PEOPLE'S CHINA



SUPPLEMENT:

DEPOSITIONS OF 19 CAPTURED U.S. AIR-MEN ON GERM WARFARE AGAINST KOREA $\frac{2}{1953}$

PEOPLE'S CHINA

A FORTNIGHTLY MAGAZINE
Editor: Liu Tsun-chi

CHRONICLES the life of the Chinese people and reports their progress in building a New Democratic society;

DESCRIBES the new trends in Chinese art, literature, science, education and other aspects of the people's cultural life;

SEEKS to strengthen the friendship between the people of China and those of other lands in the cause of peace.

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Women of Inner Mongolia cheering a visiting delegation from Peking

Achievements in Cultural and Educational Work

Kuo Mo-jo

Chairman of the Committee of Cultural and Educational Affairs of the Government Administration Council

IN the four years since the people's power was established, New China has achieved considerable results in reforming and developing cultural and educational work, in close coordination with her various social reforms and economic rehabilitation.

Educational Work

Tremendous progress has been made in educational work in the schools and higher educational institutions throughout the country. The preliminary work of reorganisation and reform has been carried through in the higher educational system. Three-fourths of the institutions of higher learning have reorganised their colleges and departments. They have thus eliminated the irrational diversity of structure that formerly existed in the higher educational institutions of the country, as well as the decentralised and irrational use of the teaching staff and equipment. meantime, institutions for specialised studies have been established so as to train personnel for various fields of national construction in a more systematic and effective The work of teaching-its content. methods and organisation—has been extensively reformed on this basis. More than 90 per cent of the teachers in institutions of higher learning have taken courses in political study as a result of which they have raised their ideological level and understood more clearly the idea of serving the people.

At present, China has 201 institutions of higher learning which are training senior personnel for every branch of national construction. Of these institutions, 21 are universities, while the rest are colleges devoted to such specific studies as industrial engineering, agriculture and forestry, finance and economics, or to training teachers. The stress on specialised education and the reform and establishment of colleges in accordance with the needs of national economic construction have done away with such features of the institutes of higher education of the old China as lack of planning and the divorce of studies from actual conditions and practical tasks.

Particular attention has been paid to education among the national minorities. In addition to the Central Institute for Nationalities in Peking, seven institutes have been established in various parts of the country to train national minority cadres. Various colleges for specialised studies have also been set up in national minority areas to serve their local needs.

This year, the total enrolment in institutions of higher learning all over the country was upwards of 220,000, or 69.8 per cent more than in the year 1949, when the whole country was liberated. This year, 53,000 graduates came from the higher educational institutes, an increase of more than 160 per cent over the highest number who graduated in any one year under the Kuomintang regime (in 1946).

They have all been assigned by the Government to where they are most needed in the various fields of national construction. In making these assignments, their individual preferences and abilities have been taken into account.

The present enrolment in the country's middle schools is over 3,280,000, which is 158.2 per cent more than that of 1949. Of the above number, over 298,000 students are enrolled in secondary technical schools established after the liberation, which is 83 per cent above the 1951 figure. Over 20,000 students are attending short-term secondary schools for workers and peasants. In this way, a foundation has been laid for the training on a planned basis of a still greater number of cadres of worker and peasant origin.

The total enrolment in primary schools now exceeds 55 million, which is 135 per cent more than the highest number reached under the rule of the Kuomintang (in 1946).

Most of the teachers in the school system have also participated in political studies and the work of social reform. Thanks to improvements in the content and methods of training, the standards reached by their students are steadily rising.

The past four years have witnessed remarkable progress in the work of eliminating illiteracy and raising the general cultural level of the masses of workers and peasants. The quick method of learning Chinese characters which was developed by Chi Chien-hua has first of all been popularised in the ranks of the People's Liberation Army. This work has been carried out so that the P.L.A. will be a modernised national defence force with fighters and commanders having a high level of class consciousness and a strong fighting morale as well as a high level of culture.

Considerable results have also been achieved in the work of wiping out illiteracy among cadres of worker and peasant origin and among the industrial workers and peasants. At present, there are about three million workers and employees studying in spare-time schools set up especially for them. These include 535,000 formerly illiterate workers who have now learned to read and write.

In the winter of 1952, about 42 million peasants attended winter schools. The enrolment in year-round rural spare-time schools is about 27 million. By the coming winter, over 2,500,000 of their students will be able to read and write.

Health and Physical Culture*

Health work and physical culture and sports are developing in New China at a pace and on a scale that are unprecedented. Implementation of the policy of emphasis on prophylactic work and epidemic-prevention and the integration of this policy with all mass movements concerning the improvement of sanitation and hygiene, has spread throughout the country. The spread of infectious diseases has been checked to a remarkable extent, and we won a great victory in smashing the bacteriological warfare waged by the U.S. imperialists.

During the movement to resist U.S. aggression and aid Korea, people throughout the country organised more than 100 voluntary medical corps and sanitation work teams which made great contributions to the struggle against U.S. aggression on the Korean front.

There are now over 800 state hospitals in the country. At the end of 1952, there were about 140,000 hospital beds, an increase of 117 per cent over 1950 and 366 per cent over the highest figure under Kuomintang rule (in 1946). County health centres have been set up on a wide scale, averaging almost one for each county. In addition to these, there are district health centres, joint clinics and antiepidemic units. Since July, 1952, free medical service has been extended to personnel working in government offices, people's organisations and the democratic parties.

As a result of widespread epidemic-prevention work, the incidence of infectious

^{*}In the present organisational system of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China, both the Ministry of Public Health and the Academia Sinica (Academy of Sciences) are directed by the Committee of Cultural and Educational Affairs of the Government Administration Council.

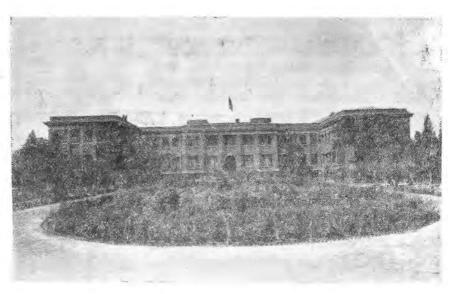
diseases and the mortality rate have steadily declined in recent years. In particular, disease the and mortality rates for infants and pregnant women have been sharply reduced with the establishment of a large number of maternity and child - care centres, clinics modern and midwifery stations.

The Ministry of Public Health has dispatched a great number of health workers to give prophylactic and medical

service to those national minority areas where health conditions are particularly backward. About forty medical centres have been set up in the minority areas and a large number of health workers have been trained from among the national minorities. These serve as a good foundation for the development of health work in national minority areas.

The People's Government pays great attention to the development of physical culture and sports among the people. In response to Chairman Mao Tse-tung's call to "develop physical culture and promote the people's health," various forms of physical culture and sport are being engaged in in schools, government offices and factories. These activities and the regular performance of the daily programme of exercises broadcast over the radio are having excellent effects in higher efficiency in production, work and studies. Physical culture and sports activities have also begun to spread throughout the vast countryside and in areas populated by the national minorities.

More than 300 sports tournaments have been held throughout the country in the past year, with a total of over 250,000 participants. Sports teams have on several occasions been sent abroad to take part in athletic meetings in various countries.



The Academia Sinica, Peking

In order to train a large number of sports personnel, six physical culture institutes have been set up in China this year. They will train a large number of cadres to organise physical culture and sports activities. Sports in New China are no longer a privilege of the few. They are becoming a regular activity of the masses of the people.

Scientific Research

The Academia Sinica (Academy Sciences) organises and directs all scientific research activities in New China. It now includes 36 scientific research organisations, and, compared with 1951, its staff of scientific personnel has increased by nearly 50 per cent. The reorganisation of the various scientific research bodies over the past four years has eliminated the overlapping in their work and facilitated the effective concentration of scientific workers. Scientific research workers have also undertaken courses of political and general ideological education which have eradicated the tendency to divorce scientific research from practical needs. Now scientific research work is being successfully combined with the practical tasks of national economic construction and the strengthening of national defence.

A scientific expedition sent to Tibet following its peaceful liberation in 1951 has considerable achievements to its credit already and is continuing its work there. This year and last year, more than 10 scientific research expeditions have been sent to other areas. The aim of these expeditions is to study the country's mineral and other natural resources. Their data allows the necessary amendments to be made in the national plans of economic construction and facilitate its realisation.

A widespread movement to study the advanced achievements of Soviet science has been launched in every field of research. the course of this study many scientists trained in bourgeois schools have succeeded in rectifying their erroneous and conservative views. Considerable results have been obtained in the study of the manufacture of nodular iron of great durability, synthetic rubber and liquid fuels, in the study of weather forecasting, of conservation of soil and water resources, and soil amelioration, the prevention and elimination of plant diseases and insect pests, the propagation of marine products, etc., as well as geological survey work. To ensure the safety of capital construction projects, of factories and mines in areas subject to earth tremors, the Academia Sinica is planning to set up a seismological station in the Northwest. while, a training class for seismologists has been organised there.

In February this year, the Academia Sinica sent a delegation to the Soviet Union on the invitation of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. The delegation returned in May after studying the work of scientific research institutions in the U.S.S.R. The experience brought back by the delegates has already done much to promote and improve scientific research work in China.

The work of disseminating scientific and technical knowledge among the masses is also being energetically developed.

Culture and Art

In New China, the new culture and art of the people has already in the main displaced the decadent feudal and reactionary bourgeois

comprador culture and art which prevailed in the old China. We have built up our own film industry which, during the past four years, has produced over 120 feature films and documentaries in addition to the dubbing in Chinese of over 100 films produced in the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies. There has been a considerable increase in the number of cinemas and particularly of mobile The cinema, which is film projection teams. an entertainment medium of great cultural and educational significance, is becoming more widely available not only to the working people in the cities but is penetrating ever more deeply into factories, mines and villages, and to the hinterland and border areas of the country.

Following Chairman Mao Tse-tung's call, "Discard what has outlived its time, develop the new, let all flowers blossom," there has been an overall development of theatrical arts, including the drama, the opera, folk-singing, dancing and acrobatics. The first steps have been taken in reforming the content and form of the various types of theatrical art. In particular, the All-China Drama Festival and the All-China Folk Music and Dance Festival, held respectively in the autumn of 1952 and the spring of 1953, have greatly spurred the improvement and further development of the local operatic arts and the widespread development of cultural and artistic activities among the people. They have also helped the promotion of the traditional arts of the nation on the basis of critical selection. The leading role of the ideology of the working class in culture and art has been further strengthened following the extensive ideological remoulding campaign among workers in this field.

At present, there are more than 2,400 cultural palaces and houses of culture in the country; nearly every county now has one. More than 4,400 cultural stations have been set up in districts below the county level.

Parallel with the ever-increasing cultural demands of the people and the development of various cultural facilities, publishing enterprises, the people's broadcasting stations and the Hsinhua News Agency have made tremendous forward strides in their work. In

the field of publication of books and periodicals, the Central People's Government and the local governments of the six great administrative areas, the provinces and other administrative units have established state-owned publishing enterprises; the circulation network has been widened; specialisation and division of labour have been put into practice in the spheres of publication, printing and circulation; privatelyowned publishing houses have, in accordance with this, been reorganised. These measures save manpower and help to eliminate publications of inferior quality. Publishing houses and the branches and sub-branches of the Hsinhua Bookstore are increasing in number throughout the country. The quality of books. periodicals, pictures, posters and pictorials circulated at home and abroad has improved; and their circulation is growing.

The Hsinhua News Agency has further consolidated and expanded its organisations both at home and abroad. It is playing a vital role as the state news agency. The people's broadcasting stations have added programmes broadcast in several foreign languages, in the languages of China's national minorities and in certain local dialects. This has made its home and overseas services still more effective.

National and local newspapers have made steady progress in editing, content, lay-out and printing. A more clearly defined division of labour has been introduced among national newspapers. Newspapers, featuring local coverage, have been developed on the great administrative area, provincial and municipal levels, and in some cases in special regions and counties. Special newspapers for industrial and mining areas have also been improved.

Cultural Relations With Abroad

China has established wide cultural relations with foreign countries. During the last four years, we have sent many cultural delegations abroad and held many exhibitions there. At the same time, a number of cultural delegations, cultural troupes, song and dance ensembles and delegations of artists have been invited to visit China, while many foreign exhibitions of various kinds have been held in the country. Progress has also been made in

the exchange of students, books, periodicals and films, etc. All this has greatly facilitated the study of the advanced experience of the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies and our cultural intercourse with other countries. In order to promote mutual understanding and friendship between the people of China and other countries and the strengthening of world peace, we will make still greater efforts to develop cultural exchange between nations.

These activities in the field of culture and education over the past four years have helped to raise the political consciousness and cultural level of the masses of the people and have thereby contributed a great deal to the economic rehabilitation and development of the country. These achievements are inseparable from the leadership of the Communist Party of China, the Central People's Government and Chairman Mao Tse-tung. They are also inseparable from the efforts of all those engaged in the work of culture and education, science and health, press and publications, and of the people of the whole country.

