

PEOPLE'S CHINA



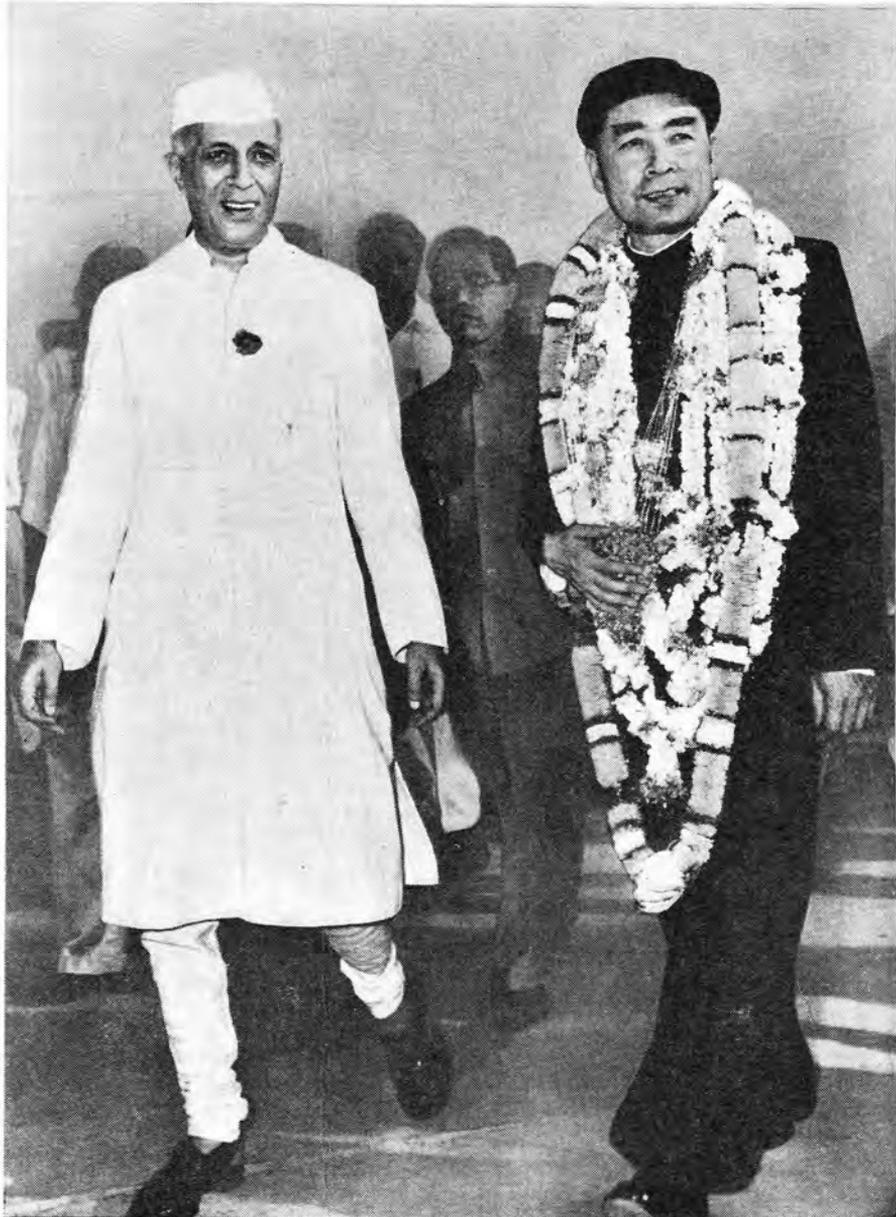
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Premier Chou En-lai and Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru. A picture taken at the New Delhi Airport on June 25 when Premier Chou arrived in India as the guest of Prime Minister Nehru

Peaceful Negotiations Score Another Great Victory

Editorial in the Peking "People's Daily," July 22, 1954

THE Geneva Conference, which was followed with the deepest interest by people throughout the world, is now over. On July 21 agreement was reached in the negotiations for an armistice and the restoration of peace in Indo-China. This striking result was brought about by the tremendous efforts made by peace-loving people and countries throughout the world.

Thus, following the Korean armistice, another grave conflict—the eight-year-old war in Indo-China—has been declared at an end. The aspirations of all people of the world who desire and work for peace—particularly at this moment the peoples of Indo-China and France—are beginning to be realized. This great victory is bound to help in the promotion of collective peace and security in Asia and the further relaxation of international tension. It is an achievement of immense historic significance, bringing joy and inspiration to all mankind.

The reaching of agreement on Indo-China represents an important success for the Geneva Conference. It is another great victory for the principle of peaceful negotiation and peaceful coexistence. It proves eloquently that in the present world situation, every international dispute must and can be settled through peaceful negotiation. Given sincerity in the conduct of negotiations by all parties concerned, a peaceful settlement can be secured even in extremely acute and complex disputes.

The Geneva Conference has demonstrated to the whole world that the use of force to settle international disputes is fruitless, and

that the age of settling international disputes by negotiation is here to stay.

As Chou En-lai, Chinese Premier and Foreign Minister, pointed out at the July 21 session of the Geneva Conference: "The armistice in Indo-China once again testifies that the forces for peace are irresistible. More and more nations of the world are coming out for peaceful coexistence. No policy of strength aimed at creating splits and forming opposing military groups can have the support of the people. What the peoples of Asia desire is certainly not splits or antagonism, but peace and cooperation."

THE Geneva Conference agreements on Indo-China were reached on the basis of respect for the national rights of the Indo-Chinese peoples to peace, independence, democracy and unity. By the terms of the agreements, France is to respect the independence, sovereignty, unity and territorial integrity of the three Indo-Chinese states. The latter are to hold free nation-wide elections within stipulated periods with a view to achieving democracy and unification in their respective countries. National independence and freedom, the achievement of democracy and unification in their countries, and lasting peace are the very objectives for which the Indo-Chinese peoples have been striving for many years. To attain these noble ends, the Indo-Chinese peoples have waged an heroic struggle which has commanded the respect of humanity. Their just struggle won the sympathy and support of

the whole of progressive mankind. They consequently went from strength to strength and achieved magnificent victories during their eight years' war for national liberation.

On more than one occasion President Ho Chi Minh of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam put forward proposals embodying the desire to negotiate with France for cessation of hostilities. The resistance governments of Pathet Lao and Khmer and their peoples also voiced the same desire. But though the Indo-Chinese people's call for peace was unreasonably rejected time and again and certain parties dreamed of subduing their movement for national liberation by force, the Indo-Chinese people, like other nations which have stood on their own feet and determined to fight for independence, freedom and peace, have shown themselves unconquerable. When the people of the world take the cause of peace into their own hands, the forces of peace become invincible. The convening of the Geneva Conference and the arrival at agreement on the Indo-China question are clear proof that these forces are irresistible.

IN the Geneva discussions on the Indo-China question, the desire for agreement and the conciliatory spirit shown by the Delegation of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam and the French Delegation were the main basis for reaching agreement. At the same time, the energetic assistance of the Soviet, Chinese and British Delegations played a vital role.

The constructive eight-point proposal for the restoration of peace in Indo-China which the Delegation of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam put forward at the outset, and the proposals it subsequently submitted in order to narrow down differences, had the whole-hearted support of the Chinese and Soviet Delegations. They provided a solid basis for the peaceful settlement of the Indo-China question.

The agreements of the conference on the cessation of hostilities in Viet-Nam, Cambodia and Laos, on the international supervision of the armistice and the composition of the supervisory body, on the demarcation lines for the regroupment areas—and the final declaration, were brought about as a result of the efforts made by the Viet-Nameese, Chinese and Soviet

Delegations to resolve the differences between the various parties.

The delegation of the pro-war Laniel-Bidault Government acted against the will of the French people by following the policy of the United States of seeking to continue and extend the war. In the upshot, it was thrown out by the people. The efforts made by the new French Premier and Foreign Minister, M. Mendes-France, in working for the Indo-China armistice won favour both inside and outside France.

ACTING on the Chinese Government's consistent foreign policy of peace, the Delegation of the People's Republic of China made tireless efforts to bring about agreement at the Geneva Conference, thus reflecting the unyielding determination of the 600 million people of China to work for peace in Asia and the whole world.

For the first time as one of the Big Powers, the People's Republic of China joined the other major powers in negotiation on vital international problems and made a contribution of its own that won the acclaim of wide sections of world public opinion. The international status of the People's Republic of China as one of the big world powers has gained universal recognition. Its international prestige has been greatly enhanced. The Chinese people take the greatest joy and pride in the efforts and achievements of their delegation at Geneva.

The restoration of peace in Indo-China has opened still brighter prospects for collective peace in Asia and the world. The recent joint statements made by the Prime Ministers of China and India, and China and Burma, expressed their common hope that the Geneva Conference would be able to restore peace in Indo-China. They also held that the five principles of mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty, non-aggression, non-interference in each other's internal affairs, equality and mutual benefit, and peaceful coexistence were applicable not only to Sino-Indian and Sino-Burmese relations but to international relations in general.

President Ho Chi Minh of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam declared his support for

these two joint statements. They were also warmly received and supported in a number of other countries in Asia and the rest of the world. It is indeed the view of wide sections of opinion in all countries that if these principles are accepted and observed, countries with different social and political systems in Asia and the rest of the world can coexist peacefully, that any international dispute can be settled by negotiation, and world peace can thus be assured.

It is clear that the agreements reached at the Geneva Conference on the Indo-China question will greatly advance the cause of collective peace in Asia and promote the development of relations between all Asian countries. Thus international tension will be further lessened, the danger of war eliminated and the cause of world peace advanced.

