical of the countless moving things actually done by the peasant masses when caring for the people’s army wounded. It signifies the close ties between the army and the people.

This solo dance combines movements from the yangko dance popular among peasants in eastern Shantung with pirouettes from the ballet to create a choreography with national character. It is at its best in the lithe and precise movements with which the heroine spreads rice on the ground to entice the hen and lights the fire. This solo, danced with a revolutionary folk song sung in the background—“May our soldier grow well soon, return to the front to fight and liberate the people”—expresses the peasant woman’s hopes for the liberation of the people.

Fang Tieh-chun, the wounded platoon leader, is a representative rank-and-file PLA cadre. His indomitable, optimistic spirit and readiness to sacrifice himself to serve the people are shown through his powerful dance movements. Though seriously wounded and steadily losing strength, he still tries to catch up with his unit. This courage and stamina is portrayed in a solo dance blending ballet technique with the vigorous acrobatic movements from Peking opera, which demand high technical proficiency.

While retaining characteristics of the ballet, Children of the Grasslands is strongly Mongolian in form and content. Some of the major dances begin from such typical actions of daily life on the grasslands as milking, herding, wrestling and horseback riding. The choreography stresses shoul-
Platoon Leader Fang on the way to recovery.

Ying-sao out to dig wild roots so that she can save her food grain for the army.

der, arm and leg movements that are unique in Mongolian dances. The lyrical dance "Herding" is designed to express the children's love for Chairman Mao, their eagerness to learn to be herders and their determination to carry on the revolutionary cause.

The brother's joy at his work is shown in a typical movement from the Mongolian dance. His eyes on the sheep, he bends forward and backward, shaking his shoulders rhythmically. The sister, cracking her whip, combines the Mongolian wide sway of the shoulders with the ballet pose on one leg to express her pride at tending sheep for the commune.

Musical Innovations

The theme for Ying-sao is derived from a popular Shantung revolutionary folk song, "Yimeng Mountain Melody". Development and variations on the theme result in a composition that contributes much to defining the heroine's character.

The familiar army song, "Three Main Rules of Discipline and Eight Points for Attention" provides the theme for the platoon leader. The adaptation of the militant melody creates a musical image of an invincible PLA man utterly devoted to the revolution and the people.

The Children of the Grasslands music is taken from Mongolian folk songs and played by an ensemble of both western and Chinese traditional instruments, including the four-stringed fiddle, the three-stringed plucked fiddle, bamboo flute, mu yu (a wooden block struck to accentuate the rhythm) and the horse-headed fiddle. The last is an old, old Mongolian stringed instrument with a full and sustained tone particularly suited for expressing deep emotion. Solo passages on the horse-headed fiddle convey the herders' and armymen's concern for the children's safety, as when they come upon the red scarf and later a felt boot lost by the girl.

Art Based on Life

While creating the ballet, the members of the troupe went to the Yimeng Mountains, where stories are still told of how the people and army supported each other during the time it was an old liberated area. They visited many villages to collect such stories and live and work with the commune members. From these they selected the main plot and typical incidents.

The finished ballet was taken to the Yimeng Mountains for its first performances—altogether a hundred in factories, communes and army units. Opinions of the audiences were collected at dozens of forums. Workers, peasants and soldiers, some who had travelled a long way, offered ideas for improving the plot, the dance movements, even the costumes and hairdos. In response to these, close to a thousand changes were made in the dances alone.

The Children of the Grasslands troupe went many times to the Inner Mongolian grasslands to live and work with the herders and learn about the class struggle there, especially how the children are growing up in it. One story they heard was about nine-year-old Mongenba. Out herding 300 sheep for the herdsmen's commune brigade to which his family belongs, he was caught in a blizzard. He stayed with the sheep for 30 hours, delivering two lambs on the way. He was nearly frozen when the herdsmen finally found him. The story of the ballet is taken from stories of Mongenba and many others like him.
Ying-sao revives Platoon Leader Fang Tiel-chun.

Battling the landlord and his henchmen.
Making chicken broth.

Platoon Leader Fang reveals himself to save a baby.

Victory celebration.
The Tangku salt fields, situated on Pohai Sea on the north China coast not far from the cities of Peking and Tientsin, is China’s biggest. Also ranking first for quantity and quality of output, it supplies a sizable portion of China’s salt for consumption and industrial use.

The Tangku salt field has a long history. By the time of the Ming dynasty (14th to 17th century) feudal officials had been appointed to supervise its production. In the early 20th century it came under imperialist and later Kuomintang reactionary control. All through the dark years in old China, though the field served as a means for the reactionary rulers to squeeze out the blood and sweat of the working people, its production remained small. It was characterized by backward equipment, high intensity of labor and low productivity.

With the birth of the new China in 1949 everything changed in the salt field. As a socialist enterprise it expanded production and improved equipment and conditions of work. For the past three years it has fulfilled its annual production quota six months or more ahead of schedule. The output for the first half of 1975 was over 20 percent higher than that for the same period in 1974.

The salt field workers’ adherence to the principle of self-reliance, their continual battle with nature and their struggle against wrong thinking are the reasons for such progress.

The field was in a sorry state when it was taken over from the Kuomintang reactionaries soon after liberation, with narrow winding channels and uneven-bottomed concentration ponds scattered in a haphazard way. This impeded the development of production. Within a year the workers and staff had rehabilitated the whole field and begun altering and enlarging it.

In preparation for mechanization and advanced techniques, between 1969 and 1974 they transformed 4,300 hectares of the old field to create straight channels, and ponds and crystallizing pans with even bottoms. An additional 1,800 hectares of fields were reclaimed from Pohai Sea. Now on either side of the broad paved highway the salt fields stretch away into the distance, an orderly network of ponds, pans and channels.

Mass movements for technical innovation and to make equipment themselves led by the field’s Communist Party organization over the past 20 years have raised the level of mechanization or semi-mechanization. In the old society the work there was very hard. An old saying described it: “In those fields of bitter salt we work like slaves night and day. Our backs are bent by the carrying-pole, our feet swell and rot in the brine.”

Today machinery has lightened the work. Transfer of salt from pan to pan is done through channels. There are pulverizers and “combines” to collect the salt. Tangku has become one of the most highly-mechanized salt fields in the country.

Tangku salt is produced by solar evaporation so annual output is affected by the amount of sunlight and adverse natural factors like rain or snow. In the past some people believed that there was nothing one could do about such things, in effect that whether a lot or a little salt was produced depended on the will of heaven. Others among the masses wanted to fight this fatalist view and try to control natural forces, but their enthusiasm was suppressed by the revisionist line pushed by Liu Shao-chi and his followers. During the cultural revolution the masses criticized and repudiated this revisionist line and resolved to try to beat nature.