Nevertheless, these achievements fall far short of the needs of our country and of the ever-increasing cultural demands of the people. Now that we have embarked upon large-scale planned economic construction, it is all the more imperative for us to overcome short-comings and difficulties in our cultural and educational work, and bring about its further advance.

The plan for cultural and educational work in 1953, the first year of the first five-year plan, was drawn up in accordance with the general line for cultural and educational work proposed by the conference of the chairmen of the committees of cultural and educational affairs of the great administrative areas, convened in January, 1953 by the Committee of Cultural and Educational Affairs of the Government Administration Council. The general line is "to improve and consolidate existing achievements in various fields, develop the key aspects of work, raise the quality of work done and advance steadily." This plan has been put into execution. Its implementation thus far has shown that it is in general accord with actual conditions. We are now working energetically for its fulfilment.

A New Life for the People Of Inner Mongolia

Chang Hung-fan

THE Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region, ■ situated in the northernmost part of China, covers an area of some 640,000 square kilometres and has a population of over 2,500,000 people. More than half of its area is steppeland that is well suited to animal husbandry. The best pastures are on the Hulunbuir and Silingol Steppes. Here, in the springtime, the vast expanse of verdant grass stretches away to the horizon like a sea of green. Cool breezes ripple its surface like wavelets. Herds of quietly grazing sheep, cattle, horses and camels and the scattered herdsmens' yurts make a picture of pastoral peace. Here and there appears a flurry of swift movement as a herdsman gallops his tough little Mongolian pony to gather in a strayed member of his flock. As dusk sets in, with the animals in their pens and folds, camp fires flicker beside the yurts. In the starry, silent night you hear the songs of the steppes accompanied by the melodious notes of the matouchin.*

The Disastrous Past

For many centuries in the past, the people of Inner Mongolia were subjected to the ruth-less oppression and exploitation of the feudal ruling class.

The reactionary rulers of old China in their turn pursued a policy of brutal oppression of the Mongolian nationality. They sowed discord among the Mongolians and other fraternal peoples of the country. Inter-marriage between them was forbidden. Hindrances were raised against trade and cultural intercourse; feudal ideas and superstitions were actively fostered. The domination of the reactionary lamaist hierarchy was utilised to keep the people in a state of ignorance and backwardness. Every Mongolian family was obliged to send at least one son to join a lama monastery. At least one out of every five Mon-

golians was a lama who neither took a wife nor engaged in productive labour; in other words, some 20 per cent of the able-bodied population was condemned to live a parasitic life in the monasteries.

Infectious diseases, especially plague, scourged the people. The Japanese imperialists when they invaded the country even artificially spread this horror. On the eve of their surrender in 1945, they widely disseminated plague bacteria in Inner Mongolia, as a result of which plague epidemics were rampant right up until the time of the liberation. Over 13,000 people died from plague in Inner Mongolia in 1947.

Venereal disease, another killer spawned by the past, was causing a steady decline in the birthrate. In some areas, the population was reduced by over 60 per cent within eighteen years.

Taxes too lay a heavy burden on the people. Taxes claimed one out of every three sheep raised by a herdsman. Year by year the number of cattle on Inner Mongolia's pasturelands declined as a result of the merciless exploitation of the ruling class, epidemics, the ravages of wolves and snowstorms. In Hulunbuir, in more than twenty years from 1919 to the eve of liberation, the number of sheep was reduced by two-thirds, and of cattle by threefourths. The peasants of the agricultural areas of Inner Mongolia, as in all other parts of the country, suffered from the exploitation of the landlord class. They toiled the year round and at best they lived on coarse grain. They were clad in rags. Under the old regime, the people of Inner Mongolia were reduced to the depths of misery and want. They perished uncared for, from disease and hunger.

Dawn of Liberation

On the steppes of Inner Mongolia, especially in the eastern parts, you can hear today epic folk songs extolling the deeds of Katamei-

^{*} A stringed instrument of the Mongolian people.

lin, who headed the struggle of the people against the forces of the warlords and feudalists.

In 1928, when the warlord Chang Tso-lin lorded it over Inner Mongolia, he and his henchmen, in collaboration with traitors among the Mongolian people, seized the pastures of the herdsmen and pillaged their flocks and herds. Many herdsmen were made homeless and faced starvation. It was then that the people rose in revolt under the leadership of Katameilin.

There were many such people's revolts in Inner Mongolia. But they all ended in tragic failure. It was only after the founding of the Communist

Party of China that the liberation movement of Inner Mongolia became a part of China's new democratic revolutionary movement and entered a new stage of victorious development.

Beginning with the First Revolutionary Civil War (1924-27), the Mongolian people, led by the Communist Party of China, launched an unwavering revolutionary struggle for liberation from the yoke of the warlords, feudal rulers, Kuomintang reactionaries and Japanese imperialists. The Party trained up many fine revolutionary fighters in the course of these struggles, men dedicated to the cause of the people. Outstanding among them is Ulanfu, now Chairman of the local People's Government of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region. For 28 years he has selflessly devoted his life to the cause of the emancipation of the people of Inner Mongolia and of all China.

After Japan surrendered in 1945, the people of Inner Mongolia rallied to the call for unity made by Ulanfu and succeeded in repelling the attacks launched against them by the Chiang Kai-shek gang.

At a People's Representative Conference held in April, 1947, the Inner Mongolian Autonomous People's Government was elected with Ulanfu as its chairman. This was an historic event. It marked the dawn of a new day in the life of the Inner Mongolian people, who, from that moment, were free to begin the build-



Inner Mongolia's first women's survey team which began work in the forests of the Great Khingan Mountains in September, 1953

ing of their new, happy life on the basis of national regional autonomy. The establishment of the autonomous region was acclaimed by the people with joy. Popular sentiment was well expressed in the words of one of the delegates to the people's representative conference of a banner. "In all my long life," he said, "I've often heard talk of democracy. But I didn't believe it could be a fact. But this time it's different. We have not only elected the leader of our banner but are also consulted with on all things. We have indeed become the masters of our land!"

Since then the work of building up the people's state power has been energetically pushed ahead. People's representative conferences have been convened in each banner. In some places the people's representative conferences have developed to exercise the functions and powers of people's congresses. They have elected the council members of people's governments at banner, county and municipal level. Representatives of all nationalities and all social strata in the region have participated in every phase of their work. Workers, herdsmen, farmers, and also merchants, herdowners, lamas and others have been represented. In the process of building the state power, no less than 15,000 labouring people have been trained to do the work of government, and many of them now occupy leading posts in various organs of the people's governments.

The consistent realisation of national regional autonomy in Inner Mongolia has found expression in the fact that, with the gaining of national autonomy by the Mongolian people, more than 10 other national minorities in the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region Olunchuns, Solons, Koreans, Huis, Tibetans, Manchus, etc.) have also won full rights of autonomy. In conformity with the desires of these national groups and local conditions, their own autonomous banners or districts have been set up. The Olunchun people in the northern part of the Greater Khingan Mountains, for instance, with a population of less than 1,000 people, have also set up their People's Government of the Olunchun Autonomous Banner. In places where many nationalities live together, united national democratic governments have been set up and even nationalities with small populations are represented on these bodies. Every nationality in Inner Mongolia today enjoys equal political rights and unity between them has thus been achieved. The national hatreds stirred up by the reactionary rulers of the past have disappeared.

All the peoples of Inner Mongolia have prepared with the greatest enthusiasm for the general elections which are now being held there under the Electoral Law promulgated this year by the Central People's Government. The first elections have already been held between April and August this year in 23 banners, seven counties and four municipalities. They have served as an excellent guide to those that will follow and have shown the high level of political activity of the emancipated people.

Development of Animal Husbandry

One of the first tasks of the new People's Government of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region was to improve the livelihood of the herdsmen. All those in need received effective help from the people's government in the form of loans and loaned cattle, waterwheels, grass-cutting machines, etc. In the first seven months of this year alone, the People's Government of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region distributed loans in money and kind to a total value of 15,000 million yuan.

In conformity with the social and economic characteristics of the pastoral areas of Inner Mongolia, the People's Government of the Autonomous Region has pursued a policy that

secures the economic interests of the working herdsmen as well as of the herdowners. feudal rights and privileges which the big herdowners formerly enjoyed have been ended, but their property rights and their legal economic activity are not restricted. This policy ensures the swift development of animal husbandry. At the same time the people's government has adopted and carried out a series of measures for the protection of livestock and These include proto encourage breeding. tecting and improving pastures; cattle pens, protecting the herds from winter winds and snow, exterminating wolves, providing new water sources for the cattle, waging a large-scale and systematic campaign against animal diseases and for the timely insemination and mating of cattle. The people's government has instituted freedom of grazing for all herdsmen's livestock. At the same time it has recommended the herdsmen to settle down at some place as a base and home in order that the most favourable conditions may be created for the care of their animals and for the gradual transition of the herdsmen to a settled mode of life.

As a result of these measures, the death rate of both adult and young cattle has sharply declined. In 1952, every herdsman throughout the entire area had, on an average, 64 head of cattle, that is, double that of the pre-liberation years. The increase of livestock attained during the last six years would normally have needed between 15-20 years to achieve even in the most prosperous years of pre-liberation times.

For 20 years before liberation, Michiteh, a 51-year-old herdsman of Hulunbuir, tended cattle for the rich cattle owners. But he did not possess a single sheep of his own. He suffered constant insults and maltreatment at the hands of his masters. In those days he could only dream of a better life. After liberation, however, that dream came true. The People's Government helped him start a herd, and now he has more than 450 sheep and 30 cows. Michiteh is typical of the herdsmen of Inner Mongolia today whose free labour is advancing them to prosperity.

Agricultural Areas

Agriculture plays an important part in the economy of Inner Mongolia. There are vast

stretches of fertile arable land in the eastern and southeastern parts. The western section of the Sungliao plain is known as the agricultural centre of the Region. At the present time 80 per cent of the Region's population is engaged in raising crops.

The landless and landpoor peasants of the Region received their own land during the land reform which was carried out in 1947 and 1948. Since then they have displayed an unprecedented keenness in raising production and improving their farming techniques. Before the liberation they used the most primitive farm methods. They used no fertilisers, nor did they select seeds for sowing. Now they have begun to use modern farming implements and methods; they are building water conservancy projects and organising various types of cooperative farming on a voluntary and mutually beneficial basis. Seventy per cent of the peasants are now working in mutual-aid teams and 15 agricultural producers' co-operatives have been established. The output of grain has increased steadily. In 1952, the grain harvest in Inner Mongolia already surpassed by 25 per cent the peak output in pre-liberation years.

The agricultural producers' co-operative at Liuchiatzetun Village of the Ahyung Banner is a typical illustration of the great improvements in peasant life in Inner Mongolia.



A class at work in the Institute of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Medicine, one of first established at Kueisui, in 1952 in the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region

In pre-liberation years, there were six landlord and rich peasant households in Liuchiatzetun Village. Not one of the 21 poor peasant households owned land or cattle. All the peasants toiled for the landlords and rich peasants the year round, but lived a life of hunger and poverty. Following the land reform, the peasants of the village received land and developed the campaign to increase production. They organised themselves into mutual-aid teams and later formed an agricultural producers' cooperative which is now one of the best in Inner Mongolia. In the short space of the few years since the liberation, they have freed themselves from poverty and begun to enjoy a life of increasing plenty. Luan Ke-chang, a labour model, was formerly the poorest peasant in the village, with neither land nor cattle. He toiled for the landlord the year round and yet at the time of liberation he was still in debt to Land reform finally released him from poverty and hunger. Now, he already has four horses and the necessary farm tools in addition to land received during the land reform.

Inner Mongolian Forestry

The Khingan Mountains in the eastern part of Inner Mongolia form one of the biggest forest areas in China. It is three times the size of Belgium, and contains many kinds of coniferous and broad-leaved trees.

In the past, however, this natural treasure was ruthlessly exploited and destroyed. The area around Ulanhot, for example, was still a vast stretch of impenetrable forest only 60 years ago; but at the time of liberation, it was a bare, almost treeless land.

With the establishment of the people's power in Inner Mongolia, the forestry workers set about the task of utilising the timber resources of the Great Khingan area according to proper economic principles. They have displayed great enthusiasm and creativeness in applying scientific methods to their work. A large-scale felling programme is being systematically carried out there.

The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region has reserves of more than 1,000 million cubic feet of timber of all kinds. Timber is felled according to plan. Seed is selected for re-afforestation, saplings are carefully preserved and an energetic campaign is waged against forest fires. A branch line of the Chinese-Changchun Railway has been completed, running from Yakoshih, a station in the eastern part of the Hulunbuir prairieland, into the heart of the forests in the Great Khingan. All these measures have been designed to make the Great Khingan Mountains one of the main sources of timber supplies for the great construction projects of New China.

