

Vietnam courier



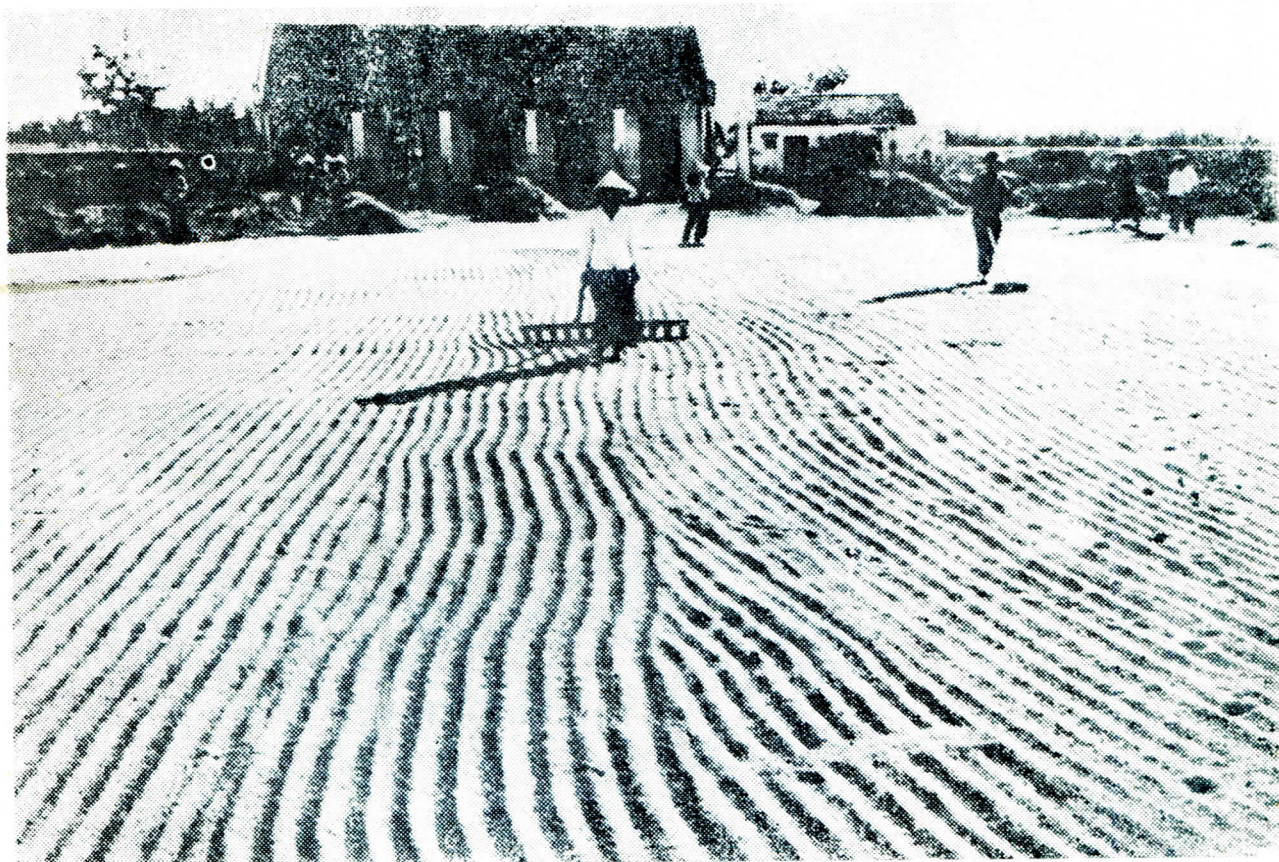
VOLUME 18
A MONTHLY REVIEW

● POLITICS

● ECONOMICS

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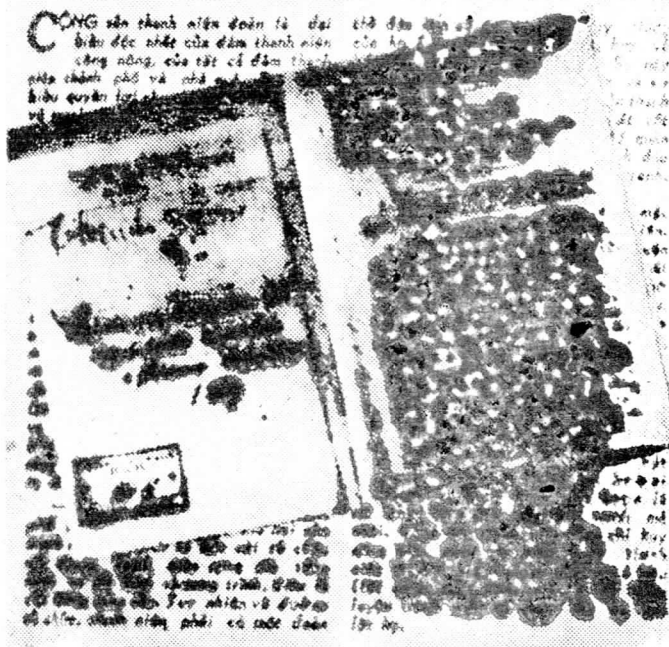
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- EDITORIAL OFFICE: 46 Tran Hung Dao, Hanoi, SRV.
- DISTRIBUTED BY: Xunhasaba, 32 Hai Ba Trung, Hanoi, SRV.

Những điều của bạn CỦA THANH NIÊN CỘNG SẢN VIỆT NAM

(Trích nghị quyết của Ban Chấp hành Trung ương Đảng
tháng 10-1930 về công tác của thanh niên trong cách mạng)



THE REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENT IN 1930— 1945 UNDER THE LEADERSHIP OF THE PARTY: A HIGH POINT

The resolution of the Second Plenum of
the CC of the Party in March 1931 affirming
the role of youth in the Revolution

The 1926-1939 revolution-
ary movement spread over in
the whole country: a demon-
stration of 25,000 women in
Hanoi on 1st May 1938.

Photos: VNA



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Front cover: A Good Harvest

Photo: TRINH HAI

**Vietnam
Courier**

2 — 1982

THE Fifth National Congress of the Communist Party of Vietnam is being convened. After the congresses of Party organizations at the grass-roots and district levels now come the congresses at provincial level to discuss the draft reports which the Central Committee will present to the National Congress, and to nominate the delegates to this Congress

The Fourth National Congress held in December 1976 reviewed the glorious victory of the war of resistance against US aggression and the achievement of national democratic revolution throughout the country, and to map out the line of socialist revolution in the new period. The Congress also laid down the orientation and tasks of the 1976-1980 five-year plan

Since 1976 up to now many new factors have appeared, some of which were not anticipated by the Fourth Congress. First of all was the volte-face of China with her expansionism and hegemonism mainly oriented to Southeast Asia, making her Vietnam's immediate and most dangerous enemy, in collusion with US imperialism — the basic enemy of the Vietnamese and world peoples. Of course China's ambition greatly influenced the disposition of our forces in our task of socialist construction through socialist industrialization

In carrying out the 1976-1980 five-year plan we saw more clearly our difficulties and advantages, our weak and strong points. Through practice, we realized that our greatest difficulty was that our economy is a backward agricultural one, exhausted by over thirty years of war and still sabotaged by new and old enemies. On the other hand, we also understood that we had very great advantages: the seasoned leadership of a Party devoted to the masses and trusted by them; a diligent people with a very high unity of purpose, our international relations, the all-round co-operation with the Soviet Union and the other socialist countries; and our international prestige among the world people which no besmearing campaign can destroy.

For a long time, even during the years when socialist construction was only carried out in the North, we felt that our economic management should be improved, but in a war economy when we had to rely, for an important part, on foreign aid to live and fight we could not test

our economic structure as we did after our country was completely liberated. Since we have begun this period the difficulties we met with have taught us many lessons. Fortunately, the Communist Party of Vietnam, deep-rooted in the masses and very realistic in its outlook, has already made amendments to its policies since the sixth plenum of its Central Committee (September 1979).

The resolution issued on this occasion, although it dealt with the production of consumer goods and regional industry—which are important in the economy of a developing country—also tackled a series of economic problems, including finance, currency, export and also political and social problems. This was the first salvo aimed at the administration of the economy through State financing which until then had not helped develop the various components of the economy—State, collective as well as private. This management proved to be inconsistent with the characteristics of the first stage of the transition period to socialism in which planning had to go hand in hand with application of market laws.

Following this resolution many policies were worked out, the most important of which originated from an initiative by Northern agricultural co-op members: contractual incentives to both group and individual (see Vietnam Courier, February and March 1981). This initiative was duly crystallized into a policy applied to the whole country. Among other policies for agriculture were: the improvement of distribution in co-operatives eliminating former egalitarian regulations; encouragement to till the land which the co-operatives could not; encouragement for stock-breeding in collectives and families; the fixing of the food-duty to the State for a relatively long period of time for the peasants to enjoy the surplus they produced, parallel with the raising of prices for the produce purchased by the State; cancellation of unwarranted checks in the circulation of agricultural products between localities... As a result of all these measures, in 1981 for the first time our agricultural workers overfulfilled the food plan in cultivated area, in productivity as well as in output, and the stock-breeding plan.

The broadening of initiative in production and business for enterprises, the application of wages on a piecework basis and of bonuses, the fixing of a number of new prices, the enlargement of import and export rights for a number of branches and localities within the State monopoly of foreign trade—all these measures meant that in 1981, despite fewer materials and less energy, industrial production increased, particularly local industry, small industry and handicrafts.

In capital construction, the review of projects and the concentration of a few key ones—serving agriculture and the making of consumer and export goods in the first place—accounted for their timely commissioning.

The new managerial system using economic levers increased the workers' income while fostering the interests of the labour unit and society.

This is not to say that everything was good. This was but an initial success—very small compared to what remains to be done, particularly in industrial production, export, distribution and circulation.

As regards social management, the promotion of socialist legislation is still badly needed although a recent session of the National Assembly did improve the working rules of leading State organs and pass many laws, gradually institutionalizing the working people's right to collective mastery.

As time goes by we see clearly that socialist construction requires huge and persevering efforts. However, we are also confident that with the potential of our country and the help of fraternal and friendly countries we are fully able, first of all, to ensure our people's needs in food, then to better care for their material and cultural needs: clothes, houses, travel, study, health care.

With the boosting of some branches of heavy industry, particularly energy, electricity, coal, engineering, chemicals, building materials, transport and communication, with special concern for oil exploitation in co-operation with the Soviet Union, and with attentive family planning, we believe that our country will overcome its present difficulties and "take-off" economically although it still has to cope with a multiform war of destruction caused by China.

It behoves the Fifth National Congress of the Party to lay down the strategy for the first steps in the eighties of socialist industrialization and on this basis to define the orientation and tasks of the 1981–1985 five-year plan. The implementation of this strategy will constitute the prerequisite for the steps of the following years.

Our friends throughout the world are attentively watching this momentous event in the life of our nation.

The question of peace and stability in Southeast Asia is on the agenda of the world. Our enemies are banking mainly on two points to roll back the revolutionary movement in Vietnam and Indochina: Whether Vietnam's economy will collapse or not? Whether Kampuchea can be severed from the solidarity bloc of the Indochinese countries or not?

Life has shown that time does not work in their favour in Kampuchea: the People's Republic of Kampuchea is being consolidated whereas all military and political efforts to oppose the Republic are being foiled.

They may also begin to feel that Vietnam cannot collapse economically. The Fifth National Congress of the Communist Party of Vietnam will be an eye-opener for them.

25 January 1982

VIETNAM COURIER



TOWARDS THE FIFTH CONGRESS OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF VIETNAM

PROFILES

LEADERS OF THE PARTY

On the occasion of the 52nd anniversary of the Communist Party of Vietnam (3-2-1930 - 3-2-1982) and the forthcoming 5th congress of the Party, in this issue *Vietnam Courier* gives the profiles of three leaders of the Party.

Earlier, in addition to the biography of President Ho Chi Minh, the founder of the Party, which was carried in several issues, we have given the profiles of a number of Party leaders including:

- Tran Phu, the first general secretary of the Party (*Vietnam Courier* - February 1975 and February 1980);
- Nguyen Thi Minh Khai (April 1975); and
- Ngo Gia Tu (March 1980)

NGUYEN VAN CU (1912-1941)

The second general secretary of the Party



NGUYEN VAN CU

DURING the 50 years of its existence the Communist Party of Vietnam, founded and led by President Ho Chi Minh, has appointed four general secretaries, namely Tran Phu, Nguyen Van Cu, Truong Chinh and Le Duan.

Nguyen Van Cu, general secretary of the Party in the years 1938-1940, was an outstanding leader who applied Marxism-Leninism

in an imaginative way to the realities of Vietnam and charted the correct path for the revolutionary struggle during the period of the Indochinese Democratic Front.

Born and bred in a peasant family in Phu Khe commune, Tu Son district, Bac Ninh province (now Ha Bac province), he distinguished himself as a brilliant student and took part in the revolutionary struggle when still very young. Due to his patriotic and progressive ideas, he was expelled from the Buoi school in Hanoi. From then on Nguyen Van Cu devoted himself entirely to the revolutionary cause of the Vietnamese working class and people. In June 1929 he joined the Indochinese Communist Party. At the end of the same year, in execution of the Party's resolution on "proletarianisation", he was sent to the Mao Khe coal mine where he set up a Party cell. When the Party decided to make Hon Gai - Uong Bi area a "special sector" for its operation, he

was appointed secretary of the local Party organisation. But while the workers movement steadily developed Nguyen Van Cu was arrested by the French colonialists, sentenced to forced labour and deported to Poulo Condor island.

There, together with other deported Party cadres he turned the imperialist prison into a school of the revolution. He organized the study of the "Political Thesis" (1), helped other revolutionaries to draw lessons from their work, and encouraged them to write for the "Common Opinion" - a handwritten newspaper of the political prisoners - to discuss the situation in the world and the country, and to study theoretical questions of the revolution.

In 1936 the Popular Front government came to power in France. Due to the struggle of the Vietnamese people and the demands of the French people, the colonial authorities in Vietnam had to release a number of political prisoners including Nguyen Van Cu. He returned to Hanoi and immediately set to organize the movement for democratic freedoms. Together with leading the organisation and consolidation of the Party and mass organisations, he was very concerned with using legal newspapers in Hanoi to campaign for freedom, democracy and improvement of the working people's life.

In September 1939, at the meeting of the Party Central Committee in Gia Dinh (South Vietnam), Nguyen Van Cu was appointed to the Standing Committee of the Central Committee. In 1938, he was appointed general secretary, at the age of 26. The 5th Plenum of the Party Central Committee

(March 1939) decided to further broaden the Indochinese Democratic Front, in order to rally all the forces of democracy and progress with the worker-peasant alliance as the core to struggle against fascism and the colonial reactionaries, for freedom, democracy, peace and a better life.

Nguyen Van Cu wrote the famous pamphlet "Self-Criticism" which is the summing up of the Party's experiences in campaigning for the establishment of the Indochinese Democratic Movement. In this book Nguyen Van Cu declared war on the "left" tendency which, out of narrow-mindedness, alienated the Party from the masses and limited its capabilities of broadly rallying all the forces of democracy and progress and directing the spearhead on the immediate enemies. He also criticized the rightist tendency which advocated unprincipled compromise with the Trotskyite revisionists and saboteurs while fearing to arouse the masses for struggle.

In the autumn of 1939 after the French imperialists had entered the Second World War and fascized their ruling apparatus in Indochina, the Party Central Committee convened its 6th Plenum in Saigon with the participation of Nguyen Van Cu, Phan Dang Luu, Le Duan and other Party leaders.

At this conference, the Central Committee made it clear that the main conflict in Indochina was that between the Indochinese peoples on the one hand and the fascist imperialists and their henchmen on the other. Accordingly, national liberation was the primary task of the Indochinese national and democratic revolution. In the light of this assessment, the conference decided to form the Indochinese Anti-Imperialist Front and to temporarily suspend the slogan for land reform. Instead, it set out the slogan calling for reduction of land rents and interest rates, and confiscation of the lands of the imperialists and traitors for distribution to the tillers.

But it was just at this juncture when the revolution was at a crucial point that Nguyen Van Cu was arrested and sentenced to death.

At the Ba Diem execution ground in Gia Dinh (on the outskirts of Saigon) Nguyen Van Cu tore away his blindfold, looked straight at the firing squad and shouted aloud:

"Long live the Indochinese Communist Party!"

"The Indochinese revolution will succeed!"

It was the 24th day of May, 1941.

*

LE HONG PHONG (1902-1942)



LE HONG PHONG

LE HONG PHONG was born in 1902 in Thong Lang village, Hung Nguyen district, Nghe An province (now Nghe Tinh province). As a young boy he witnessed and himself experienced the sorrowful plight of an enslaved people, which made him

join the revolutionary movement at a very young age when he was a worker in the town of Vinh.

In January 1924 he went to China where he was introduced to the young revolutionary Nguyen Ai Quoc (Ho Chi Minh) who gave him his "The Revolutionary Path" to read and admitted him to the Communist Youth Union. From 1926 to 1932 he successively studied at the Wang Pou military school in China, the Air Force school, then the "Vostok" (Orient) political school in the Soviet Union.