They probed the laws of nature and studied the relationship between salt production and the changes in season and weather. Taking this into consideration they finally devised a new system for running the brine into the ponds and for repair work. This extended the salt-producing period by two months. In 1970, with further technical improvement such as making deeper pans for crystallizing the brine and using brine which has already had the impurities removed, they succeeded in producing salt all through the winter. These measures raised per-hectare output by five percent. More work is being done along this line.
Dawn over the Tangku salt field.

The salt is collected.
Another Good Wheat Harvest

Wheat harvesting in a suburban commune outside Peking.

This year’s summer harvest, of which wheat is the main crop, was a substantial increase over last year’s which was also a good one. Both total grain production and per-hectare yield topped previous peaks. Grain output went up in all north China provinces and municipalities, which cover 70 percent of the country’s total area harvesting at this time. Ten to twenty percent increases over last year were reported by Shantung, Anhwei, Hupeh, Shensi, Kansu, Kwangtung, Yunnan, Liaoning and Shansi provinces and the Peking and Tientsin areas. In Hopei, Honan, Shensi and Peking this year’s volume of summer crops surpassed the total grain output for 1949.

Rural cadres and commune members did a good job of getting in the harvest due to heightened enthusiasm for building socialism and a deeper understanding of the theory of proletarian dictatorship. There were many work-break study sessions like the above with Wei Shih-jung (right), a member of the Communist Party standing committee of Luancheng county, Hopei province, and commune members.
A threshing ground in Shensi province.

Selecting better strains of wheat in Taoyuan county, Hunan province.

Schoolchildren in Shantung do their part by gleaning.

The wheat harvest goes on in the shadow of a newly-built aqueduct at the Hsuku commune, Hsinchou county, Hupeh province. The county achieved a 30 percent rise over 1974 on its 20,000 hectares of summer crops.
Trees along a Chengchow street get an insecticide spray.
Making the Cities Green

CHENG CHIEN

FROM the air, Chengchow, capital of Honan province on the middle Yellow River, appears as one stretch after another of dense green with buildings set among them. Yet 26 years ago there were practically no trees along the streets of Chengchow. It had no parks, no public lawns, no more than 10,000 trees in all. Winter and spring the city was veiled in dust.

Socialist revolution and construction since liberation have turned Chengchow into an important industrial city and also a green one. Green belts with a total of 3 million trees make up one-third of the city's area.

What has gone on in Chengchow has taken place in many of new China's cities. Soon after liberation, in response to a call from Chairman Mao to make the whole country green, urban and rural people—in both the warm humid south and the cold dry north—began planting trees on a large scale. Two decades of such work have done much to change the climate, purify the air, cut down noise and generally improve the environment.

For the Working People

The basic aim of such tree planting is to serve the working people. This means trees everywhere—in workers' residential areas, factory and office compounds, schools and the streets. The fact that in China urban land is all state owned is a favorable condition for planned planting.

In the big cities of old China, trees and deep shade could be found in the residential areas of high officials and big capitalists, but not in districts where the working people lived. Today greenery is a planned part of every housing project. Shanghai's Melon Lane, before liberation a slum of closely-packed huts made of straw mats, had not a single tree. Life was gray and grim the year round. After liberation the huts were replaced by comfortably-spaced apartment buildings with trees between them and along the paved walks. Now the residents have peach blossoms to welcome the spring and shade to protect them from the heat of summer.

Pengpu New Village is another Shanghai workers' housing project constructed since liberation. Forty-five percent of its 27 hectares are given over to trees or grass. Trees and plants have been chosen with care so that they form a harmonious background with something green the year round.

Factory compounds and surrounding areas also have their share of trees planted with the workers' health in mind. The species are often chosen with a definite aim, such as purifying the air of harmful gases.

The area around the Shenyang Chemical Works in northeast China used to be considered too smoke-laden for trees to grow. Now the plant has greatly reduced the harmful elements from its chimneys. It also planted more than a thousand trees of varieties with a high resistance to smoke such as the David peach, Chinese honey locust and Chinese wolfberry.

Flowers and grass around the workshops not only make the place more attractive but also serve as an auxiliary warning. When they begin to yellow or wither, it is a sign that there has been an increase in the harmful matter in the air.

The city planners follow the philosophy, "Wherever there are streets there will be trees." In many cities the streets, even those with the busiest traffic, are cool green arcades in summer and autumn. When Nanking was the seat of the reactionary Kuomintang government there were only 2,000 trees and they lined only the streets in the heart of the city and in areas inhabited by the rich. Today all streets are lined with them—200,000 to date.

Cities have remade their old gardens and parks or built new ones for the use of the working people. Kwangchow had only three small parks before liberation and an average of 0.34 square meters of green area per person. Today 17 parks provide a much larger population with an average of 3.45 square meters per person, a tenfold increase.

Relying on the Masses

"Greening", like all other work in China, is done through mass participation. The job of building and managing parks, tree nurseries and trees along the streets, belongs to the city landscaping departments, but for some large-scale projects the masses are mobilized for voluntary labor. Work units
Some of Chengchow's greenery.

Fruit trees in Chungshan Park, Peking.

Royal poincianas shade the streets of Nanning, Kwangsi Chuang Autonomous Region.
In the Kunghiang New Village, a workers' housing project in Shanghai.
organize their own people to plant trees in their compounds, while trees in residential areas are planted by the local people with leadership from the neighborhood committees. The landscaping departments supply the saplings and personnel to give technical advice on care of the young trees, watering, pest control and winter protection.

At tree-planting time every year, factory and office workers, army-men, students and people in the neighborhoods turn out to help. They play an important role. In Peking, for example, 520,000 of the 650,000 trees planted in 1974 were set out by such volunteers.

The northeast coastal city of Talien has planted trees along 350 streets (total length 300 kilometers), in 5,300 courtyards and 250 factory and office compounds. It has 10 times the trees and dozens of times the green areas it had before liberation. Among the 250 kinds gracing its streets are such valuable species as the ginkgo, deodar cedar, Chinese juniper, yulan magnolia and the crape myrtle.

Caring for the trees, which accounts for 70 percent of the work of successful tree-planting, is also done with help from the masses. Neighborhood committees mobilize work units and families to care for trees in their locality. Children tend the trees near their schools. They build little earth dykes around them before watering, wrap

Children weed an orchard near their school, Peking.

Yuhsiu Park in Kwangchow.

The compound of the Shanghai Machine Tool Plant.
the trunks with straw rope to protect them against the cold and on the saplings post notices reminding others to "Protect These Trees". Such activities help them develop a love for labor and a sense of responsibility for public property.