Cultural and Economic Prosperity

Every autumn the people of Inner Mongolia celebrate their traditional festival, the *Natamu*. "Natamu" means "happiness" in Mongolian, but it was only after the liberation that the *Natamu* really became a festival of joy, an occasion when the people could review their swift progress in the building of a new life, a celebration of the happiness that has come to the Mongolian steppes with the liberation.

Several days before the festivities begin, the people drive in from miles around. They bring flocks of sheep, herds of cattle and horses, bales of furs and skins and large quantities of other local products and handicrafts. The trading companies and co-operatives set up additional sales and purchasing stations at the fairs.

In the past, unscrupulous merchants shamelessly robbed the people. Exploiting the needs of the herdsmen, they bought up their cattle, skins, wool and other products of animal husbandry for a song and sold them daily necessities at inflated prices. For instance, a cow could be bought in exchange for a pipe, a sheep skin would change hands for three ounces of wine.

Now the state purchasing stations buy local products, and at the same time co-operatives and state trading enterprises make available food grains and other daily necessities at reasonable prices. Under the policy adopted by the Communist Party and the People's Government, agriculture and animal husbandry are developing rapidly, and trade is expanding as never before. At the *Natamu* fair in the

Silingol League in 1952, the trading companies and co-operatives purchased livestock products valued at 2,500 million yuan and sold manufactured goods and foodstuffs worth 1,600 million yuan. Now the purchasing power of the herdsmen and farmers in Inner Mongolia has almost quadrupled in comparison with 1948.

Exhibitions at the *Natamu* fairs show the successes of Inner Mongolia in cultural construction. Health organisations have been set up in all the banners, counties and municipalities in Inner Mongolia. The number of health workers in the Region has increased by 63 times compared with pre-liberation days. Plague, which was endemic there, has been in the main eliminated. Considerable progress has been made in stopping the spread of venereal diseases. The population, which was declining, is now again on the upgrade.

Inner Mongolia now has over 3,700 primary schools, four times more than in preliberation years, and over 20 middle schools. There are now three higher educational institutions where before there was not a single one.

The Mongolian language was forbidden under the old reactionary rule. Now it is used in all government official announcements side by side with the Han language. It is used for lessons in all schools. There is now a daily newspaper in the Mongolian language, and books, pamphlets and magazines have already been published in editions totalling over 2,700,000 copies.

A big role in the people's cultural life is now played by the people's clubs and the mobile cinema teams. At the same time, national song and dance troupes and many local amateur dramatic troupes have been organised. The increasing numbers of schools and cultural institutions show the swift advance of cultural activities in Inner Mongolia.

From the *Natamu* to the pastures of Inner Mongolia, to the hamlets and towns and forests, you can hear the following song:

Flowers of many kinds bloom on the fertile hills:

Our freedom was gained by the strength of the Communist Party.

As the sunflowers follow the sun,

to the glory of the Party that has led them

So we too, follow the Communist Party.

These are the words of the people, sung

along the road to a new and happy life.

People's China

Battle for the Latsekou Pass

Liu Yi

This is the fourth and last article of our series describing episodes in the 25,000 li Long March of the Chinese People's Red Army. The author, a participant, describes the important battle for the strategic Latsekou Pass, in which the Chinese Red Army defeated the Kuomintang troops sent to destroy it in the area where the borders of Szechuan, Kansu and Chinghai Provinces meet.

The victory the Red Army gained at the Latsekou Pass opened the way for their march to the northern part of Shensi Province and the establishment of the famous Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Region. It was from here, with headquarters at Yenan, that the Chinese Communist Party organised the people's forces in the War of Resistance to Japanese Aggression.

A FTER crossing the treacherous bogs of the Grasslands of northwest Szechuan Province, the Chinese Workers' and Peasants' Red Army arrived, in September, 1935, in the area where the borders of Szechuan, Kansu and Chinghai Provinces meet. Here we learnt that the Kuomintang troops were in great haste constructing defensive positions at the strategic Latsekou Pass. The enemy evidently planned to stop our northward march here, to contain

NINGSIA

SUIYUAN

SHANSU

CHING

CHIN

CHING

CHING

CHING

CHING

CHING

CHING

CHING

CHING

CHING

Sketch map showing the march of the Red Army through the Latsekou Pass to the Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Region

the Red Army in this wild and desolate area, and then destroy it.

It was clear that the Red Army would have to march with the utmost speed to surprise the enemy and capture the Pass and develop the victory to clear the road ahead of all enemy troops who stood in the way. The next objective of our march was Minhsien County, Kansu Province. From here the road lay open for a relatively easy advance into Shensi Province, to the advance base we aimed to reach to organise the War of Resistance to Japanese Aggression.

But, for the Red Army to advance into Minhsien County, it was essential to keep the Latsekou Pass open.

It fell to our regiment to lead the way and storm and hold the Latsekou Pass.

Leaving the banks of the Pailung River, at 11 o'clock on the night of September 15 our regiment set out on its mission.

We first advanced up a tributary of the Pailung River, probing forward along the river bank and the mountainside. Some two miles on, the mountain path we marched on was cut by a water-course. Only a small log bridge spanned the narrow stream, and this reduced the speed of our march. But by daybreak the whole unit had cautiously crossed over the bridge. There was no interference from the enemy and all the indications were that the advance of our regiment had not been dis-

covered. The bridge safely crossed, we now had to march with quickened speed to make up for lost time.

Ahead were more mountains. Slowly and laboriously our advance unit climbed up the barren hillsides. As we were nearing the highest part of the trail, the weather suddenly changed. Leaden clouds quickly gathered in the sky and a wind from the north howled and blew. Torrential rain mixed with hail and snow flakes followed. The mountain ranges far and near were engulfed and disappeared. But there was no time to halt and take shelter from the storm. The Latsekou Pass had to be taken and taken swiftly.

As night fell we left the mountains. We had advanced more than 40 miles. At this rate it would take us less than a day to get to our objective.

A misty drizzle enshrouded the hills; the cold wind of late autumn blew over the mountains and valleys. After a brief pause to muster and rest, the march forward continued. At daybreak, we came to a stretch of virgin forest with a thick undergrowth of brambles and thorny shrubs. Everywhere were rotten This dense weeds and withered branches. forest seemed impassable. From all appearances this place had never seen the footsteps of a human being. But retreat or a halt were out of the question. According to our compass and our estimate of the distance covered, the Pass ought not to be very far from the We cut our way through the underforest. growth.

The First Engagement

Once out again into the open, we quickened our steps and marched in a northeasterly direction. Scarcely an hour had passed when an advance patrol reported that a battalion of enemy troops were building defence works to the left of the advance of our forces. Judging from the situation this was clearly only a forward defence position; the main enemy force would probably be located at the Pass itself. It had not occurred to the enemy, however, that the Red Army would advance at such an amazing speed. Our plan to approach the perimeter of the enemy's ambush swiftly and secretly, had succeeded.

The obvious step now was to mount a surprise attack in force and annihilate the Chiang Kai-shek troops.

Our regimental commander immediately ordered two companies to launch a frontal attack while one battalion was to outflank the enemy and cut its line of retreat.

The attack began. We hurled grenades among the enemy. Taken completely by surprise and being unable to organise any effective resistance, the enemy troops fled in utter confusion. But unfortunately the outflanking battalion failed to arrive at the appointed positions in time, and the greater part of the enemy troops were able to escape. The whole engagement lasted for only 20 minutes. Our triumphant Red Army fighters went in hot pursuit of the enemy troops.

When we neared Lito Village we saw the imposing mountain peaks which flank the Latsekou Pass looming large in the distance. A reconnaissance patrol reported that an enemy group in about battalion strength was lying in ambush behind hills to the left of our marching columns. We guessed that the enemy was well-prepared and waiting, and would launch a sudden assault on our flank as soon as we came within firing range.

A halt was ordered. One company was then assigned to tackle the enemy battalion in ambush. They discharged their mission with speed and superb efficiency. Taking advantage of slopes and trees, these fighters approached the enemy without being discovered. In a short and sharp attack, including a fierce exchange of fire, a grenade attack and hand-to-hand fighting, the enemy unit was smashed and the attempted ambush came to nothing.

According to a prisoner taken during this encounter, the Latsekou Pass area was being defended by three regiments of Kuomintang troops, sheltered behind strong defence works. We therefore anticipated hard and fierce fighting. At four in the afternoon, our forces resumed their march towards the Latsekou Pass.

The Pass itself is a deep ravine running between perpendicular precipices which extend to the left and right for some considerable distance. Through the midst of the ravine runs a foaming but shallow stream 30 metres wide, which finally rushes out of the Pass in a southeasterly direction. On the east bank, where the enemy controlled the hills, was the path leading to Minhsien County.

As soon as we drew near, the enemy went into action firing at us from the safety of their

rock and concrete redoubts which were located about halfway up the hillsides. Bullets whizzed through the air with long reverberating echoes. The enemy was attempting to pin our tired troops down in order to gain time to concentrate enough forces to wipe us out in these deserted hills. Under these circumstances we had to push our way forward. Somehow, we had to win the day.

After a careful survey of the situation, our commanding officers made the decision to attack the same night.

The Attack

At nine in the evening, the First Company, to which I belonged, and the Second Company were ordered to cross the stream, gain the high east bank, and attack the enemy from the rear. From the Sixth Company, twenty valiant fighters were chosen. They would pretend to be a unit launching a frontal attack in force, but their real purpose would be to distract the enemy's attention from the operations of the First and Second Companies.

Having crossed the stream, the men of my Company and the Second Company, unseen, scaled the face of the sheer cliffs on the east bank of the stream. With the aid of puttees twisted into a long rope and clinging to rugged rocks and bushes, we slowly and painfully made our way up the precipices. Some of our comrades fell to their deaths during this dangerous mission, but finally we stole into the enemy's rear in the depths of the night without having been discovered.

While we were making our way up the cliffs, the handful of steeled fighters of the Sixth Company began their assault on the enemy. It was midnight. The sound of rifle fire and exploding grenades shattered and filled the cold night air; the flashes of the explosions dazzled the eyes; and the smoke spread out into the narrow valley.

The 20 fighters of the Sixth Company launched five attacks during the night. They fulfilled their assignment perfectly. The enemy was confident that they had the advantage of the terrain and that they could not be dislodged by any attack from the front. So they sat tight and concentrated on repulsing these attacks. Excited by what they believed was their success, the enemy yelled and cursed. They were waiting for daybreak. For, they thought, when day broke, the Red Army fighters would

be fully exposed to their fire, and would be left with only one alternative—to be wiped out.

It did not seem very long before a streak of grey appeared in the skies. It was dawning. It was at this moment that we of the First and Second Companies launched a fierce onslaught on the enemy rear. The 20 fighters of the Sixth Company also seized the opportunity to launch another attack. The sound of battle shook the valley.

Surprised by our sudden appearance in their rear and the attack from two sides, the enemy was confused and completely lost the initiative. After a fierce fight, we ousted them from their stronghold and they fled to the north. Triumphantly we charged the hills and hoisted the Red Flag over the Latsekou Pass. The Red Army had won yet another victory.

In their retreat the enemy tried several times to put up a resistance by taking advantage of the natural cover afforded by hills, but every time we gave them a beating which made them retreat all the faster.

In their flight the Kuomintang troops left behind many wounded, a large amount of ammunition, foodstuffs and military supplies along the 40 miles between the Latsekou Pass and Minhsien County. We pursued them relentlessly without pause right up to Minhsien County. From there we marched to the northeast and after several more battles reached the northern part of Shensi Province. Not long after this the Central Red Army arrived at Yenan. This became the main centre of the famous Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Region. There, under the leadership of Chairman Mao Tse-tung, were established the central organs of the Communist Party of China and the headquarters of the people's forces. from Yenan that the people's forces were directed to final victory in the War of Resistance to Japanese Aggression and throughout the greater part of the War of Liberation of the Chinese people against the reactionary rulers and their imperialist backers.

Many were the heroes who suffered untold hardships and gave their lives on that great Long March of 25,000 li over snowcapped peaks, across rushing mountain torrents, desolate grasslands and through enemy encirclements and ambushes. But glorious were the fruits of the victory that were gained. It was the final liberation of the Chinese people.

New Evidence of U.S. Germ War Crimes

Liang Yu-pao

GENERAL Omar Bradley, former Chairman of the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff, General Hoyt S. Vandenberg, former Chief of Staff of the U.S. Air Force, General J. Lawton Collins, former Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army, and Admiral Forrest Sherman, ex-Chief of Naval Operations, of the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff, were directly involved in planning and preparing for the waging of bacteriological warfare in Korea and China. This fact of the dark inside story of U.S. aggression in Korea, which emerged from the earlier exposures by six captured U.S. Air Force men,* is further documented by the depositions of 19 other U.S. airmen recently made public by the Korean and Chinese authorities.