AGREEMENT on the restoration of peace in Indo-China marks another ignominious setback for the U.S. "policy of strength." Ever since the Korean armistice, those who rule the United States, seeking to prevent the further easing of international tension, have made every effort to intervene directly in the Indo-China war and expand it and to embark on new military adventures in Asia. In pursuit of this sinister objective, the U.S. Delegation at the Geneva Conference, instead of making constructive proposals, persistently opposed the reasonable proposals of other delegations. It did everything possible to widen differences and create obstacles to wreck the Geneva Conference and block the road of international negotiation so that the United States could freely carry out its policy of war.

U.S. Secretary of State John Foster Dulles spared no effort in working out his "united action" scheme for extending the Indo-China war. He tried every possible kind of threat and blackmail to coerce Britain, France and other countries to form a Southeast Asian aggressive bloc which would have as its purpose the suppression of the national-liberation movement of Asia, the ousting of Britain and France from that area, and the acceleration of the criminal U.S. moves to build a new colonial empire. Even when the Conference entered its final, decisive stage, the United

States still tried to boycott it by refusing to send a delegate of ministerial rank to attend. Moreover, Dulles himself went to Paris to continue his work of obstruction.

Despite all this intriguing and scheming, the U.S. ruling clique failed to prevent the victory of peaceful negotiations. The Geneva Conference overcame all American obstructions and sabotage and arrived at an honourable agreement.

The agreements stipulate that the three Indo-Chinese states shall not join in any military alliance and that no foreign country shall be permitted to set up military bases in their territories. This is another heavy blow at U.S. plans for a Southeast Asian aggressive bloc. Because the rulers of the United States have relentlessly pursued a policy hostile to peace, they now find themselves isolated among the nations as never before.

THE armistice in Indo-China is only the first step towards the peaceful settlement of the Indo-China question. In order to consolidate peace in Indo-China and thus strengthen peace throughout Asia, all the countries concerned must guarantee the implementation of the agreements and the attainment of democracy and unification by the countries of Indo-China. They must stand guard against any plot to undermine peace in Indo-China.

It is certain that the agreements reached at the Geneva Conference on the Indo-China question will win the support of all countries of the world, and particularly the countries of Asia, and of all those in every land who love peace. The Chinese Government and people wholeheartedly approve and support these agreements. They will strive with redoubled confidence, together with all peace-loving peoples and states of the world, for the thorough implementation of these agreements. They will continue their efforts to oppose the U.S. imperialist policy of strength and to defend and consolidate world peace. It is our firm conviction that the people of the world will, with still greater courage and confidence, strive in unity and with redoubled efforts against the danger of war and for peace. Peace will surely triumph over war!

How China Went to the Polls

Hsieh Chueh-tsai

Minister of the Interior

China's new Electoral Law promulgated on March 1, 1953 laid down regulations for the conduct of the first general election ever to be held in China. This election, which is now being held, has certain special features. Owing to the vast size and population of the country and the great differences in conditions that exist in different areas, it is taking place by stages covering many months.

The first stage, which is dealt with in the accompanying article, is the election of deputies to the various local people's congresses in hsiang, towns and municipal districts and municipalities undivided into districts—the basic electoral units.

Further details of China's general election may be found in the "Electoral Law of the People's Republic of China for the All-China People's Congress and Local People's Congresses of All Levels" which appeared as a supplement to People's China, No. 7, 1953 and "China's General Election Has Begun" in No. 19, 1953.

THE first stage of China's first general election, which began in April 1953, was successfully completed by the end of May 1954. In this stage over 210,000 local organs of state power have been elected—people's congresses of the various *hsiang*,* towns, municipal districts of the larger cities and municipalities too small to be divided into districts. These basic units then went on to elect the local people's congresses of the next higher level—people's congresses at county and municipal level. These in turn are now meeting all over the country to elect the people's congresses for the provinces and autonomous regions. Finally these provincial and regional congresses will

elect the First National People's Congress, the highest organ of state power of the People's Republic of China.

Bearing in mind the fact that these elections are the most democratic elections ever held in a country, whose more than 600 million people have not long emerged from centuries of barbarous feudal rule and imperialist oppression, their success to date must be held to be an event of world-wide importance.

People of all nationalities in China in town or countryside, in the mountain regions or on the islands, have exercised their democratic rights with joy and enthusiasm. They have elected those whom they respect and trust most to serve them on the local people's congresses. When the first National People's Con-

* *Hsiang*: an administrative area coming below the county level and comprising several villages.

gress, the final product of the general election, comes into being, this will mark the further consolidation of the Chinese people's state system—a people's democracy led by the working class and based on the alliance of workers and peasants. This consolidation of the political system will ensure China's steady transition through the period of socialist construction and transformation to a socialist society free from exploitation of man by man.

Democratic Electoral System

The electoral system of China is democratic in the full sense of the word. It takes into account all special circumstances and conditions in the country. All citizens of the People's Republic of China who have reached the age of eighteen have the right to elect and be elected irrespective of nationality, race, sex, occupation, social origin, religious belief, education, property status and length of residence. According to statistics compiled for the local elections, such electors constitute 97.18 per cent of the total number of adults (over eighteen years of age) in the areas where elections were held. There was complete equality among electors both men and women. Those deprived by law of the right to vote form only a small fraction of the population. Including insane persons they constitute only 1.64 per cent of the total population of the areas where elections were held.

Provision is made for representation of the national minorities in the people's congresses at every level. Wherever a national minority group lives in any numbers, it has its own deputies; no matter how small such a national minority group may be, it receives at least one seat in the appropriate congress.

Thorough Preparations

The most careful preparations had been made throughout the country in the period preceding the elections to the local people's congresses. There was a scientifically conducted, nation-wide census of the population, the first of its kind in China's long history; comprehensive and thorough explanations of the Electoral Law were given to the public. Specially qualified personnel were trained to take an active part in organizing early elections in several thousand basic elec-

toral units. The practical experience thus gained served them in good stead when they went to help with electoral work in other parts of the country. Local electoral committees comprising two million men and women of proven integrity, able to keep in close contact with the people, were set up in all parts of the country to supervise the elections.

Particulars of the electors were collected and examined with great care and tact, so as to create as little inconvenience as possible. This was done in every constituency with the active participation of the local electors. As a result, not a single citizen was wrongly deprived of his electoral rights, nor was anyone who had forfeited his right to vote allowed to do so. Wherever there was a dissenting opinion or complaint following publication of the register of electors, the local electoral committee and the people's tribunal immediately re-examined the case.

In the election campaign for the local people's congresses, candidates were either jointly or separately nominated by the Chinese Communist Party, various democratic parties, people's organizations, individual electors or their representatives.

Initial suggestions were first solicited from small groups of electors through the members of the various political parties and organizations. Then at the request of the electoral committee, and after discussions among representatives of the various parties and organizations, the first list of candidates was prepared. This list was then passed on to the electors for general consideration, and then, after exhaustive discussions the final list of candidates was produced by the electoral committee in accordance with the expressed wishes of the majority of the electors. At the polls, however, voters could still vote for any candidate of their choice, even though not appearing on the list.

Local elections below county level were held directly by secret ballot. In many places, however, especially in the countryside, voting by show of hands was also permitted, to enable voters who were illiterate or semi-literate to take part in the elections. Mobile ballot boxes were brought to aged people, expectant mo-

thers and invalids unable to come to the polling stations, so that they too could cast their votes.

Enthusiastic Voters

Electors in every part of the country were keen to take part in the election: 85.88 per cent of the total electorate and 84.01 per cent of the women electors voted. The poll was even heavier in the old revolutionary bases. In the 42 *hsiang* of Juichin County, Kiangsi Province—the centre of the Second Revolutionary Civil War (1927-1936)—92 per cent of the electors voted. And in Ching kang-shan District—the first base of the democratic revolution led by the Chinese Communist Party—99.8 per cent voted.

To greet the election campaign and celebrate its success, the Chinese working people launched emulation drives and established new production records. Workers and staff of 32 factories and enterprises, both state-owned and jointly operated by the state and private capital, pledged themselves to “greet the general election with new production records.” They fulfilled production quotas for the first quarter of the year ahead of schedule.

Women electors came to the polls in high spirits. The wedding day of Chiang Pao-chen, a young woman from Kuochuangtze Village, near Tientsin, coincided with election day. The bridal car was ready when voting started. But the first thing the bride did, before setting out for the ceremony, was to cast her vote!

It is difficult to describe the enthusiasm of the national minority peoples in the election campaign. Women of the Hui nationality in the Niushouhsiang District of Nanking came to the polling station dressed in their holiday best. The Miao people in Yupu *Hsiang*, the Miao Autonomous Region in mountainous Tamiao-shan, Kwangsi Province, danced and played their reed pipes in festive demonstration to the polling station. Young and old rejoiced.

Voters took the view that in this election they were “choosing their guides to socialism.” They voted enthusiastically for candidates who are members of the Chinese Communist Party

and outstanding workers. Among the 80,000 and more deputies elected from 2,300-odd local electoral units in Szechuan Province, over 33,000 are Communists and Youth League members. In the cities workers form a large proportion of the deputies elected. In Tientsin's nine districts, 69 per cent of the deputies are workers, and in Shenyang's nine districts, 74 per cent.

Favoured candidates in the towns were outstanding workers in the campaign to increase production and practise economy; in the countryside they were leaders of mutual-aid teams and cooperatives. Wang Chung-lun, nationally famous industrial labour model who fulfilled over four years' quota of work in a year, and Li Shun-ta, winner of the 1952 Patriotic Bumper Harvest Gold Medal, were among those elected.

The elections demonstrated the raised political status of women in New China. Of the 5,669,144 persons elected to local people's congresses throughout the country, 17.31 per cent are women. Many women model workers who have rendered outstanding services to their country have been elected. Among these are Shen Chi-lan, model agricultural worker and China's representative to the 1953 World Congress of Women; Han Kuei-hua, nationally famous model worker of the textile industry; Lu Ta-ma, National Model in Patriotic Health Work; Teng Fang-chih, mother of Huang Chi-kuang (Hero of the Chinese People's Volunteers, Special Class); and Hu Wen-hsiu, whose daughter Liu Hu-lan died a hero's death in the War of Resistance to Japanese Aggression.