**Combined with Production**

One principle for city landscape planning is that it be combined with production. This means trees of economic value as well as for greenery, such as fruit trees and plants yielding essential oils. While providing a pleasant environment, these also bring in some income for the state. This has been done more widely since the cultural revolution, particularly in Peking, Hangchow, Shanghai, Shenyang and Nanning.

The 600 apple, peach, persimmon and crab apple trees in Peking’s Chungshan Park provide a dazzling show of blossoms in spring. There had been a difference of opinion on how to handle the matter of growing fruit in parks. Some people wanted to put a high fence around the orchard so that visitors could view the trees from a distance but not get at them. This, they said, was the only way you could be sure of having any fruit in autumn.

A larger number thought that the socialist consciousness of the people should not be underestimated. A high fence would create a forbidding atmosphere, they pointed out, and detract from the visitors’ pleasure. Finally it was decided to use a low fence which was later replaced with a still lower green wattle lattice. The natural view was preserved and the fruit grew well too. When the trees are in blossom and laden with fruit the Chungshan orchards are a favorite background for picture-taking. The park has had good crops every year since 1968. In 1974 it harvested 20 tons.

In some cities fruit and timber trees have been planted along the streets, as in Nanning in the Kwangsi Chuang Autonomous Region. Some are evergreens of graceful shapes. Watering, spraying and protective measures are carried out with the assistance of the masses. In 1973 the city harvested 20 tons of mangoes and jackfruit from these street-side trees.

Much effort is put into growing plants which are both beautiful and useful. In Hangchow large numbers of sweet osmanthus and gardenias are grown around scenic West Lake. In 1973 these yielded a ton of essential oils. The Hangchow Botanical Garden has a “Garden of a Hundred Herbs” containing actually 900 medicinal herbs, many with lovely flowers. They are a big attraction not only for visitors in general but also for rural barefoot doctors and city medical workers.
A Young Worker—Composer

ONE of the favorite songs of Chinese children is "I Love Peking's Tien An Men" (words and music on p. 34). At kindergartens, school playgrounds, parks and on the streets, in city and countryside, one can hear them singing "I love Peking's Tien An Men. There the red sun rises high..."

The composer is 24-year-old Chin Yueh-ling, a worker in the Shanghai No. 6 Glass Factory. Since she came there after graduation from middle school in 1968 she has become not only a skilled worker but an amateur composer whose songs are loved by the children.

Chin Yueh-ling has liked to sing ever since she was small. While in school, as a member of the Shanghai Children's Palace chorus she wrote a few songs with help from her teachers. In her factory, too, she was very active in singing and dancing. To help her improve her composing, the factory arranged for her to attend a class for amateur composers sponsored by the Shanghai Workers' Cultural Palace with teachers from the Shanghai Conservatory of Music. Afterwards she was invited to join a group of Shanghai amateur composers and song writers working on children's songs. Its members come together from different walks of life to study, discuss their compositions and exchange experience. Sometimes they join in the children's activities so as to get to know them better.

Chin Yueh-ling often goes to the children's palace where she teaches groups to read music, sing and lead the others in singing. On her days off she visits primary schools to hear the children sing, join their rehearsals and try out her new songs on them.

HOW did she happen to compose the Tien An Men song?

The vigorously developing socialist revolution and constantly emerging new socialist things had long made her want to create songs as part of her contribution to the revolution. She was much moved by the efforts of the veteran workers from her factory, who had gone to primary or middle schools to help with the revolution in education, to bring up young people who could carry on the revolutionary cause. "As a young worker," she thought, "I too should be doing something for the children."
Four years ago she saw the poem "I Love Peking's Tien An Men" in Little Red Guard, a newspaper published in Shanghai. "I felt as if I were standing before Tien An Men in 1949 as Chairman Mao raised the five-star red flag for the first time and proclaimed to the world the founding of the People's Republic of China," she said later.

"Since then Tien An Men has been a place revered by the revolutionary people. During the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution, Tien An Men Square was filled with red flags and joyful singing. Chairman Mao's reception of group after group of the revolutionary masses inspired us to carry the proletarian revolution through to the end. How wonderful, I thought, if I could compose a song to express our children's love for Chairman Mao and feeling for Tien An Men." She began to set the words of the poem to music.

This was Chin Yueh-ling's first song for children, written before she had joined the composers' group. She thought that all such a song needed to appeal to children was a good melody and lively rhythm, but the children did not take to her first draft. When she asked the opinion of some old workers, they pointed out that it had not brought out the children's true feeling for Chairman Mao. This gave Chin Yueh-ling food for thought.

She again studied Chairman Mao's writings on literature and art and found that she had not been putting them into practice very well. She had not gone to the source of creation—the life of the children. After that she spent all the time she could taking part in children's activities and gradually came to see how they expressed their deep love for Chairman Mao in their daily life.

The resulting composition was very different from the first one. The gay initial theme passage followed by a lyrical one in sharp contrast and then again by the theme make for a lively piece that appeals to children. With help from her comrades, repeated testing by children and many revisions, she produced a final version which met the standards of both artistic form and good political content.

In the past few years Chin Yueh-ling has created many other songs, a number of which have been published in the collection Songs for Children. They include "The Sewing Kit", "Chairman Mao, We Little Red Guards Are Growing Up Under Your Great Care", "I'm a Bus Driver", "Little Red Guards Learn from Heroes" and others which have become very popular with the children.
I Love Peking's Tien An Men

Song for Children

Words by Chin Kuo-lin
Music by Chin Yueh-ling
Piano accompaniment by Vu Su-hsien

Lively

I love Peking's Tien An Men, There the red sun rises high.

Our great leader Chairman Mao, He leads us marching on.

I love Peking's Tien An Men.
He leads us marching on. Our great leader

Chairman Mao, He leads us marching on.

I love Pe-king's Tien An Men, There the red sun rises high. Our great leader Chairman Mao, He leads us marching on.
From the Revolutionary Past

Red Political Power in Hsingkuo County

After the first rural revolutionary base had been set up by Chairman Mao in the Chingkang Mountains on the Hunan-Kiangsi border in October 1927, a number of similar bases were set up in other parts of China. By the winter of 1930, the revolutionary base areas in southern Kiangsi and western Fukien had been united to form the Central Revolutionary Base Area under Chairman Mao's direct leadership. Smashing three "encirclement and suppression" campaigns launched against it by the Kuomintang reactionaries, the base area and the Red Army developed vigorously.

On November 7, 1931, the First National Congress of Workers', Peasants' and Soldiers' Representatives met in Juichin, Kiangsi province, center of the Central Revolutionary Base Area. It was attended by over 600 people, including worker, peasant and soldier representatives from the various base areas and representatives of Communists working in the Kuomintang White areas. At the congress, the establishment of the Workers' and Peasants' Democratic Central Government was proclaimed and Comrade Mao Tsetung, who attended, was elected its Chairman.