These depositions, the texts of which are published in the special supplement to this issue of *People's China*, add to the evidence of the U.S. Government's role in launching germ warfare in Korea and China—a barbarous and cruel crime committed in total disregard of normal human standards and all the principles of international law. For this crime, the horror of which cannot be minimised, the U.S. Government stands accused and condemned before the bar of world opinion.

Decision of the JCS

The fact that germ warfare was carried out on the decision of the highest-ranking military men at the Pentagon is once more confirmed by Colonel Walker M. Mahurin, a man who participated in the germ war plot all the way from the planning stage to the day he was captured in Korea. Mahurin was Chief

* The evidence of 1st Lt. John Quinn and 1st Lt. Kenneth Lloyd Enoch, U.S. Air Force, was published as a supplement to the May 16, 1952 issue of People's China; of 2nd Lt. Floyd B. O'Neal, U.S. Air Force Reserve, in the November 1, 1952 issue; of 1st Lt. Paul R. Kniss, U.S. Air Force, in the December 16, 1952 issue; and of Colonel Frank H. Schwable and Major Roy H. Bley of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing, U.S. Marine Corps in a supplement to the March 16, 1953 issue.

of the Fighter Section of the Strategic Air Division and later on Assistant Executive in the office of Thomas K. Finletter, the former U.S. Secretary of the Air Force. Mahurin has stated that in November, 1950, he was told by Colonel Teal, the Deputy-Executive of the Office of the Air Force, that:

The high military leaders such as General Bradley, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, General Vandenberg, the Chief of Staff of the Air Force, General Collins, the Chief of Staff of the Army, and Admiral Sherman, the Chief of Operations of the Navy considered that germ warfare weapons were effective and yet inexpensive and should be developed to take a place in the general field of weapons. Although the Korean War was progressing satisfactorily at that time the future was unknown so the Bacteriological Warfare program was being brought into the experimental development stage because of the uncertainty of the future events.

In October, 1951, however, Mahurin was informed by Major General Saville, who was working under the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations, U.S. Air Force, that "instructions had been received from high authorities of the Department of Defence and the Joint Chiefs of Staff that a limited campaign of germ warfare would be started in Korea. The instructions had reached the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations, USAF after passing through the office of the Chief of Staff of the Air Force General Vandenberg."

Mahurin's statement coincides with those of the other captured U.S. airmen. In his deposition, released earlier, Colonel Frank H. Schwable, the former Chief of Staff of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing, U.S. Marine Corps, also said:

The general plan for bacteriological warfare in Korea was directed by the United States Joint Chiefs of Staff in October, 1951.

This directive was passed down by General Matthew Ridgway, who was then in command of the "U.N." forces invading Korea, and General O. P. Weyland, Commander of the U.S. Far East Air Force. Now we learn that another captured Air Force officer, Colonel

Andrew J. Evans, Jr., the former Deputy Commanding Officer of the 58th Fighter-Bomber Wing, quoted the words of Brigadier-General Warburton, the Deputy Commanding General of the 5th Air Force, to the effect that the germ-war activities of the 5th Air Force "started with the decision of the Joint Chiefs of Staff in October, 1951, to run experiments with the weapons that had then been developed by the Air Force" and that "following the success of these tests, formal approval was given and regular missions started in December, 1951."

Attacks on China

In the same month—December, 1951—the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff made a further decision to spread germ warfare to Northeast China. This is substantiated by Mahurin's statement:

From the 10th of January 1952 on we began to get periodic instructions for germ missions from Headquarters, Fifth Air Force. While I was with the 51st Wing we received an average of 10 germ missions per month, two or three of which went North of the Yalu River.

Earlier, to test the effects of their bacteriological weapons, the invading U.S. forces had fiendishly used captured personnel of the Korean People's Army and the Chinese People's Volunteers as human guinea pigs. It is a known fact that captured Chinese and Korean personnel were dragged aboard the death ship, the U.S. Landing Craft 1091, which first anchored off the port of Wonsan in March, 1951 and later off Koje Island, to undergo experiments testing the effects of various kinds of germ weapons.

It was after carrying out protracted experiments and tests that the U.S. Government was all set for waging full-fledged bacteriological warfare. When the U.S. invading forces suffered reverses on the battlefield, the U.S. high command decided without hesitation to employ bacteriological weapons against Korea and China.

"When our government saw that we couldn't win the war in Korea with only the armed forces we had, we decided to use germ warfare," declared Second Lieutenant Charles M. Kerr, another captured U.S. Air Force officer, quoting the words of Major James McIntyre, his training officer. A fourth, Second Lieutenant Vance R. Frick, further explained that the U.S. military authorities tried to use germ warfare to retrieve the

defeat of the U.S. Air Force in its "Operation Strangle." He said they believed that "the Chinese and North Korean troops had vastly superior numbers which was too much for our army to cope with. And their army was too well dug in to hurt them with normal bombs, so we must use something that would get to them. The answer lay in our effective use of germ bombs."

Purpose of U.S. Germ War

Mahurin himself, in a lecture on germ war he made to the pilots in January, 1952, said that the general situation in Korea had resulted in a stalemate both on the ground and in the peace talks. As a result, the only way a successful conclusion of the war could be reached would be by the use of air power. And he told the pilots that "directions had been received by high authorities that would, and, in fact, had begun a campaign of germ warfare. Through this method it has hoped that the peace talks might be influenced and a successful outcome might result."

The purpose of the germ attacks south of the Yalu River, he explained was "to contaminate the areas along the rail lines with diseases by germ-infected fleas, flies and mosquitoes and prevent repairs," whereas the objective of these attacks in Northeast China was "to contaminate the area with diseased insects to prevent the flow of supplies to Korea and to disrupt the industrial activities there."

This again confirms Schwable's statement that in May, 1952, a directive from General Barcus, then commanding the 5th Air Force, said "a contamination belt was to be established across Korea in an effort to make the interdiction program effective in stopping enemy supplies from reaching the front lines."

Germ war against communications was carried on in co-ordination with the so-called "Operation Strangle" by which the U.S. Air Force tried to disrupt contact between the front and the rear on the Korean-Chinese side and thus influence the truce negotiations being conducted at Panmunjom. By imposing added pressure, by hitting with this new "terror weapon" directly at the civilian rear, the Americans hoped to obtain the success which they had hitherto failed to get either on the battlefield or at the conference table. The depositions of Mahurin and others prove that

germ warfare was part of Washington's general strategic plan.

U.S. germ warfare reached its climax in June and July of 1952 when all the wings of the 5th Air Force took part in such criminal operations. All units of the U.S. Air Forces in Korea listed germ warfare as one of their training courses.

However, as a result of the heroic efforts of the Korean and Chinese people, "Operation Strangle" ended in a fiasco and germ warfare failed to achieve the results dreamed of by the U.S. invaders.

In November, 1952, General Vandenberg, then Chief of Staff of the U.S. Air Force, accompanied by General Barcus, personnally came to Korea to check up on the progress of germ warfare.

Disappointed at the results, Vandenberg directed the 5th Air Force to make better use of fighter-bombers for night germ-war missions.

On January 10, 1953, a large-scale attack planned directly by Washington was launched on the Sinanju area by the 5th Air Force. In this attack four planes from each fighter-bomber wing, four from each marine air group and two planes of the B-26 type were used daily to carry germ weapons. The attack lasted five days and, at its height, reached 480 sorties daily. It was one of the most frenzied and savage crimes committed by the U.S. forces in the Korean war.

The depositions of the 25 captured American airmen who participated in germ warfare establish that almost all of them attended lectures on germ warfare at about the time the U.S. started full-scale germ warfare in Korea. Though the times and places were different, the contents of the lectures were, except for some slight differences, the same. These witnesses were also unanimous as to the types of U.S. aircraft employed on germ war missions, types of germ weapons and ways of carrying out germ warfare by different types of aircraft and germ weapons. All the prisoners talked especially about the "security" provisions under which the U.S. military authorities had specifically warned them that any leakage of information would render them liable to a court martial.

U.S. Crimes Undeniable

All these facts mentioned in these documents show that the germ warfare waged by

the U.S. aggressors was premeditated, carefully planned and systematically carried out. It is useless for them to deny their crime in the face of the mass of corroborative evidence that is now available. But the U.S. Government has recently made a maximum propaganda effort in an attempt to hide the fact of its waging germ warfare in Korea and China. It has slanderously alleged that the depositions of Schwable and the others were made under "torture" and has even sought to dishonour the forum of the United Nations by high-handedly forcing the Political Committee to institute a so-called impartial inquiry into the truth of the accusation that the U.N. invading forces employed germ weapons in Korea. Attempting to whitewash their heinous crime, U.S. delegate Charles W. Mayo even had the effrontery to submit "affidavits" allegedly denying the confessions made by these U.S. Air Force officers. Such "affidavits" from men repatriated to the land of McCarthyism, the land where the Rosenbergs were murdered, are hardly difficult to obtain!

These belated and crude attempts by the U.S. Government to cover up their crime will not succeed. Peace-loving mankind has indicted these criminals for their violation of the most elementary principles of human decency. They cannot escape the responsibility of having committed the outrageous and unprecedented atrocity of large-scale germ war.

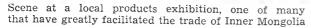
The U.S. airmen made their depositions not under "torture" but under the influence of the lenient policy of the Korean and Chinese people's forces and the pressure of their own consciences.

Second Lieutenant Richard G. Voss of the U.S. Air Force is typical in describing the mental state which led him to confess his part in the crime of germ war. He said:

The Chinese had proved themselves my friends... In return all I can give them was repentance and the truth... I have exposed the wickedness of my government in dropping germ bombs. Only after I had accepted my former enemies as friends could I reveal this vile action.

This is why the airmen, in their depositions, told the irrefutable truth—agreeing not only with each other but also with the abundance of material proof and the unanimous report of an international commission of scientists with world reputations.







Satisfied shoppers at a Banner fair



Mongolian workers examining a combine on the Region's first mechanised state farm in Nachitun

In the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region

Liberation has brought increasing happiness and prosperity to the two and a half million people on Inner Mongolia's rich agricultural and pasture lands

All strata of the population have their study groups. (Left) A women's discussion meeting and (right) lamas reading new periodicals in the Mongolian language





Cloisonné war





Cloisonné ware used at the court of the Emperor Ching Tai (1450-1456) of the Ming Dynasty. Cloisonné of this period reached a high artistic and technical level. (Extreme left) An incense burner

PEKING

New themes are being introduced to cloisonné ware: A peace dove design

Lamp stand and cigarette set with designs adapted from Tang porcelains







The flower designation was inspired by in the Tungh Kansu Province exhibited at the Folk Art

Cloisonné was

of the past





Cloisonné ware used at the court of the Emperor Chien Lung (1736-1795) of the Ching Dynasty. This period was another high point in the development of cloisonné.

(Extreme right) An incense burner

CLOISONNÉ

A new note of robust realism in a favourite traditional motif



n on this vase he Wei murals lang grottoes, It is being arrent National



Flower bowl and cigarette set in brickred, black and gold, with a design derived from bronzes of the Warring Kingdoms period



e of to-day



Sports in Inner Mongolia

Wrestling contests in the traditional Mongolian style at the Silingol League's Natamu festival fair

On their way to the fair





Two young competitors on their mounts



The opening ceremony of the first regional sports meeting held in the autumn of this year

Every encouragement is given by the People's Government to the folk sports of the people of Inner Mongolia

Horse-racing, favourite sport of the herdsmen of Inner Mongolia. is a highlight at every Natamu



Note From Panmunjom

Alan Winnington

In the grisly farce called "explanations" to prisoners of war, any prisoner who says he wants to return home believes he faces almost certain death—regardless of the presence of many witnesses including neutral teams. So powerfully does the grip of Kuomintang and ROK special agents reach into the explanation booths that by November 10, 180 prisoners had escaped the compounds, ripping themselves to pieces scaling high barbed wire with special agents close behind in pursuit: but only one-third of that number, 63, had chosen what the general public might think the "easy way," via explanation booths.

These prisoners are men who have been in the total power of brutal thugs for about three years. When death has been threatened against a man, they have seen the sentence carried out with unspeakable bestialities.

They know that Chang Tze-lung in Compound 28 was slowly sliced to death and his heart actually eaten.

Brave men, who fought their way out over the wire or through the execution chambers called the "hospital" have repeatedly told Neutral Nations Repatriation Commission observers that they got over the wire "because if I asked for repatriation at explanations, I would be killed on the spot."

That is the view of prisoners who are determined to return home in spite of three years' propaganda that "your family have all been killed because we reported you didn't want to go home;" "all prisoners with tattoos are sent to die in the Siberian mines;" and scores of other lies.