He returned to China in 1932. With assistance from the COMINTERN, the Overseas Leading Committee of the Indochinese Communist Party was founded in Macao under the charge of Le Hong Phong to restore and unify the revolutionary movement in Vietnam following the bloody repression by the French colonial authorities in Indochina. Many Party cadres were sent from Vietnam to attend political courses in China. The paper "The Bolshe-

vik" published by the Overseas Leading Committee of the Party provided guidelines for the activities of the Indochinese Communist Party at that time. Party organizations in Cao Bang, Lang Son and many other places were restored and expanded. Party cells were set up in various prisons. By the middle of 1932, following the "white terror" practised by the colonialists in 1930-1931, the rubber plantation workers at Dau Tieng struck again and the peasants in many provinces once more rose up against exploitation and disguised serfdom.

In July 1935 Le Hong Phong was appointed to head the Indochinese Communist Party delegation to the 7th congress of the COMINTERN. From the forum of the congress, he declared: "In defiance of the most brutal repression by the French imperialists, the Indochinese Communist Party is determined to carry out the program of the Communist International and the Party's own program for the bourgeois democratic revolution, to resist imperialism and fight the feudalist regime in order to liberate the nation and advance toward building socialism and communism."

In the late thirties the world faced the serious danger of fascism and war. The immediate task of the international working class was to close ranks and set up a broad unified front against these two enemies. In the light of the resolution of the 7th COMINTERN congress and basing itself of the practical situation in Indochina at that time, the plenum of the Indochinese Communist Party Central Committee meeting in July 1936 in Shanghai under the chairmanship of Le Hong Phong himself, marked a turning point in the Vietnamese revolution. The Party decided to found the broad Anti-Imperialist Front (later renamed Indochinese Democratic Front) to rally all the patriotic and democratic forces in Indochina to struggle for freedom, peace and a better life.

Le Hong Phong was assigned by the Party Central Committee to Saigon where he was to lead a broad popular campaign for the convening of the Indochinese Congress which was to set out the line for the struggle in the new situation. A movement for democratic freedoms swept Vietnam: the struggle in the countryside and urban areas combining legal, semi-legal and illegal activities, combining the struggle of the masses with the campaign in the

newspapers and in the parliament of the puppet regime.

But in 1938, at the height of this movement for democratic freedoms, Le Hong Phong was arrested by the French colonialists. Under popular pressure they had to release him a few months later but in September 1939, he was arrested again. At the interrogation centre as well as in the prison and before the imperialist court, Le Hong Phong always displayed the determined behaviour of a communist. The enemy knew who he was and wanted to liquidate him but they lacked material evidence to pass the death sentence. Finally they sentenced him to five years of imprisonment and banished him to Poulo Condor. Once the gaoler rained blows and kicks on him while he was eating his meal. His blood mixed with the rice he was eating. Still Le Hong Phong

continued to eat. The gaoler asked, amazed:

"You feel no pain?"

He replied:

"You have often complained that you would have no appetite whenever you had not bled us. So, we have to eat to have the necessary strength to resist you."

Exhausted by frequent torture and the brutal prison regime, Le Hong Phong breathed his last at noon September 6, 1942 after having summoned his final strength to call out into the next prison cell:

"Farewell, comrades. Please report to the Party that until his last minute Le Hong Phong has not wavered in his confidence in the inevitable victory of the revolution."

*
**

HOANG VAN THU (1906-1944)



HOANG VAN THU

HOANG VAN THU, belonging to the Tay ethnic minority, was born in 1906 in Nhan Ly village, Van Uyen district, Lang Son province.

The bomb attempt on the life of the French Governor General of Indochina, Merlin, in *Shamien* (China) in 1924 by the young patriot Pham Hong Thai, roused a whole generation of young men and women in Vietnam, including Hoang Van Thu.

He left his family and went in search of the way to save his

country. In China he signed on as an apprentice in an engineering factory which was a place of liaison for Vietnamese patriots. In 1929 he was admitted to the Indochinese Communist Party. After that, he was sent back to the country with the mission of building up revolutionary bases in Lang Son province and organising the clandestine liaison between the revolutionaries inside and outside the country. Through this channel in 1932 the Party sent many of its members to China to attend political courses in Lungchow.

In 1937 the Democratic Movement swept throughout Vietnam. Hoang Van Thu was again sent back from China to lead the movement in the provinces of Cao Bang, Bac Can and Lang Son. In summer 1938 he was appointed to the Regional Committee of the Party in Tonkin (North Vietnam proper) where he was assigned to the workers' mobilization commission taking charge of the workers' movement in Hanoi, Haiphong, Uong Bi, Hon Gai and Thai Nguyen... "Mutual aid" associations were founded in many localities. Workers' actions for better working and living conditions broke out in many places. In the autumn of 1939 Hoang Van Thu was appointed secretary of the Tonkin Party Committee.

The 6th Plenum of the Party Central Committee meeting in November 1939 decided on the immediate tasks of the Vietnamese revolution. In execution of the Central Committee's resolution the Tonkin Party Committee, headed by Hoang Van Thu, rallied broad sections of the population into the unified Anti-Imperialist Front, and took the timely decision to switch the party organisation and method of work as well as the mass organizations into clandestinity.

In 1940 and 1941 the Party leadership showed a marked increase in efficiency especially after President Ho Chi Minh returned to the country and called the 8th meeting of the Party Central Committee in May 1941. Appointed to the Standing Committee of the Central Committee and later to the Provisional General Directorate of the Viet Minh Front (Front for the Independence of Vietnam), Hoang Van Thu made important contributions to preserving and developing the revolutionary forces in the country. He directly led the campaign to consolidate the movement in Bac Son, in which the key question was to consolidate and broaden the guerilla teams. He wrote many documents denouncing the Japanese fascists, analyzing the situation and stimulating mass movements, e.g. "The Pacific War and the National Liberation Revolution of the Indochinese Peoples" and "The Bac Son Uprising"... His leadership of the campaign of agitation among enemy troops also obtained many successes. The revolution was able to infiltrate many units of the enemy armed forces in Hanoi, Haiphong, Ha Dong, Bac Ninh and other places...

In August 1943 Hoang Van Thu was arrested by the French colonialists in Hanoi. He was subjected to most barbarous torture and sentenced to death. In the cell where he was incarcerated together with other political prisoners who had also received the death penalty Hoang Van Thu showed the exemplary attitude of a revolutionary and his unbending confidence in the victory of the revolution. He spent the rest of his days passing on his experience in struggle to his comrades in the prison.

On May 24, 1944 the French colonialists shot him at the Tuong

(Continued on page 8)



FROM THE FOURTH TO THE FIFTH CONGRESS OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF VIETNAM

ECONOMIC ACHIEVEMENTS IN FIVE YEARS (1976-1980)

Editor's Note — The Fourth Congress of the Communist Party of Vietnam in December 1976 set the indices of economic development for 1976-1980. These were not fully achieved for the following reasons:

— The Congress could not forecast China's rapid volteface. In 1978 she withdrew her experts, cut off her aid and rigged up a so-called victimization of Hoa people. Then in 1979 she invaded Vietnam after pushing the Pol Pot clique to encroach on Vietnam's southwestern border. Compelled to withdraw her troops, China carried on a multi-sided war of destruction against Vietnam to sidetrack the latter from her peaceful endeavours.

— Over the last five years natural calamities repeatedly befell Vietnam,

— The appraisal of difficulties impeding economic construction owing to a small and backward production hampered by many years of war and neo-colonialism fell short of the mark.

— Added to this, the survival until 1979 — 1980 of old methods of management of the economy by State financing also hindered the achievement of the set indices.

However, thanks to a spirit of self-reliance, an allround co-operation with the Soviet Union and other fraternal socialist countries and the implementation of a number of new economic policies, the situation has improved and notable achievements have been recorded in many areas.

Below are a number of gains in agriculture, handicrafts and local engineering.

AGRICULTURE

As regards food in terms of paddy, the index set was not achieved, but an increase was achieved from 13,746,570 tons in 1976 to 14,381,000 tons in 1980, including 2,679,000 tons of subsidiary crops in paddy equivalent (1,584,000 tons for the North and 1,095,000 tons for the South).

Due attention was paid to a number of important crops such as soya, banana, pineapple. Soya

output rose from 20,700 tons in 1976 to 31,500 tons in 1980. The area grown with banana nearly doubled and so did its output from 437,000 tons in 1976 to 809,000 tons in 1980. Pineapples fared better—from 135,000 tons to 283,500 tons.

The sown area went up from 6,192,000 hectares in 1976 to 6,900,000 hectares in 1980, of which rice from 5,297,300 hectares to 5,496,000 hectares and subsidi-

ary crops from 894,000 hectares to 1,405,000 hectares. This was due in good part to land restoration and reclamation: 500,000 hectares and 560,000 hectares respectively.

These achievements were made while the country was short of means and materials: in 1980 the supply of nitrates was only 50% phosphates 80%, electricity and oil 50 — 60%, lime 25%, compared with 1976.

To readjust manpower and population in the country, 1,472,000 people were moved over the last five years, including 70,000 people transferred to new economic zones (337,000 in the North and 374,000 in the South). Life has gradually stabilized in these zones. Many areas already contribute food and foodstuffs to the State after providing for themselves. These new economic zones have become new villages, new population centres in full growth.

Regarding stock-breeding, the herds of cattle and poultry also increased: buffaloes from 2,254,000 in 1976 to 2,313,000 in 1980, of which 84r milch-buffaloes giving 50 tons of milk; oxen and cows from 1,587,000 in 1976 to 1,644,000 in 1980, of which 3,700 milch-cows giving 3,500 tons of milk; poultry from 50 million in 1976 to 64 million in 1980.

Over the last five years, the training and fostering of agricul-

tural cadres has been regularly done year after year, both in long-term training in colleges and secondary schools and short-term courses... At present, the country boasts 5 agricultural colleges (one

more than in 1976) and 10 agricultural secondary schools (two less than in 1976). In 1980, 1,242 students graduated from colleges and 1,317 from secondary schools and were sent to work in various localities.

LOCAL ENGINEERING INDUSTRY

AT present Vietnam already has 101 local engineering industry establishments under the management of the provincial industrial services and 389 State-run co-operative engineering establishments located in 208 districts and townships. Hanoi, Hai phong and Ho Chi Minh City account for 41 factories or unions of enterprises under city management and 60 smaller ones established at the district level. Almost all the villages in the northern provinces have their blacksmith and carpenter teams. In some agricultural co-ops in the Red River delta metalwork teams have been set up to look after machine repairs in the village and also to make farm implements. Equipment for these local industry establishments totals 13,000 pieces which, however, are mostly small, worn out and non-standardized equipment with a low degree of precision.

The workforce in the local industry establishments totals about 58,000 of which 38,000 work in the State-owned sector, their technical standard averaging 2.5 grades in the seven-grade wages system. Several thousand are high-grade workers who have studied at technical schools in the country or abroad.

The local engineering industry is playing a crucial role in agricultural production and is making active contributions to other economic branches. It is producing almost all the hand tools as well as improved implements for agriculture and other branches. In

1978 it turned out 17 million assorted farm implements. It also provided the bulk of equipment produced in the country for agriculture such as tractor-drawn implement for land reclamation, rice winnowing, threshing and grinding machines, as well as small-capacity machines for the processing of farm, forestry and sea products such as maize and cassava husking and slicing machines, sugar cane presses with a capacity of 50 tons per day, 500-ton-per-year paper sheeting machines, silk threading machines, bulrush splitters, sleeping-mat weavers, etc.

Single as well as whole sets of animal feed and fish powder grinders are also manufactured by local industries. Some factories have even been able to produce mechanical pumps of 1,000 cubic metres per hour or vacuum pumps for the porcelain industry. In 1978 local industries turned out nearly 4,000 pumps or 60 per cent of the total produced in the country. At the same time, they also took part in the manufacture of equipment for various water conservancy products such as valves, sluice gates, windlasses, etc.

The local industries have also manufactured equipment for small scale cement factories of 12,000 – 20,000 tons per year, equipment for brick kilns in the range of 2.5 million pieces per year, and trawlers under 200 HP as well as dredgers cranes and small refrigerating machines.

In some provinces, local industries, assisted by the central

engineering service which supplied them with some machine parts requiring high technique, have produced a series of machine tools including 150-kilo hammers or 160-ton steam hammers, cutter-perforator combines or equipment for timber cutting...

Local industries have also begun manufacturing some electrical equipment such as electric motors of under 10 amps (6,300 pieces in 1979), welding machines, electric switch knives of from 100 to 200 amps and other electrical appliances. In many provinces, especially in the South, they have made increasing use of old or discarded materials and equipment left by the Americans. In the current five-year plan local industries have begun manufacturing parts for internal combustion engines and at present, these products are being manufactured by 15 provinces and cities compared with only a few some years back. In 1979 more than 100 tons of machine parts for motors meeting the required norms were produced. Production may double and even treble if enough equipment can be provided.

Since the issuing of the resolution of the 6th Party CC plenum more emphasis has been laid on the production of consumer goods. Apart from the usual production lines such as sewing machines, electric fans and bicycles, many local industry establishments have organized auxiliary workshops and used discarded or waste materials to produce consumer goods valued at tens of millions of dong, mostly metal utensils and bicycle parts.

Repair remains the most important task of local industries. It is necessary both for the present and for long-term strategic goals. The localities are paying great attention to the production of more agricultural machines and essential machine parts. In some provinces, local industries have restored thousands of worn-out electric motors.

There remain, however, many weaknesses and shortcomings in the development of local industries. Big potentials in this field have not been fully tapped, and not adequate attention has been given to the foremost tasks of catering for agriculture and the consumer goods industry. Much remains to be done in the field of repairs, especially with regard to

agricultural machines and equipment where the rate of disrepair is outpacing that of repairs. Not a few factories at the district level still operate at very low capacity in spite of the fairly adequate equipment supplied by the State. Shortages of raw materials and materials remain the biggest difficulty for local industries at present.

PRODUCTION IN SMALL INDUSTRY AND HANDICRAFTS

SMALL industry and handicrafts have become an important production sector. In 1980, it produced a total output value of 3,401 million *dong*, i.e. 61.4% the total output value of local industry or nearly 40% of that of national industry.

Small industry and handicrafts have a wide network across the country, from the plain and the midlands to the mountainous regions, from the towns to the countryside, employing 1,508,900 workers in 3,890 co-ops and nearly 7,000 production teams. The figure is even more considerable if the handicraft work-force in agriculture, fishery and forestry is included. Small industry and handicrafts not only turn out large quantities of consumer goods, over 60% of the total volume of manufactured goods for consumption, but also new items for export. In terms of money, exports from small industry and handicrafts in the northern provinces increased to 288.6 million *dong* in 1980 from a mere 8 million *dong* in 1970. In the southern provinces, the figure was 168.6 million *dong* in 1980.

In Hanoi, the production of consumer goods in 1979 increased by 48.8% compared with 1975, and in 1981, its output value reached 238 million *dong*, or 108.1% of the target set for 1980. During the last five years, an increase of 55% in exports has been recorded and in 1981, over 60 million *dong* was earned. At present, 155 export embroidery shops are operating, giving jobs to 24,000 people, of whom 15,000 are apprentices. The city's total output value of small industry and handicrafts in 1981 exceeded 331 million *dong*, i.e. 42% of the local industry, and its export made up

56% of the total value of manufactured exports.

Quang Nam - Da Nang, which had 396 handicraft shops in 1975 employing 4,343 workers, now registers 11,229 shops with 59,351 collective and private workers. In 1980, the province's total output value of small industry and handicrafts rose to 204 million *dong*, i.e. four times as much as in 1975, and made up 70.8 of the output value of local industry and 39% of the total output value of its agro-industrial sector. The average rate of increase was, thus, 27% every year. Some branches and lines rose ten times over, such as cloth weaving, which is capable of reaching 15 million metres of various kinds a year. The whole province has now registered 640 handicraft teams in agriculture, employing 12,690 workers and earning 2.8 million *dong* in its annual total output value. In 1980, there were 169 co-operatives and 16,148 co-op members. In 1981, small industry and handicrafts of Quang Nam - Da Nang successfully strove for 18 million *dong* in export and 260 million *dong* in total output value, thus laying a solid foundation for 300 million *dong* in 1982 and proving itself worthy of the 1980 emulation banner awarded by the small industry and handicrafts sector of the country.

Taking advantage of its strength in technology, equipment, supplies and local raw materials, the small industry and handicrafts of Ho Chi Minh City have been growing steadily both in scale and quality, creating quite a large number of valuable items for export and home consumption. By May 1981, the city had registered 192 co-operatives and 2,173 production

teams employing nearly 95,000 workers, and 643 privately owned shops and 16,468 individually owned shops with over 60,000 workers. During recent years, a steady growth has been recorded in the total output value of the small industry and handicraft sector here. From 672 million *dong* in 1978 to 932 million in 1979 and 1,012 million in 1980, the city strove for 1,300 million *dong* in 1981.

Shortages of raw materials—coal, electricity, petrol, equipment—constitute the biggest difficulties in industrial production. By its adaptability and flexibility, using mechanical, semi-mechanical and handicraft means and operating on medium and small scales, the small industry and handicrafts sector is capable of making full use of available resources and facilities, and of taking appropriate steps to overcome all obstacles.