The number of deputies from the national minorities is rather greater than the proportion their numbers bear to the population of the areas where elections were held. For instance, the Tibetan and Yi nationalities constitute only 10.4 per cent of the population of the eleven *hsiang* and one autonomous *hsiang* in Shihmien County, Sikang Province, but 15.4 per cent of the deputies elected to the people's congress of the county are either Tibetans or Yis. The Sala people in Kansu have a deputy although their number is very small. In some national minority areas where conditions are

suitable, national autonomy was established at the time of the elections.

United Front Strengthened

The democratic spirit fostered by the local elections has further consolidated and developed the people's democratic united front. This is illustrated by the broadly representative character of the deputies elected throughout the country. Of the 1,200 deputies elected in Peking's seven districts, workers constitute 32.8 per cent; officials and staff of popular and governmental bodies, 15.7 per cent; cultural, educational and medical workers, 15.2 per cent; engineers and technicians, 1.4 per cent; co-operative workers, 3 per cent; private industrialists and merchants, 9.8 per cent; religious leaders, 1.6 per cent; and other Peking residents (including dependants of workers and employees, individual labourers and pedlars), 20.5 per cent. This shows convincingly enough the mutual trust, unity and cooperation that exists among the different classes, democratic parties and nationalities in the course of the elections.

The local people's congresses throughout the country are now being convened. Their main concern is how to carry out the general tasks of the state in the period of

transition to socialism. After democratic discussions which take close heed of local conditions, they are adopting practical resolutions on all the important tasks in their own areas connected with socialist construction and the socialist transformation of the country.

The people's congresses collect and express the opinions and demands of the people in relation to production and questions of daily life. They play a big part in the all-round improvement of the work of government. For instance, people's congresses of 32 *hsiang* in Huchu County, Chinghai Province, have since their election received 3,851 letters from the people making proposals and expressing opinions on economic construction and the work of government personnel. These letters are seriously dealt with, and many such proposals have been adopted by the people's congresses.

The deputies of local people's congresses not only discuss and decide many important issues as representatives of the people when they are in session, but at all times maintain close contact with the electorate and take a constant part in the work of the local people's governments. Chao Sung-chiu, woman deputy to a district congress of Shenyang for instance, in the three months after she was elected canvassed more than 550 families of her electorate and collected over 180 suggestions.

The first local people's congresses have also all elected their local government officers. This has greatly strengthened the democratic system, improved the working methods and enhanced the efficiency of the country's government.

This means that, following the completion of the first stage of the general election, the 600 million industrious, courageous and peace-loving Chinese people are playing a bigger part than ever in the management of their own state. Consolidating the system of the people's democratic dictatorship, they are marching forward, determined and confident, along the road to socialism.



Women of Hsishan District in the Yi People's Autonomous Region, Mileh County, Yunnan Province, congratulating Lu Lan-fen (centre) on her election as their deputy

Budget for Peaceful Construction

Chu Chi-hsin

THE 1954 state budget examined and approved by the Central People's Government Council in mid-June reflects the sound basis of China's finance, the continued development of socialist industrialization, and the progress of the whole national economy of our country during the second year of the First Five-Year Plan. It reflects, too, the continued rise in the level of the people's material and cultural life, and the enthusiastic determination of the Chinese people to press ahead with their peaceful constructive work.

Sound Financial Position

The 1954 state budget estimates revenue at 274,708,600 million yuan and expenditure at 249,457,800 million yuan, resulting in a surplus of 25,250,800 million yuan. This represents a rise in both revenue and expenditure over 1953. Preliminary figures of revenue in 1953, including the balance carried over from 1952, are 256,709,600 million yuan, and of expenditure, 213,882,600 million yuan, giving a surplus of 42,827,000 million yuan.

There has been a budget surplus every year since 1951. Revenue has been increasing steadily, and in 1954 it is over three and a half times what it was in 1950.

The steady growth of revenue in the state budget is based on expanding production and the increasing national income. In 1953, for example, the total value of industrial and agricultural production for the whole country was estimated to have increased by 11.4 per cent as compared with 1952. The average yearly real wage of workers and staff in state-owned economic enterprises was more than 5 per cent higher than in 1952, while the purchasing power of the people as a whole increased by about 20 per cent over 1952.

As in the budgets of the past four years, income from enterprises of a socialist nature

continues to occupy first place among revenue sources in 1954. The proportion of total revenue receipts from state-owned economy has increased from 62.60 per cent in 1953 to 63.58 per cent. The proportion from cooperative economy increased in the same period from 2.48 per cent to 2.56 per cent; while that of the joint state and private enterprises increased from 1.23 per cent to 2.93 per cent. The combined income from these three sources increased from 66.31 per cent to 69.07 per cent of the total budget income.

These figures show the growth of the socialist sector in the national economy and the increasing importance in the state budget of revenue from state-owned, cooperative and joint state and private enterprises.

Though the life of the peasants took an immediate turn for the better with land reform, it is not really possible in a short period to bring about far-reaching improvements. Bearing this in mind and with a view to fully developing their enthusiasm for increasing production, the People's Government has kept the agricultural tax at the 1952 level for the three years beginning 1953, as a means of lightening their financial burden. Thus, though the peasants' incomes have risen considerably in recent years, they pay no extra taxes. In fact, in 1954, the proportion of the budget receipts from the peasants decreases from 13.48 per cent last year to 13.43 per cent. Even though the financial contribution of the masses of the peasants to large-scale construction of the country does not increase significantly, they are enjoying more and more of the fruits of industrialization.

As a result of the change in the ratio between the state and privately-owned sectors of the economy, the proportion of revenue from private industry and commerce also declines

from 17.02 per cent in 1953 to 15.4 per cent in the current year. The growth of the socialist sector and the relative decline in the proportion of the private capitalist sector are the inevitable results of China's transition to socialism.

The increase of state revenue and the creation of a budget surplus on the basis of expanded production fully demonstrates that the budgets of 1954 and preceding years are all based on reliable foundations and are thoroughly sound. They stand in sharp contrast to the budgets of those capitalist countries where, despite every attempt made to increase taxation of the working people, the budget still remains unbalanced.

The major portion of expenditure in the 1954 state budget is for development of the national economy and social, cultural and educational work. The appropriations for these items are aimed at enabling the constructive tasks of the second year of the First Five-Year Plan to be fulfilled, so bringing about a steady rise in the conditions of the people's material and cultural life.

Big Capital Investments

As in past years, the largest item of expenditure in the 1954 state budget is the allocation for national construction. This amounts to 60.1 per cent, or nearly two-thirds of the total expenditure.

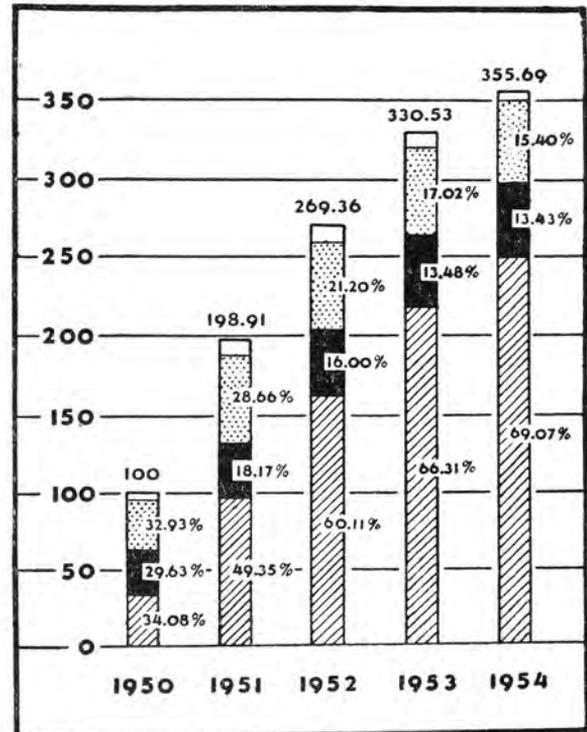
Appropriations for economic construction account for 45.39 per cent of total budget expenditure in 1954. This is 31.63 per cent more than in 1953. The appropriations for economic construction to restore and expand the national economy have increased rapidly in each of the past five years and reach their highest figure in 1954, when they amount to six and a half times the figure for 1950.

The current vast investment in economic construction will further expand the national economy. According to the state plan, the total value of China's industrial and agricultural output in 1954 will increase by 12.6 per cent compared with 1953. Such a tempo of economic development far exceeds that in capitalist countries.

The plan to develop the national economy is centred around the development of industry, especially heavy industry, which ensures the

Annual Increase in State Revenue (Showing Sources)

Figures for 1953, provisional; 1954, budget estimate



Revenue from state-owned enterprises and cooperatives

Figures for 1953 and 1954 include revenue from joint state and public enterprises

Revenue from the peasants

Revenue from private industry and commerce

Revenue from other sources

further expansion of light industry and other branches of the economy. Thus the funds allocated to industrial enterprises under the state budget in 1954 amount to 47.8 per cent of all economic construction funds. This is a 26.27 per cent increase over 1953. These funds include not only the amounts necessary for investment in capital construction in 1954 but also the amounts needed to ensure fulfilment of this year's plan to increase industrial production.

Capital construction takes the lion's share of the huge appropriations for economic construction in 1954. Hundreds of important projects are being built or renovated this year.

Dozens of newly built or renovated plants or mines will also go into production in 1954. These include coal mines, power plants, oil fields, iron and steel plants, non-ferrous mines, machine-building plants, textile mills, paper mills, etc.