It needs no imagination to understand that most of the prisoners are reacting only to fears which they have learned during the past three

The author of this article, written especially for People's China, is the special correspondent of the London Daily Worker at Panmunjom.

years and to the more real fears first. However much a prisoner may fear a life of exile and a future death as a piece of conscript gunfodder for Chiang Kai-shek or Rhee, he fears more the beating, perhaps to death, he will get if he does not immediately hurl insults at the explainers in a loud voice; or the horrible death that awaits him outside the explaining tent or on return to his compound if he shows by any sign that he wants to return home. For an essential part of the U.S. plan has been to prevent the prisoners from discovering their rights under the Armistice Agreement.

Every one of a thousand reasons clearly visible to all in Panmunjom shouts that the control of the secret agents must be broken if the explanations are to be anything but a tragic masquerade.

The critical time for the Americans and their agents inside the compounds was the first few weeks after the prisoners were handed over to neutral custody, operated by the Indians.

A Gift to Washington

This was the time that the Americans delayed building the explanation booths for three weeks and threatened still longer delays. At the same time they sent up a smokescreen of attacks on the Indians as "pro-Communist." The prime task of the Americans was to ensure that the special agents organisation was: carried intact into the camps under the Custodian Force, India. Colonel Hansen, Psychological Warfare expert and adviser to the Americans in Panmunjom, had told the special agents that they could rely on this. At a meeting of special agent cadres before the prisoners left American custody, Hansen told the agents that the Indians had promised they would not break up the organisation established by the Americans, under which each prisoner was enmeshed in a twenty-four-houra-day control and even watched when he went to the latrines.

Whatever the truth of Hansen's statement, it is a fact that in transferring the prisoners to Indian custody, the agents' organisation got reshuffled because the prisoners were handed over in batches of 25 and not in their former units. General Thorat, Commander of the Indian custodian force immediately ordered the prisoners to revert to their former units. This was a gift to Washington and Psychological Warfare and a defeat for the prisoners.

Special Agent Network

In a matter of weeks it had already become clear that the grip of the special agents was as strong or stronger than before. The Americans, therefore, completed their building of explanation booths, and by the beginning of October were ready to test the situation. On October 1 and 2 Chinese and Korean agents in the hospital compounds were ordered to stage provocations and to threaten mass breakouts.

In the minor shooting incidents that occurred as a result, it was decisively shown that, in fact, the agents were not willing to risk their own lives by opposing the Indian troops. Indeed every show of force—as at the time of the investigation of the murder of Chang Tze-lung—has immediately led to the silencing of these paid bullies. But the minor bloodshed that was provoked on October 1 and 2 provided the Americans with exactly what they planned it for: the chance to drive a wedge into the Neutral Nations Repatriation Commission. Seizing this moment the Swiss Government, which had ignored oceans of blood shed on Koje and Cheju to prevent the prisoners from going home, now held up their hands in pious horror at the thimblefull that was shed in Tongjangni. They publicly denounced decisions their delegate had voted for in the NNRC and declared that they would not in any circumstances condone the "use of force" against the special agents. By this action the Swiss effectively paralysed the NNRC and gave the "go ahead" signal to the agents, whose connections with Chiang Kaishek and Rhee are closely maintained by every means including radios presented to them by the Americans.

Meantime, the agents, fat, well-clad and emboldened by success, were now openly acting as "representatives" of the prisoners. As one Indian spokesman said officially: "From the daily trickle of prisoners of war seeking repatriation, often at the risk of their lives, it is evident that there are prisoners who are not completely free to express their choice for repatriation." (My italics-AW.) The word "completely" should be deleted as can be seen from what the spokesman next said: "A hard core of about 50 to 100 prisoners with strong political affiliation to an organisation known as the 'Anti-Communist Youth League' with its headquarters at Seoul and Taiwan respectively is believed to exist in each compound. This inner core controls the pattern of organisation in the camps...."

This, in fact, was the organised special agent network with which the Indian chairman General Thimayya of the NNRC bargained; the organisation that first allowed some prisoners to go to explanations and then on various excuses stopped explanations; which possesses radios, printing gear, weapons, messenger services and freedom to move from compound to compound; an organisation established and maintained by the Americans with the sole task of preventing, at all costs, a single prisoner from returning home.

It thus arose that the Indian troops found themselves surrounding prisoner compounds in which American-directed agents held complete control and were the sole "contact" (actually an impenetrable barrier) between the Indian chairman of the NNRC and the prisoners.

As a result, all rights afforded to the prisoners in the Armistice Agreement and the NNRC's own Rules of Procedure were not only abrogated but never existed, despite persistent efforts by the Polish and Czech members and the Korean-Chinese side to ensure that the terms were carried out.

Korean-Chinese Proposals

During the proceedings, the Korean-Chinese side made many proposals to the NNRC which would have enabled them to fulfil their task. They included:

Refuse to negotiate with special agents. Segregate all the special agents and break up camp organizations set up under their control. Investigate all crimes reported against prisoners and arrest the guilty persons.

Provide full facilities for prisoners to know their rights and ensure explanations every day for eight hours.

Prevent disruption by agents in the holding compounds while prisoners wait for explanations.

Prevent sabotage of broadcasting and explanations facilities.

Prevent "United Nations" personnel from disturbing explanations and prevent Chiang Kai-shek agents from attending inside booths disguised as "representatives" of the American side.

Ensure that any prisoner can apply for repatriation at any time without fear for his life.

Ensure that prisoners have adequate time in explaining booths to hear explanations and exercise free choice.

Segregate prisoners who have attended explanations from those who have not.

Prevent free movement of "prisoners" (agents) between compounds.

Ensure that explanations go to the full time of ninety days of eight hours each and are not curtailed by American tricks.

There can be no pretense that the NNRC members are ignorant of the fear that controls the prisoners in their care. It is the custom for the Korean-Chinese side to allow prisoners handed back to them to give press conferences immediately they get down off the Indian lorry!

Day after day prisoners describe how they sit for hours in the explanation booths, longing to go home and fearful of some Kuomintang or ROK thugs they see inside the booth in U.S. uniform—seeming to bar their way home. Everyone in Panmunjom knows of the murders and torture chambers, the escapes and—most horrible—failures to escape.

Nevertheless, every sort of terror and trickery, replacement of "suspected" prisoners by illegal interruptions of explanations and ruthless control inside compounds were not enough. Prisoners still fought their way to freedom "at the risk of their lives" in sufficient numbers to endanger the American cold-war

myth that they would "sooner commit suicide" than go home.

Role of the Swiss and the Swedes

After a total of less than forty hours' explanations, the Americans and their Swiss partners, helped by the Swedes, began to set up a clamour to curtail interviews and have them conducted on conditions so limited and so contrary to the Rules of Procedure of the NNRC that virtually no prisoner could get back. The Swiss took to walking out of the tents if a prisoner showed signs of listening to explanations—pretending that any interview lasting more than a few minutes was "mental torture," "inhuman," "coercion" and so on. This new device seemed to have two main motives: to place any prisoner in the awful predicament of feeling that even if he said he wanted to go home he would probably be handed back to the thugs in his compound; to provide an excuse for ending all explanations or delaying them so seriously that only a tiny fraction of prisoners would receive explanations before December 24, on which date the Americans threaten that all explanations must be ended even if they have never taken place.

There is absolutely no truth in the Swiss claim-immediately taken up by the agentsthat interviews are long drawn out. In one case the Swiss raised a great clamour about a "two-hour" interview with a prisoner. Actually, I noted that in this case, one hour and twenty minutes of this time was taken up by interventions made by "United Nations" (American, Kuomintang, ROK) "representatives" and the interruption of the proceedings by the Swiss delegate himself. It is true the prisoner remained in the explanation area for two hours. It is also true and more important that he decided to return to his home as soon as the explainers had convinced him that if he chose to go home he would be protected from the camp bullies and would not be either returned to his old compound or killed on the spot.

U.S. Strategy

American strategy is clear. They want to delay and disrupt the whole procedure, ensure that only a handful of "reliable" prisoners ever get the opportunity to attend explanations and provide themselves with a propaganda weapon by refusing to allow explanations to proceed to the full period—ninety days of eight hours

each. In order to achieve this they have killed and tortured for three years and without doubt have built up a formidable organisation of terror inside the camps.

But, as one Indian officer said to me: "They delivered up seven of their top men in that compound (Compound 28 where Chang Tze-lung was murdered—AW.) without even their usual yelling of insults. They are nothing but hoodlums and with no more courage. One battalion could handle an army of them." And there was no doubt about how happy the Indian rank-and-file were at the opportunity to do their duty and enable prisoners to get out of the clutches of the camp gangsters.

No one would deny that the agents have an effective organisation, but there is also no doubt that these toughs are not willing to die for a cause, even if they had one. They are vocal and cowardly. And it is undeniable that to ensure that all prisoners of war "have the opportunity to exercise their right to repatriation" is the sole task of the NNRC and the Indian custodians. That task has been evaded. Only the Czech and Polish delegates on the NNRC have proposed and supported measures which would have provided the prisoners their elementary rights under the Armistice Agreement.

The decisive position of the Indians provided them with the duty and the opportunity of bringing justice to the prisoners and preventing sabotage of the Armistice Agreement by the Americans and their agents. It was a difficult duty as they knew when they assumed it, but a possible one. It has not been begun.

Rice Grows Again In Changkou Village

Wang Shu-jen

POR scores of years, the inhabitants of Changkou Village, Paoying County, Kiangsu Province, had not smelled the fragrance of rice-flowers. Only the oldest of them remembered what it was like. But in 1953, rice grew in their fields again.

Changkou Village stands in a vast low-land. The Grand Canal runs close to it in the east, and there are lakes in the south and west. This situation might seem to be most favourable for rice-growing. The trouble was, however, that the culverts leading from the Grand Canal had long been out of repair and clogged with silt; and the nearby Changkou River had dried up, with wild weeds covering its bed. That is why the villagers had had to change to dry-land crops.

A new calamity struck the village in 1938. The Chiang Kai-shek brigands destroyed the Yellow River dykes at Huayuankou, allowed the Huai River valley to be deluged by the turbulent waters of the Yellow River and aggravated the flood danger in the northern parts of Anhwei and Kiangsu Provinces. Year

by year, after this, the water in the lake to the west of Changkou Village rose higher and higher until it flooded the surrounding land.

Thus, the back-breaking toil of the peasants became fruitless. In ten years, they reaped only one or two good harvests. They could not afford two meals of coarse grain a day, let alone rice. They lost their confidence in farming as a way of life. Much land lay waste, and those who could do so left to seek a living elsewhere.

Recollecting the grim past, 58-year-old peasant Pien Shih-chi said, "Looking back, we don't know how we managed to survive in those accursed days. We laboured under the crushing burden of huge land rents, in constant fear of flood and drought. There is a saying that the poor peasants 'lived on vegetables in spring, pumpkins in summer, and carrots in winter.' But we sometimes didn't even have these, and had to dig up wild vegetables for food. Pigs today eat better than we did then!"

The peasants had tried to ask for remedial measures. Ten years ago they petitioned the local authorities to connect the Changkou River with the Grand Canal, so that the water could be diverted to irrigate the fields in dry weather and the Changkou River could drain it off in times of excessive rain. But the peasants' idea meant nothing to the landlords and feudal administrators. On the dry bed of the Changkou River, the weeds continued to multiply. So did the graves of the poor, who had no other place to bury their dead.

After the liberation, the Communist Party organisations and the People's Government began to help the Changkou people at once. Large quantities of relief rice were distributed and big loans extended. Then the Party and government cadres asked what more they could do. The villagers replied: "The fields will grow crops, and we'll live better if the lake can be put under control and a new culvert is built from the Grand Canal."

In 1950, on the instruction of Chairman Mao Tse-tung, the harnessing of the Huai River was begun. At the same time, as a subsidiary project of this great undertaking, the construction of the culvert was also initiated. By the spring of 1951, the culvert leading from the Grand Canal was completed. It brought water to irrigate the land in Changkou Village as well as others in the neighbourhood.

In the spring of 1953, the People's Government further appropriated a substantial sum of money and organised peasants in the neighbouring villages to help the people of Changkou Village to dredge the Changkou River.

The completion of the Sanho sluice gate and the north Kiangsu main irrigation canal—part of the Huai River harnessing scheme—made it possible for the waters of the Huai River to flow submissively to various areas in northern Kiangsu Province. They flow to Changkou Village through the newly-constructed culvert and the Changkou River—a river again in fact as well as in name.

On its banks, the long-silent water-wheels have once more begun to rumble. To the villagers, the rumbling sound is sweet; it means the same thing as the rippling water and the rich paddy fields they see around them.

When I visited the village recently, the rice crop had already been harvested. At sup-

per, the wife of peasant Wang Wei-chuan, with whom I was meeting, placed a bowl of steaming white rice in front of me. "Eat it, comrade, and taste the new rice we've reaped this year," she said. "Had you come in the past, we wouldn't have been able to feed you even coarse-grain gruel."