LEADERS OF...

(Continued from page 5)

Mai execution ground in Hanoi. Before the execution a French officer asked him:

"Do you have anything to say?"
Hoang Van Thu calmly replied:

"No. In the life-and-death struggle between us, the enslaved people, and you, the aggressors, the sacrifice of people like me is quite natural. But one thing is certain: we shall finally win."

A Catholic priest approached and asked him if he wished to receive the last blessing. Hoang Van Thu said:

"Thank you, but I have no sin. If you regard the love of one's country as a sin, then the French people who are fighting against the German fascists in your country would all have sinned."

Hoang Van Thu fell to the enemy bullets at the dawn of the country's revival. His revolutionary courage and his undying conviction in the final triumph of the cause he had fought for all his life will remain an eternal example for all Vietnamese communists.

1. The draft political program of the Vietnamese revolution written in 1950 by Tran Phu, the first general secretary of the Party, and adopted by the Central Committee plenum in October the same year.

THE HOANG SA AND TRUONG SA ARCHIPELAGOES HAVE NEVER BEEN CHINESE TERRITORY

Editor's Note: For many decades, the Chinese authorities have harboured ambitions towards the Hoang Sa (Paracels) and Truong Sa (Spratley) archipelagoes of Vietnam. These ambitions have been revealed by two armed aggressions: they occupied the Phu Lam Island (Woody Island) and the Ba Binh (Itu Aba Island) in December 1946 and occupied the groups of islands to the South East of the Hoang Sa archipelago in January 1974.

In September 1979, the Press and Information Department of the Foreign Ministry of the SRV issued a memorandum on part of the historical documents and the legal evidence showing the historical sovereignty and the effective sovereignty of Vietnam towards these two archipelagoes.

Recently, the Beijing authorities launched a campaign of propaganda, slandering and falsifying the historical documents to defend their ambitions towards the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes.

On 18 January 1982, the Foreign Ministry of SRV issued a White Book summarising the viewpoints of the SRV and once again proving that the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes have been and will always be part of Vietnamese territory. In occupying the Hoang Sa archipelago and demanding their rights to the Truong Sa the Chinese authorities have no legal grounds.

The memorandum entitled: "The Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes - Vietnamese territory" comprises two parts:

Part I - The Vietnamese State long ago realized its sovereignty over the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes. In this part, the book covers the historical documents to prove the historical sovereignty and the real sovereignty of Vietnam over these two archipelagoes.

Part II - The Hoang Sa and Truong Sa have never been Chinese territory.

The Vietnam Courier has mentioned this problem in the articles:

- Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes - Vietnamese Territory (No. 2/1979).

- On the Sovereignty of the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa Archipelagoes (No. 9/1979).

and in the dossier "The Hoang Sa and Truong Sa Archipelagoes", issued in November 1981.

Here are excerpts from Part II of the book.

DESPITE the fact that the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes have long since been part of Vietnamese territory, the Beijing ruling circles are now trying to justify their expansionist ambitions over these two archipelagoes, quoting ancient books to back up their claims that China was "the first to discover, to exploit and to govern" the "Xisha and Nansha" archipelagoes. "For thousands of years, the

governments of various Chinese dynasties have been continuously exercising their jurisdiction over these two archipelagoes... and the Chinese people are undeniable masters of these two archipelagoes" they say. (Document published by the Chinese Foreign Ministry on Jan. 30, 1980).

What is more, they have made up the story that the Vietnamese Hoang Sa and Truong Sa are

coastal islands and sandbanks along central Vietnam in an attempt to prove that the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes and the "Xisha" and "Nansha" islands claimed by China are not the same.

But no one can deny the truth that Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes have been and shall always be parts of Vietnamese territory.

1 - On the so-called "discovery" and "exploitation" by the Chinese people.

The document made public by the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs on January 30, 1980, presents excerpts from two books (Nanzhou Yiwuzhi and Funanzhuan) published in the Three Kingdoms period (220-265 AD) to prove that long ago the Chinese "discovered" "Xisha" and "Nansha".

It also refers to six other books (Monglianglu, Daoyi Zhilue, Dongxiyangkao, Shunfeng Xiangsong, Zhinan Zhengfa and Haiguo Winjanlu) published during the time between the Sung and the Qing dynasties (from the 11th to 19th century) and declares that these books write about the Chinese people's voyages to the Xisha and Nansha archipelagoes and their engagement in production activities there over thousands of years, and in this process, they gave the Xisha and Nansha archipelagoes different names like Liuru Lozhou, Shitang, Qianli Shitang, Wanli Changsha, etc. "This is an attempt to prove that "the Chinese people had discovered and carried on exploitation work in Xisha and Nansha".

As a matter of fact, the contents of what is quoted from the two

books of the Three Kingdoms period are quite vague. As for the six books dating from the Sung to the Qing dynasties, they are essentially writings recording contemporary Chinese cognizance of geographical positions, history and customs of foreign countries in Southeast and South Asia, and the sea routes from China to such foreign countries and contain nothing about "the Chinese people's voyages to these two archipelagoes" and their "engagement in production activities" there. Even if the geographical names used in these ancient books correctly refer to the two archipelagoes, as Beijing claims, they are designations used by the Chinese in the past to denote geographical features of foreign countries or to describe navigation routes in these sea areas. They are in no way of any legal value for the Chinese claim of sovereignty over these islands.

Similarly, even if it is true that the Chinese discovered these archipelagoes, that will not constitute a legal basis for their claim that they have been under Chinese jurisdiction. Even if it can be shown that some exploitation work was carried out by the Chinese in "Xisha" and "Nansha", that will in no way help create sovereign rights for the Chinese state over these archipelagoes, since the work was done by private individuals.

2 — On the so-called "jurisdiction" exercised by Chinese dynasties

Public opinion has demanded that the Chinese ruling circles prove when and how the Chinese state took possession of the two archipelagoes of "Xisha" and "Nansha".

The Chinese authorities, however, have failed to provide an answer. They had to resort to a general statement that "the governments of various Chinese dynasties had continuously exercised their jurisdiction over these two archipelagoes", and with a view to proving that, they have cited a number of events taking place during the whole period from the 11th to the 19th century, of which the following three are emphasized:

The first event: In the above-mentioned document of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs, what follows is said to be an excerpt from Wujing Zongyao, a

book written in the reign of King Renzong (1023-1063) of the Northern Sung: The Court "orders that royal troops be dispatched to build and defend the bases of maritime patrol in Guangnan (i.e. present day Guangdong) and "that combat ships be built"... "if from Tunmenshan one avails oneself of the east wind and takes the southwest route one will reach Jiuru Lozhou in seven days." The Chinese Foreign Ministry document considers Jiuru Lozhou to be the "Xisha archipelago" and concludes that "The Court of the Northern Sung had placed the Xisha archipelago under its administration and that "Chinese naval units had patrolled the area of the Xisha archipelago".

In fact, the original Wujing Zongyao had this to say about the above-mentioned event:

"Orders that royal troops be dispatched to build and defend the bases of maritime patrol in the Eastern and Western sea-harbours, which are of 280 *truongs* (*truong*: an ancient unit of measure equal to 3.51 metre.) in width, and which are about 200 li from Tunmenshan (Tumenshan is a place on the mouth of Pearl River, Guangdong province), and that warships be built"... "If from Tunmenshan one avails oneself of the east wind and takes the southwest route one will reach Jiuru Lozhou in seven days and if proceeding further, one will reach Pulaoshan in the Kingdom of Huan zhou (Pulaoshan is Cham island; Huanzhou was the Kingdom of Champa) within 3 days; and about 300 li further southwards from that point is Lingshandong region. To the southwest of Lingshandong are the Kingdoms of Dashifu, Sizi and Tianzhu (Dashifu, mentioned in many Chinese ancient books as Dashi, was a Middle Age nation in the Persian Gulf area; Sizi was ancient Sri Lanka and Tianzhu denoted India (according to Chinese books Tengshu, Sungshi and Gugin Doshu Zisheng) where no one had any idea of how long a voyage to these Kingdoms would take" (Weijing Zongyao).

Clearly the above excerpt from Wujing Zhongyao mentions on the one hand the order of the Court of the Northern Sung on the establishment of bases for maritime patrol in Guangzhou Harbour, and on the other describes the positions of these bases and the sea-routes from Guangzhou to the Indian Ocean, and not a single line of the afore-said passage suggests that Chinese naval

units made patrol tours to the vicinity of the "Xisha" archipelago. The document of the Chinese Foreign Ministry, indeed, rearranges the words of the quoted passage with no other aim than to serve the expansionist design of the Chinese authorities with regard to the Hoang Sa archipelago (Beijing not only distorts the contents of the books but also their titles in the French translation. For example "Saoyi Zhilue" means "General Observation of the Barbarous Island Countries" — "barbarous countries" is a Chinese term for foreign countries — but the Chinese translation is "General Observation of the Islands". "Haiguo Winjianlu" means "What one sees and hears about foreign countries" but the Chinese translation is "What one sees and hears about coastal areas").

The second event: The document of the Chinese Foreign Ministry mentions the astronomical surveys conducted by the Yuan dynasty in the "South Sea" to conclude that "the Xisha archipelago lies within Chinese territory under the Yuan".

Nevertheless, in Yuanshi, the official history of the Yuan dynasty, the astronomical surveys conducted during the early years of the Yuan dynasty are described as follows:

"The measurements of shadows cast by the Four Seas were carried out at twenty-seven points including Laoli in the East, Tianchi in the West, Zhuya in the South and Tiele in the North" (Yuanshi).

In the chapter "The Measurements in the Four Seas", Yuanshi clearly listed the twenty-seven points including Kaoli, Tiele Peihai and Nanhai, where the measurements were carried out (Yuanshi). From what is written in Yuanshi, one can see clearly that the astronomical surveys at the twenty-seven points were not made on a "national level" as Beijing said in its document but "in the Four Seas". That is why these twenty-seven points included such places lying outside the "Chinese domain" as Kaoli i. e. Korea, Tiele i.e., a place in Siberia (USSR), Peihai (Northern Sea) i.e. the sea off Siberia and Nanhai i. e. the East Sea. Even if the point where measurements were carried out in Nanhai lies in the "Xisha" archipelago, that does not mean "Xisha" was part of the Chinese domain under the Yuan dynasty. Yuanshi itself says the Chinese Empire then extended

only to Hainan island in the south and not beyond the Gobi desert in the north.

The third event : The document of the Chinese Foreign Ministry mentions the patrol tour made by Vice-Admiral Wu Sheng some time between 1710 and 1712 during the Qing dynasty. The admiral was said "to have set out from Qiongya, proceeding to Tonggu, Qizhouyang, and Sigengsha, making a three-thousand li tour of patrol and observation". Making use of the above description of the tour, the publisher of the document says "Qizhouyang is present-day Xisha archipelago area which was then patrolled by naval units of Guangdong province".

In reality, the places mentioned in the above excerpt are in or around Hainan island :

- Qiongya or "the military district of Qiongya" under the Qing dynasty had its headquarters at Qionshan near the present-day township of Halkou, in the northern part of Hainan island. (According to Zhong-wen Dacidian, 1968, published in Taiwan).

- Tonggu lies in the northeastern point of Hainan island.

- Qizhouyang is that part of the sea east of Hainan island in which there are seven islets called Qizhou.

- Sigengsha is a sandbank in the western part of Hainan island.

It is now clear that the document of the Chinese Foreign Ministry had distorted facts, turning "Qizhouyang" into "Xisha archipelago region" out of Wu Sheng's patrol tour around Hainan island to conclude that "the region was then patrolled by naval units of Guangdong province".

The comparison between Beijing's excerpts and the original texts shows clearly that none of the three cited events had any connection with the Xisha archipelago.

Beijing also cited some local geographical books in the Ming

and Qing dynasties which said "Wanzhou included Qianli Changsha and Wanli Shitang" (Guandong Tongzhi, Qiongzhou Fuzhi and Wenzhou Zhi) in an attempt to prove their assertion that "the Xisha and Nansha archipelagoes were then part of Wanzhou in the district of Qiongzhou, Quandong province". Nevertheless, in "Daqing Yitongzhi", the official geographical book edited by the National Institute of History of the Qing dynasty with a foreword by Emperor Xuanzong in the 22nd year of Daoguang (1842), there was not a single mention about "Qianli Changsha" and "Wanlishitang" being part of Wanzhou, Qiongzhou district, Guangdong province. That is the reason why, perhaps, Beijing failed to mention this official work published by that feudal state itself.

Beijing goes even further to say that it is in possession of three ancient maps of China, all drawn in the Qing dynasty (Huangqing Gezhisheng Fentu (1755), Daqing Wannian Yitong Dili Quantu (1810) and Daqing Yitong Tianxia Quantu (1817), "as evidence" supporting its claim. Readers may ask why the Beijing authorities have not yet made public these maps. Such caution is not accidental because of the fact that all the maps of China drawn from that time till the early years of Zhunghua Minguo (the Chinese Republic) did not include "Xisha" and "Nansha" as is asserted by the Beijing authorities. Isn't it so that they need time to have these maps altered?

The landing of 170 Chinese sailors on some islands in "Xisha" in 1909 under the command of the Guangdong Admiral Li Zhun on the order of Liangguang Governor Zhang Renjun was simply an unlawful act since the archipelago by that time had been part of the Vietnamese territory for several hundred years and no longer unoccupied land.

The landing of the Kuomintang troops on Phu Lam island (Woody Island) in the Hoang Sa archipelago and on Itu Aba island in the Truong Sa archipelago in December 1946 was an act of aggression, for these islands had long belonged to Vietnam.

The occupations by the PRC troops of the northeastern islands in the Hoang Sa archipelago in the early 1950s and of the southwestern islands of the same archipelago which were being held by the troops of the Saigon administration in 1974 were also acts of armed aggression.

Be it a lightning invasion or a prolonged occupation or any other acts undertaken by the Chinese in the Hoang Sa archipelago and Itu-Aba island, they are all flagrant acts of encroachment upon the territorial integrity of Vietnam and brazen violation of international law. Those acts cannot create any rights or titles for the Chinese.

3. A new allegation from Beijing : Vietnam's Hoang Sa and Truong Sa and China's "Xisha" and "Nansha" are not the same

The above-mentioned document published by the Chinese Foreign Ministry ends with a most sensation assertion : Vietnam's Hoang Sa and China's "Xisha" are not the same, Vietnam's Truong Sa and China's "Nansha" are not the same; Vietnam's Truong Sa and Hoang Sa can only be "islands and sandbanks along the coast of Central Vietnam". The Chinese authorities also say Vietnam cannot prove that the Truong Sa archipelago is the China-claimed archipelago of "Nansha". These are new allegations from Beijing.

What arises from this Chinese allegation is the recognition that

there exist in Vietnamese territory the archipelagoes of Hoang Sa and Truong Sa and also the assertion of the existence of the claimed archipelagoes of "Xisha" and "Nansha" belonging to Chinese territory. Then what are these "Xisha" and "Nansha" and where do they come from? It is written in many Vietnamese ancient books that the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes have long since been Vietnamese territories and this was confirmed in many Western maps (under the designations of Paracels and Spratley or Spratly) as well as in Vietnamese maps. However, the Chinese expansionists have chosen to baptize them "Xisha" and "Nansha" with a view to deliberately asserting claims over these two archipelagoes

Having done all this, the Beijing authorities are now saying that Vietnam can in no way prove that Hoang Sa and Truong Sa are the same as the China-claimed archipelagoes of "Xisha" and "Nansha". This new allegation of the Chinese expansionists shows on the one hand their arrogant attitude and on the other their legally indefensible position in attempting to grab Vietnam's territory.

Vietnamese archives make distinction between the islands along the coast of Central Vietnam and the Hoang Sa archipelago. In Phu Bien Tap Luc, for example, Le Qui Don noted clearly that the Dai Truong Sa island stands farther out in the sea, separated from the Re island by a voyage of three days sailing.

They do not know of the fact, or they may have known it but pretend not to, that a year later,

in 1938, Bishop Taberd published a map called An Nam Dai Quoc Hoa Do in his Dictionarium Latino-Annamiticum in which Paracel or Cat Vang was defined as situated far away from major islands along the coast of Central Vietnam such as Cham, Re, Xang, Tre, Thu, etc. Thus, Bishop Taberd made a distinction between the Paracel archipelago in the middle of the sea and the islands along the coast of Central Vietnam. Almost all the maps drawn by the 16th, 17th, and 18th century navigators generally marked the Paracel or Parcel in the same areas of the present-day Paracels and Spratly, far beyond the coastal islands of central Vietnam.

In 1959, 82 fishermen of the People's Republic of China sailed in three boats and landed on three islands — Huu Nhat, Duy Mong and Quang Hoa — in the Hoang Sa archipelago and were arrested by the Saigon troops. In connection with this case, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the People's Republic of China, on February 29, 1959, issued a statement protesting against the Saigon administration. The arrest of the fishermen of the People's Republic of China mentioned in the above statement did not take place on the coastal islands of South Vietnam but on the islands of Huu Nhat, Duy Mong and Quang Hoa in the Hoang Sa archipelago.