Socialist Industrialization

China, in recent years, has recorded tremendous achievements in the development of industrial production. In pre-liberation days, modern industry accounted for only a little over 10 per cent of the total value of industrial and agricultural production. It was 28 per cent in 1952 and was estimated at 31.6 per cent in 1953. The value of the output of modern industry in 1954 will be 18.3 per cent more than last year's. This means China will take another big stride nearer the goal of socialist industrialization.

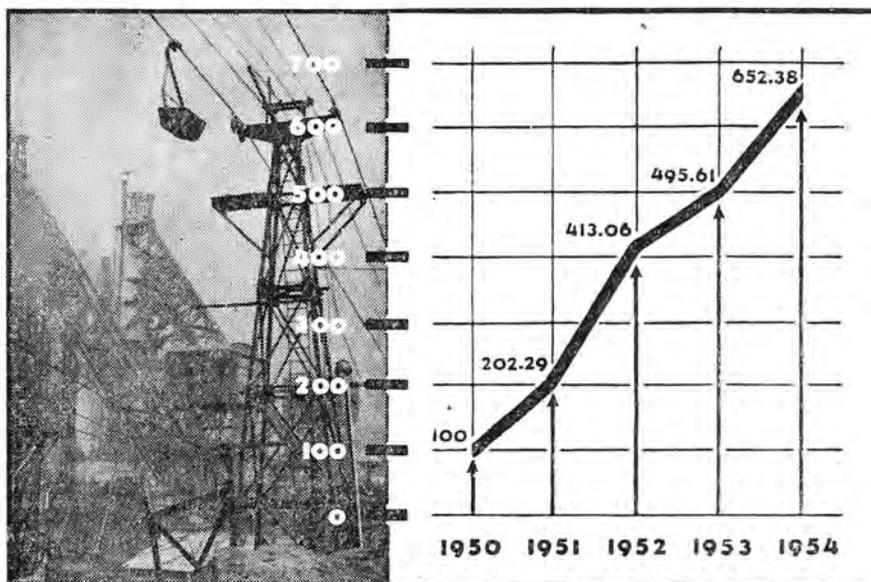
The national economic plan prescribes the further development of agriculture, forestry and water conservancy this year in conformity with the expansion of industry. In the 1954 budget, funds allocated for these purposes make up 10.55 per cent of the appropriations for economic construction. This is 5.53 per cent more than in 1953.

The following goals in agriculture are set for 1954: a further increase in grain and cotton output; the establishment of 54 new state mechanized farms; and the organization of over 80,000 additional agricultural producers' co-operatives. Within this year those who have joined mutual-aid teams and agricultural producers' cooperatives will constitute 59 per cent of the total number of peasant households in the country. With the reaching of these goals, agricultural production will be increased this year; the socialist sector in agricultural economy will be expanded; and a further step forward taken in the socialist transformation of agriculture.

The 1954 budget, compared with that of 1953, makes increased allocations for the development of foreign and home trade, for the state management of grain supplies, for the expansion and improvement of railways, road and water communications, posts and tele-communications. This will ensure the necessary expansion in these fields and help the over-all development of the national economy, thereby serving the needs of national construction and the people in the best possible manner. In expanding the above-mentioned departments and branches of

the national economy, due consideration is being given to strengthening the socialist sector of the economy. This will provide favourable conditions for the successful execution of the budget.

The 1954 state budget also reflects the concern of the state for social, cultural and educational work, science and public health, etc. Allocations for these purposes (excluding labour insurance funds) make up 14.71 per cent of the total 1954 budget expenditure. This shows a 15.2 per cent increase compared with 1953 and is greater



Annual Increase of State Investments in National Economic Construction

Figures for 1953, provisional; 1954, budget estimate

than the combined 1951 and 1952 appropriations for these purposes.

The few figures following suffice to show how these large funds will facilitate the development of social, cultural and educational work. The higher educational institutions plan to enrol over 90,000 students in 1954, about 14,000 more than in 1953. The secondary technical schools and short-term workers' and peasants' middle schools will enrol more than 127,000 new students, over 24,000 more than last year. Ordinary middle schools will enrol about 1,350,000 new students in both junior and senior sections, an increase of more than 353,000 over 1953. The hospitals under the Ministry of Public Health will have over 207,500 beds, which is about 16,500 more than last year.

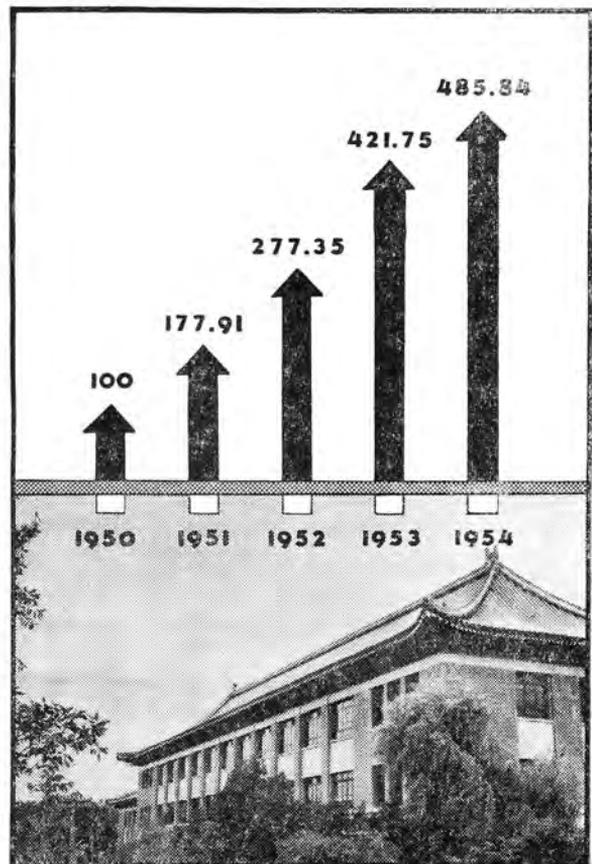
On the basis of increased production and higher labour productivity (the planned increase of labour productivity in 1954 in state-owned industries is 13.2 per cent), the average wage of workers and staff in state enterprises, and of personnel in cultural and educational institutions and government organizations throughout the country will increase by 5.2 per cent this year as compared with 1953. The purchasing power of the people will be 13.8 per cent greater than in 1953 and the working people's standards of living will be further improved.

Budget for Peace

Peaceful and secure conditions are necessary for the development of national construction and the improvement of the people's livelihood. National defence must therefore be strengthened to safeguard the fruits of the revolution and the achievements of our peaceful labour. Since the very day of its founding, the People's Republic of China has consistently pursued a policy of peaceful construction. War elements in the United States, however, have adopted and consistently pursued a policy inimical to New China and threaten her security by various acts of armed aggression. So far they are unwilling to ease international tension. The Chinese people are obliged to exercise the greatest vigilance in face of these threats. For this reason 21.11 per cent of the total budget expenditure for 1954 will be devoted to national defence, a percentage lower in fact than in 1953.

Annual Increase of State Investments in Social, Cultural and Educational Work

Figures for 1953, provisional; 1954, budget estimate



The essentially peaceful character of China's budget is vividly demonstrated when this figure is compared with the military appropriations of the United States. No less than 68 per cent of the U.S. budget for the fiscal year ending June 1955 goes directly for military purposes. In that same budget, the Eisenhower government further slashed the relatively miserly appropriations for housing, agriculture, social welfare and public health by about two billion U.S. dollars.

The 1954 budget of the People's Republic of China stands out as a soundly based budget for peaceful construction. Its successful execution will play a great role in speeding the socialist industrialization of the country and further improving the material and cultural life of the people.

Cultural Relations Between China and India

Chi Hsien-lin

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ON JUNE 27 during his visit to India at the invitation of Jawaharlal Nehru, Prime Minister of the Republic of India, Chou En-lai, Premier of the People's Republic of China, said in a broadcast to the Indian people:

Since very ancient days, profound friendship has existed between the peoples of China and India. A border covering a great distance of nearly 3,000 kilometres links together the two nations. Century after century, history has recorded peaceful cultural and economic interchanges, but never war or animosity between our two countries.

China and India are two great neighbouring countries in Asia. Their combined population of 960 million people represents more than a third of the human race. Both have a splendid cultural heritage of great antiquity. Their first contacts were established at a very early date and their relations have always been marked by peace and friendship. There has been no passage of arms between them: the sole traffic between them has been in trade and culture. That is a phenomenon rarely met with in the history of mankind. It is a fact of which both nations can be justly proud.

Early Contacts

The moment of the first friendly exchanges between the two peoples is lost in antiquity, but there are indications that suggest an approximate date for the earliest known contacts. The ancient astronomers of both nations divided the heavenly bodies into 28 constellations. These were called in Chinese the system of "Erh Shih Pa Hsiu." From the standpoint of sidereal phenomena, the number 28 is of course quite arbitrary, and it would be strange indeed if the peoples of these two countries had arrived in-

dependently at the same arbitrary number. To say that one learned from the other seems nearer the truth. It is of no practical importance to ascertain who was the giver and who the receiver, but from the fact that the "Erh Shih Pa Hsiu" theory was held by the Chinese as early as around 1100 B.C., we may conclude that cultural relations have in fact existed between the peoples of these two nations for more than three thousand years.

China was known to the ancient Indians as "Cīna," and this term occurs in many ancient Indian texts, such as the *Mahābhārata* and *Rāmāyana* epics. In the forty-fourth Gāthā of the Code of Manu (*Manusmṛiti*), reference is made to Chinese, Greeks and Sakas (the latter being an ancient nomad people who once inhabited Sinkiang and at another time, the north-western part of India).

There are also numerous references to India in ancient Chinese writings. Although their information about India may be somewhat obscured by myth and legend, we do, however, get some idea of how early the Chinese and Indian peoples began to know and have contacts with each other.