On the first evening, I called on the village head, Pien Tan-yuan. When we were chatting about the affairs of the village, he said in a confident voice: "We'll soon change the looks of everything around here. Several irrigation ditches are going to be dug on both banks of the river this winter. Next year, we'll have three times as many fields under rice as we have now."

During our conversation, his father, a weather-beaten old man with a beautiful beard who is well-known for his diligence, came back into the house. As soon as he sat down, he took out his pipe and began to smoke. Like most old peasants, he was talkative. He began with the "Ching Dynasty" and the "Kuomintang government," and went on talking until he came to the present. At the beginning, his voice was sorrowful, but when he spoke about the liberation, he became happy and excited. No wonder! For many long years his land had produced next to nothing, but this year, he got 1,200 kilogrammes of rice.

"For as long as I can remember," the old man said, "we both wanted water and were afraid of it. But now we can control water. I've just been thinking about building a water—wheel together with Chu Chang-nien's family, and letting the cow turn the wheel."

"That's a good idea!" the village head broke in. "I've heard that many families are going to build water-wheels next year. The village has six new draught animals and many people have bought pigs to raise. That means more pig manure for fertiliser. So everything is ready for better production next year."

"Changkou Village is sure to become more prosperous in two or three years," Pien's father commented, with calm assurance.

These simple, confident words moved me greatly. Looking at him once more, I saw his wrinkled face brighten with a smile. It was the smile of a young man for whom life has just begun.

Peking Cloisonné

Wang Shun

Professor of the Central Academy of Fine Arts

PEKING cloisonné holds an eminent place among the beautiful handicrafts of the world.

Its lustrous colours and beautiful designs in the Chinese tradition, its elegant forms and delicate craftsmanship, have made it much sought after far beyond the borders of China.

Since the establishment of the People's Republic of China, the craft of cloisonné has been experiencing a remarkable renascence, both in design and workmanship.

How Cloisonné Is Made

There are six processes involved in the making of cloisonné ware. The first step is to cut the metal base (usually of copper, but gold or silver are also used) to size, then hammer or press it into the required shape (vase, plate, cup, etc.). If it is a complicated shape, it may have to be built up by soldering its various parts together. In the second stage, narrow strips of copper, pressed into fine ribbons about one-sixteenth of an inch wide, are cut to length and bent to define the outlines of the design; these are then soldered edgewise to the metal base. The whole surface to be decorated is thus covered with shallow cells (cloisons) formed by the ribbons of copper. The third step is to fill these cells with enamel colours ground to a fine powder. The fourth stage is the firing, or baking, which fixes the colours firmly to the base and fuses them together. In most cases, the two processes of enamel-filling and firing have to be repeated three times in order to achieve the best results. When the article is taken out of the kiln after firing, its surface is, however, neither smooth nor lustrous. The fifth stage is, therefore, careful

Professor Wang Shun has taken an active part in rehabilitating Peking's cloisonné industry and developing its new designs. polishing. Finally comes the gilding, or silvering. For this, the work is placed in a gold or silver solution through which an electric current is passed. Since enamel does not conduct electricity, those parts of the surface covered by enamel remain unaffected by the passage of the current, while the exposed edges of the copper strips and the article's metal rims are evenly covered by particles of gold or silver. A last washing and soft polishing brings out all the radiance of both metal and enamel.

Only the first three of the above-mentioned six processes need an artist's skill. Among these, the bending of the metal ribbons requires the highest degree and delicacy of skill. An expert cloisonné-maker can, with a simple pair of tweezers, bend and lay the copper strips on the base in the most intricate and beautiful designs, often working without any draft designs to copy. Usually, however, skilled designers are today commissioned to paint master designs.

Early Period of Development

The most reliable research indicates that the technique of making cloisonné enamel ware was introduced into China during the 13th century by the Arabs. Ancient documents refer to cloisonné as "Ta Shih inlaid work," Ta Shih being the Chinese name for Arabia during the Middle Ages. Chinese craftsmen working to supply objects of beauty for the feudal nobility, adopted and gradually made the cloisonné technique peculiarly their own, giving it a characteristic style, expressed in its forms, designs and colouring, that is distinguished from all other kinds of enamel and is universally prized.

This process of assimilation took place over a considerable period of time. It was not until the 15th century, during the reign of

Hsuan Teh (1426-1435) of the Ming Dynasty, that cloisonné became an important handicraft product. And it was only in the reign of Ching Tai (1450-1456) that cloisonné craftsmen first reached a recognised peak of perfection. What is commonly spoken of as Ching Tai lan cloisonné actually refers only to the mature and distinctive products developed during and between the reigns of the two Ming emperors, whose dynasty, it will be recalled, marked the resurgence of Chinese culture after the overthrow of the Yuan (Mongol) Empire. It was at this time that the original and characteristic technique of production of Chinese cloisonné was perfected in the manner described above (naturally, excepting electrolytic gilding).

Cloisonné-makers at that time had at their disposal a rich palette of colours, which they used with restraint and simple dignity. Their designs were vigorous and brilliant, unique in their development of traditional Chinese decoration and easily distinguishable among the various schools of cloisonné and other types of enamelling. The typical products of that period were inspired by the time-honoured and traditional shapes of ancient Chinese bronze ware. The inventiveness and creative genius of the working people of China was richly displayed in this craft.

The time of Chien Lung from 1736 to 1795, may be considered as marking the second peak in the development of Chinese cloisonné. The fine arts and handicrafts flourished in China during the reign of this emperor, which marked the zenith of the Ching Empire, and cloisonné was no exception. There were, first of all, great improvements in production technique. Much greater care and skill were exercised in the choice of raw materials and in their treatment during the process of manufacture. The best work of this period is characterised by great brilliance and permanence of colour.

Many of the products of Chien Lung's period, however, were excessively florid. Decoration, though delicately and often exquisitely executed, all too often became merely a precious conceit. Excessive minuteness in treatment, stiffness and lack of vigour too often detracted from the dignity of the finished work.

These are the marks of a school of art that has actually passed its prime. They reflect the fact that the decay of the feudal system in China was exerting an increasingly corrosive influence on the natural growth of the people's artistic genius. These decadent tendencies increased towards the end of the reign of Chien Lung, and especially during the latter part of the 19th century. The feudal and reactionary forces of society, represented by the Manchu rulers, grew more impotent day by day as the old order of society decayed. Cloisonné produced during this period did not even maintain the standard of technical perfection that had formerly been attained. There was an even more pronounced decline in artistic style. The decline continued during the period of the warlords and Kuomintang regimes and the increasing economic, political and cultural domination and exploitation of China by the foreign imperialist powers. By the opening of the 20th century, the craft of cloisonné had lost the patronage of the court and nobility and had no secure economic basis; the people were too bitterly exploited to provide it with a market, the new ruling groups of warlords and KMT bureaucratic capitalists neglected this as they did every other manifestation of culture. The merchants and masters who directed and exploited the cloisonné-makers fell into habits of shoddy work and pandering to cheap tastes, adopting all kinds of quaint and unusual designs which, it was thought, could catch the fancy of merchants abroad. Cloisonné production not only lost contact with the healthy outlook of the people but also strayed far from its own fine and lovely traditions.

This situation was not remedied until the rule of the reactionaries was overthrown and Peking liberated.

Post-Liberation Developments

At the first opportunity the Communist-Party and the People's Government took immediate steps to assist the old handicrafts of the city, whose artistic value is universally recognised, and which represent productive enterprises of considerable economic importance to the livelihood of many people.

In 1949, the Peking Municipal People's Government called a meeting to discuss the

future of these handicrafts. In the following year, the state-owned Peking Special Handicrafts Products Company was established. Its task was to end the chaotic state of affairs left by Kuomintang rule and which made such local handicrafts as cloisonné virtually dependent on a precarious export trade. It was to take measures to assist these crafts to adapt the magnificent heritage of the past to the needs of today, to improve their designs and overall quality, end the slipshod work and lowered standards of the recent past, and to put them on a firm economic bases. The achievement of these aims would create the conditions for raising the livelihood of the craftsmen themselves. It can be said that it has succeeded to a marked extent in fulfilling these tasks with regard to cloisonné-making.

Three Main Features

The new cloisonné of Peking has three main features: it is technically more economical to produce; it has a well-integrated style; and it skilfully develops the classical heritage.

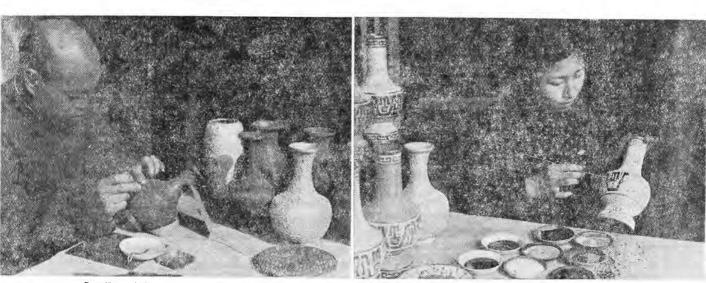
Cloisonné is a craft that has achieved a high standard of technical proficiency, so that it is only when the designer links his work closely with practical production and understands its technical subtleties that he can economise in labour and materials, is able to utilise all the special advantages and possibilities of the medium and gradually raise the craft to a still higher level of technique and art.

Cloisonné-designing is not a simple matter of decoration in line and colour. A successful design must completely unite line, colour and sculptural form into an artistic whole.

These principles have been well learned by the modern designers. Several of China's outstanding decorative artists have contributed new designs to the cloisonné workshops. They include Professors Liang Szu-cheng, Lin Weiyin and Mao Tsung-kiang of Tsinghua University and Cheng Hsa-na of the Central Academy of Fine Arts.

The new designers and their craftsmen-colleagues have ended the banal outlook which mistakenly thought that superficial decorativeness could take the place of true beauty of form and colour. They are dealing successfully with the problems of introducing new decorative motifs from modern life—the peace dove, yangko dancers, etc.,—to cloisonné ware.

The new designers have from the start worked closely with and learned from the experience of the veteran craftsmen. Their designs are adapted in a striking and imaginative way from the designs of the classical heritage. These are taken from ancient bronzes and from the lovely murals of Tang and Wei discovered in the famous Tunghuang grottoes of Kansu. They have adapted the colour har-



In the state-owned Peking Special Handicrafts Products Company. Two processes in cloisonnémaking: (left) making the cloisons (cells) by soldering narrow copper ribbons edgewise to the metal base and (right) filling the cloisons with enamel colours before baking

monies and motifs of old jades and porcelains of the Sung Dynasty and brocaded satins of the Ming Dynasty. They have also drawn on designs used for architectural decorations, designs on gold and other metal objects of the period of the Warring States, and embroidery designs made by China's national minorities.

The cloisonné craftsmen and designers of today nourish their inspiration at the whole range of traditional art. Their adaptations are made as a result of careful study and analysis and collective discussion. Classic patterns and forms are assimilated only when their spirit, their aesthetic impact and their inner laws of variation have been fully comprehended. Then they are modified to accord with our present-day tastes and needs. Modern usage demands not only the traditional vases and boxes but such things as lamp-stands, desk sets, cigarette boxes which have new functional forms to which the craft of cloisonné has to adapt itself.

For these reasons the best of the newly-designed cloisonné ware are not only richly representative of China's national tradition but also of the new era. Each work has its own aesthetic content.

Better Working Conditions

The advances in the craft itself in the last four years are complemented by the radically changed conditions of cloisonné manufacture in Peking. In Ming and Ching (Manchu) times, cloisonné products were made only for the use of the imperial family and the rich. In the later Ching times and under the succeeding reactionary regimes, the craft was completely commercialised and the conditions of life and work of the craftsmen became even worse than before. Now one-third of the 300 cloisonné craftsmen are employed in the state and co-operative workshops; the rest are in the privately owned workshops which, as a matter of fact, are almost exclusively engaged on orders for the State Handicraft Company, the principal wholesale and export agency.

In the old feudal days the names of the craftsmen were not considered fit for notice. Today they are honoured as people's craftsmen. Wang Ching-yuan, a cloisonné-maker with over 40 years' experience, is today one of the best known masters. Sung Yu-sun and Kao Shu-tung are the two veteran cloisonnémakers who initiated new designs after the

liberation. They made special and much appreciated wares which were presented as gifts to the delegates of the Peking Peace Conference of the Asian and Pacific Regions.

The market for these lovely wares is steadily increasing, particularly abroad. Most of the products are exported to the Soviet Union and People's Democracies. Connoisseurs in all countries set a high value on the unique character of Peking cloisonné, and the State Handicraft Company is careful to maintain a high standard of quality. This it has been able to do because of the existence of the State Cloisonné Workshop situated just outside the ancient Hatamen Gate. The state workshop has enlisted the help of the new designers with excellent effect. It has set the pace in raising technical quality and mechanising labour consuming and mechanical processes (such as the final polishing of the products), in bringing about a more rational division of labour and turning the workshop into a more closely integrated collective.