Red political power in the base areas—a worker-peasant democratic dictatorship—was revolutionary power led by the proletariat. It was based on a worker-peasant alliance and united with other revolutionary classes and strata to exercise dictatorship over imperialists, the bureaucrat-comprador bourgeoisie and the feudal landlord class. Red political power at all levels played an important role in building up the base areas and defeating large-scale military attacks by the enemy. Hsingkuo county, cited by Chairman Mao as having done "first-rate work", was an outstanding example.

Under the workers' and peasants' democratic dictatorship, the people enjoyed the broadest democracy. It exercised dictatorship over the enemy. Those who had been exploited and oppressed in the past had the right to vote and be elected. Women enjoyed equal rights with men. The masses had the right to supervise and criticize the work of the government and its workers at all levels.

Fig. 1 shows a letter box put up by the Kaohsing district government in Hsingkuo county, where workers and peasants were encouraged to place reports of any misconduct by government workers. Chinese characters in black ink on its sides explained what it was for and how to use it. They read in part: "Should the Soviet government and economic organizations violate the political program, policies and current tasks of the Soviet, should it violate the interests of the workers and peasants, or should there be any case of corruption, waste, bureaucracy or negligence of duty by members of the government, any citizen of the Soviet has the right to bring such violations to the attention of the Bureau of Accusations."

That the Workers' and Peasants' Democratic Government represented the power of the people and exercised dictatorship over class enemies indulging in sabotage was also clearly indicated: "If anyone is found casting groundless suspicions, libeling or making false accusations, and is proved on investigation to have done so, he will be taken to court and punished according to the law of the Soviet." Judicial departments or sections were set up at all levels of government, with authority to resolutely suppress Kuomintang reactionaries or counter-revolutionaries who tried to sabotage Red political power.

Government cadres at all levels worked according to Chairman Mao's teaching, "To
organize the revolutionary war and to improve the life of the masses are our two major tasks." Working with enthusiasm and concern for the sufferings of the masses, they held regular meetings at which problems ranging from those of land and labor to those of fuel, rice, cooking oil and salt were placed on the agenda.

Outstanding work was done in Changkang township, Hsingkuo county, where Chairman Mao made investigations. It was referred to as a "model township".

When fire destroyed part of a poor peasant's house, the local government mobilized the masses to contribute money and help repair it. When three persons were found to be starving, the township government immediately sent them relief grain. A ballad popular at the time went:

_Cadres of the Soviet area have a good style of work,
They bring their own food when they work for the public.
Wearing straw sandals, they make revolution.
Walking the mountain paths at night, they visit the poor peasants._

The people had genuine affection for the Workers' and Peasants' Democratic Government and its cadres. To defend Red political power and smash the enemy's "encirclement and suppression" campaigns, the masses actively responded to the government's call to support the revolutionary war by joining the army or making strenuous efforts to increase production. In Changkang township, over 80 percent of the young people and men and women in their prime joined the army. In May 1933, in the campaign to expand the Red Army, 6,500 people from Hsingkuo county formed the "Hsingkuo Model Division" of the Red Army. The name list of those who joined the army in Yikang township, Wenhsi district, Hsingkuo county, in September 1933 is shown in Fig. 2.

The women in the county had broken through feudal restrictions, liberated their thinking and thrown themselves wholeheartedly into the revolutionary struggle. They stood in the front ranks in the movement for expanding the Red Army and in productive labor, and were active in supporting the fighting front. Fig. 3 shows the registration book with the names of women making cloth shoes and straw sandals for the Red Army in Yuan-tang township of the county. Through hard work, often late into the night, all overfulfilled their planned quotas.

Hsingkuo county became a model for the base areas for good leadership and organization of the revolutionary war and of the life of the masses. Fig. 4 shows a banner awarded by the Central Military Revolutionary Committee to the people of Hsingkuo county. The Chinese characters written on it read: "Strive ever to be a model county."

At the Second National Congress of Workers' and Peasants' Representatives in January 1935, Chairman Mao pointed out: "We must create thousands of townships like Changkang and scores of counties like Hsingkuo. They will be our strongholds. From these strongholds we shall go forth to smash the enemy's 'encirclement and suppression' campaigns and overthrow imperialist and Kuomintang rule throughout the country."

Defeat came because at that time the "Left" opportunist line represented by Wang Ming held sway in the Party Central Committee. The provisional Party Central Committee, under the control of the "Left" opportunists, was located in the Kuomintang White area. Because of their wrong line, they could not establish a foothold there and, early in 1933, were forced to move to the Central Revolutionary Base Area. There, they rejected Chairman Mao's leadership and continued to push their wrong line and policies, and most disastrously a series of wrong principles for military operations. The result: the Red Army, after a year of bitter fighting, was unable to defeat the enemy's fifth counter-revolutionary "encirclement and suppression" campaign and was forced to leave the revolutionary base areas in an unprecedented strategic shift of 12,500 kilometers — the Long March.
MORE THAN 1,000 cases of gallstones have been treated without surgery in the past four and a half years at the municipal hospital in Tsingtao in coastal Shantung province. Good results have been achieved by the combined use of traditional Chinese medicine and western medicine. A special group engaged in research there has drawn some preliminary conclusions from their clinical practice.

After the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution began in 1966 the Tsingtao hospital staff's spirit of serving the people was heightened. They undertook an analysis of their cases in an effort to improve prevention and treatment. They found that a large proportion of the emergency cases were suffering from gallstones. Almost all were treated by the western method of surgery. This has its limitations, as the removal of the stones is often incomplete and they frequently recur. More surgery is needed, often less satisfactory than the first time. The patients wished they could be treated without surgery. This urgent demand spurred the medical workers to find a new treatment to relieve the sufferings of the patients.

Chinese Plus Western Medicine

Could traditional Chinese medicine provide a better method? In 1970 following a national conference on the integration of traditional Chinese and western medicine, the hospital Communist Party organization asked the staff to seriously study Chairman Mao's teachings, “Chinese medicine and pharmacology are a great treasure-house, and efforts should be made to explore them and raise them to a higher level” and “Give both Chinese and western treatment”. They criticized Liu Shao-chi's sabotage of Chairman Mao's revolutionary line which spread the philosophy of looking down on anything Chinese, called traditional Chinese medicine “unscientific” and said that it would be inevitably replaced by western medicine. These were initial steps to overcome the blind belief in western medicine held by some medical workers and the view that for acute cases Chinese medicine was useless and surgery the only safe and sure method.