China was the first country in the world to produce silk, and Chinese silk is known to have been introduced into India not later than the fourth century B.C. In the *Arthaśāstra* written by the famous statesman Kautiliya in that century, we find this sentence:

Kauṣeyaṃ Cīnapattāśca Cīnabhūmijāḥ

(Silk and silk sashes are produced in China.)
Several Sanskrit words, such as *cīnapatta* (silk sash) and *cīnāṃśuka* (silk clothes), have the



Premier Chou En-lai and his party view one of the masterpieces of Indian architecture, the Tomb of Itimad-Ud-Daulah, during his recent visit to India

word *cīna* (China) as their root. From this we may conclude that Chinese silk was known in India at a very early date.

Although such facts indicate the early links that existed between China and India, the earliest formal historical documentation is found only in the second century B.C., in the Han Dynasty. In 138 B.C. Chang Chien, a court officer, was sent by the emperor as an envoy to *Hsi Yu*—the “Western Region,” roughly corresponding to the present north-western part of Kansu Province, Sinkiang Province and a part of Central Asia. He reported that he saw bamboo sticks and fabrics in Bactria (the northern part of Afghanistan) which were products of Szechuan Province. The Bactrians told him that these products were brought to Bactria by merchants from *Shen Tu*—the ancient Chinese name for India. These Szechuan goods transported to India and thence marketed in Bactria are conclusive proof that communication was already developed at that time between China and India.

Buddhism, which originated in ancient India, was introduced into China at a very early date. Tradition has it that two Buddhist monks named *Kāśyapa Mātanga* and *Dharmaratna* visited China during the Han Dynasty. This may or may not be true—it is not universally accepted as historical fact—but it can at least be said that Buddhism was in fact introduced into China in the first century A.D. In one of the Emperor Ming Ti’s edicts issued in 65 A.D., Buddhist terms such as *Fu Tu* (Buddha), *I Pu Se* (Upāsaka, lay Buddhist) and *Sang Men* (Sramana, Buddhist ascetic), are used, affording clear proof of the existence of a knowledge of Buddhism in China at that time.

Then began a period of lively intercourse between China and India. Defying the natural barriers of mountains, deserts and seas, many Chinese monks travelled the thousands of miles to India in pursuit of a knowledge of Buddhism. The best known among them are *Fa Hsien* in the fifth century, and *Yuan Chwang*

and I Tsing, both in the seventh century. All three left records of their journey to India and their travels in that country which are invaluable to us in our study of ancient Indian history. Many Indian monks are also known to have visited China. It is clear that there was considerable movement between China and India in these ancient times of monks, merchants and diplomatic envoys and their retinues. Chinese historical records show that during the sixth century A.D., many Indians resided in Loyang, one of the biggest cities in ancient China. This increasing traffic between the two countries inevitably led to a vigorous growth of cultural relations.

Rich Cultural Exchanges

Indian culture has also had great effects on Chinese culture. Indian cultural influences can be seen in the development of the popular literature of ancient China. A new form of literature appeared in China between the fifth and the seventh centuries—a literature of fairy tales, ghost stories and mythological anecdotes. Many of these stories had their origin in Bud-

dhist scriptures, which thus became a medium for the introduction of Indian folk tales into China. Several of these tales have retained their popularity to this day.

The so-called *Chuan Chi* (Stories of the Strange), were a literary innovation in Tang Dynasty times (618-907). These stories too reveal strong Indian influences. The “Dragon Kings” and “Dragon Damsels” who are frequently referred to in these *Chuan Chi* were importations from Indian folklore.

The *Pien Wen* (Transformed Writings) of the Tang Dynasty, which introduced a new literary style, were closely related to the Buddhist scriptures. The *Pien Wen* were cast in a popular literary form which combined prose and verse. Originally they dealt exclusively with stories told in the Buddhist scriptures. It was only in later times that they took other subjects for their themes. The *Pien Wen* were the forerunners of the *Hua Pen* (story books) of the Sung Dynasty (960-1279). These were stories written in a popular style, their language being very close to the vernacular. The



Members of the Indian Cultural Delegation which visited China in 1952 in the Yun Kang Grottoes of Shansi Province

development of the *Pien Wen* was of great significance in the history of development of Chinese literature.

Chinese phonology also shows Indian influence. The syllabary invented by a monk, Shou Wen, of the Tang Dynasty, which consisted of 36 syllables, was inspired by the Sanskrit alphabet.

Indian influence is seen to a greater or lesser extent almost everywhere in the sphere of Chinese art—sculpture, painting and music. Greek art introduced into Bactria absorbed Buddhist elements there and became a source of Gandhāran art. The influence of Gandhāran art is clearly visible in the sculptures of the Yun Kang Grottoes in northern Shansi Province (5th-6th century), and in the mural paintings of the Tunhuang Grottoes of western Kansu Province (4th-14th century), the famous treasure houses of ancient Chinese sculpture and painting.

Ancient Chinese medicine also shows Indian influences. Many medical books translated from the Indian languages are listed in the bibliographical section of the *Sui Shu*, a history of the Sui Dynasty (581-617). Although few of these books are now extant, it may reasonably be inferred that they were once widely read. Many Chinese medical treatises composed between the third and tenth century show traces of Indian influence. Indian doctors are known to have come to China during the Tang Dynasty to practise medicine. In the seventh century, as the histories record, one of the Tang emperors commissioned an Indian doctor to prepare him an elixir of life.

The influence of Indian culture is also seen in the Chinese language. Many Chinese words have their origin in the ancient Indian vernacular. The Chinese word for glass *liu li*, for instance, comes from the *verulia* (*vaidūrya* in Sanskrit) of Prakrit, an ancient Indian vernacular. Again, the Chinese word *ta* (pagoda) is derived from the Prakrit *thupa* (*Stupa* in Sanskrit). Such examples are too numerous to list.

Cultural relations between China and India are of course a two-way traffic. If Chinese culture has been deeply influenced by India, the contrary is also true. We have already mentioned the introduction of Chinese silk into

India. Of far greater importance to India was the art of paper-making, one of the greatest inventions of ancient China. The invention of paper in the year 105 A.D. is attributed to Tsai Lun.* It was introduced into India in the seventh century at the latest, and the art of paper-making soon followed. Before the introduction of paper-making, Indians used to write on the bark of the white birch and the leaves of the *pattra* or palm tree. With the mastering of the craft of paper-making and, later, the art of printing, the production of books was greatly increased and the propagation of culture accelerated.

These examples show that for centuries there has been a long, lively history of cultural exchange between the Chinese and Indian peoples. This has enriched the fine national cultures of both countries and laid the foundation of the unique tradition of friendship between them.

Imperialists Intervene

These friendly relations, however, suffered a setback from the 16th century onwards, when the aggressive forces of the West forced their way into the affairs of the East. They exercised a baneful influence on India. The foundation of India's social structure was shaken and her cultural tradition disrupted. As a result of aggressions by various capitalist countries beginning in the mid-19th century, China found herself faced with the same fate as India. The peoples of the two countries were reduced to a state of utmost misery by imperialist oppression and exploitation. Under such conditions it was impossible for them freely to carry on their cultural exchange.

Although the long tradition of free intercourse between China and India was interrupted by the intrusion of the Western imperialists, the memory of the traditional friendship between the two countries has always been preserved by their peoples. In fact, their friendship and mutual understanding have become even greater, since they were both faced with a struggle for freedom and independence against the aggression and oppression of foreign colonialism. Early in the present century, cul-

* See "Paper-Making and Printing" in *People's China*, No. 12, June 16, 1954.

tural relations between China and India began to revive. The noble tradition of Chinese art gave a powerful impetus to the revival of painting in India. Many great modern Indian painters have shown the direct influence of the brushwork of Chinese painting and calligraphy.

In 1924 the famous Indian poet, Rabindranath Tagore, came to China on a lecture tour. He was warmly welcomed wherever he went. Many of his works were translated into Chinese and left an indelible imprint on the new Chinese literature.

Expressing his ardent hope for a great future for the Chinese and Indian peoples, Tagore once said:

As the early bird, even while the dawn is yet dark, sings out and proclaims the rising of the sun, so my heart sings to proclaim the coming of a great future which is already close upon us. We must be ready to welcome this new age.*

Renewed Friendship

It was, however, only after the founding of the Chinese People's Republic in 1949, when the Chinese people were again free to express their goodwill towards India, that the traditional friendship and cultural exchange between China and India began to develop on a rapid and extensive scale.

During the past four and a half years, cultural envoys of the peoples of China and India have several times exchanged visits. In 1951, a Chinese Cultural Delegation headed by Ting Hsi-lin visited India. In 1951 and 1952, an Indian Goodwill Delegation headed by Pandit Sundarlal and an Indian Cultural Delegation headed by Madame Lakshmi Pandit visited China. In 1953, an Indian Art Delegation came to China and a Delegation of the Sino-Indian Friendship Association went on a tour of India. These cultural envoys were most warmly welcomed by the government and people of the country they visited. They brought to their hosts the love and goodwill of the people of their own country and returned to their people with the love and goodwill of their hosts. They visited places of historic interest, saw priceless works of art, visited

schools, libraries, museums and construction sites and met workers, peasants, scholars and children. I had the honour myself of being a member of the Chinese Cultural Delegation which visited India in 1951. The pleasure of this visit, which lasted 41 days, and the happy impressions I gathered will long remain fresh in my memory.

There have been many other delegations travelling between the two countries, delegations of supporters of peace, scholars, specialists, trade unionists and youth. Lectures, articles and books written by these delegates on their return to their native lands have deepened the friendship between the peoples of the two countries in all walks of life.