It has also pioneered the way in bettering conditions for the craftsmen and their assistants. Apprenticeship in the making of the cloisons, which in the old days lasted for over three years under semi-slave conditions, has been reduced to eight months with proper supervision of conditions of work and study. The craftsmens' wages have been raised to the level of the average skilled worker. As trade union members, the craftsmen are now provided with the usual health and other benefits and enjoy an eight-hour work day. Conditions in the private workshops are not yet as good as they are in the state workshops, but they have already much improved and, as the trade expands, they will improve still more.

With such a strengthened economic base as it now enjoys, the craft of cloisonné in China is assured of a further flourishing technical and artistic advance that will confirm its eminent position in the arts of the world.

The growing prosperity of the people is creating a new market to replace that of the old feudal nobility, and supplement that which is being built up abroad particularly in the prospering People's Democracies. In New China, the prosperity the reborn craft will enjoy will be fully shared by its devoted and talented workers.

"Five Stars Over China"

Wu Yao-tsung

THE pens of western propagandists have tried to make out that New China is a riddle. They have tried to obscure by a smoke-screen of cheap journalism the story of her liberation and the speed with which she has put her own house in order. The truth, however, is stronger than all cynical fictions. It cannot be obscured.

There are many who have visited New China since 1949 and numerous books have appeared reporting these visitors' observations. But I believe Mary Austin Endicott's book Five Stars Over China* is a special success not only because of the author's penetrating insight and entertaining style, but also because of her peculiar fitness to deal with her subject.

Mary Austin Endicott lived in China with her husband, James G. Endicott, as missionaries for twenty-two years, and they were both invited to visit New China in the winter of 1952. The volume under review grew out not only from experiences on their recent trip but also from a deep understanding of the life of the Chinese people, of their pains and struggles, of their loves and hates which came from intimate contacts with them through the course of eventful years.

The purpose of the Endicotts' visit to New China is described by the author as follows:

We wanted to discover the meaning of the terms "People's Government of China" as used in the East, and "The Communist Government in China" as Westerners loosely speak of it. We want to be able to give through personal experience the answers to the questions: Is China really being transformed, and how?

The reviewer, Wu Yao-tsung, is a prominent Christian leader and Director of Publications of the National Association of the Y.M.C.A.

*Five Stars Over China, by Mary Austin Endicott, published by the author, Toronto, Canada, 1953. 464 pp.

The book ably fulfils this purpose.

To the Endicotts a visit to New China is not merely a new experience, it is a sharp contrast between the new and the old China. Everything they saw after they landed on the airfield in Peking convinced the author that New China is not only new, but truly a people's China.

But how is China being transformed? The author found neither an "iron curtain" nor a "bamboo" one, but instead, great movements sweeping over the country and uplifting, slowly but surely, not only the social and material status of China's teeming millions, but also their moral and spiritual standards.

"Land to the Tiller" describes New China's land reform, in which 80 per cent of China's rural population, who had nothing or almost nòthing, have been given land and freed from the landlords who had oppressed and exploited them for thousands of years. The Huai River Project establishes flood control, banishes famine and makes the river a blessing instead of a menace to the millions who live in that The nation-wide clean-up campaign area. brings great improvements in public tidiness and cleanliness such as was never known in old China. The sanfan movement* the spiritual parallel to the clean-up campaign and aims at the eradication of evils which forever plagued the old regime. The wu fan movement; puts a check to the reckless

^{*} San fan means the nation-wide "three-anti movement" to wipe out corruption, waste and bureaucratism.

 $[\]dagger Wu \ fan$ means the "five-anti movement" among business circles against bribery of government personnel, tax evasion, theft of state property, cheating on government contracts and stealing economic information for private speculation.

profiteering of private business and makes it serve the people.

The author thus sums up what they saw of China in reconstruction:

We saw the basic change in social status made by the Land Reform. We followed the engineering feats that are altering Chinese geography. We saw the beginnings of industrial expansion that will modernise the economic life of the nation. We saw something more remarkable—human nature being transformed.

All this, to the author, cannot but be described as a national "rebirth."

The book not merely recounts New China's achievements in three short years; it is full of sketches and stories of persons who are flesh and blood in this drama of national rebirth, playing various roles which make up the magnificent scenes.

"Yellow Earth Ridge," for instance, furnishes an example of the new life of the liberated farmers. Here they heard a peasant say:

You have seen our village and have learned of the difficulties we have overcome. We assure you that we shall increase production with great speed. The farmers here are happy. We have freedom. We understand our plans and our future.

Liberation did not come suddenly. It is the result of blood shed through thirty years by martyrs without number. "We thought of all the thousands who had been killed in the early days of Chiang's campaigns against the Communists or had died in the Long March of 1934-6."

But how did the revolution succeed? Through the leadership and vitality of the Chinese Communist Party, of course, but also because of the appeal of the revolution to China's vast majority, particularly to China's youth. The story of Green Jade is typical of the way Chinese youth respond to the call of the new age. Green Jade is a girl who was drawn into the revolution through the love of a boy friend and worked strenuously as a midwife during the difficult years of the war against Japan. When the author suggested that she and her husband had sacrificed much, Green Jade replied: "No, no, we have not sacrificed; we have been most fortunate." Our children "will

live in a society free from fear of war or poverty, a society of opportunity for all."

The Church in New China

In this book of 464 pages, 69 pages are devoted to Christian personalities and the Church in New China, which is more space than is given to any other subject. This is due not only to the author's Christian affiliations, but also to the fact that religious freedom in New China is a subject on which rumours and misrepresentations have been rife.

"The Church in China can function freely." "Some in the West have rashly equated the departure of the missionary from China with the collapse of the Chinese Church. But our Church is very much alive." These are the testimonies of Church leaders with whom the author had intimate talks and in many of whose pulpits her husband preached.

"Christians in the New Society" gives the account of various persons in Church, Y.W.C.A., university and government work who, once fearful and bewildered, now "fit happily into the new society" and "begin to appreciate what is happening all over our New China."

There is a special chapter on Dr. Wu Yifang, the well-known Christian woman educator, who is now head of the Bureau of Education, Kiangsu Province. Mention is also made of other well-known Christian leaders who have earned public respect, particularly in Christian circles, by their patriotic action in resolutely breaking off their former ties with the imperialist enemies of the people.

The last three chapters of the book deal with the Christian reform movement in China. This movement of the Chinese Church to rid

CORRECTIONS: In our last issue, No. 21, page 11, 2nd column, the second sentence of the 2nd paragraph should read: "If we take the monthly average tonnage in 1950 as 100, it was 110.9 in 1951, 132.2 in 1952 and 150.4 in the first half of 1952."

In the same issue, page 12, 2nd column, the second sentence should read: "Now, through freight trains run from Manchouli on the Sino-Soviet border to Canton in the south, covering a distance of over 5,000 kilometres."

Further down in the same column, the last sentence of the first paragraph should read: "In the same year, the labour productivity of railway workers and staff was 38.5 per cent higher than in 1950."

itself of imperialist influence and to achieve self-government, self-support and self-propagation is little known abroad and is evidently much distorted in spite of the fact that it has gained 400,000 adherents, and continues to grow in strength. The author provides the background of this movement which helps the reader to understand it from the inside.

James Endicott is a recipient of the Stalin Peace Prize and the author, his wife, is his close associate in all his peace efforts. This book will surely help its readers to gain a better understanding of New China and will be a great contribution to the cause of world peace.

The book, big volume as it is, contains only a few minor errors of fact: for instance, Sun Yat-sen died not at 55, but at 59; Wang Tzu-chung is head of the local Peking, not the national, Christian peace organisation; Mme. Chou En-lai is not Teng Hsiao-ping, who is Vice-Premier of the Government Administration Council of the Central People's Government, but Teng Ying-chao; and "T. T. Liu" should be written "T. T. Lew."

HUANG CHI-KUANG —Heroic Son of the People

Chao Kai-fu



Huang Chi-kuang

O N October 19, 1952, U.S. General Van Fleet's vaunted two-division stab at Sangkumryung was in its sixth futile day. And the Chinese People's Volunteers were moving to the counter-attack. In the half-light before dawn, great tongues of flame from the roaring guns suddenly lit up the high peaks, already bloodstained from many battles. A Chinese Volunteer battalion was deployed on the right flank, ready to move forward. Its objective was Height No. 597.9, held by two U.S. battalions, where the enemy bunkers were being blown to pieces by the concentrated fire of our artillery.

The first wave of Volunteers swept the dazed Americans off half of the hill. Then they poised for the assault on the crest. Unexpectedly, a hail of bullets came from a single deeply-entrenched enemy position above, which commanded the approaches to the crest. From its seven machine-guns came a fan-shaped hurricane of steel.

It was forty minutes before dawn. The battalion had its orders—to occupy the Height by daybreak. In the forward command post, the commander thought anxiously of how to fulfil their task. If it was to be done, the enemy firing position had to be eliminated—at once.

Suddenly, a man stepped up to him out of the dark. He was short of stature, hardly out of his teens, but his round peasant face was set in resolute lines and his wide-set eyes burned. The commander saw that it was his young orderly. In short, simple phrases, he asked for the assignment to wipe out the enemy pocket. Then he handed the commander a written request to join the battle and a mudbespattered letter from his mother encouraging him to do his utmost in service to his country.

The young orderly got his request.

Supreme Heroism

As he moved out with two other men, his comrades heard him shout, "Tell them at home how we won this one!" By the intermittent light of flares, they saw the three edge towards the enemy position over the pockmarked hill-side littered with enemy corpses. Bullets churned up the rain-soaked earth around them. Their anxious comrades saw all three stagger and fall. Then, one of the three rose slightly from the ground, looked at his fallen companions, and crawled stiffly forward, his left arm trailing limply at his side. It was the young orderly.

Closer and closer he crawled until he was within a few yards of the enemy emplacement. Then, with a sudden twist of his body, he raised himself, a grenade in his right hand. The enemy fired a burst at point-blank, and he was hit in the chest. He fell, but only for a moment. His right arm rose again, in a superhuman effort. There was an earth-shaking roar, then a brief silence.

The grenade had demolished the enemy bunker. When the young orderly recovered from the shock of the blast, he saw his comrades behind him were already advancing up the hillside. But more fire came from the destroyed bunker. Some of the enemy had survived; two of the machine-guns were still in action, blazing from a single embrasure.

It was then that the attacking Volunteers saw supreme heroism in action. The young orderly whom they had seen repeatedly felled by enemy bullets was up again; he was sprinting straight for the spewing machine-guns! He reached the embrasure, threw himself on the hot barrels, and plugged them into silence

with his own body as his comrades surged by to occupy the entire Height.

He died as he had successfully cleared the way for an important victory and the complete annihilation of 1,200 of Van Fleet's invading troops. His fellow fighters found his body, pierced by bullets. An officer came up. Shaken with emotion, he said: "Matrosov! A Chinese Matrosov!" He was talking of the glorious hero of the Soviet Army who had given his life in a similar way to save his comrades and secure victory in the war against the German fascists.

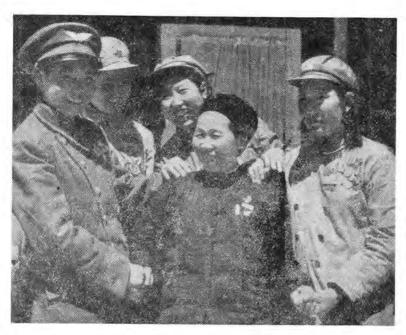
The young orderly was Huang Chi-kuang—who was posthumously named a Combat Hero (special class) and cited for Extraordinary Merit in Action.

In the history of the Chinese Volunteers in Korea, his act is a bright page in a heroic epic. His name is now a household word, synonymous with the highest ideals of patriotism and internationalism, a word that stirs the hearts of those whom he fought to defend, in his own motherland and in Korea.

Of what stuff are such people's heroes made? The life story of Huang Chi-kuang, now familiar to everyone in China, gives the answer. On the battlefield, this twenty-one-year-old youth knew clearly and simply what he was defending and who were his enemies. The conviction that drove him to supreme heroism was rooted deep in what life itself had taught him—a poor peasant's life of oppression and poverty lit with joy after the recent liberation.

A Life of Hardship

Huang Chi-kuang was born in Chung-kiang County, Szechuan Province, in South-west China. He was only eight years old when his father, a landless tenant farmer, died—half starved, broken by heavy labour. His mother was barely able to keep herself and her four children alive by sewing and washing. At the age of twelve, the boy started toiling for the landlords, beaten and abused often, undernourished always. Typical was his experience when a landlord dismissed him after twenty days without wages—on the pretext that he had not properly cleaned out the dung in the cattle shed.