As their understanding of Chairman Mao's teachings deepened, the staff searched through Chinese medical classics for material on the diagnosis and treatment of gallstones. They also studied the experience of other hospitals which had recently treated acute abdominal cases with a combination of Chinese and western methods instead of surgery. Thus encouraged, they determined to pursue this course. A special 34-bed unit with five experienced doctors and nine nurses was set up for gallstone cases early in 1971. First they studied the causes of gallstones and analyzed past cases treated with surgery. On this basis they tried treating gallstone patients with traditional Chinese medicine supplemented by western methods.

The first case was an old woman from a commune in Jushan county. She arrived with an acute pain in her upper abdomen, short, rapid breathing, a temperature of 40° C. and in a state of complete jaundice. Examination showed that she had gallstones complicated by a biliary infection. According to the usual practice, she should have had surgery immediately, but the doctors decided to treat her without surgery. While relieving her pain with western drugs, they brewed a Chinese herbal decoction and gave it to her that evening. The next morning her condition had improved markedly and a stone was found in her stool. She got well rapidly. This peasant woman, who had suffered so much in the old society, was filled with gratitude that an operation had been avoided.

Heartened by this success, the staff members summed up their experience and tried the method on...
abdominal discomfort, but four hours later she suddenly felt a sharp pain in her lower abdomen. The latter became distended but her bowels would not move. Examination found that she was suffering from intestinal obstruction. The doctors gave her a Chinese herbal purgative. The next day the obstruction disappeared and a stone, the size of a walnut, 3.7 x 3.4 x 2.8 cm, was found in her stool. She was soon discharged from the hospital and able to return to work. In three years she has had no recurrence. Today she is active as an amateur athlete as well as good in work and study.

**Practice to Theory**

Was the elimination of a stone this big merely a one-time occurrence? Through careful study of her case, analysis of data accumulated through the years and more animal tests, the staff found that the bile duct has the ability to expel foreign bodies with a diameter larger than its own. When the secretion of bile is stimulated with Chinese medicines, the increased internal pressure and stronger contraction of the gallbladder flush the stones into the intestines to be eliminated with the stool. This new knowledge smashed the old belief that any stone larger than a centimeter in diameter had to be removed surgically.

The hospital now treats all gallstones under 4 cm in diameter with Chinese medicine. So far more than 100 stones with a diameter larger than a centimeter have been expelled. The largest was 3.7 cm in diameter, the longest 5.8 cm and the heaviest 17.5 grams.

The staff has steadily achieved better results by fully utilizing the strong points of both traditional Chinese and western medicine. Chang Ti-sheng, a worker in a Tsingtao suburban hospital, was admitted in a state of toxic shock as a result of gallstones, from which he had suffered for 13 years. The attack had begun eight days before and now he was vomiting, had acute pain in the abdomen and a blood-pressure reading of 70 over 50. He went into coma, his condition worsening rapidly.

In such critical cases surgery had always been the rule, but as the patient had already had other abdominal operations for appendicitis and gastric perforation the doctors decided against surgery. While gallstones were the main cause of his ailment, shock was the immediate danger. First they treated his shock with acupuncture and an intravenous drip and then gave him the Chinese decoction to expel the stones. The patient eliminated stones three times in less than 10 days and was soon able to leave the hospital. Since then the group has handled more than 100 similar cases with satisfactory results.

Clinical experience shows that while gallstone cases have features in common, each has its own peculiarities and must be handled differently. It also proves that traditional Chinese and western medicine must be integrated into an organic whole. Any one-sided view that surgery is either omnipotent or completely useless is erroneous and metaphysical. Whenever possible a case should be treated without surgery by a combination of traditional Chinese and western medicine; it is easier on the patient, more effective and cheaper. On the other hand, surgery should be used if it is required to save the patient.

The efficacy of treatment which combines the two medical traditions is shown by the fact that 82 percent of the over 600 patients with gallstones in the common bile duct admitted to the Tsingtao hospital over the past few years have expelled stones without surgery.
A VALUABLE collection of relics and a fairly well-preserved male body, buried 2,142 years ago, were unearthed this summer in a tomb dating from the early Western Han dynasty (206 B.C.-A.D. 24).

The tomb was discovered on Fenghuangshan (Phoenix Hill) in Chinancheng, Chiangling county, in China’s central Hupeh province. An inscription on a bamboo tablet found in it shows that the corpse was interred in the fifth moon of the 13th year of the reign of Emperor Wen, that is, in 167 B.C.

Chinancheng, known as Ying during the Spring and Autumn (770-476 B.C.) and the Warring States (475-221 B.C.) periods, was the original capital of the State of Chu. In 278 B.C. the capital was moved to another site and Ying fell to ruin. During the Western Han dynasty, Fenghuangshan, a piece of high ground in the southeastern sector of the former town, became a cemetery.

In 1975, when construction work was under way in Chinancheng, the Hupeh provincial archaeological expedition to the site made large-scale excavations. Serial numbered Fenghuangshan 168, the tomb is a rectangular pit almost 10 meters deep, the bottom of which is approached by an inclined passageway from ground level. In the grave pit was a large wooden coffin packed around with bluish clay and topped with a solid layer of bluish limelike clay 5.26 m. thick. Inside the coffin were three compartments. Across one end was the head compartment. Lengthwise, parallel to each other, were two other compartments. One of these contained two caskets, one inside the other. The outer coffin and outer casket were not completely sealed and had accumulated water.

The body, immersed in about 100,000 cc. of a dark red fluid, lay in the innermost casket which was fairly airtight. The head was placed toward the end compartment and the feet toward the wall of the outer coffin. An interesting feature of the caskets is that they open, not on top, but on the side, a rather unusual form of infumation. The outer coffin and the two caskets are well preserved.

Over 500 burial objects were uncovered, mainly in the end and side compartments of the coffin. In the end compartment were carved wood miniature chariots, boats, horses and cattle and figurines. In the side compartment were lacquer, wooden, bamboo, pottery and bronze utensils, inscribed bamboo slips, bamboo cases and boxes, copper cash, and pottery models of bins and kitchen stoves. In the inner casket there were clothing, headgear, shoes and stockings of silk or linen.

The overwhelming majority of the 165 pieces of lacquerware are in good condition. Made by applying coats of red and then black lacquer on a wooden base, each article carries exquisite designs and motifs in glowing red, brown and gold colors in a free flowing style.

Some of the bamboo cases and boxes contain ginger, dates, fennel, beef, pork and fish. Of special interest among the bamboo articles is the beam of a balance. It carries an inscription in black Chinese ink demanding strict adherence to a unified system of weights and
measures. Found with it was a brass weight.