On January 19, 1974, the Saigon authorities denounced the occupation of the Hoang Sa archipelago by Beijing armed forces and on January 20, 1974, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the People's Republic of China issued a statement to defend the aggression. It is evident that the fighting between Saigon and Beijing took place in

the Hoang Sa archipelago (Paracel) which Beijing calls "Xisha" and not on the islands along the South Vietnamese coast, and that Chinese armed forces have been occupying the Hoang Sa archipelago ever since, not the islands along the coast of South Vietnam.

The two events recalled above show all the more clearly that before January 30, 1980, — the date on which the document of the Chinese Foreign Ministry was circulated — Beijing always held that what they called "Xisha" and "Nansha" were also the Vietnamese archipelagoes of Hoang Sa and Truong Sa, i.e. the Paracels and Spratley in international maritime maps.

The Vietnamese archipelagoes of Hoang Sa and Truong Sa can in no way alter their geographical positions by virtue of their Chinese names, nor can they become Chinese territories as a result of Beijing's allegations.

*

Despite all the noisy propaganda, all the distortion of the documents, and all the arguments concocted over the past decades, Beijing has failed to bring out when the Chinese state began to take possession of the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes, and how this state has exercised its sovereignty over them. This is the one thing Beijing cannot prove, because of the single fact that the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagoes which they call "Xisha" and "Nansha" have never been Chinese territories.

Please Note

In our dossier "The Hoang Sa and Truong Sa Archipelagoes" published in late 1981, in the article written by Thanh Thuy "Hoang Sa and Truong Sa Archipelagoes are Vietnamese Territory" page 16, 19th line

"According to H. Dumoutier, Do Ba drew up these maps basing himself on the data he gathered while accompanying King Le Thanh Tong in his expedition against the Champa in 1470..."

This should read: "According to H. Dumoutier, Do Ba drew up these maps basing them on the data gathered during the expedition of King Le Thanh Tong against the Champa in 1470."

We apologize for this error

Vietnam Courier

LAST DAYS AT HOANG SA

In January 1974, when the Chinese Army launched its armed aggression and occupied the whole Hoang Sa archipelago, it was under the control of the army of Saigon. The History and Geography Review, No. 29 published in Saigon that year specially mentioned the problem of Hoang Sa and Truong Sa. Here are some excerpts from the article entitled "Last days at Hoang Sa" of Tran The Duc who met the eyewitnesses and copied their testimony.

Editor's Note

The Hoang Sa incident which occurred far from the mainland in early 1974 had many eyewitnesses. These included the (Saigon regime's - Ed.) soldiers garrisoning the islands, freshly arrived troops, and officials from the Meteorological Office. We present here their account of the incident.

A trip to the islands

At 19:00 hours on 30 November 1973, the cruiser Ly Thuong Kiet HQ-16 sailed from Da Nang, bound for Hoang Sa island (alias Pattle) in the archipelago bearing the same name, 200 nautical miles to the East. Because of its speed—20 knots—it only left at nightfall, while other ships on similar missions usually set off around 16:00 or 17:00 hours, arriving at 9 o'clock the next morning. The trip only lasts 14 hours these days instead

of 16 or 17 hours as in the past. In colonial times, the cruiser Lamotte Piquet has been even slower, leaving at 4 pm. to arrive the following noon.

The HQ-16 carried troops and meteorological officers to take over from those stationed on the island, who had been there 3 months. It was routine mission for the Navy of the Republic of Vietnam (the old South-Vietnamese administration—Ed.). No change from the French navy's missions in colonial times. Military and met officers, French and Vietnamese alike, kept in touch with the mainland through monthly or 3-monthly ferry links, depending on the circumstances.

In the days of the French, the Da Nang ship usually called at all the islands, even the most remote: Phu Lam (Woody Island), Dao Cay (Tree Island), Dao Tay (West Island), etc. Seen from a distance, Phu Lam island looks like a typical South sea paradise with its golden beaches lined with graceful coconut trees.

Some of the passengers of the HQ-16 had already been there two or three times—some had even made as many as 16 trips there. For others it was their first trip at sea.

The soldiers were from the regional forces of Quang Nam, and were led by a lieutenant. Most

had been sentenced for indiscipline, and came from different units.

The civilians from the Met Office included:

1. Nguyen Kim Nhuong, provincial Head Officer
2. Dang Hien Vo, met officer
3. Vo Vinh Hiep, — id —
4. Nguyen Van Tam, technician

In fact these attributions were only theoretical. Once on the island the head officer would have to do the same jobs as his subordinates, and all lived and took their meal together.

Nhuong, Vo and Hiep used to work at the Central Office in Saigon, Tam at the Da Nang Met Office.

The HQ-16 also carried 4 soldiers from the Quang Nam military region equipped with two inflatable rafts, to help with unloading. They would not stay on the island.

Along with clothes, the passengers had to take with them enough food for 3 months. There would be no ship from the mainland for that length of time, except in case of an emergency. Rice was the staple food—and the heaviest load. Other goods were brought provided they could keep for a long time: tinned food, vegetable seeds, and above all seasoning (pepper, piments...) to cook sea food. In previous years (1964–68), tinned food (meat, fish...), beer, soft drinks, etc—still cheap in those days—make up most of the cargo. Earlier still, poultry and pigs used to be shipped over.

Now a few light animals are still taken, just to add some fresh meat to the menu now and then. In the days of the French, the garrison used to get much greater supplies of food, with wheat flour in place of rice

A naval battle

Soon after, the passengers of the Ly Thuong Kiet HQ-16 got off at Hoang Sa (Pattle) island. The military included: Major Hong, two privates and one American (1). The ship then left for a reconnaissance tour of the islands and reefs East of the Nguyet Thiem (Crescent) group.

Two Chinese trawlers were then behind Huu Nhat island (Robert Island). But the island's features stopped us from seeing what their crews were up to. Later, after landing there, we saw that the Chinese had unloaded construction materials and had built four graves. Considering that this violated Vietnam's sovereignty, we exhumed the remains and dropped them into the sea. The Ly Thuong Kiet then moved towards the two intruding ships and signalled to them to leave. But they didn't budge. We moved so close that we could clearly see the furniture on the ships and could hear their crew swearing in Chinese. Finally they left and made for the group of islands which Chinese troops were already occupying, then other Chinese ships sailed South, joining up off the islands of Quang Anh (Duncan Island) and Duy Mong (Drumond Island).

On our side, the destroyer Tran Khanh Du HQ-4 which had been sent in reinforcement, landed troops on Huu Nhat island.

The Ly Thuong Kiet took on 7 soldiers stationed on Hoang Sa, in readiness for its return to the mainland it seemed, for it was due for a rehaul in dry docks.

The Tran Binh Trong HQ-5, sent in to lend a hand, looked like it was landing troops on Quang Hoa island (Money Island). It then took on 7 soldiers to make up Hoang Sa's garrison. Meanwhile the Chinese fleet, which included large ships anchored out at sea "trawlers" and troop carriers

was busy toing and froing between Duy Mong and Quang Anh (Duncan) islands. The Vietnamese ships began to move towards these islands.

No one knows exactly when the first shot was fired (2). But by the afternoon of 18 January 1974 the battle was raging. From the island we could follow the battle as on a cinema screen. Chinese craft speeded towards the Vietnamese ships. The Chinese trawlers turned out to be proper gunships with two heavy machine guns on the bridge and other firing positions on their flanks. The duel began. Columns of smoke and fire rose from the Chinese ships. The HQ-16, with a damaged rudder and holed on one side, began to lean over and withdrew to the narrow passage between Hoang Sa and Huu Nhat islands. It was towed back to Da Nang by the HQ-11. The Nhat Tao HQ-10, the last ship to arrive, immediately joined the fighting. It too was hit and a fire broke out on board.

The following day, 19 January 1974, the fighting moved towards Hoang Sa island. Two large Chinese ships and two of the so-called trawlers begin closing in on Huu Nhat island, sending smaller boats out to look for a suitable landing site. From the island, now heavily shelled by the enemy warships, our troops returned fire with all they had, namely only small arms. Contact with the island was soon lost.

The Chinese then attacked Hoang Sa island. Our troops took up positions amongst the trees and by the phosphate heap. Chinese jets roared over our heads. Enemy forces landed and crawled up the beach like ants. Half an hour later they reached the centre of island. Our men held on as long as they could. Having taken the island, the assailants began blowing up all the buildings.

We were now their prisoners of war. They gathered us together and questioned us until nightfall.

They spoke such good Vietnamese that we began to wonder if they really were Chinese. They all spoke with a North Vietnamese accent, all but one who had a southern accent. They spoke in a rather stilled manner which most Vietnamese wouldn't use. But they seemed more at ease in the language than even the Chinese of Cholon. So it seems that the attack had been carefully prepared.

Soldiers with brutish faces kept guard over the prisoners. At night they locked us up in the phosphate depot over which they kept a close watch. We were 42 in all: 7 newly arrived soldiers, 4 met officers and the unit of regional forces garrisoning the island.

After midnight they woke us up and walked us over to large boats anchored off the beach. They told us they were taking us to "a safe place". We thought we were being taken to China.

We changed boats after a while. The Vietnamese officers and the American were taken off separately. All the Chinese around us spoke perfect Vietnamese.

Having reached Hainan island, we were assailed by reporters as soon as we got off. Later we set off once more, for Guangzhou, which we reached at 8 a.m. on the 1st day of Tet, in January 1974

Recorded by
TRAN THE DUC

1. According to the daily Chinh Luan (Political Opinion) No 2052 of 31 January 1974, page 7, column 3, the American, named Gerald Kosh, a civilian working for the military attache of the US embassy in Saigon had been sent as a liaison agent to the Navy command of the 1st military region. Having been taken prisoner by the Chinese on Hoang Sa (Pattle) island along with Vietnamese military and civilians, he was returned to the Vietnamese authorities at noon on 31 January 1974.

2. The witnesses only saw some of the fighting between the Vietnamese and the Chinese navies.

1981-CHINA ENGULFED IN A NEW CRISIS

Power struggle heats up in Zhongnanhai

In 1981, Teng Hsiao-ping, the strongman who holds actual power in Beijing at present, more than once stressed that "the political situation in China today is more stable than at any other time since the 60's". But the fact is that the internal strife for power that has wrecked the Beijing leadership has plunged the country of one billion people into an unending and allround crisis. That is an open secret.

In selecting the ten major events in China in 1981 *Pan Ye Tan* magazine has pointed to at least three events which may be regarded as milestones of this power struggle. These are the 6th plenum of the 11th Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party in June, the 4th meeting of the 5th National People's Congress in November, and the launching of the campaign against so-called "bourgeois liberalism".

We may add to these ten events the trial of the "gang of ten" involving key members of the Chiang Ching and Lin Biao groups on which the sponsors—the winning party with Teng at the head—had put much hope. The trial began at the end of November 1980 and its organizers obviously wanted it to conclude within a short period of time in order to put behind them the bitter fights of 1980. Then, they reckoned, the new decade would be a triumphant onrush to track down and destroy the opponents. This is why, in the New Year editorial of the *Renminriobao* Teng proclaimed with much fanfare and self-confidence: "We can now declare that we have finally smashed the fetters of the 'left' ideology (meaning the anti-Teng party) and can follow the road of healthy development."

But things have not evolved as Teng had made out or wished it to be because he had underestimated his enemies. His intention had been to use the trial to knock down politically his main opponents who had risen to power through the "Great Cultural Revolution" or who simply refused to toe his line. In fact, their numbers and their forces are still to be reckoned with and their reaction is not in the least negligible. Teng's manoeuvres, for that matter, have become an albatross on his own neck.

The trial which was prolonged until early 1981 was hurriedly concluded with the suspended death penalty passed on Chang Chun-chiao and Chiang Ching while it is public knowledge that had he had full power Teng would have hanged the whole lot, especially Mao's widow, the "femme fatale" who had twice pulled strings with Mao to dismiss him. The only perceptible offshoot of the trial was that it had exacerbated the interparty strife and ushered in a series of new clashes in 1981. The winning party was unable to deploy its force as it had planned. The subsequent trials already announced had to be postponed and might be scrapped for good.

Meanwhile, the economic situation continued to deteriorate, the "four modernizations program" was readjusted again and again. This is another bitter setback for Teng and it is an easy target for his opponents to turn their guns on. Many localities simply ignored Teng's economic program. Though not sharing the same goal, Teng's opponents hold the unanimous view that Teng is undermining China economically, socially and ideologically.

At this juncture Washington had to step in and give Teng a helping hand. The US ambassador to Beijing cautioned American correspondents and journalists not to blame all these difficulties on Teng.

Under the circumstance, Teng and his followers had to "rein in" and evaluate the situation.

Hua Kuofeng, the spokesman for the silly and ambitious "four modernizations" program of which Teng himself is the author, was made the scapegoat for the failure of the economic policy and was tied closely to the "ultra-leftists" who had been demoted. The Party chairmanship, his last hold on power, was seriously jeopardized. He was eventually forced to attend a political course at the Party school where they made him study Teng's policies and admit his "errors". But this move of Teng met with stiffer resistance than expected, from inside the Party as well as from bureaucratic circles and the Army. The official press printed articles obliquely criticizing Teng's viewpoint. The "anti-rightist" movement, which is a counter-move against Teng's line, began to make itself felt, though still somewhat gingerly.

The 6th plenum of the 11th Central Committee of the Party aimed primarily at stripping Hua Kuofeng of his Party chairmanship and re-appraising Mao Zedong, scheduled for the end of 1980, was put off again and again until June 1981.

It had the merit of being a temporary compromise. Teng won another round but the fight continued. The party chairmanship was given to Hu Yao bang, Teng's handpicked man. Hua had to take a step back but had not lost his Party chairmanship but is still one of the six vice-chairmen, a thing rarely seen in the behind-the-scene struggle at Zhongnanhai where the loser used to be relegated to the attic of history. The reappraisal of Mao Zedong is another compromise. Compared to previous pronouncements by Teng Hsiao-ping that "in the Cultural Revolution period the

country lived in white terror and unprecedented chaos" or by Hu Yaobang that "the Cultural Revolution was a disaster", that "nothing was right or positive in those ten years", the conference saw Mao in quite a different light. It decided that "the errors of Mao, father of the Cultural Revolution, are errors of a great proletarian revolutionary" and Mao remains "the beloved leader and teacher" and his thoughts remain "a valuable heritage which must continue to be studied and applied". This, obviously, could hardly please Teng and his followers.

After the conference, Teng's group wanted to press their attack on Hua, continuing to dig up his old mistakes with intent to put down Hua and his group once and for all. But this plan failed too. Criticism of Hua tapered off quickly. The plan to study the conference's resolution, billed as the central task of the latter half of 1981, also fizzled out. In many localities the Party committees simply refused to study, or turned the "study sessions" into a forum to denounce the authorities. Public opinion was quick to note that the 6th plenum said nothing about the economy which is a major problem. Is it not because this is a doubled-edged knife which the warring factions in China dared

not touch upon for fear it would cut their own fingers?

Against the background of this see-saw battle the 4th session of the 5th National People's Congress could hardly achieve anything of substance. Its projected aims were to adopt the amended Constitution and restore the chairmanship of the country as stipulated in the 1954 Constitution. But neither materialized. This was seen by many as a hard blow to Teng since his coveting of this post had long been the talk in China. Another aim of this session was to adopt the 6th five-year plan (1981-1985) and to lay down the orientation, for long-term economic build-up. But this, too, was nearly a complete failure. The five-year plan could not be agreed upon although the first year of the plan had elapsed. Neither has the 1982 plan been drawn up. The session only portended gloomier years ahead for the Chinese as can be read in Premier Zhao Ziyang's report which called for further tightening of the belt, and promised more readjustment of the economic plan. The readjustment program which had been set for three years from 1979 is now stretched to 1985 or longer. The Chinese premier could not even say whether the situation in the year 2000 would be any better than today.

The army, a bastion against Teng

While the life-and-death struggle was unfolding at the highest echelon of power, the army was rumbling with discontent toward the authorities. In fact, the army has seen its role, rated so highly by Mao whose theory "power comes out of the barrel of the gun" as the watchword of the time, quickly eroded by Teng. It has been disillusioned by the failure to modernize the army, as promised by Teng, due to crippling economic difficulties, while being lukewarm about the reforms advocated by Teng. The high ranks of the army are clearly angry with the way he edged out his political opponents. The trial of Lin Biao involved most of the top ranking officers.

Earlier, tens of thousands of army officers were purged. Widespread permutations were effected among the commanding staff with intent to place Teng's men in command at the vital military sectors. Within the space of twenty years, there have been four ministry of defence and six chiefs of the General Staff in the Chinese army. Each change entailed widespread purges in the army and even the imprisonment and murder of tens of thousands of officers and men. The war against Vietnam in 1979 turned the Chinese People's Liberation army into vile aggressive troops and stained its revolutionary traditions. Defeated at the hand of the Vietnamese army and people in the border regions, it felt doubly

demeaned back in the country when it was forced to stand at attention and give military honours to imperialist ringleaders, new friends of Teng Hsiaoping.