Teng Fang-chih, the hero Huang Chi-kuang's mother, was warmly honoured when she came as a delegate this year to the Second All-China Women's Congress in Peking. Here she was with the delegates from the People's Liberation Army

In 1942, a severe drought deprived the family of the crop from their tiny rented farm. When the landlord refused to lend them any grain from his well-stocked bins, they filled their stomachs with grass and roots. Driven to despair by the sight of her starving children, the mother talked of ending all their suffering with poison. She did not, as she tells it now, because her twelve-year-old son gave her the strength she needed. "No, mama, no! Even if we only have water to drink, we must live! We'll grow up to support you yet!"

By sheer will to survive, the Huang family struggled through the ensuing years. At one time, they borrowed some money from a landlord so that they could start to make incense sticks, from leaves and roots which they scoured the hills to obtain. But the money they earned from the sale of the incense was not enough to pay the cutthroat interest which the landlord demanded.

When Huang Chi-kuang was eighteen, the Kuomintang-installed village official falsely accused him of beating his dog to death. He was manhandled, bound and forced to carry the

dead dog on his back and to kneel publicly before the village temple to "atone" for his behaviour, and later threatened with pressganging into the Kuomintang army. But no humiliation and oppression could break Huang Chi-kuang. After each instance, he swore: "Someday we'll settle accounts."

Liberation

That day came. In the winter of 1949, Mao Tse-tung's liberators marched into Szechuan. Never before had the people seen such an army. The strict discipline of the fighters and their constant concern for the welfare of the peasants impressed Huang Chi-kuang deeply. These, he thought, were his own people at last—with arms in their hands!

When a team of army cadres came to the village, living and working among the people, Huang Chi-kuang began to talk freely with them. One day, after hearing his story of suffering under the Kuomintang and the landlords, the head of the team told him how the peasants in the older liberated areas had forced the landlords to reduce rents and later redistributed the land. The young man took fire at once. "That's the way," he said. "We must do it here, if we're ever to have enough to eat and wear!"

So Huang Chi-kuang joined the peasants' association. Soon afterwards, he became a member of the local peasant militia, with the task of supporting the struggle against feudalism and protecting the peasants' gains from the landlords and their henchmen. His firmness and quick intelligence made possible the capture of the hated local despots together with a quantity of hidden arms.

In the collecting of public grain for the People's Government, in the rent reduction movement, he was always the first to expose the artifices attempted by the landlords. Twice he received the commendation of the peasants' association for his exemplary work.

In the spring of 1951, when the redistribution of land was just getting under way in Chungkiang County, Huang Chi-kuang heard of the great nation-wide movement to enlist in the Chinese People's Volunteers. The Volunteers were already fighting against the American aggressors, who had pushed across the 38th Parallel in Korea, menacing the very borders of the motherland. The young man quickly understood that the Kuomintang landlord-despots and the foreign invaders were in essence one and the same enemy. Both sought to destroy the new life of security and human dignity-so recently achieved-which Chairman Mao and the Communist Party had led the Chinese people to win. So he decided to talk to the peasants' association chairman, and to volunteer for Korea.

An Understanding Mother

It was only after Huang Chi-kuang had volunteered a second time that he was finally accepted. When his mother wept, he said: "Don't you remember all we suffered in the past? We've just begun to live like human beings. If we don't beat back the Americans, our new life—and the land we are getting from the landlords, will never be safe."

The mother dried her tears. For the sake of future happiness, for the beloved country which has now become the people's, for Chairman Mao, she sent her son to the front. It

was she who wrote the letter which Huang Chi-kuang handed to his commander before he plunged into his heroic battle. The letter said: "... The People's Government is treating us dependents of the Volunteers wonderfully. I don't ask for anything now—only for the day when you get cited for heroism in action. How many of our enemies have you already destroyed?..."

This long-suffering, sixty-one-year-old mother, to whom thousands of children in China have opened their hearts as to their own mother, has been received by Chairman Mao in Peking. Her home, now flooded with letters and gifts (outstanding among them being the treasured red scarves of Young Pioneers), has been visited by prominent public leaders and devoted admirers of all ages. To a great crowd of children gathered to meet her in the Peking Public Library, she said: "I've sacrificed one son, but gained thousands upon thousands of others."

The exploits of Huang Chi-kuang, a son of the labouring masses, has fired the imagination of the whole people. The entire youth of China shares the sentiments expressed by his own battalion comrades, who, soon after his death, told a visiting delegation at the front:

"Tell the people of our motherland—their splendid son, an ordinary soldier of the Chinese People's Volunteers, Huang Chi-kuang, gave of his best and fullest—for his beloved motherland, and for peace. So shall we whenever we are called upon! We pledge it!"

Heroes of the Volunteers

Up to the end of August this year, more than 300,000 individuals and over 6,100 units in the Chinese People's Volunteers had been cited for meritorious deeds either in battle or in the field services. Of the individuals cited, 282 had also received the title of Combat Hero or Model Worker, and these include martyrs like Huang Chi-kuang, Yang Ken-szu and Lo Sheng-chiao, whose spirit of patriotism, internationalism and revolutionary heroism are so characteristic of the Volunteers. Altogether 231,190 Volunteers, or about 80 per cent of the individuals cited, were honoured with medals or various orders by the Korean Democratic People's Republic. Huang Chi-kuang and Yang Ken-szu, Combat Heroes (special class) with special class merit, and Wu Hsienhua and five other Combat Heroes (first class) with special class merit, were also honoured with the title of "Hero of the Republic."



Congress of Industry and Commerce

The All-China Federation of Industry and Commerce was formally set up at the closing session of the National Congress of Industry and Commerce held in Peking between October 23 and November Congress, 12 The which was sponsored by a previously organised Preparatory Commission, was attended by 640 delegates, most of them representing private enterprises—big, medium and small. State-owned enterprises and cooperative bodies also sent their representatives. Several delegates came from national minority areas and overseas Chinese communities.

At the opening of the Congress, Chen Shu-tung, the Chairman of the Preparatory Commission who was later elected chairman of the Federation, defined the tasks of private industrialists and businessmen in China's transitional period to Socialism. He said private industry and business would play an active role in this period and gradually take the path of state capitalism and of operation under the state plan.

Chen Shu-tung further explained the general line of China's economic construction in the period of transition: to realise in stages the socialist industrialisation of the country and to carry out the socialist transformation by the state of agriculture, handicrafts, private industry and commerce step by step over a long period.

State capitalism is the healthy medium through which the socialist transformation of private industry and commerce in China can be gradually carried out, declared Li Wei-han, Vice-Chairman of the Committee of Finance and Economic Affairs of the Central People's Government, in his report to the Congress. "State capitalism," he explained, "is a type of economy under the direct leadership of the socialist economy, in which the socialist elements link up or coperate with the capitalist elements."

The delegates passed a resolution approving the speeches made by Chen Shu-tung and Li Wei-han. They expressed their readiness and enthusiasm to support the general line of the nation's economic construction in the period of transition.

The Congress sent a message of greeting to Chairman Mao Tse-tung pledging the utmost effort of those represented for the realisation of the general line.

State Orders to Private Industry

Sixty-six per cent of the total output of private industry in Tientsin in the first six months of this year was produced under government contract.

Government contracts accounted for all cotton yarn, caustic soda, rubber shoes and electric motors turned out by private-owned factories in this city, North China's biggest light industry and commer-

cial centre, as well as the entire output of 42 other important items.

In the southern port of Canton, 64.8% of the output of private industry in the fourth quarter of the year will be under government contract. It is estimated that the value of output by privately-owned factories in this year will be 40% above last year's—and the highest since liberation.

In the inland Yangtze River city of Chungking, the industrial centre of Southwest China, government contracts account for over 60% of the total output of private industry, including handicraft workshops.

Water Transport Progress

China is making steady progress in transport by water.

More than 90,000 kilometres of inland waterways are now navigable. River transport is vitally important to urban-rural trade, the supply of fuel and grain and the delivery of material to construction sites.

More than 1,700 kilometres of the Grand Canal have been surveyed this year in preparation for its renovation. On the Yangtze River, night navigation has been greatly facilitated by the installation of lights and other aids.

Many privately-owned shipping companies have come under joint state and private ownership by voluntary arrangement. An outstanding example is the Ming Sung Company, which moves large quantities of freight along the rivers of Southwest China. Since it was placed under joint administration in September last year, its loading capacity has increased 27%, the volume of goods transported has doubled the company's highest previous record and freight rates have been cut by over 30%.

In maritime transport, the five biggest harbours in China have come under the management of the Central People's Government as a result of transfer from local authorities this May.

Shenyang Builds Machines

Shenyang (Mukden), Northeast China's biggest city, has been developed as a machine-building cen- Ancient Chinese Paintings tre and now produces one-fourth of all machines made in China.

Shenyang-made machines are being supplied to other machinebuilding plants, mining and metallurgical centres, steam and hydroelectrical stations all over the country. Rollers from Shenyang are now being installed in the Anshan Heavy Steel Rolling Mill, the biggest of its kind in China, which is scheduled for early completion.

Four of the country's ten major industrial projects now under construction in China are located in Shenyang: two machine-tool plants, the largest wire and cable plant in China and a pneumatic tool plant. In addition, 39 existing factories are being expanded this year in Shenyang.

Pioneer Counsellors Meet

The second national conference on Young Pioneer work was held in Peking from November 2 to 10. Over 300 Pioneer counsellors, personnel in Pioneer organisations and editorial staff members of publications attended the meeting. They heard and discussed a report by Commander-in-Chief Chu Teh in which he pointed out the vital importance of the training of a new generation for the building of a Communist society in China; a report by Hu Keshih of the Secretariat of the Central Committee of the China New Democratic Youth League, entitled "To Nurture New People for Socialism;" and other speeches. All agreed that the primary task of the Young Pioneers' organisation should be to help school children to study well, to observe school discipline and to take part in school activities, as well as to provide for the children's over-all development.

During the conference, the Central Committee of the China New Democratic Youth League, which sponsored this conference, made awards to 83 Pioneer counsellors for their outstanding work.

The first national conference on work among Young Pioneers was used in the manufacture of lowheld in April 1950, shortly after the formation of the Young Pioneer organisation. The organisation now has seven million members.

The Ministry of Cultural Affairs has opened an exhibition of ancient Chinese paintings at the Peking Palace Museum.

The 500 works of art shown range in time from the Sui Dynasty (A.D. 581-617) to the Ching Dynasty (A.D. 1644-1911).

"Spring The famous painting Festival" by Chan Tse-chien (Sui Dynasty) is the oldest on exhibition. It is remarkable for its lively treatment of figures and land-

The array of outstanding paintings of the Sung Dynasty (A.D. 960-1279) gives insight into the glories of the art of this period in which Chinese painting reached maturity. Typical are Chang Tsetuan's panoramic views of the busy and varied life in town and countryside. Other works of period cover a wide range of subjects, including horses, fish, birds, flowers and trees.

Writing in the People's Daily, the noted art critic Cheng Chen-to has noted how many varied aspects of nature and social phenomena have been depicted in Chinese painting, with its tradition extending over 2,000 years, and how each phase of its development has created its own characteristic styles and masterpieces, and how even the oldest paintings seem fresh today because they are so essentially true to life. This exhibition, he goes on, enables present-day artists and the people to study and appreciate the fine traditions of ancient Chinese art which were inaccessible to them in the past.

Briefs

China's largest brick works was recently completed at Lianghsiang, 50 kilometres south of Peking. It will make enough bricks each year to build 195 three-storied buildings with a floor space of 600 square metres each.

Low carbon ferro-manganese, carbon steel, has been made in China for the first time by the Anlow carbon ferro-manganese used Democratic Republic.

in China's factories had to be imported and high carbon ferromanganese was often used instead, thus affecting the quality of lowcarbon steel made.

Large quantities of attractive and colourful silk and satin fabrics are being shipped to home and foreign markets from Hangchow, one of China's most important silkweaving centres. The silk mills of Hangehow plan to turn out more than 4 million yards of top-quality silk and satin fabrics in the fourth

CHRONICLE OF EVENTS

November 7

quarter of this year.

The 36th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution is celebrated in China.

November 8

The first national Chinese traditional sports meeting opens in Tientsin.

November 12

The Government Delegation of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea headed by Marshal Kim Il Sung, Premier of the Korean People's Republic, arrives in Peking.

The Korean and Chinese authorities begin publication of the depositions of 19 captured U.S. airmen who had participated in the waging of U.S. germ warfare in Korea.

The Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the German Democratic Republic, Johannes Konig, presents his credentials to Chairman Mao Tse-tung.

November 14

The delegates of the two sides at Panmunjom issue a joint communique approving the agreement reached in the advisers' meeting between the two sides on the agenda and procedure for the discussions between the two sides concerning the Political Conference.

An agreement on scientific and technical co-operation is signed shan Steel Works. Formerly the between China and the German

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