A writing set including a brush, five small pieces of Chinese ink, an ink slab and a stone for rubbing the ink on the slab, was found in one of the bamboo cases. The brush has a wooden shaft and a long bamboo sheath encasing the whole. The ink is jet black, and the ink slab and bottom of the rubbing stone bear its marks.

The bamboo tablet that gives the time of burial also records that the body is that of a medium-level official with the rank of wu ta fu, the ninth grade from the lowest on the scale of 20 ranks awarded for meritorious military services during the Chin (221-207 B.C.) and Han (206 B.C.-A.D. 220) dynasties. It was equivalent to the position of a county magistrate. A jade seal incised with the character sui, in seal style, possibly the name or surname of the deceased, was found in his mouth.

The body is 165.7 centimeters tall, weighing 52.5 kilograms. The man is believed to have been over 50 when he died. The corpse is fairly well preserved in external appearance, with the skin remaining elastic and the small and big joints of the limbs still movable. The set of teeth is complete.

An autopsy shows that about four-fifths of the cranial cavity is still occupied by the brain which is bigger in volume than that of the female corpse* found in 1972 in Han Tomb No. 1 at Mawangtui, Changsha, Hunan province. The internal organs have retained their shape. The corpse has been treated with preservatives to prevent deterioration.

Scientists are engaged in further comprehensive studies of the important relics and the corpse.

DEEP in the mountains of Chang-an county, Shensi province, a thunderous blast sends a million cubic meters of rock flying off in a cloud of smoke to rain down in the valley below. A dam rises up between two peaks, a river is blocked and a lake appears behind the dam. This is an enthralling scene from the color film Making Dams by Directional Blasting, shown throughout China.

The film is a vivid illustration of how the people of Changan county, relying on their own efforts, made bold innovations to build a reservoir. They didn’t pour concrete or quarry and lay stone. Making use of two high mountains and the valley between, they cut holes in two facing cliffs and, using directional blasts, sent this huge tonnage of rock flying at one stroke. The advantages: a great saving in machinery, materials, labor and time, and new experience in getting greater, faster, better and more economical results in reservoir building. The film gives a simple explanation of the basic principles of directional blasting, the process and safety measures.

THE MAKING of scientific and educational films has developed rapidly in China. The excellent situation in socialist revolution and construction has provided material for the great variety of popular scientific and educational films made in the past two years. On industry there are The Large Thread Grinder, Mechanizing a Mine and The Mass Wisdom Drill. For agriculture, there are Small Hydropower Stations for Mountain Villages, Fields of Tuchai, Three Crops a Year, Intercropping Wheat and Cotton, Transplanting Cotton, Apple Trees Move South and Raising Silkworms Outdoors. Graphic presentations of scientific and technical news, they provide a vivid introduction to advanced experience in production and construction and simple explanations of scientific principles. They show that the working people, masters of production technique, have boundless intelligence and creativity.

Mechanizing a Mine, shot in color at the Huatung Copper Mine.
in Liaoning province, shows how the miners went all out with technical innovations to mechanize their mine and raise production. The mine is an old one. At liberation the equipment was poor and most underground operations depended on hand labor. Relying on their own hard work and intelligence, the miners gradually made the machinery necessary to introduce modern methods of tunneling and extraction. Twin-boom hydraulic drill cars have replaced old rock drills, electric rock loaders have replaced rakes and baskets, and an automatic transport line has eliminated pushing cars by hand. Mechanization has raised efficiency, lightened labor and enabled this old copper mine to make new contributions to China’s socialist construction.

The color film The Large Thread Grinder tells how the Shanghai Machine Tool Plant designed and built China’s first large high-precision thread grinder. Many technical difficulties had to be overcome to produce the thousands of complex parts. The most important was the 6.7-meter master lead screw. The main contradiction in the manufacture — that between the specifications for the screw and the factory’s capabilities — is well portrayed in the film. It shows the key processes of joining, processing and installing the screw, describing in detail how a “three-in-one” group of workers, cadres and technicians repeatedly studied problems and acted with daring to overcome them. The film presents a simple introduction to the scientific principles involved in building this machine and shows the revolutionary spirit of China’s working class, which, armed with Mao Tsetung Thought, dares to create and make innovations. It demonstrated that by wholehearted reliance on the working class, “three-in-one” groups can keep scaling new peaks in science and technology.

HOW the people of Chinglung county in Hopei province transformed their dry mountain area through reliance on their own hard work is shown in Small Hydropower Stations for Mountain Villages. Providing an easy-to-understand introduction to the principles of hydro-electric power, the documentary shows that any place with a sufficient flow of water and head drop can set up a power plant. During the mass movement to learn from the Taftai brigade, the national model in agriculture, the people of Chinglung county broke down the widespread belief that electricity is a mystery. They were determined to use their meagre water resources to obtain both electricity and grain. They blasted away mountain tops, cut and laid rock for dams in gorges and dug ponds in the mountains. Collecting rainwater in the wet season and concentrating the water from small streams, they obtained sufficient flow and head drop to set up one small power station after another. Their formerly poor valleys became a rich mountain area.

SHOT in the silkworm area of Kiangsu and Chekiang provinces in southern China, the color film Raising Silkworms Outdoors deals with an important innovation in sericulture. China has a long history of growing mulberry trees and raising silkworms, but the worms had always been kept indoors. The buildings and equipment necessary for indoor rearing kept costs high and production low. During the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution, commune members broke with the old idea that silkworms “must not see the sky”. With the help of scientists, they experimented boldly and worked out a new technique for outdoor breeding. By using simple equipment that requires little capital investment, they opened up new prospects for the ancient art of sericulture. The film shows how the various contradictions and difficulties encountered in the new method were resolved through the scientific attitude and stubborn revolutionary spirit of the commune members. At first the young silkworms were affected by low temperatures, intense heat, heavy rain, disease and attacks by other insects, but through repeated experiments these problems were overcome and a bumper harvest of cocoons obtained.

The film artistically portrays the beauty of the mountains and lakes of electrified Chinglung county. In addition to conveying accurate scientific information, the special features of cinema art have been used to make the film attractive. The shots of sunlit rippling water in the rivers, streams and reservoirs and the three-dimensional effect of the big dam against the undulating mountains in the distance highlight the natural scenery of the area.
Peasant Women Do Scientific Experiments

Our "March 8th" scientific experiment group of five women was set up in 1971. In the four years since then we have made 32 experiments, mainly on methods for raising grain yields. Some of our findings are now being applied in the commune and the county.

Our success did not come easily. There was strong opposition when we first organized.