This is something, which could hardly escape Teng's and his followers' notice, and so they have tried by every possible means to keep the army under their control. Already the post of general chief-of-staff and chief of the General Political Department are firmly in the hands of two of Teng's close associates, Yang Dezhi and Wei Quoching. In March 1981 Teng snatched the last rein of military power, the portfolio of defence, and gave it to Jin Hsiao, his own man, a diplomat rather than a soldier whose most resounding exploit is the arms deal with the United States and other Western powers. Lastly, Teng himself took over the post of chairman of the military commission of the Central Committee of the Party in defiance of the Chinese Constitution which stipulates that this post must be held by no one else but the Party Chairman.

Immediately after the 6th plenum, Yang Dezhi repeated on numerous occasions his pet phrase "the Party commands the guns" which is a broad hint that no one should use the army to seize power. Wei Quoching, for his part, called for a struggle against "unhealthy tendencies within the army" with clear allusion to those opposed to Teng's policy.

Operating with more tact, Hu Yaobang called on the army to "dare to make sacrifices" for "the lofty interests of the people" and to "take the lead in the implementation of Party policies". As an example he ordered the revival of the movement to study the example of Lei Feng, a long discarded model who now is construed as a model of "the spirit of the socialist era".

Teng Hsiao-ping, for his part, has not lost any time in making an idol of himself. The official press was instructed to reprint a series of his articles and speeches dating back to 1977. Young Chinese soldiers are told about a certain military campaign conducted by vice-chairman Teng during the civil war to drive home this important fact: the vice-chairman was once a military talent. Teng went even farther by ordering a big military manoeuvre close enough to Beijing so that the popu-

lation of the Chinese capital could see him personally reviewing the parade as a commander-in-chief.

But all these tricks could not escape the eagle eyes of the army whose discontent, simmering or open, has continued to mount as

Deep division among the people and chaotic society

The ordinary Chinese who have witnessed so much change brought about by an unrelenting struggle for power inside Zhongnanhai, change that has always worsened their already precarious conditions have been living in constant fear, expectation and tension. In fact, how can their minds be put at rest when the same anxious question is worrying them day and night: "Will the men in power today remain tomorrow? What will happen next?" Those who today are still cited as examples for the whole country may very well be charged with "left" or "right" or any other "deviations" and be subjected to national opprobrium as was the case with the "steel men and women" of Tachang and the "model farmers" of Tachai who were praised to the skies by Mao but fell to humiliating disgrace and oblivion with the rise of Teng Hsiao-ping.

Illegal opposition parties and organizations mushroomed in one place or another and repression has become practically impossible. There have been demonstrations and distributions of handbills denouncing the authorities and demanding freedoms.

The "credibility gap" is particularly pronounced among the youth who are the most unfortunate of all because their adolescence was brutally buffeted by the ten years of the Cultural Revolution. Intoxicated by Maoist propaganda they became a legion of destroyers who smashed and tore down everything on their path under the deceptive banner of the "Red Guard" and with the mission of protecting Chairman Mao and the Party Central Committee from the attacks of the "black staff". Having accomplished this sinister task they were however, forcibly pushed by the same orators to the countryside

proved by the sharp attack by the army newspaper, *Chinese Liberation Army*, on Bai Hua, a writer and playwright and one of Teng's protégés. The opposition to Teng's policies which threatens to spread within the army is a real concern of his.

and remote mountain areas and were soon forgotten. Their hearts were filled with anger and resentment against the hunters whose policy was to "kill the dog after the hare dies".

Anti-government riots have broken out among the youth and students in Shanghai, Anhui, Wuhan, Henan, Tsinghai and Sinkiang. One of the leaflets reads: "Mao has sacrificed the future of the Chinese youth in pursuit of his personal political goal. The present ruling circles are trying to step into his shoes."

Rebellion is also brewing among the ethnic minorities in Tibet, Inner Mongolia, Sinkiang, Ning-shia... in face of open discrimination against them by the Beijing authorities. As admitted by an official in Beijing, "the ethnic minorities question has become a very serious question which cannot be solved in the foreseeable future."

Among the population, there has been comparison with the "great upheaval" under the "Gang of Four" and people tend to believe that even then the situation was not so bad and so unstable as at present. Right in Beijing there have appeared leaflets demanding the overthrow of Teng Hsiao-ping and his cohorts, and exhorting others "not to fear his sword". There have also been published pamphlets in defence of the "Gang of Four" and threatening to "smash the present leadership headed by Teng Hsiao-ping."

In fact, Teng and his company are facing mountain-high difficulties. New difficulties are piling on before old ones can be overcome.

It is true enough that Teng has won the first round, having secured for his group the reins of power in the Party, the govern-

ment and the army. But the other factions are far from being defeated. In other words, Teng still has to make his victory complete. His avowed goal is to further stabilize the situation in order to deploy his construction plan. This remains to be done. The economic ills remain unsurmountable and production still marks time. There has been very heated debate on what should be the right proportion between the various branches of the economy, between heavy industry, light industry and agriculture, between accumulation and consumption, etc., which has added fuel to the power struggle. The unrestrained opening up to the West which Teng regards as one of the four factors for the materialisation of his "four modernizations" program is taken under fire right in the ruling circles. Some complained that "before we can see any real advantage (of this policy) everybody can see the disastrous way the unbridled importation of the Western lifestyle is disrupting our society and corrupting our youth, and how it has become uncontrollable".

Meanwhile, of the total membership of 38 million of the Chinese Communist Party more than half who were admitted during the Cultural Revolution still miss Hua Kuofeng, and Teng's followers cannot yet command the majority in the 11th Central Committee of the Party. The same can be seen among the cadres of the provincial and intermediate level and army officers. These groups, though not outweighing Teng's party in the balance, of force, are strong enough to prevent Teng from having his way in the realisation of his ambitions.

Whereas in early 1980 Teng arrogantly advised his political foes to resign if they wished, today he is trying to see a compromise with them all, one way or another.

Only recently, Li Hsiennien, one such foe, unequivocally suggested that men like Zhao ziyang, an avowed protege of Teng, should resign. It is common knowledge that Li and Teng, are quarrelling over the economic policy. Some slogans from Mao's days are being revived and some model plays of the Cultural Revolution days are being shown on the stage. As things stand, 1982 augurs no brighter days for the rulers in Zhongnanhai.

LINH PHUONG

MULBERRY GROWING AND SILKWORM RAISING IN VIETNAM

Silkworm raising, a traditional trade

AT the present growth rate, Vietnam's population will exceed the 60 million mark by 1985. If the minimum need for each inhabitant is 5 metres of cloth, then there must be at least 300 million metres. Of course, synthetic textile has been thought of, but it takes time for the necessary conditions to materialize. Another possible solution is the growing of fibre-giving plants but this, too, needs time. As far as jute is concerned, studies show that at best Northern Vietnam could afford 20,000 hectares and the South, 100,000 hectares for jute growing. The prospects for cotton are no better. The main cotton-growing provinces — Phu Khanh and Thuan Hai in Central Vietnam — could only grow at most 20,000 hectares of cotton, enough to weave 50 million metres of cloth, that is not more than one-sixth of the minimum demand of the whole country. The other cotton-growing areas scattered throughout the country, scarcely help to correct the imbalance. They would, at best, even with intense efforts, total not more than 20,000 hectares by the end of 1985.

In the light of this situation, a positive approach and a practical orientation has been mapped out: to develop mulberry growing and silkworm raising. This is nothing new to the Vietnamese. It is a traditional trade having more than

one thousand years of history, second only to food plant growing (rice and maize) and widely practised in most localities in the country. History records that as early as 1040 natural silk was already used to make court costumes for high mandarins of the Ly dynasty. In the 12th century Vietnamese handloom weavers could produce beautiful multi-coloured lengths of natural silk. In the 16th and 17th centuries Vietnamese silk began to be exported to several countries in Southeast Asia where it found a ready clientele.

Vietnam lies in the tropical zone with a warm and humid climate very suitable for the growth and leafage of mulberry trees, which is a necessary condition for raising silkworms all the year round. Mulberry can be grown on different kinds of soil: on riverine and coastal lands and on hill slopes with a slight gradient. Travelling along rivers, which are abundant in Vietnam, one meets at frequent intervals immense luxuriant mulberry fields stretching as far as the eye can see. Even on less fertile soils where food plants and vegetables cannot be grown profitably, mulberry is seen thriving. That is why, under French colonial rule before the 1945 August Revolution, even without proper encouragement silkworm raising was never neglected. Total mul-

berry acreage throughout Vietnam was estimated at 25,000 hectares which provided enough food for silkworms to produce 4,500 tons of cocoons or approximately 446 tons of silk per year. Many localities are reputed for their high-quality silk such as the "linh" silk of Buoi village (Hanoi), "luong", "the" and "luot" (varieties of silk gauze) of La Ca area in Ha Son Binh province, "nhieu" (light brocade) of Hong Lo (Thanh Hoa), "lua ha" (light silk) of Ha Tinh and the various silk materials of Quang Nam (Central Vietnam), and Tan Chau in An Giang (South Vietnam).

The French war of reconquest (1946-1954) played havoc on almost all the silkworm raising centres of Vietnam, causing a drastic fall of silk production. At the time of the restoration of peace (1954), the mulberry-growing area in the North had been reduced to a mere 2,300 hectares. To restore silkworm raising was among the government's immediate concerns at that time. As a result, ten years later the mulberry acreage had risen to 7,346 hectares. Also from that year on there have emerged many areas with high outputs of silk, yielding from 800 to 1,000 kilograms of cocoons on each hectare of mulberry. In some particular cases such as some production teams of the Phu Luu Te agricultural co-op in Ha Son Binh province, or the Thuan Vi co-op in Thai Binh province, or the Dang Son co-op in Ha Tinh province, the yield even reached 1,300 kg of cocoons per hectare of mulberry.



Silkworm rearing in a family of co-operative members in Van Con (Hoai Due district) Hanoi.

Photo: MINH TRONG

In the South, during the years of the US war of aggression, the mulberry acreage fell to almost zero due to the influx of foreign textiles and ready-made clothes. Following the liberation of the South and the reunification of the country, the Vietnamese government made it a point to help the areas with long traditions of silkworm raising restore their trade, such as Huong Tra in Binh Tri Thien province, many areas in Quang Nam-Da Nang province, Phu Phong area in Nghia Binh province, Ba Tri in Ben Tre province, Hong Ngu in Dong Thap province, Tri Ton, Tinh Bien and Phu Chau districts (including the famous silk weaving area of Tan Chau) in An Giang province.

But not until 1978, when the government decided to give a strong boost to silkworm raising and silk weaving as a source of export to exchange for other less expensive clothing materials, was

this trade really revived and developed.

After a careful feasibility study, the Ministry of Agriculture initially marked off about 50,000 hectares for mulberry growing in 13 provinces and cities. These are: Hanoi, Ha Bac, Ha Son Binh, Thai Binh, Ha Nam Ninh, Thanh Hoa, Nghe Tinh, Binh Tri Thien, Quang Nam-Da Nang, Nghia Binh, Phu Khanh, An Giang and Lam Dong. In addition to these specialized areas, almost all provinces in the country could grow mulberry on any available plot of land not suited for food plant growing. By 1980 the whole country already counted 10,000 hectares of mulberry, along with 500,000 - 600,000 hectares of cassava grown in the midland and mountain areas that can also be used for silkworm raising, though with lower economic results. It has also been proved that the leaves of castor oil can also be used as food for silkworms. Castor oil plants can be

grown in many regions including coastal regions.

Whereas in many countries silkworms can give only from two to three batches of cocoons per year, in Vietnam they can give as many as ten batches per year. Silkworm raising is a multiple benefit occupation. A batch raised within not more than 20 days gives many products of high value. First, there is the silk itself—one ton of natural silk can be exchanged for 6 tons of wool, or 25 tons of cotton, or 35 tons of viscose fibre. As well as clothing material, silk is also used in industry, medicine and the defence industry. By-products of silkworms have also found many uses: the chrysalis is a valuable food with a high protein content, the silkworm itself, the water in which the chrysalises are boiled, the branches, twigs, leaves and roots of the mulberry tree enter the recipes of many traditional cures, the fruits of mulberry are used in the liquor industry, silkworm droppings are used as fertilizer or fish feed. A hectare of mulberry grown with ordinary technique can give 18 - 20 tons of leaves, enough to raise silkworms for the production of 800 - 1,000 kilograms of cocoon, 8-10 tons of droppings and 8-10 tons of mulberry cuttings for replanting or material for paper making, or for firewood... In cash value one hectare of mulberry grown with high technique can bring about 8,000 dong per year.

Apart from being a solution to the clothing problem and bringing about many benefits as mentioned above, silkworm raising also provides jobs for auxiliary manpower in the countryside: old people, women with unweaned babies and children. It is reckoned that the whole process, from planting a hectare of mulberry to threading the cocoons, takes from 1,000 to 2,000 workdays per year.

New steps in development

However, to restore and develop silkworm raising in order to help solve the clothing question, and make full use of the economic benefits brought about by it, requires the solving of a series of economic as well as technical questions.

First, it is necessary to expand the mulberry acreage.

As it is, the already little arable land in the plains and the midlands (about 300 square metres per head of population) has been further reduced by urban development and the building of a series of new industrial centres, housing, cultural welfare and other community projects. Meanwhile, the crop plants under cultivation are all vital to the people's life and to the economy in general, such as food plants, fruit trees, vegetables, timber trees, industrial plants, medicinal plants...

How, then, can the mulberry acreage be expanded?

In past years, the State-run silkworm raising centres, apart from practising intensive cultivation on the existing areas have, planted mulberry on any available waste land or land awaiting construction projects. In addition, they have also campaigned among the schools, public offices, factories... for planting mulberry in nearby gardens. Since mulberry can be grown on almost any soil with a certain degree of humidity and needs little attention, the agricultural co-ops have planted it mostly on lands unsuitable for the growing of food crops or the traditional plants and trees of the localities, or any available plots of unused land along rivers and irrigation canals, in cemeteries, front yards of communal houses, village premises, on hillocks, etc. Many co-op members plant mulberry in their own gardens. It is estimated that the number of mulberry trees planted along ten kilometres of canals and in private gardens (about 20 trees per garden) would equal the number grown concentrated on ten hectares. Thanks to such positive measures, by now most towns and cities throughout the country

already have relatively large areas under mulberry. Hanoi has 1,000 hectares of mulberry fields and another 2,000 hectares of scattered planting. In Hai Hung province, 15 per cent of co-op members are growing mulberry in their own gardens. The mulberry acreage of Hai Hung is expected to rise to 2,500 by 1985. Even in Thai Binh which has a small cultivated area and a dense population, the mulberry area has reached 250 hectares. Ha Bac province plans to expand its mulberry area to 3,000 hectares this year. In Ha Son Binh province, in addition to 1,000 hectares of mulberry fields, the population has as many hectares of mulberry in scattered planting. Quang Nam-Da Nang province will have 3,000 hectares of mulberry fields and about half a million mulberry trees grown on hills. The latter figure is expected to rise to 1.5 million by 1985. An Giang province which has marked off mulberry growing areas in three of its districts, plans to have 5,000 hectares of mulberry by 1985. Thanh Hoa province plans to grow mulberry on 3,000 hectares, etc.

At present, in addition to the localities with a long tradition of silkworm raising, 70 districts (or one-sixth of the total in the country) are actively developing this trade to meet part of their clothing demands, while 200 other districts are making necessary preparations to make silkworm raising a sideline occupation.

Special mention should be made of Lam Dong province. This province is favoured by vast plateaux with a slight gradient which allows an easy natural drainage. The rains are evenly distributed throughout the year. Lam Dong is also blessed with a cool climate with temperatures varying from 15 to 20 degrees Celsius which is an ideal condition for the growth of mulberry trees as well as of silkworms. In recent years, Lam Dong's labour force has been continually reinforced by settlers from other provinces. All this has opened great possibilities for Lam Dong to become a major silkworm raising centre of the whole country.

Surveys show that there are more than 80,000 hectares of land unfitted for food crops, including 25,000 hectares of riparian lands, 25,000 hectares of hilly lands and more than 2,000 hectares of coastal lands that can be profitably grown with mulberry. The area subjected to scattered mulberry growing in the whole country is estimated at 25,000 hectares.

The second question is to apply advanced methods to create good species of mulberry and silkworms and to improve the exploitation.

This question has also received due attention and initial results have been obtained. Formerly Vietnam had to import most of its silkworm eggs which was both expensive and hazardous. More than once unseasonal winds and rains destroyed most of the imported eggs. Since 1977 some crossed breeds have been created which suit the Vietnamese climate and give fairly high quality silk. In addition to the central centre in Hanoi and in some other provinces, three research centres on silkworms have been set up: one at Phuong Bang, Hoai Duc district, Hanoi the second at Viet Hung, Thai Binh province and the third at Bao Loc, Lam Dong province.

This has helped Vietnam to become completely self-sufficient in silkworms. The Viet Hung station alone in the summer of 1981 produced on its own and in co-operation with surrounding agricultural co-operatives 3,080 kilograms of cocoon of bi-generation silkworms for the production of 21,692 crossbred eggs. This amount of eggs was enough to meet the needs of silkworm raising centres in Thai Binh, Nghe Tinh, Thanh Hoa and part of Quang Nam-Da Nang and Nghia Binh provinces.