Film shows, exhibitions, and various other activities have been organized in both India and China to promote cultural relations between them. Works of art and literature as well as other publications from New China have been universally welcomed by the Indian people. The large numbers of people who went to see the Indian Art Exhibition held in Peking and other large cities in 1952 was a solid proof of the Chinese people's admiration for the splendid culture of India. At present an exhibition of Indian pictures and handicraft products is attracting large crowds at Peking's Chungshan Park.

An important role in these activities has been played by the Sino-Indian Friendship Association of China and the Indian-Chinese Friendship Association of India.

These activities are bringing to the two peoples the best of their respective cultures and a deeper understanding of each other. When a Chinese delegate receives a garland from the Indian people or when an Indian delegate holds a Chinese child in his arms, the souls of two great peoples are welded together.

Friendship among the peoples of the world is the surest guarantee of peace, and love of peace consolidates the friendship between the peoples. Today, the peace and security of Asia is being menaced by outside forces. In the struggle to thwart this menace and to safeguard peace in Asia and the whole world, the solidarity and friendship between the 960 million people of China and India will be a decisive factor.

* Quoted from "China and India," a lecture delivered by Rabindranath Tagore at the inauguration ceremony of the China College of the International University.



Premier Chou En-lai In India

Premier Chou En-lai with Dr. Rajendra Prasad, President of the Republic of India (*1st right*), Vice-President S. Radhakrishnan (*2nd from left*) and Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru at a reception given in his honour by Dr. Prasad



Premier Chou En-lai laying a wreath at the place where Mahatma Gandhi was cremated at Rajghat

Premier Chou receiving garlands of flowers from children of the Kasturba Home for Women and Children



Part of the great crowd which greeted Premier Chou as he drove with Prime Minister Nehru in New Delhi





A combine harvester at work on soil reclaimed from flood



A horse-drawn harvester at work at the Weinan County Demonstration Farm in Shensi Province



Machines from the Mouling Machine helping the Hsu Ching-chang Agricultural Hsingping County



A research worker of the North China Agricultural Research Institute studying varieties of wheat for selection of the best strains





Work on a state farm established on good lands of the Yellow River

CHINA'S RECORD WHEAT CROP

China's peasants this year produced a crop of winter wheat over half a million tons more than last year's total of both spring and winter wheat. They achieved this great success by extending and improving their mutual-aid teams and agricultural producers' cooperatives, by increasing the area under wheat and raising the yield



Tractor Station in Shensi Province
Agricultural Producers' Cooperative of
...y thresh its grain



Members of the Red Banner Agricultural Producers' Cooperative in Mancheng County, Hopei Province, drying their crop

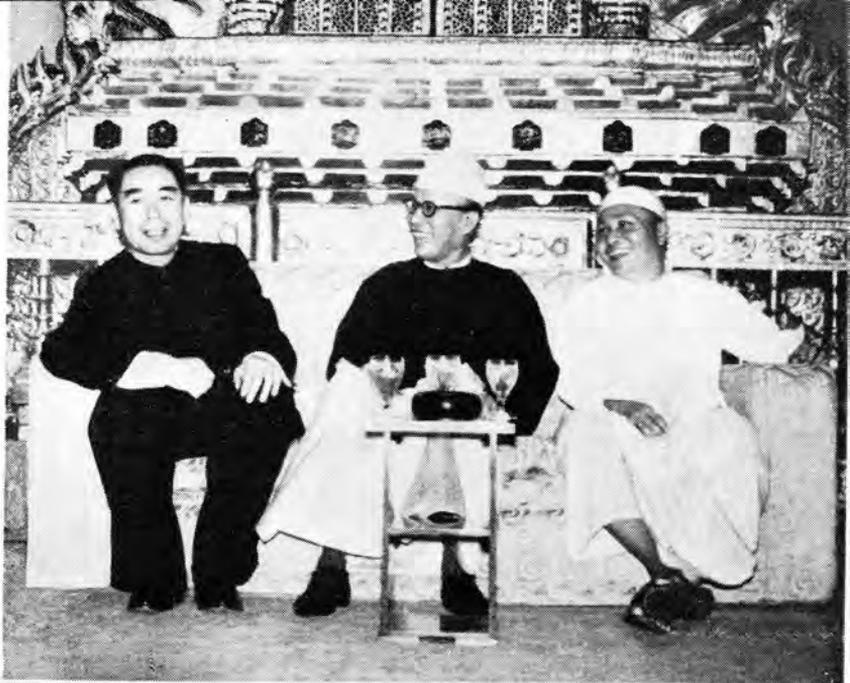


Members of the "May First" Agricultural Producers' Cooperative in Hsingtang County, Hopei, taking their surplus wheat for sale to the state purchasing station

An aeroplane sent by the Central People's Government helps the peasants of Szechung County, Anhwei Province, wipe out locusts



Premier Chou En-lai In Burma



Premier Chou En-lai chatting with Ba U and U Nu (2nd and 1st from right), President and Prime Minister respectively of the Union of Burma at a reception given in his honour by the President on June 28 in Rangoon



U Nu, Prime Minister of Burma, greeting Premier Chou En-lai on his arrival at Rangoon



Overseas Chinese students on their way to welcome Premier Chou En-lai at Rangoon airport



Premier Chou En-lai visits the Shwe Dagon Pagoda

The Vast Possibilities of Chinese-British Trade

Chi Chao-ting

*General Secretary of the China Committee for
the Promotion of International Trade*

OVER recent months an increasing number of contacts have been made with a view to expanding trade between China and Britain.

During the Geneva Conference, Mr. Harold Wilson, British Labour M.P. and former President of the Board of Trade, called on Premier Chou En-lai, and had a cordial talk with him along these lines. Again, at Geneva, representatives of British industrial and commercial concerns held discussions with trade experts on the Chinese Delegation and the parties mutually agreed to send reciprocal trade missions to their respective countries. At the invitation of the Federation of British Industries and four other leading business and commercial organizations, a Chinese trade mission visited Britain from June 28 to July 14 where it was accorded a friendly reception. In a meeting with representatives of the Sino-British Trade Committee, the mission expressed the view that possibilities existed for China to trade with Britain up to 80-100 million pounds sterling within a year.

Not long before that, scores of British firms, including some whose names are household words, talked in Berlin with representatives of the China National Import and Export Corporation, and concluded a number of firm contracts.

British Opinion

Expansion of British trade with China is being ever more insistently advocated in British business and political circles today.

Mr. Attlee and Mr. Aneurin Bevan, the British Labour leaders who are shortly to pay

a visit to China, have both expressed views in favour of improving trade relations between the two countries. In the House of Commons on July 30 last year, Mr. Attlee pointed out that Britain's economic blockade against China was hurting herself, while Mr. Bevan, in a speech made in London on November 15, 1953 advocated that Britain should strive for the closest possible contact with China and the conclusion of a reciprocal trade agreement.

Similar opinions have been voiced by many influential British newspapers and periodicals. For example, an article in *The Statist* for December 5, 1953 said:

British machine-tool makers are quite convinced that recent political and economic developments in China mean that an enormous potential market exists; the orders are there at this moment. Unfortunately, a complete embargo is imposed on the shipment of machine tools to China, although licences are available for the continued export of some tools... to Soviet Russia...

Drawing a moral from the past, the article continues:

At least once in history, in the early 1930's, the British machine-tool industry was rescued from virtual extinction... by windfall orders from the planned economy of Soviet Russia.... It is understandable, therefore, that the industry should be casting inquiring eyes on the China market in case history should be inclined to repeat itself.

What is true for the machine-tool industry applies with equal force to many others, such as electrical appliances, cars and other vehicles, ship-building and steel. Speaking in February this year at Hong Kong, Mr. Leslie Gamage,

Vice-Chairman of the British General Electric Company, said:

We are doing what we can to persuade our government to lift the ban on exports to China ... because we cannot go on living like that.

There are good reasons why people in Britain belonging to widely varying circles are keen on an expansion of East-West trade, including trade between Britain and China.

The economy of Britain is dependent to a very great extent on foreign trade. Ever since the end of the Second World War, however, the proportion of British exports in the capitalist world market has declined year by year, and Britain has been unable to achieve a favourable trade balance. Her exports in 1953 were £39 million less than in the previous year, while imports exceeded exports by no less than £658 million.

According to reports compiled by the British Board of Trade and statistics published by the British Customs, exports of cars and vehicles in 1953 were down by 7 to 19 per cent compared with 1952, while exports of electrical goods and apparatus fell by 5.3 per cent and chemicals by 12 per cent. Exports of steam locomotives in 1953 fell by 37 per cent compared with 1949. These figures reflect the severe blow which has been dealt to many British industries.

There is no denying that, apart from the shrinkage of capitalist markets and the keen competition among the capitalist countries, another important factor accounting for these difficulties is the loss of British markets in Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union and China owing to the termination of normal trading relations. And it is common knowledge that this situation was brought about, not by any unsatisfactory features in the business relationships between these countries, but solely because of pressure exerted by the government of the United States on Britain to take such a step.

Now, as the anticipated economic crisis in the United States and its effects on British economy loom like a spectre, more and more people in Britain are forced to recognize that expansion of Chinese-British trade would go far to help solve her ever-increasing economic difficulties.

China is always glad to enter into or expand trade relations with any government

or people on the basis of equality and mutual benefit. Britain is no exception to the rule.

China's Import Needs

China is a country with more than 600 million people and occupies one-fourteenth of the land surface of the globe. Vast projects of peaceful economic construction are under way, and the purchasing power of her people is increasing.

Economic construction in China extends to many fields. In 1953 alone three high-capacity power plants were completed and commissioned, and many older ones reconstructed and expanded. But these plants are far from meeting the needs of her industrial construction and lighting of her cities and countryside. If every province were to build a new 55,000 kw. thermal power plant sufficient to cater for the needs of a million people, the country would need more than twenty such plants, and, indeed, this would be only a beginning. Again, since many large and medium-size factories will undoubtedly need their own separate power plants, there will be an enormous demand for complete sets of generating installations, together with the necessary auxiliary electrical equipment, wiring and cables, etc.