Our Taoshui production team in Yuhshien county, Hunan province, has 200 people but less than seven hectares of farmland. Our grain output used to be only 1.5 tons per hectare. Obviously the key was to increase the per-hectare yield through more scientific methods of cultivation. Over the years we raised it to 12 tons by improving our field management, breeding better seed strains and building more irrigation works. But how to increase it still further? Before the spring plowing in 1971 our team met to discuss the matter.

At the meeting I said, "We women also have the responsibility to grow more grain for the revolution. Give us the task of scientific experimentation." The brigade Party branch supported the suggestion and our "March 8th" scientific experiment group was formed.

We hadn't even started to work when all kinds of gossip began to circulate. "We've seen women doing embroidery but never scientific experiments." "Women should look after the house and the children." "We men can do scientific experiments without women meddling."

Four of us were young mothers with plenty of household chores. None of us had had more than a few years of schooling. Some of us began to waver. With a low educational level and work to do at home, maybe we couldn't handle scientific experiments.

The brigade Party branch and the commune Party committee, however, backed us up. They sent a technician to help us and arranged visits so we could learn from other places. In our study of Chairman Mao's works we drew special strength from this: "Times have changed, and today men and women are equal. Whatever men comrades can accomplish, women comrades can too." We were determined to do our work well and our confidence grew. Tung Tung-chi, one of our group, said, "In the old society we country women slaved from morning to night and were treated like dirt. Now the Party and Chairman Mao have given us the job of helping with scientific farming. We must do it well to win credit for the women."

The First Step

In the spring of 1971 our group took up the task of improving the method of nursing rice seedlings. In the past this was done by putting the seeds in baskets, soaking them, letting them sprout, and then sowing them in seedbeds. But our early spring weather is very changeable—cold waves slowed down the sprouting and warm spells rotted the seeds. The sprouts did not grow evenly and many seeds were wasted every spring.

Our group decided to try steam instead of soaking to make the seeds sprout. This would reduce the time from seven days to two. We borrowed a small room for our "laboratory", built a coal stove and got everything ready for the experiment. But when we went to

Learning a farming technique from a veteran peasant.

Tan Wen-Chen is a member of the standing committee of the Women's Federation of Hunan province and a deputy secretary of the Yuhshien county committee of the Chinese Communist Party.
the storeroom-keeper for seeds he refused to give them to us. Didn't want to waste the team's grain, he said. We took some rice grain from our own homes for seed.

Everybody in the village was interested in our experiment and we were excited too. We tended the fire carefully day and night, ensuring an even temperature and keeping a close watch on the seeds. It was early spring and still cold at night. With only the experiment on our minds, we sat on straw mattresses by the stove and forgot everything else. Two days later the seeds sprouted, sturdy and even.

Sixty-year-old poor peasant Teng Ta-niu was so excited that he walked around the village showing people the sprouts. "I've worked in the fields and soaked seeds all my life and never saw such good sprouts!" he said. "Women in the new society are really smart!" The storeroom-keeper was also convinced. "Just tell me how much seed you used for the experiment," he told us, "and I'll pay it back."

The commune called an on-the-spot meeting in our team to spread the steaming method. Our success began to change people's minds about women and our self-confidence grew.

Not long after this we heard that peasants in Chekiang province were growing three crops a year, one of wheat and two of rice. We decided to try. But the growing period needed for the three crops was about 20 days more than the entire year. Somehow the process had to be shortened. How? We invited some old peasants from Chekiang to tell us how they did it. We arranged meetings in our team to ask for advice. We studied crop records in our area in connection with local conditions.

Finally we worked out measures that would make the wheat and early rice ripen sooner, and this would enable us to transplant the seedlings of late rice before the beginning of autumn. Our experiment was a success. We harvested 5.74 tons of grain on our 0.27-hectare experimental plot. Our production team adopted the method. With three crops a year, the team's output jumped to 17 tons a hectare and our team became an outstanding unit in the county.

Learning While Doing

I had six years of schooling, the other group members four. This gave us a lot of trouble in our study of science and technology. We tried to overcome this by using every opportunity to learn by doing and increase our knowledge through practice. When I learned new things on visits to other communes, I taught the others in our group. The team has an evening technical school and we all go to classes three times a week. The county Party committee sent Wang Tung-wen, one of us, to study new farming methods in the county town for ten months and she became the backbone of the group.

In the daytime we work on our experiments and in the fields. In the evening we seize every minute to finish housework so we can study or discuss problems that have come up in our experiments. During the earing and flowering period last September our team's late rice was attacked by insects. The plants turned red and withered. We caught some of the insects and studied some relevant materials. The insects lay their eggs on tares and when the larvae come out they climb up the rice stalks.
and destroy the plants. We suggested that the team pull up the tares at once and spray the rice with insecticides. This wiped out the pests. "Our scientific experiment group has done a good job!" our team members remarked. So far we have learned how to handle nine kinds of insect pests that attack paddy rice.

Learning while doing has greatly increased our knowledge of scientific farming. We have learned how to nurse rice seedlings, breed high-quality strains, cultivate three crops a year and control rice pests and diseases. The team members call us their "native experts" and the leaders use our advice in production. Whenever a new technique is introduced to our team it is first tried out by our group and then adopted in the fields. We have also been invited several times to other communes to tell about our experience.

New Family Relations

Taking part in scientific experiments has also changed relationships in our families. In the old society women had no social status and had to obey the husband. We did all the housework and were not allowed to work in the fields. After liberation women gained political position and were free to work in the fields. But the influence of the pernicious Confucian idea that "men are superior and women are inferior" still remained. So when we began to do scientific experiments it caused contradictions at home.

My husband Hu Cheng-teh is our production team leader. Affected by the Confucian idea, he at first was indifferent toward our scientific work. When we stayed up all night in the small room working out the steaming method, he didn't even bother to come and have a look. "If you women do scientific experiments, what are we men supposed to do?" he said.

Tung Tung-chi's baby was only one year old when she began working on our experiments. Her husband thought he couldn't handle the baby at night and brought her to our experiment room, complaining that Tung-chi was active enough in experimenting but neglected the home. People with such old-fashioned ideas said we had gone too far.

But we didn't quit. We persisted in our experiments and at the same time tried to help our husbands see the meaning of our work. As time went on and we achieved some results, they began to change their minds. Last spring we tried to shorten the nursing time of sweet potato sprouts. We had to get up at midnight to light a fire in order to keep the seedbeds warm. My husband came and worked with us through the night. When I was away at meetings he showed special concern for our group, making suggestions or helping to solve problems. Tung Tung-chi's husband also changed his attitude. "People trust you," he tells her, "and you must do your work well." He also does housework now so Tung-chi can spend more time on our group's work.