The new system of breeds has enabled silkworm raisers to raise their stock in all seasons but preferably in spring and autumn because the cool climate then is more favourable to the growth of the bi-generation silkworms which give more and better silk than the other breeds.

Formulas have been found to standardize the selection of silkworm eggs. On the other hand, the methods of mutation and hybridization have been applied in the growing of mulberry to create

a new species which yields more and better foliage fitted to the newly crossed breeds of silkworms. Many stimulants for mulberry trees as well as silkworms have been prepared. At the same time the age-old experiences are being summed up to complement the advanced method with a view to improving further the silkworm raising industry.

Pest control for the silkworms is given special attention, especially in the control of the disease popularly known as "thorny worms," and in the destruction of worm-killer blue flies.

Recently, experimentation has also been made with the raising of silkworms feeding on leaves of cassava or castor oil trees. Silkworms fed with these leaves also give high yields of silk. In a particular year, Vinh Phu province yielded 125 tons of cocoons from such worms. The amount of leaves picked from one hectare of cassava is enough to produce 220 kilograms of cocoon, 160 kilograms of chrysalises and from 1,000 to 2,000 kilograms of silkworm droppings.

Vietnam has also trained a fairly numerous contingent of specialists in silkworm raising, ten times bigger compared with the pre-liberation days, including more than 300 university graduates and post-graduates.

The third question concerns the organisation of production

Silkworm raising in Vietnam has been and will be conducted in two forms: concentrated and scattered breeding.

Concentrated breeding is undertaken by the State with a view to planned development in the 13 provinces and cities mentioned above and more particularly in Lam Dong province. The State will invest more in terms of technology and equipment and will exchange the product (silk) for cotton to meet part of the clothing demands of the entire population. The State will also take charge of scientific research with regard to silkworm breeds, pest control, etc., in service of both the large-scale silkworm raising centres and scattered establishments. Smaller breeding centres

will be run by the agricultural co-operatives (agricultural production collectives in the South) or by the personnel of State farms, logging camps and factories which would make silkworm raising a sideline occupation beside their main occupations which are to grow rice and industrial crops, afforest or engage in other productive activities. These collectives plant mulberry and raise silkworms with their own means and their own manpower. Many agricultural co-ops have made silkworm raising a stable occupation and devote some ten per cent of their cultivable lands to it. These co-ops will allocate quotas for their members as is the case with the co-ops engaged in full-time silkworm raising, and they may also practise silk threading and weaving as well as producing silkworm eggs. Those with a significant output of silk may sell their product to the State in exchange for clothing materials and other consumer goods.

Many co-ops which have practised silkworm raising with high technique have yielded encouraging results. The Dang Son co-op in Nghe Tinh yielded 10,332 *dong* per year from each hectare of mulberry, accounting for 41 per cent of the total income. The Dong Hoa co-op in Thai Binh in 1981, raised 300 batches of silkworms and yield 1,800 kilograms of cocoons from which it wove 1,930 metres of silk. Besides, it obtained 890 kilograms of chrysalises for food, 8,900 kilograms of droppings for fertilizer and fish feed, and more than 20 tons of mulberry cuttings. Silk worm raisers at Dai Hung co-op in Ha Son Binh province have sold 37 tons of cocoons to the State which brought it an income accounting for 11 per cent of the total income of the co-op. In Tam Dan Village, Quang Nam-Da Nang province, the inhabitants reaped each year enough leaves on 140 long-standing mulberry trees to raise silkworms for the production of 1,000-1,500 kilograms of cocoons. In 1981 the Van Con co-op in Hanoi sold to the State 50 tons of cocoons. Do Luong district in Nghe Tinh province which has only 350 hectares of mulberry in 1980 sold to the State 10 tons of cocoons. The district plans to raise the figure to 50 tons in 1985, or enough to supply each inhabitant in the district with 4.2 metres of silk. Dong Hung district in Thai Binh province in 1980 could supply itself with 3,660 metres of silk through mulberry growing and silkworm raising.

Another form of exploitation consists in getting the families of co-op members involved in mulberry growing and silkworm raising as a kind of sideline economy. This economy will be strongly stimulated chiefly in the midland and mountain regions and the riparian areas where such a trade already has a long tradition. There may be a division of work among the families, each specializing in a given job, such as growing mulberry, raising silkworms, threading or weaving silk. If there are not enough mulberry leaves, they may be bought from other co-ops. The product will be chiefly intended for consumption by the families themselves.

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To solve the question of clothing when the country is not yet industrialized and the import of foreign textiles is still limited by the inability of exports to balance the payments, mulberry growing and silkworm raising is a practical and feasible approach. Obviously, it will take a lot of time and work to expand the present mulberry acreage of 10,000 hectares to 80,000 hectares and to fully exploit them. But the road has been charted out for the combined effort of the State, the collective and the families.

Some research institutions have made the following calculations:

If from now to 1985 the acreage devoted to large-scale mulberry growing could be expanded to 20,000 hectares which could give an average of 50 kilograms of silk per hectare, then there would be at least 750 tons of silk including 500 tons of first-quality silk. This amount of silk could, after deduction is made for production costs, be exchanged for 6,000 tons of cotton or the equivalent of 36 million metres of cloth; or 8,500 tons of viscose or the equivalent of 76 million metres of cloth.

In addition, if mulberry growing and silkworm raising could be promoted into a wide popular movement, the total acreage of mulberry in scattered plots may well reach the 20,000 hectares mark. The efforts of both sectors combined would significantly contribute to alleviating the present clothing problem.

VAN LUAN

PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION FOR GENERAL SCHOOL STUDENTS

IN the early sixties when Vietnam embarked on socialist industrialization, the need to train engineers and technicians was very great. Students who finished general schools were relatively few, and therefore most of them were admitted to colleges and vocational secondary schools. Over the last 15 years, as education developed fairly rapidly and general education was popularized, the number of students increased with every passing year. Within 5 years (1975-1980) the number of students who finished 9-year elementary schools went up from 466,000 to 770,000 and that of students from secondary schools rose from 63,700 to 164,000. However, colleges and vocational secondary schools could not admit them all. About 70% of elementary school students and 85% of secondary school students had to give up schooling—519,000 after the 1979-1980 school year alone.

The problem was that these students who remained in their native towns and villages had acquired a schooling unadapted to the society in which they lived and did not participate in the general and productive work of their localities nor had they been prepared psychologically for this situation.

Hence the need for school and society to provide the students with professional orientation. The educational reform now in progress (1) sets as a priority and stresses the task of general education as follows: "to prepare the

bulk of students from general schools so that they become trained workers producing material wealth for the country while further studying culture or professional technique through various forms..." This requires research, and the guiding of students to freely choose a profession both suited to their gifts and capacity and conforming to the need of the country and the locality. Professional orientation was indirectly tackled in the early sixties but it was not until 1981 that the Government Council (now Council of Ministers) issued a decree on the professional orientation in general schools and the rational use of students from elementary and secondary schools. This decree also gave the administration at all levels, the economic, cultural branches and the people's organizations the task of directly helping general schools train and use students rationally, and foster those who graduated, according to the guiding principle "The school prepares the students and society receives them".

The School prepares the students

As far back as 1960, with the second educational reform (2) to build the socialist school, Vietnamese schools adopted the principle "to match study with practice, education with productive work" as the yardstick to measure the quality and efficiency of education in each school.

The schools which succeeded were those which knew how to

turn this general principle into a dynamic practice of an educational method with a living content. In their practice and productive work did not constitute something commonplace but was geared to the social reality of the student's environment and linked to the economic development of the locality, primarily to production. These schools formed efficient workers, particularly for the locality where they would work after graduation. They were recognized as standard-bearers of general education, e.g. Bac Ly elementary school (Ha Nam Ninh province), Cao Ba Quat secondary school (Hanoi), An Thai secondary school (Hai Phong)...

These schools changed the content and method of teaching and the way of studying to accord with the rapidly evolving situation of the country. There the students took part in the productive work of the locality and applied the scientific and technical knowledge they acquired to raise the local level of production. As daughters and sons of the local people building the life of their native places they felt all the more attached to them.

The experiences of these schools were summed up and synthesized into concrete measures for professional orientation in the 1981 educational reform. With this educational reform, professional orientation in general schools became a guiding principle actively and efficiently contributing to the assignment and rational use of

students after graduation. Only by carrying out professional orientation in general schools could a developing country direct many young people with cultural and scientific and technical knowledge to national construction. On the other hand, these schools should not turn out young people unacquainted with social activities but should: "Inculcate in the students' mind a right conception of labour and profession after graduation."

"Acquaint the students through practice with the main trades in society and the traditional trades of the locality."

"Discover the gift and professional vocation of each student to encourage, guide and foster the most suitable professional ability."

"Mobilize and orient the students toward the trades and places needing young educated workers" (3).

To carry out professional orientation from the first to the last form of general schools one has to simultaneously up-date teaching, organize productive work right in the schools and complementary extracurricular activities. Scientific courses should be taught in the spirit of synthetic technique and professional orientation, and include an acquaintance with the main production branches of the locality and country.

Industrial and agricultural techniques are taught with a realistic orientation conforming to the requirements of practice. The students learn general principles while practising concretely on materials, plants and animals. For instance: Bac Ly school (Ha Nam Ninh) seated in a plain growing rice, pigs and fish taught its students thoroughly about agricultural techniques for these areas. Cao Ba Quat school in Hanoi's suburbs, on the capital's vegetable-belt and a place with developed handicrafts, taught its students about tile-making, embroidery, sewing, vegetable-growing, planting flowers for export, etc.

In accordance with professional orientation, one should acquaint the students with the economic development of the country and the locality, the basic and traditional trades of the locality, with stress laid on the situation, role and prospects of these trades, the required qualities, labour capacity and the knowledge related to these trades.

Productive work was carried out as far back as the sixties but lacked concrete guidance and was left to the care of each school. The experience of successful schools showed that productive work should be linked to the trades needed in the locality and serve as a basis for professional orientation. The school should have close contact with the local production bases—agricultural co-operatives, state farms, factories, bases of handicraft, small industry and services in affirming the productive orientation, finding the technical demands required by the economic and professional development of the locality—about their capacity to help and accommodate students coming to work there. On the other hand, school-workshops and school-gardens can

also be set up enlisting the help of local factories and co-operatives to equip the bases for professional orientation in the school.

A contingent of teachers of technique was most necessary for professional orientation. In 1979 the Ministry of Education opened a branch of technical pedagogy in the Teachers' Training College: the first graduates (1982) will be the first regular teachers in charge of professional orientation in general schools. Until now the teachers of natural sciences—mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology—have had to teach technique. They were being rapidly fostered in factories, institutes of research for machine-building, institutes of agriculture (cultivation and stock-breeding)... Many schools invited technical cadres or skilled workers to guide teachers and students in technique.

In a poor country with a small investment in education the joint efforts of schools and economic bases constitutes the cheapest and most efficient method: the experience of successful schools bore out that production and research bases played a capital role in helping schools achieve professional orientation.



— Ama Trang lon School (Dac lac province) with an income of 50,000 dong per year. A course on clearing grass and caring for coffee-trees.

Photo : VNA

Society receives the students

While general schools carry out professional orientation society prepares itself to receive these students by deciding their assignment and rational use and carrying on their training after general education.

A principle which should be implemented was that no one was allowed to work without being trained, in long or short term courses.

In its directive on professional orientation and the rational use of general school students the Government Council made a clear allotment of work. Villages, city wards and production bases should work out plans to further train students graduated from elementary schools. Districts and city precincts dealt with those from secondary schools. Those were the main places to teach trades in order to rationally use students graduated from general schools each year, bringing to fruition the professional orientation carried out in schools.

Over the last years, in a number of production bases like the Dong Nai Rubber Company, Tan Lam State Farm (Binh Tri Thien province), and in a number of city wards, villages, city precincts and districts of Hanoi, Hai phong, Ho Chi Minh city, Ha Nam Ninh province... the local people's committees had concrete measures to teach trades and rationally use the students graduated from general schools. After leaving school the young people were drawn into production; selecting

seeds, rearing cattle or doing handicrafts, or they were sent by the local administration on various courses to become managers, operators... to replenish the contingent of local cadres. Many villages and districts organized schools or classes to foster culture and technique in the form of studying while working, which was very much appreciated by the students and their families.

At present, Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City and the town of Nam Dinh, Ha Son Binh, Thanh Hoa... are carrying out a training course sponsored by the State and people called "people teaching trades". These classes on tailoring, typewriting, carpentry, electricity and traditional trades (lacquer, pottery, embroidery, knitting...) are developing to meet a part of the local people's requirements. Under the control of the district or city precinct's people's committees and handicraft co-operatives, skilled workers could open classes teaching handicrafts and other trades to local young people.

The education councils at all levels from the center down to the grassroots established by the Government Council play an important part in mobilizing social forces to participate in professional orientation in general schools. Composed of representatives of the school, parents, administration and people's organizations (Fatherland Front, Youth Union, Women's Union, production bases), these councils help the school in carrying out education, teaching, guiding students and choosing trades, and helped work

out plans to receive graduated students.

A new conception has taken shape regarding the task of general education schools. They not only train students for higher learning, only a small number of them being academically inclined, but also contribute to fostering the bulk of them into working, turning out material wealth for society

Only with the joint efforts of the whole society and the school to train and use this contingent of new workers could the problem of "deploying the products of the school", be solved, a headache of all countries and particularly of the developing ones at present.

Starting from the 1981 - 1982 school-year professional orientation in Vietnam will reach the grassroots in both town and country. Under the pressure of social reality this work was all the more necessary and the schools which pioneered it from its first steps can now see that they took the right path.

MAI THI TU.

1. On educational reform, see *Vietnam Courier* No.10, 1979, page 7.

2. The first educational reform in 1948 shifted colonial education to revolutionary and resistance education.

3. Circular No 31-77 of November 17, 1981 by the Ministry of Education about professional orientation in general schools.

A SCHOOL IN THE SERVICE OF AGRICULTURE

THE Tran Hung Dao secondary school for children from 14 to 17 is in An Thai, a commune in the low-lying land of Kim An district, near Haiphong. The first batch of four pupils who passed the end-of-term examination in 1962 were all admitted to university and were the pride of the commune. From then on, the school had a larger and larger enrolment. At that time matriculation was still easy and children finishing their study at Tran Hung Dao school had only one thought, that of choosing the branch of higher learning they liked.

However from the seventies onward, education being compulsory, all the country's children studied in general education schools and not in complementary classes as did their predecessors, and children finishing secondary education were to be found everywhere. But access to higher education has become more and more difficult: in 1980 only one-fifth of candidates were successful. Thus there was little chance for young people to attend higher education. What was the way out for them? They did not think about the problem as in their secondary schooling they were not guided to prepare for their future except to take another matriculation examination the following year. Meanwhile they sat idle.

The teachers of Tran Hung Dao were only too aware of this situation. They meet the young people who remain jobless in their hamlets though their knowledge is sufficient to make them useful to society. They become malcontents, are not satisfied with their present situation, but do nothing for their future. They are the cause of anxiety for their families and commune. The teachers of Tran Hung Dao school wish that their educational efforts would be crowned with success, but really it is labour lost for them as they too fail to meet the requirements of society.

Studying while working— Orientation to a profession.

Reviewing the work done, in mid 1977, Le Hong Thuy, head master of Tran Hung Dao school, and his colleagues held a heated discussion to find where the blame lies if their pupils live on the fringe of society. Why are these youngsters not attached to their native area and indeed are prone to leave it? To find a way out for them is also to secure a bright future for the Tran Hung Dao school.

The teachers understood that objectively speaking, farming work in a poor country like ours

is harder than any other and is no attraction for the young; the latter are dissatisfied with the negative aspects existing in society. But where is the limit of responsibility of the school? After a long discussion, the teachers came to the conclusion that there is a big gap between what the children have learnt at school and its application to actual life. In other words, the school has not yet taught them how to be of service to society. They are taught farming techniques but do not grasp the situation of production in their region and are not ready to engage in agricultural work. Studying geography, they are proud of the natural wealth which abounds in the country, but they do not know that a long time is needed to exploit these riches in order to do away with the poverty and backwardness of the country. After many years of training, the school forms children who have little experience in life.

From the school year 1977-1978 onward, a change has been wrought at Tran Hung Dao. According to the objectives of our socialist education, the school has the task of training young people for the region with a high technical level, ready to serve agricultural production and the people's life.

For this purpose, it is necessary to send the pupils on field work

in order to bridge the gap existing between academic study and practical work. Le Hong Thuy visited the administrative authorities and the managing committees of agricultural co-operatives to pose the problem of co-operation in the youngsters' education. He told them of the responsibility of the school to prepare prospective farmers and the division of labour between the school and the co-operatives in this work.

His idea was warmly welcomed by the responsible cadres of the co-operatives as it fell in line with what they were thinking, and a plan was set out: co-operation began with the allotment of 5 hectares of land by the co-operatives to the school to serve as an experimental field.