Another important item in China's First Five-Year Plan is the construction of railways. Construction of seven new lines was started in 1953, and a total length of 589 kilometres (366 miles) completed the same year. If every 100 square kilometres of China's vast territories were to have, on the average, one kilometre of railway, more than 70,000 kilometres (43,500 miles) of new track would need to be laid. This would call for over six million tons of rails. And railway construction on such a scale would naturally call for additional locomotives, signal and control equipment and other subsidiary installations.

Heavy calls are also being made on transport other than rails in China. There is an increasing demand for inland freighters of about 3,000 tons, ocean-going cargo vessels and tankers of 10,000 tons and over, motor cars and all types of light and heavy commercial vehicles, together with accessories and spare parts.

Simultaneously with industrial construction, a vast amount of housing, school and other

educational, cultural and recreational building is under way in China today together with an enormous amount of building in the sphere of public health and social welfare. In 1953 alone the city of Peking built many factories, administrative and office buildings, theatres, cinemas, hospitals, schools, homes etc., with a total floor space of over 2,500,000 square metres. Moreover, over 80 kilometres (50 miles) of sewers were laid in the capital. Such construction calls for enormous amounts of steel and other metal products.

These are only some of the goods needed in large quantities in China's economic construction. Other items for which a great demand exists are machinery of all kinds, medical equipment, chemicals, dye-stuffs, wool tops, and rayon.

In all these spheres British exports to China would receive the same welcome as those from any other country.

China as Exporter

In the field of exports, China is universally famed for her rich agricultural produce, minerals and handicrafts.

Before liberation, China exported in a year, among other things, over 100,000 cases of bristles, 100,000 metric tons of tung oil, and 70,000 metric tons of egg products. Since then, as a result of the rapid restoration and expansion of her industry and agriculture, unprecedentedly favourable conditions have been created for increasing exports. In 1952 the annual output of China's main industrial and agricultural products was higher than ever before. The total value of her industrial and agricultural output in 1953 was estimated to be 11.4 per cent higher than in 1952, and in 1954 it is estimated to increase by a further 12.6 per cent compared with 1953. Even allowing for enormous increases in home consumption, great quantities of products are available for export.

Spectacular increases have been made in livestock and poultry. For instance, production of pigs in 1953 was 122 per cent of the 1951 figure. There are 100 million or more farmsteads in China. If one household in five raises one more pig, the net result is an increase of over one million tons of pork. One more hen

to each household means over 12,000 million extra eggs a year—an increase equivalent to one and a half times Britain's total egg production in 1952!

Industrial and agricultural developments are making new commodities available for export. For example, China formerly imported tobacco. In 1952 she exported large quantities of superior tobacco. In 1953 production of cured tobacco increased by 382 per cent over the 1950 output, and increasing amounts will be available for export. In foodstuffs, many new lines are now available for export in huge amounts such as fruits of various sorts, jam, canned fish, beef, mutton, pork and chicken.

In addition to these, China has for export grains of various sorts, beans, oil and oil seeds and hundreds of special native products, silk, furs and hides, bristles, medicinal herbs, tea, and fine handicraft goods, carpets, etc. She also has valuable exportable metals and minerals such as antimony, graphite, gypsum, fluorspar, alum and others.

China can export all the foregoing commodities in large quantities to any country, including Britain, in exchange for the materials and goods she needs. The fostering of such trade can result only in promoting mutual economic prosperity of the nations engaging in it.

A Stable, Reliable Market

The great variety and huge amount of China's exports fully demonstrates her capacity to pay. The former preponderance of imports over exports which characterized old China has in recent years been ended. China's present favourable balance of trade is a result of the all-round growth of her economic and financial resources which have been brought about by the swift and constant expansion of her industry and agriculture.

The Statist in its January 9, 1954 issue effectively refutes the idea that China lacks "the ability to pay": "It is noteworthy," says that journal, "that the level of our imports from China has been consistently higher than our exports there. Over the first ten months of 1953 the gap is of the order of £3 million."

The enormous new potentialities of China's foreign trade are a direct outcome of her new social system. Internal tranquillity and unity

and the fact that the government and people in all walks of life have a common interest in promoting large-scale economic construction and a steady rise in living and cultural standards, means that for a long time to come even an expanding production will lag behind demand. No crisis of over-production or stock-piling of unmarketable goods is possible. The China market will never be fully satisfied. Furthermore, economic crisis elsewhere cannot adversely affect the development of China's economy. That is to say, long-term stability in China's foreign trade is assured.

The volume of China's foreign trade must continue to grow together with the progress of socialist industrialization of the country. The same process can be seen in the Soviet Union where, parallel with her rapid industrial development, the volume of her foreign trade is still on the increase. China is, therefore, in a position to conclude long-term contracts with any country, including Britain, and to put trade on a long-term, stable basis.

U.S. Embargo Hits British Trade

Britain and China have been doing business for more than a century. In 1931 the total foreign trade between them had reached the figure of over 100 million U.S. dollars. After the Second World War, as a result of intensive U.S. efforts to monopolize the world market, British-Chinese trade in 1948 declined to only a little over 23 million U.S. dollars. Following China's liberation, it registered a conspicuous and rapid increase, and in 1950 had risen to over 73 million U.S. dollars.

When, however, in May 1951, the British Government followed the policy of the United States in an attempt to impose an embargo on trade with China, trade between the two countries once more slumped to about 35 million U.S. dollars. The proportion of Britain's exports to China to its total exports was greatly reduced. The figure for 1953 was only one-fourth of that for 1938.

Facts have shown that no embargo has been able to slow down, let alone put a stop to, China's advance along the road to prosperity. China has entered into close economic relations with the socialist Soviet Union and the People's Democracies. Thus she is one of a great group of nations dedicated to peace

and democracy whose social systems enable them to harness their resources to planned economic production. These nations form an economic system parallel to the world capitalist market. Joined by a common desire for prosperity and united by a new spirit of internationalism, they are able among themselves to meet each other's needs and supplement each other's resources.

Good Examples

At the same time China's trade relations with many capitalist countries are developing. She has concluded trade agreements and contracts with several governments based on the principle of equality and mutual benefit. These include the governments of India, Pakistan and Ceylon. The beneficial commercial relations between these member nations of the British Commonwealth and China serve as a good example for other capitalist states to follow. Trade between China and Japan and Western Germany is also gradually expanding.

As far as trade with Britain is concerned, following the efforts of the Chinese side and certain British industrialists and businessmen after the International Economic Conference in Moscow in 1952, trade between Britain and China picked up. But this improvement is far less than it could be. There is not the slightest reason why trade between the two countries should not far surpass the highest levels reached in the past.

As these facts become better known in Britain, more and more British people are pressing for the removal of all artificial restrictions hampering trade between the United Kingdom and China.

The conservative *Daily Mail* of December 20, 1953, calling for increased British trade with China, added:

While one half of the world is cut off from the other, suspicion and fear will continue to grow; there is nothing like trade and commerce for encouraging trust and confidence among those engaged in it.

The Chinese people for their part will be happy to greet the day when shipments of goods begin to flow freely between the two countries, helping to lessen undesirable international tensions and to foster peaceful coexistence among nations.

Chinese Poetry Since The May Fourth Movement

Ai Ching

HALF a century ago the writing and reading of poems was limited to a small minority of the cultured upper classes of China. Contemporary poetry was tied to stereotyped forms and archaic modes of expression which made no concession to the understanding of the millions of ordinary people. The most commonly used poetic forms were the *Wu Yen*, with five, and the *Chi Yen* with seven characters in each line. Generally, a poem had four or eight lines, but the lines were not separated, and had no punctuation marks. This added to the difficulty of reading.

It is true that poems created by the people, their folk poets and ballad singers, were passed on by word of mouth, spread by reciting or singing, but, held in disdain by the aristocratic intellectuals, they were denied any chance of publication.

Towards the end of the 19th century, the bankruptcy of the old feudal empire, faced with the mounting attacks of the imperialist powers, became increasingly evident. Ever wider circles of patriots demanded reforms in every field to save the country from complete enslavement. This eagerness for reform found expression also in the field of literature.

Tan Szu-tung, Hsia Tseng-yu, Huang Tsun-hsien and other intellectuals of the upper classes of society, influenced by the cultural heritage of the rising bourgeoisie in capitalist

countries, advocated a "revolution in poetry." They proposed that poets should adopt colloquial ways of expression, deal with the life of the new age, and boldly say what the old poets had been unable or too fearful to say. In their poems we do indeed find expressions of radical bourgeois democratic thought, and the language they used was more understandable to the masses; but their art reflected the hesitant, cautiously reformist tendencies among the Chinese bourgeoisie. This prevented their making any really fundamental changes in poetic forms and content.

The May Fourth Movement

Then in 1917, following the First World War, the salvos of the October Revolution roared out from the North. China felt their mighty shock. On May 4, 1919, an anti-imperialist and anti-feudal movement broke out and spread to the entire nation.

This May Fourth Movement had many facets. It was, among other things, a modern Chinese cultural revolution, a major event in the history of ideological enlightenment. It marked the demarcation line between the old and the new Chinese culture, the old and the new Chinese thought. Beginning with the May Fourth Movement, China's new revolutionary culture, armed with Marxism, soon took its place in the front ranks of contemporary world culture.

As part of this movement a new poetry appeared, commonly called *pai hua* (vernacular) poetry.

Ai Ching, the author, is one of China's outstanding poets.



Some of the many new volumes of verses published in China since May 4, 1919

This revolution in poetry, which was part of the literary revolution, began as a vigorous attempt to create new forms. It shattered all the conventions that had shackled Chinese poetry. It adopted the everyday spoken language of the people; broke all the old restrictions concerning the number of characters and lines; separated the lines and used punctuation marks. Despite the opposition of the conservatives, the new poems soon wielded a great influence. Newspapers and magazines began to publish them and fewer and fewer poets persisted in the old style of writing.