Since the movement to criticize Lin Piao and Confucius began we have studied the works of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin and the writings of Chairman Mao with other team members, especially criticizing the absurd theories of Lin Piao and Confucius such as "women are backward" and "lack of talent is women's virtue". The criticism is helping to smash the spiritual chains that shackle us women. Our group has grown to 14 members and our drive for scientific experiments has increased. Last year we did 17 experiments on rice and wheat and achieved good results.

The reason we ordinary peasant women are able to make some contributions to the people is that we have the leadership of the Communist Party and Chairman Mao. In our country, socialism has opened a broad road to women's liberation. "We have the backing of the Communist Party and Chairman Mao," members of our group often say. "We must do our work well and live up to their expectations. Our every success is only a new starting point."

TOURIST GUIDE TO CHINA

(Picture album with English text)

This album contains photographs of 30 cities including Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Kwangchow, Shenyang and Wuhan, well-known places in the Chinese revolution like Shaoshan, Yanan, the Chingkang Mountains, and locales nationally famous in socialist construction such as Tachai, Sandstone Hollow and the Red Flag Canal in Linhsien county. The album reflects not only the tremendous achievements in construction in these places but also the vast changes in the urban and rural areas. Photographs of famous scenic spots, cultural relics and archaeological finds are also included.

182 photographs plus map 22.6 X 25.6 cm.
101 photographs in color

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Visiting an Industrial Exhibition

Day before yesterday, we went to visit our country’s industrial exhibition. This exhibition reflected our country’s people’s self-reliant and building socialism achievements.

At that time China nearly had not her own industry. For industrial goods mainly depended on foreign countries’ imports. Now China’s oil not only can supply itself but also (has) begun to be exported.

“Industrial and Agricultural” has become the whole country’s factories’ (and) mines’ action slogan.

In industry, learn from Taching already has become the whole country’s factories’ (and) mines’ action slogan.

Zhihui chao pingpin kinds of daily necessities and food. These products
The day before yesterday we went to visit an exhibition on China's industrial construction. This exhibition reflected the achievements of the Chinese people who, united under the leadership of Chairman Mao and the Chinese Communist Party, are self-reliantly building socialism.

Old China was a semi-feudal, semi-colonial country and suffered a great deal under imperialist, feudal and bureaucrat capitalist exploitation and oppression. Then China had hardly any industry and for industrial goods depended mainly on imports. After the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, a fundamental change occurred in our country. Industrial construction also underwent great development.

In the heavy industry hall we saw many kinds of machine tools, steel products and instruments. What attracted our attention most was the model of Taching oil field. Taching originally was a wasteland. The oil workers, relying on their own efforts, built up a modern oil field and refinery in a few short years. Now China is not only self-sufficient in oil, but has also begun to export some. "In industry, learn from Taching" has become a call to action in the factories and mines of the whole country.

The light industry hall displayed silks, cotton cloth, clocks and watches, radios, TV sets, toys and many kinds of daily necessities and food. These products showed that the level of China's light industrial production and the people's living standard keep going up.

All who saw the exhibition received a great education. It made us love our socialist motherland more and determine to build it into a more beautiful one.

Notes

1. The particle guo 过. Guo 过 after a verb shows past experience or action. Tā qūguó Zhōngguó 他去过中国 (He has been to China). Wǒ kāngguó nàgè gōngyè zhànghuì 刚过去工业展览会 (I have seen that industrial exhibition). For the negative form, méiyǒu is added before the verb while the particle guo 过 remains. Tā méiyǒu qūguó Zhōngguó 他没有去过中国 (He has not been to China). Jiān Zhōngguó méiyǒu chǎikǒu guó shìyóu 国中没有出过石油 (Old China had not exported petroleum).

2. Nouns of location. Monosyllabic nouns of location include: shāng 上 (up), xià 下 (down), lǐ 里 (in), wài 外 (out), zuò 左 (left), yòu 右 (right), qián 前 (front), hòu 后 (back), páng 旁 (side), zhōng 中 (middle). They are generally not used alone but as noun suffixes show location, as zhūzǐzhāng 桌子上 (on the table), shānxī 南 (below the mountain), zhānliángguǎn 展览馆里 (in the exhibition hall), and mànxiǎo fāngwài 门外 (out the door).

Some nouns of location are disyllabic. These are formed by adding biǎn 边, miàn 面 or tóu 头 to other nouns of location: shāngbiān 上边 (above), xiàbiān 下边 (beneath), lǐbiān 里边 (inside), wàibiān 外边 (outside), zuòbiān 左边 (left), yòubiān 右边 (right), qiánbiān 前边 (before), hòubiān 后边 (behind). We can only say pángbiān 旁边 (beside) and zhōngjiān 中间 (between) but not zuòtóu 左头 or yòutóu 右头. Disyllabic nouns of location can be used alone or after other nouns, with or without de 的: shāngbiān de 上边 (de) hòubiān (de) 后边 (behind the store), wō (de) pángbiān 我 (de) 旁边 (beside me). But de 的 cannot be used with a monosyllabic noun of location. We cannot say zhuōzǐ (de) 桌子的上 or zhānliángguǎn (de) 展览馆的里.

Unlike some languages, in Chinese nouns of location can serve as subject, object or attributive (modifier of a noun, see Lesson 6) just as other nouns. In the sentence Libiān hén gānjing 是里面很干净 (The inside is very clean), 是里面 is the subject. In Wǒmen zài wài biān 我们在外边 (We are outside), 外边 is the object (note that here Chinese differs from English). In Shāngbiān de zázhi shì xín de 上边的杂志是新的 (The top magazines are the latest), 上边 is the attributive.

Libiān 里边 is not used after place names. Tā shān zài Shāndōngshěng 他在山东省 (Mount Tai is in Shantung province), but not Tà shān zài shānglián 湖上 (Mount Tai is inside the lake).

Wǒ gége zài Běijīng xuéxí 我哥哥在北京学习 (My elder brother studies in Peking), but not Wǒ哥哥在北京里边学习.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with the particles 了, 着 or 过.

我病了这一个星期，但是没有去__ 香山公园，没有看见__ 香山的红叶。今天星期日，早上，我和两个朋友去__ 照相机和吃的东西，骑上自行车就出发了。我们骑得很快，一边走__，一边说__，只歇__一个多小时就到了。香山公园风景很美，去玩儿的人很多。我们休息__一会儿，就开始爬山。那里的山很高，山上都是树。这种树的叶子不大，是圆的，一到秋天，就变红了。远远看去，红红的一片，好看极了。吃__ 午饭以后，我们就下山了，这天我们照__很多照片，下午六点钟才回到家里。

(Answers on p. 45)
从小锻炼身体好
cōng xiǎo duàn liàn shēn tǐ hào