Whatever discipline they teach, all the teachers of the school are duty bound to help the children do field work. However as they are still young and lack experience in farming, they must go to various farms in Haiphong to initiate themselves into such work as multiplication of rice strains, preparation of compost, etc. The teachers of biology in charge of animal husbandry go to Kien An district to study hybridization methods. All the teachers are each given a plot of land to conduct experiments, before passing them on to their pupils. Even in the first year, their work yielded heartening results as they persuaded their pupils to follow their example. The experimental field of the school has become an efficient "teaching aid" as high yield rice strains are tried on it. In biology, the children easily grasp the notion of heredity with the rearing of pigs and the hybridiza-

tion of our local breed with foreign pig strains.

With regard to the disciplines not directly concerning agriculture such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, etc., the children do practical work by helping the co-operative calculate the acreage of ricefields and distribution of crops; they apply theory to the manning of agricultural machines, find formulae for the preparation of insecticides and animal fodder. They work at the co-operatives' offices and at tractor stations under the supervision of their teachers.

Field work is most interesting for the pupils who can witness the efficiency of their study in its application to daily life, and become more acquainted with the functioning of the administrative apparatus. Their parents acknowledge the maturity of their children who will become their trustworthy successors.

The teachers visit the hamlets to meet the pupil's families, the co-operative committee, and the local youth union, to discuss with them how to set up with the school a three-pronged educational system. This co-operation is warmly welcomed.

Studying right in their hamlets, in an environment familiar to them, the young people are soon attached to their native place, to the local population and are more and more conscious of their duty as future masters of their land.

It is during this period that the teachers of Tran Hung Dao school detect the talent of their pupils. The most academic of them are chosen to continue their studies at a higher level. But the rest, more numerous, are not lacking in aptitude. Those who are conversant

with engineering or electricity join tractor teams, those who are fond of research, analysis work in technical teams, breeding farms, composting and hybridization teams.

New school serving the countryside.

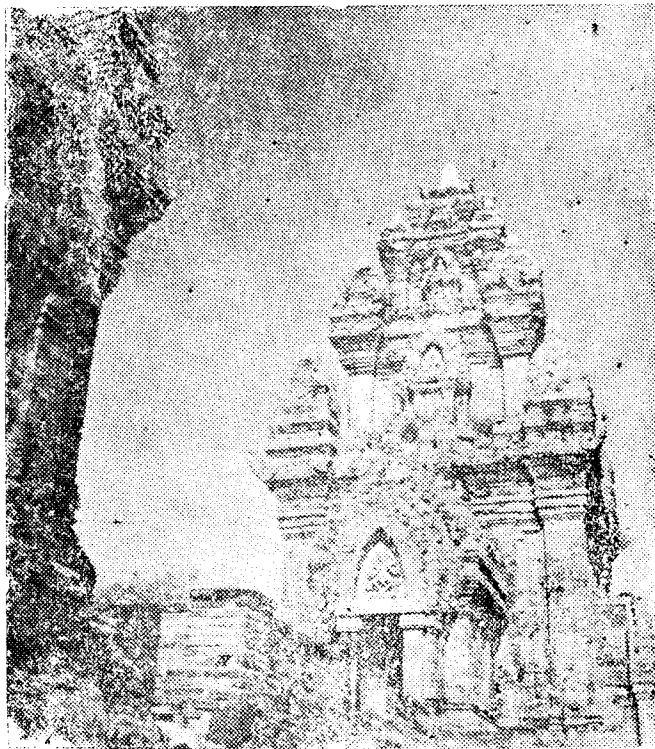
After one year of blazing the trail for the new educational system, the co-operation between the school and the agricultural farms and co-operatives in Kien An district is now even closer.

The remarkable outcome of the study-and-work method is that the 5-hectare field entrusted to the school and grown with rice 424 and 386 and soya V74 has given a bumper autumn crop amounting in value to 70,000-80,000 *dong*. Each pupil has an appreciable share of paddy and subsidiary crops.

The rice strain experimented with by the school has replaced the degenerate strains easily attacked by insects. However, to succeed, the growing of new rice strains by the co-operatives must follow the technical norms set and experience gained by the school. The co-op farmers begin to learn these techniques and experience but they will soon be replaced by the youth of the school who are more acquainted with new farming methods.

After finishing their secondary education, many of the young people remain to work on their native land and become efficient grassroots cadres. The inhabitants nickname them "model farmers"; they still remember Than and Ha who have now distinguished themselves in the growing of potatoes on wet soil and rice by direct sowing

(Continued on page 28)



The Cham Po klong-Gia Rai (Thuan Hai province), one of the towers which will be restored.

Photo: TRAN CU

VIETNAM-POLAND CO-OPERATION FOR THE PRESERVATION AND RESTORATION OF OUR HISTORICAL HERITAGE

IMPLEMENTING the protocol on co-operation in the field of preservation and conservation between the Vietnamese Ministry of Culture and the Polish Ministry of Culture and Arts signed on April 28, 1980, the Polish National Federation for the Restoration of the Historical Heritage has recently sent a mission of six experienced experts to Vietnam. The mission has worked out a plan

giving assistance to Vietnam in repairing and restoring five groups of architectural monuments, the Cham towers:

— My Son 7th to 12th century (Quang Nam—Da Nang).

— Ponaga 9th century (Phu Khanh)

— Duong Long 11th century.

— Doi 13th century (Nghia Binh)

— Po klong Gia Rai 14th century (Thuan Hai);

and a plan for the technical maintenance of the historical Cu Chi system of underground trenches (Ho Chi Minh city).

The historic Cham towers were mostly built with brick, though some of them are a combination of brick and stone. They are of architectural value and rich in national characteristics, all born out by the refined art of stone carving. Their statues and ornamental festoons are exquisite while the baking and joining techniques prove superb. Due to their age, many of the towers have decayed under the impact of the elements and some were damaged by the bombing and shelling in the two national wars against the French and the Americans. Cracks and breaks are common features in all the towers. Ornamental parts have been moved or lost. In many places, the towers have been invaded by wild shrubs which, in some cases, grow luxuriantly even on the tower tops. The My Son cluster, for example, originally comprising 71 towers, now has but 20 left and even these are in a state of decay because of the U.S. bombing and shelling. The Po Klong-Gia Rai tower, with its four storeys, each decorated with stone statues, 24 metres high, 15 metres long and 12 metres wide, has cracks in all its four side roofs. Its south-eastern side roof of the ground storey bears a crack so big that it threatens to fall at any time.

During their investigation, the Polish experts did their jobs with enthusiasm and a high sense of responsibility, despite the hot weather, the tedious distances of thousands of kilometres and the long working hours, up to fourteen hours a day at times. They completed fifty sketches of the historical monuments, sixteen detailed drawings for the repair and consolidation work, dozens of designs and detailed drawings with the help of precision tools.

The results of the Polish experts' efforts in 1981 have laid the foundation for the continued repair and restoration of the five clusters of Cham towers and the maintenance of the historical Cu Chi system of underground trenches.

TRAN LIEN

A SCHOOL IN...

(Continued from page 26)

when they were school children. One of the ex-pupils has been appointed head of an animal rearing team and is held in esteem by older teammates, because he has grasped the technique of rearing hybrid pigs. An Tho commune, near An Thai commune, has signed a contract with the school to train growers conversant with market gardening.

At the end of each school year, Tran Hung Dao school draws up a list of outgoing pupils accompanied with observations made by the school as to their behaviour, health and ability, particularly farming technical level and labour efficiency. The school director discusses with the local authorities how to make the best use of the young people who are presented to the co-operatives at a ceremony attended by the administrative authorities, mass organizations and co-op members. This has made a good impression on everybody.

The school continues to follow the conduct of its pupils and their employment by the local authorities and co-operatives. Early in 1981, headmaster Le Hong Thuy was able to report that among the youth leaving school in the previous year, eleven now work as secretaries of production teams, 25% of them are members of the local youth union and women's union organizations. A pupil, Thai, has been singled out to attend a course training responsible cadres.

These young people accustomed to the scientific farming methods taught by the school, cannot let shortcomings persist in society as well as in economic management. They have told their old masters: "It is time to put an end to the old ways of work". They find in their teachers dependable friends to give them counsel and to encourage them to serve their land better.

TRUONG GIANG

Vietnam Advances

A FOREST AREA FOR WOOD PULP AND FIBRE TAKES SHAPE

Hoang Lien Son is one of the provinces endowed with a large acreage and vast areas of forest: some 930,000 hectares.

During the past 20 years, the province has planted 70,000 hectares of which 50,000 hectares were done in 1976-1981, with trees of the same species, creating vast forest areas for wood pulp, fibre and for environmental protection.

Hoang Lien Son has different climatic regions and a terrain of varying heights, suitable for a variety of vegetation. The question here is to choose the species which flourish under the particular conditions of regional climate and soil, and which give the biggest output within a short time.

Formerly, inadequate planning, unsuitable species and undetermined planting technique and time resulted in low output and quality for the tended forests. Some hilly areas were affected by several replantings, others grown with mixed vegetation, thus failing to meet the demand of industry for raw materials.

Hoang Lien Son has now overcome those shortcomings, having decided on the right species for different regions: mo (Manglieta glauca) and, bodhi (styrax tonkinensis) for low-level, satinwood and pine of various sorts for higher-level land.

Thanks to the application of advanced technology, the pace of afforestation has been increased as well as the proportion of surviving plants. In 1961-1962, afforestation was done on less than 1,000 hectares a year and the proportion of surviving plants was low. Since 1976, the area has increased to 10,000 hectares a year and high quality ensured. Concerning the proportion of surviving plants, Van Yen forest farm achieved 95%, Viet Hung, Bao Yen 90% and other farms in the area for wood pulp and fibre 80% or more.

Of the 70,000 hectares of afforested area, 60,000 hectares are given over to wood pulp and fibre: 44,700 hectares to bodhi (styrax tonkinensis) and 14,561 to mo (Manglieta glauca). Many trees have lived out their growth or are being clipped for wood pulp and fibre. At nine years of age, bodhi gives 90 to 160 cubic metres of wood per hectare, and at 15 to 20 (age of maturity for exploitation), its yield is 2.5 times as much.

Hoang Lien Son is striving for a complete afforestation of its bare hills by the year 2000, and will thus become one of the chief suppliers of wood pulp and fibre for the State. In the immediate future, from 1985 on, it will be possible to exploit some one million cubic metres of wood annually, i.e. ten times as much as now.

THE BATTLE FOR FOOD

Editor's note — *At the meeting to celebrate the 3rd anniversary of the liberation of Kampuchea, Heng Samrin, General Secretary of the Central Committee of the People's Revolutionary Party, President of the Council of State, spoke of the agricultural situation in Kampuchea in these terms: "We have also made big efforts on the agricultural front. However, our fields still cannot feed our population because only half of the acreage of the pre-war days has been tilled. In 1982 and the following years we must restore more than half a million more hectares of fallow and waste land, increase rapidly our food production, with a view to solving the food question in a radical way. Due attention should also be paid to stockbreeding and fisheries aimed at improving the diet. At the same time, we must strive to plant and exploit more rubber for export. Food and rubber are the most important branches of our economy at the present time."*

The following article describes the efforts of the Kampuchean people in grappling with the food question in the autumn crop of 1981.

THIS is the third main rice crop following liberation from the genocidal regime. In the wet season of 1979 right after the overthrow of the Pol Pot regime, in spite of mounting difficulties the Kampuchean peasants planted nearly one million hectares of rice and subsidiary crops which helped in an important measure to avert famine and stabilize life. In the second main cultivation season Kampuchea planted nearly one and half million hectares including 1.3 million hectares of rice, and the good harvest of this crop made a decisive contribution to definitively repelling the danger of famine and taking the country into a period of stability.

Planning and preparations

The plan of this third year aims to take another step in solving the food question and lay the foundation for speedy recovery of the pre-war peak of 2.5 million hectares of rice.

All the provinces showed determination and have taken positive measures for the realisation of the program. Battambang province in Western Kampuchea, the rice granary of the whole country, plans to grow 300,000 hectares of rice and subsidiary crops, 50,000 hectares more than in 1980. Takeo province plans to plant 390,000 hectares of rice, a substantial increase over 1980. Kampot province will grow 90,000 hectares, up by nearly 10,000 hectares. Kompong Cham, Kompong Thom and Svay Rieng each will grow from 110,000 to 170,000 hectares — tens of thousands of hectares more than previously.

Following the national agricultural conference held at the onset of the rainy season (May to October) to work out a unified program and concrete measures of implementation, all the provinces held their own agricultural conferences to discuss concrete plans and draw experiences from the outstanding successes in 1980. Material and

technical conditions were prepared more actively and diligently than before. Kratie province has repaired 330,000 ploughs and harrows, and more than 10,000 ox-carts and other rudimentary transport means. Battambang province has repaired 180,000 ploughs and harrows and transported 700 tons of phosphate fertilizer produced by the Molkulborey factory to the districts. It has also repaired the major irrigation canals and dams. Pursat province has transported 2,000 tons of rice seeds to the villages and sent more tractors to the major rice-producing areas. Siem Reap province has opened many technical courses for the cadres responsible for agricultural production in the localities. Takeo province has sent many pumps and more than 2,000 tons of chemical fertilizer to its localities. Kompong Cham province has installed the Vihear Thom and Tulpai Khlong pumping stations and repaired 13 reservoirs and a dozen dams in the various districts for the planting of thousands of hectares of rice. Almost all the provinces have dredged the old canals and built dozens of kilometres of new canals.

Overcoming difficulties to carry out the plan

In the light of the resolution of the 4th Congress of the People's Revolutionary Party of Kampuchea, the whole country embarked on the new production plan with revolutionary zeal. All available manpower and materials have been devoted to agricultural production. In the drought-stricken

areas, all water resources are exploited for planting. In Kompong Cham province where heavy rains had occurred, intense effort has been mobilized for drainage in order to keep up with the planting schedule. Within three months of the start of the planting season, the whole country has sown nearly 800,000 hectares of rice and tens of thousands of hectares of subsidiary crops.

Battambang province has planted more than 200,000 hectares, nearly 70% of the program; Kompong Cham planted more than 100,000 hectares, more than 75% of the program. By the end of September, Battambang, Kompong Cham and Kompong Chhnang provinces had achieved from 91 to 95% of their planting programs. Even in Kratie and Koh Kong provinces where climatic conditions have been less favourable, the plan has been more than 80% achieved. The suburbs of Kompong Som province, in particular, had topped their plan by 9% by the middle of September.

Unlike the main crops in the two previous years, especially in 1980, when the weather was particularly favourable, the weather in 1981 was unusually inclement for agricultural production. A heavy drought befell most of the rice growing areas at the beginning and in the middle of the crop. The sown areas cracked under the sun and the plots which had been ploughed or harrowed were seriously affected by water shortage. On the other hand, some other areas were submerged by torrential rains. In particular the areas on the banks of the Mekong were flooded in July and August, which played havoc with the crops. But the Kampuchean people, full of post-liberation mettle and assisted in many ways by the revolutionary power, showed exceptionally high enthusiasm and determination to overcome the difficulties and obstacles.

In many places like Takeo, Kompong Speu, Svay Rieng and Prey-veng provinces, no rain fell for two or three consecutive months causing extensive damage to most areas sown or planted to rice. In Takeo province, the population have used thousands of scoops, made or repaired 2,900 water wheels and dug dozens of kilometres of ditches to save the rice

from drought and replaced the ruined rice seedlings with new ones. In many places, the population used shoulder poles to carry baskets of water to the scorched fields. In Prey-veng province, the population used more than 2,200 water wheels and made tens of thousands of scoops to fight drought. The Bablum and Lovia pumping stations were repaired in time. In many districts, mobile pumping stations were brought to the villages to fight drought.

Government assistance

Under the previous regime the Kampuchean peasants were always left to their own devices in the face of natural disasters. But it is completely different now. They have received unlimited assistance from the revolutionary government during the recent drought and floods. The Kampuchean government has done everything possible to help the peasants fight natural calamities and continue the production plan. Before the cultivation season started, the Phnom Penh government distributed 5,500 tons of rice seeds, sent 218 tractors to the rice-growing provinces and set up four tractor teams to help in cultivation in the provinces bordering Tonle Sap Lake.

The industrial and trade services have transported to the localities more than 150,000 ploughshares and hoes, thousands of rudimentary carts and insecticide sprayers. In mid-August 1981 the Ministry of Agriculture, sent an additional 9,000 tons of seeds and 800,000 litres of fuel to the localities heavily affected by drought in order to operate the pumps. It sent another 160 mechanical pumps to various districts in Kandal and Takeo provinces. By the middle of the cultivation season, the government had supplied the peasants with 18,300 tons of seeds, 43,000 tons of fertilizer, more than 2 million litres of gasoline, more than 1,000 mechanical pumps and quantities of other materials to fight the drought and floods and carry out the planting program. In parallel with material assistance, the Party Central Committee called on the people, army and cadres to con-

centrate their efforts on fighting both drought and floods and helping the peasants carry out the agricultural program. The Party and government have instructed Party executives and the administration at all levels to put off whatever is not imperative to concentrate on this fight. The ministries, public offices and mass organisations at the central level sent thousands of cadres, workers and public employees to the localities to join students and other sections of the people in the fight against natural calamities and expedite the production program. To cope with the unusual spate of the Mekong river, in Phnom Penh tens of thousands of people, cadres, public employees and soldiers went out to strengthen the dykes. Within three months of the cultivation campaign, the transport service transported 48,000 tons of agricultural materials and essential consumer goods to the countryside.

In its summing up report at the end of September, the Ministry of Agriculture said that thanks to the effective and timely assistance of the State, the peasants of Kampuchea have saved more than 50,000 hectares from drought. In some heavily stricken provinces, tens of thousands of hectares of rice have been saved. Tens of thousands of hectares of submerged fields in Kompong Cham, Kratie, Kandal and Kampot were also saved. Official statistics released by the Kampuchean news agency say that in spite of exceptionally adverse weather, the rice planting program has been achieved or almost achieved in many major rice-growing provinces; and many districts and villages have overfulfilled their planting programs. Most outstanding is Battambang province, the rice granary of the whole country, which has accomplished its program of planting 300,000 hectares of rice. Thus with the effective leadership and timely assistance of the revolutionary government, the Kampuchean peasants have ridden out one of the worst years in recent history and are embarking on a promising cultivation season.

TUAN THANH

THREE YEARS OF EDUCATION

LIFE in Kampuchea is gradually resuming its normal state. The activities of educational establishments are more and more flourishing.

Minister of Education Pen Navouth told us: "The Pol Pot-Ieng Sary clique destroyed everything. Damaged furniture littered the school yard overgrown with wild vegetation. Almost all the teachers, students and intellectuals were killed or exhausted by hard work. The survivors must do a great deal to mend their health. It is with this background that we have built up our new educational system."

Only those who witnessed the former destruction of this country realize the importance of present developments in education. Having started from scratch, three years after liberation, Kampuchea now boasts an enrolment of 1.5 million pupils. A lively atmosphere of "teacher and pupils calling one another to class" prevails everywhere in the country. Before liberation, almost all the Khmer people were illiterate. Now although swamped with work—fighting enemies inside and outside the country and trying to improve the people's livelihood—the Kampuchean authorities are anxious to launch a widespread campaign to end illiteracy. Literate people including Buddhist monks are encouraged to take part in this patriotic movement. Public servants at all levels study while working. Adults' classes are run everywhere to improve the knowledge of the cadres in all branches of activity. Kampuchea now has a teachers' college and many teacher-training schools.

It also has a system of schools called "Rose" reserved for waifs, strays and orphans (whose parents were killed by Pol Pot or died of hard work). At "Rose" school No. 2 we saw healthy children singing and dancing under the guidance of their teachers or engaged in farming work after class hours. They were collected by Vietnamese soldiers and local inhabitants in the forest, in the fields, on the roads. Most of them were diseaseridden or half-starved. Their wandering life has left them with many defects: in the first days of their salvation, they fought with one another for food and clothes. Now at "Rose" school No. 2 they have become good friends and live in harmony and unity. Commemorating the third year of their liberation they gave a performance attended by a large

crowd. Many spectators who witnessed their maturity could not help weeping.

At present, the Kampuchean educational branch has an emulation drive to win the "vanguard unit" title. Kandal province has held the challenge banner for two years running, taking the lead of the provinces in the delta. During working hours, the children are not seen on the streets: all of them are in the classroom. The chairman of Damreuh rural committee told us: "In our commune, all school age children go to class. The inhabitants put their houses and furniture at the disposal of the pupils. Going to school, the children bring along baskets which they turn upside down to serve as desks and their stools to sit on. We are illiterate, but we are now resolved not to let our offspring live in ignorance." The revolutionary authorities realize that to raise the cultural standard of the population is to create conditions for society to advance.

The teachers are truly vanguard fighters in the cultural field. They have to surmount great difficulties doing such work as making furniture for the classroom, working for their pupils, while they struggle to make both ends meet owing to their meagre salaries. But they are not unhappy with their present working conditions. One of them, Sisovath, told us: "We are living in the hectic days of the revolution. We find joy in our hard work." Rescued from the hellish jails of the Pol Pot-Ieng Sary clique, they now work in the educational branch of the new regime with a new conception. They not only teach the alphabet but instil into the minds of the children hatred for the criminals of genocide and a correct attitude toward the revolution. They guide the children to combine study with practice, do manual work and go in for production. They quickly adapt themselves to the new method of socialist education and apply it successfully.

Though the Pol Pot troops often prevent the inhabitants of the borderland from attending regular classes, the educational movement there continues to make headway. Battambang and Koh Kong are two mountainous provinces which have obtained most heartening results in this field.

T. G.

CHRONOLOGY

(16 December — 15 January)

December

16. A spokesman for the Vietnamese Foreign Ministry strongly condemns the Israeli act of aggression on December 14, 1981 against the Golan Heights, an integral part of the Syrian Arab Republic.

18. The working consultative meeting of Deputy Foreign Ministers of Vietnam, Laos, Kampuchea and other socialist countries (Poland, Bulgaria, the Democratic Republic of Germany, Hungary, the Soviet Union, Mongolia and Czechoslovakia) is held in Vientiane.

19. Leonid Brezhnev, General-Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, receives the title of "Vietnamese Labour Hero" and the Ho Chi Minh Order from the Council of State of Vietnam in honour of his 75th birthday.

21. Signing in Hanoi of a plan of cultural co-operation between Vietnam and Rumania for the 1981-1983 period.

— A consular agreement is signed between Vietnam and France.

22. Signing of a minute on co-operation and mutual assistance in civil aviation between Vietnam and the Soviet Union.

23. A protocol on finance is signed in Paris between Vietnam and France.

— "Stretching Power Line to Da River," a Vietnamese documentary film, is awarded the Golden Dove prize at the 24th international short films festival held in Leipzig (GDR).

24. Signing in Moscow of a protocol on cultural co-operation between Vietnam and the Soviet Union.

25. An agreement on Vietnamese financial service assistance to help Kampuchea in the coming year is signed in Hanoi.

26. At the invitation of the General National People's Committee of the People's Socialist Arab Al-jamahiriyah of Libya, a government delegation led by Tran Quynh, vice-chairman of the Council of Ministers, paid a visit to Libya from 22 to 26 December.

— VNA rejects allegations by a spokesman for the Thai Supreme Military Command in Bangkok that Vietnam bombed Thai territory.

27. The 3rd conference of the National Mekong Committee of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and the People's Republic of Kampuchea opened in Hanoi from 25 to 27 December 1981.

28. Vietnam proposes to China a suspension of hostile activities for 10 days during the Tet period. The proposal was turned down by China.

— The joint Soviet-Vietnamese Commission for Co operation on fishing organized a meeting in Moscow from 16 to 28 December.

29. Signing of a protocol on goods exchange and payment for 1982 between Vietnam and Mongolia.

— Opening of a conference of the women on the northern border by the Central Committee of the Vietnams Women's Union.

30. The 2nd session of the 7th National Assembly was held in Hanoi from 21 to 30 December 1981. It discussed and adopted reports by the Council of Ministers on the 1982 State plan, the State budget for

1982, the draft laws on military service and on army officers.

— At the invitation of the Government of Kuwait, Tran Quynh, vice-chairman of the Council of Ministers, special envoy of the President of the Council of State, paid a two-day visit to Kuwait.

January

4. The Council of Ministers issues Resolution No. I on silkworm raising as well as policy and orientations to develop this traditional production.

5. The Vietnam Commission for Investigation of Chinese War Crimes condemns their war of destruction against Vietnam; making armed provocations, intruding 66 times into Vietnamese territory, 1,700 times into territorial waters and 1,300 into airspace; sending back to Vietnam those Vietnamese who emigrated to China.

— A spokesman for the Vietnamese Foreign Ministry issued a statement condemning the US's recuperation of Utapao air base in Thailand.

6. The 7th conference of the Vietnam Fatherland Front Central Committee opens in Hanoi.

— AIPSO decides to set up a committee for solidarity with the peoples of Vietnam, Laos and Kampuchea led by its president T.N. Kaul, ex-secretary of the Indian Foreign Ministry.

7. The office of the Council of Ministers together with the Central Commission for Science and Education, the Central Secretariat of the Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union and the Ministry of Education held a conference on implementing the decision of the Council of Ministers on professional orientation and the rational use of basic general school pupils and students from secondary schools.

9. Signing in Hanoi of an agreement on payment between Vietnam and Mongolia.

10. At the International Spring Fair 1981 held in Plovdiv (People's Republic of Bulgaria) the Vietnamese pavilion was ranged in the second class with three kinds of goods conferred the gold medal.

— A high-level military delegation of the German Democratic Republic led by General Heinz Hoffmann, Political Bureau member of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany and Minister of Defence, pays an official friendship visit to Vietnam.

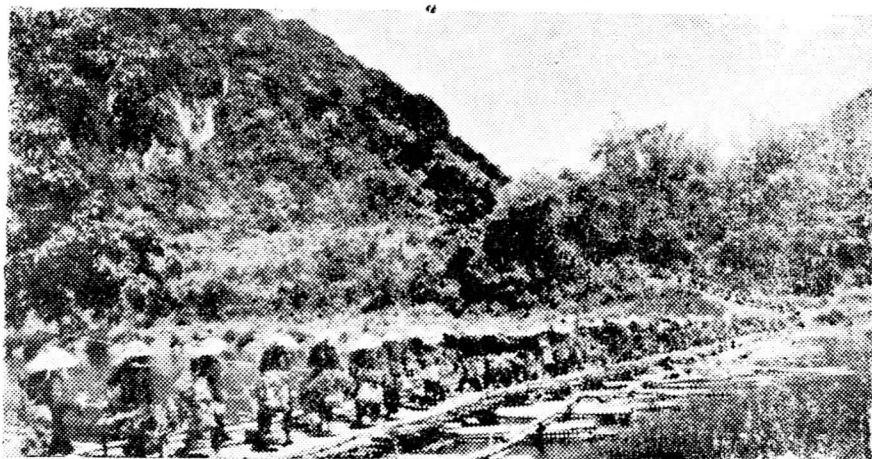
— At the invitation of the Vietnamese Foreign Ministry, representative of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) R.Y. Freiberg and delegations of the UNICEF National Committees from 17 countries (Great Britain, Belgium, Canada, the German Democratic Republic, the Federal Republic of Germany, Holland, Hungary, Greece, Italy, Australia, France, Finland, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland, Norway, Yugoslavia) paid a visit to Vietnam.

11. The Historical Museum of Vietnam, together with the Culture and Information Office of Haiphong, excavated a site at Cai Beo (Cat Hai district, 60km to the east of Haiphong). Remains date back to two periods — the Ha Long civilisation, 4000-4500 years ago, and the neo-paleolithic period, 6000-7000 years ago.

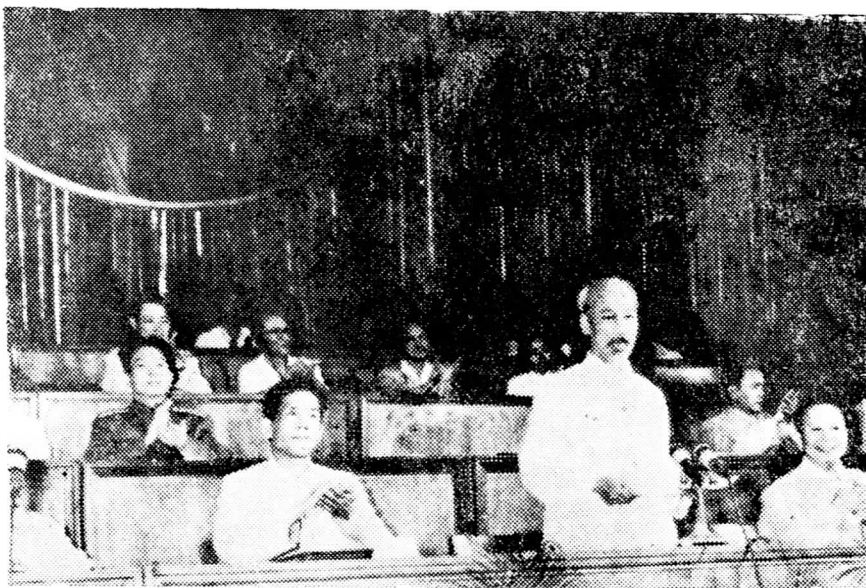
— A delegation of experts from various ministries of the Indian Government including 8 experts on economy, health, science and technology, paid a visit to the three Indochinese countries.

12. A protocol on goods exchange between Vietnam and Cuba was signed in Havana.

15. On the occasion of Nham-Tuat Lunar New year, the Huu Nghi border station, on authority from the Vietnamese government, released 11 Chinese soldiers captured while illegally intruding into Vietnamese territory.



THE NATION WIDE ANTI-FRENCH RESISTANCE AND THE BUILDING OF SOCIALISM IN THE NORTH UNDER THE LEADERSHIP OF THE PARTY:

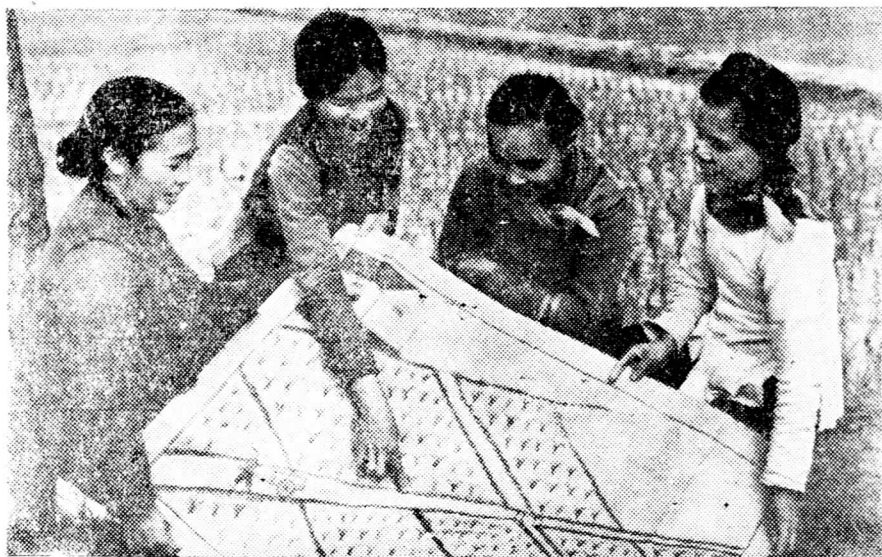


● Women from the delta region on their way to serve in the Dien Bien Phu campaign in 1954.

● The 3rd National Party Congress held in September 1960 — President Ho Chi Minh on the Presidium

● A Party cell in a commune in Thai Binh province discussing a plan for the re-arrangement of rice fields

Photos: VNA



THE WHOLE COUNTRY IN THE PERIOD OF BUILDING SOCIALISM



Insulating electricity in Haiphong port

Photo: BAO HANH

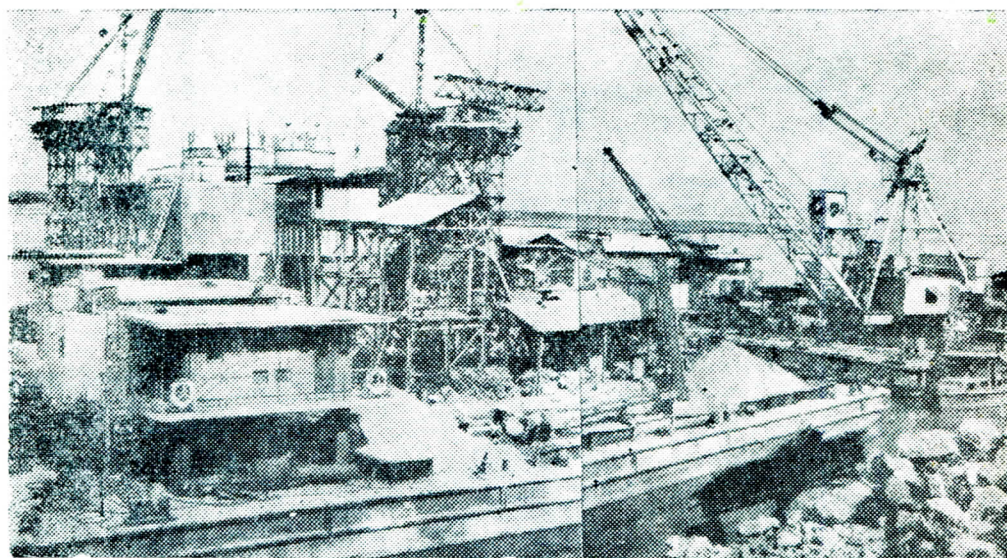


The mulberry field in Van Con co-operative, Hoai Duc district, Hanoi.

Photo: MINH TRONG

Building pillar No. 13
of Thanh Long Bridge on
the Red River.

Photo: CAO PHONG



Vietnam
Courier

Le Courrier
du Vietnam

ROBUSTA
BLETHAMA

El Correo
de Vietnam

Báo đối ngoại

TIN VIỆT NAM

Ra hàng tháng bằng các ngữ Anh, Pháp, Nga, Tây ban nha

Tòa soạn: 46 TRẦN HƯNG ĐẠO, HÀ NỘI

ĐẤY NÓI: 53998

In tại Hà Nội

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