The early *pai hua* poems originated in Peking and used northern-China ways of expression. In form they were mostly frank imitations of folk songs. Some, however, were derived from the forms of the traditional *tzu*,* their sentiments were likewise influenced by those of the *tzu*. Some of them bore a strong

resemblance to those ancient poems which voiced the sufferings of the people; but they went no further than expressing sympathy with the poor and oppressed. A humanist tendency inspired all the *pai hua* poems of this first stage. They expressed the complaints of the common people in the city; dissatisfaction with the contrast between rich and poor; anger at feudal exploitation and oppression. They advocated the emancipation of women; opposition to the feudal marriage system; demands for democracy and freedom; and resistance to imperialism.

The adherents of this literary revolution represented diverse elements. Some were intellectuals believing in communism; others were petty-bourgeois revolutionary intellectuals or

* *Tzu*, a song, with lines of irregular length, written in verses each of which must conform to a strict pattern of tones and rhymes.

bourgeois intellectuals. Their views on literature and poetry differed greatly. Some were content to concentrate on the search for new forms; other demanded new subject-matter for their poetry. Still others held that poetry must serve the interests of the common people and cater for their tastes; while a number took an opposite view, insisting that poetry cannot but be aristocratic. As the Chinese revolution developed, this early united front in the literary revolution swiftly split into two camps: one moved towards the ideas of the socialist revolution; the other to mild social-reformism, to compromise with the reactionaries; and the worst of this camp became the servile abettors of the imperialists and feudal warlords.

Petty-Bourgeois Revolutionary Poets

Soon after the events of May 4, 1919, several young petty-bourgeois revolutionary intellectuals returned from Japan, and, united by their common interest in literature, organized the "Creation Club." Kuo Mo-jo, then known mainly as a poet, was one of its leading members. He wrote some of his most stirring early poetry under the revolutionary inspiration of the May Fourth Movement.

By this time, the advanced ideas of Marxism had begun to spread through China. The proletariat had entered the political arena, and the Communist Party of China, vanguard of the working class, was founded in 1921. It was on the eve of the First Revolutionary Civil War. Young intellectuals longed for the light of freedom to disperse the darkness of feudal bondage. Kuo Mo-jo's rousing poems won an instant popularity among them.

Kuo Mo-jo's poetry boldly broke through the old forms and gave free flow to his emotions.

In his first, formative period, Kuo Mo-jo's lyric poetry was clearly influenced by Walt Whitman, the poet-democrat of the United States. Like Whitman, he sang the praises of nature, the earth, the ocean, the sun, energy, and also the modern city with its trains and factories, the great motherland and the invincible urge of progress. He deeply felt the vital-

ity of the new China, a land of promise under a rising sun.

Kuo Mo-jo sang, too, the praises of rebels of ancient days. In his "Song to the Rebel Heroes," he sang of the many great figures of the past who had contributed to the reform and progress of society. His "Lessons of the Cannons" revealed the contradictions in his ideas, but he finally succeeded in shedding the ideas of Tolstoy for those of Lenin.

Kuo Mo-jo stands as one of the outstanding representatives of the new poetry from the time of the May Fourth Movement to the defeat of the revolution in 1927. In that year his poetical work was temporarily brought to a halt when Chiang Kai-shek, who had betrayed the revolution, issued an order for his arrest and forced him to flee to Japan as a political refugee.

Another poet who, in this same period, exercised a considerable influence upon Chinese youth, was Chiang Kuang-tzu. He brought back from the Soviet Union the victorious songs of the October Revolution and inspired the Chinese people with confidence in their future. Though his poems at this time were somewhat tinged with the sorrows of the uprooted intellectuals, he voiced, too, the insistent demand for revolution, and openly declared himself a proletarian revolutionary.

The Crescent Moon School

Having betrayed the revolution and come to power in 1927, the big bourgeoisie in China brutally attacked the new culture of the Chinese revolution and at the same time tried to find spokesmen for their own reactionary culture.

From 1928 to 1930, a group of bourgeois poets and political writers joined to form a new school of poetry, usually referred to as the "School of the Crescent Moon" (after the magazine which was its organ). Most of them were students returned from England or America. They started to produce new poems in strict rhyme and rhythm, and introduced all types of English and American metres. They attacked the new revolutionary poems from the point of view of aestheticism. Leading figures of this school were Hsu Chih-mo, Chu Hsiang and Wen I-to. There were, how-

ever, sharp differences between the three in their attitude to life. In his early creative days Hsu Chih-mo gave a certain amount of support to democratic ideas and wrote a number of earthy, pungent poems directed against the old regime. Later, however, he became utterly hedonistic and remained to the end a devotee of selfish pleasure.

Chu Hsiang, deeply imbued with pessimism and misanthropy, was sceptical, disgusted with life, and finally committed suicide.

Wen I-to was a poet who deeply loved his country. While he cursed the corruption that surrounded him in Kuomintang China, he could not clearly see the way ahead, and regarded the China of his day as "a pond of stagnant water" beyond reclamation. Later on, when he discovered a new living force emerging from the "stagnant water," he rose to struggle for its growth, but was murdered by the Kuomintang in 1946.

The symbolists formed another branch of this bourgeois poetry. The best known were Li Chin-fa and Tai Wang-shu. Their attitude to life was generally passive and their language and sentiments equivocal and vague. They lamented "the good old days" and past happiness. They were in love with shadows, not merely rejecting the life around them, but even glorifying death.

All such bourgeois poetry sought to escape from the realities of life and the Chinese revolution, from the struggle for democracy and freedom. These poets only encouraged youth to abandon itself to despair, to give up the fight and regard literature as a soothing syrup.

It was against such reactionary trends that revolutionary literature battled and forged ahead.

League of Left-Wing Writers

In March 1930, the League of Left-Wing Writers was founded. It was a revolutionary literary organization with a clear and resolutely militant programme, headed by Lu Hsun. Alarmed by its activities, the Chiang Kai-shek regime, agent of the imperialists in China, determined to suppress it. On February 1 1931, several young writers including Jou Shih, Hu Yeh-ping, Li Wei-sen, Yin Fu and Feng Keng,

all members of the League, were arrested in Shanghai and later either buried alive or shot in cold blood. Of them, Hu Yeh-ping and Yin Fu were poets. Yin Fu's poems were songs of the new age, fresh in feeling and language. Full of confidence in victory he succeeded in communicating his joy in the struggle for the new. His poems were relatively mature productions, a pioneer effort in Chinese proletarian verse.

But Kuomintang terror failed to kill the new revolutionary literature. The writers closed their ranks and fought on with still greater determination.

In September 1931, the Japanese aggressors occupied Northeast China. The Chinese people intensified their struggle against the imperialists. The hard facts of reality accelerated the development of the new poetry. More people wrote poems. The Association of Chinese Poets was founded. Several magazines exclusively devoted to poetry were published. These dealt with varied themes: poems depicting the bitter life of the peasants, famine, hunger, their search for some escape from misery, and their struggle against the landlords; the struggles in the factories, unemployed demonstrations, strikes, revolt, arrest and imprisonment. . . .

Pu Feng, Tsang Ke-chia, Wang Ya-ping and Tien Chien were some whose achievements in this period deserve mention. They approached the creative task of poetry in several different ways. Pu Feng, for example, was a fluent, prolific writer whose simple popular style won him many readers. Tsang Ke-chia pictured rural society in verses with metaphors and carefully polished language which sometimes, however, seemed a little too restrained. Tien Chien's poems were influenced by the Soviet poet, Mayakovsky.

In July 1937, the War of Resistance to Japanese Aggression broke out. Patriotic fervour swept the country. Many poets joined in the fight for the independence of their country; the outburst of the people's anger gave force to their verse. Even many poets of the old "Crescent Moon" and symbolist groups, awakened by the great national crisis, added their voices to the call for resistance to aggression. Poems helped to rouse the people

for the hard struggle that lay ahead. During this period the new Chinese poetry made rapid strides. Many young and talented poets appeared, many journals and collections of poems were published. This was an unprecedentedly prolific period for China's new poetry.

Many poets were active in the anti-Japanese guerilla bases. Under the most arduous conditions, using coarse paper and duplicating machines, they published many journals and collections of poems.

Tien Chien, Tsang Ke-chia, Ke Chung-ping, Emi Siao, Ho Chi-fang, Yen Chen, Yuan Shui-po, Lu Li, Tien Lan, Lu Chien, Tsou Ti-fan were some who produced outstanding work at this time.

In 1942, in the midst of the War of Resistance, a round-table conference of writers and artists was held in Yen-an in order to help revolutionary literature forge still closer ties with the people and play a still greater part in the Chinese revolution. Comrade Mao Tse-tung presided and delivered his classic summing up of the standpoint of revolutionary writers and artists—the well-known Addresses at the Yen-an Forum on Literature and Art. In these he clearly pointed out how art and literature should serve the workers, peasants and soldiers—the broad masses of the working people. He called on writers and poets to go into the thick of the people's struggles so as to temper and remould themselves, steadily improve their creative work by mastering Marxist-Leninist theory and drawing on the rich cultural heritage of the people.

Flourishing Poetry of Liberation

In the twelve years since then, the Chinese people have defeated the Japanese imperialists, victoriously concluded the War of Liberation and established the People's Republic of China.

In these eventful years, the new poetry of China has still more significant achievements to show. There is no more pessimism, no more "crying in the dark." Drawing on the rich store of folk poetry and their own creative art, many poets have developed a poetry that has a characteristic national form. Far more volumes of poems are printed and sold now than at any other time in China's history. The work of the established poets is reinforced by thousands of contributions from young writers in the People's Forces, the factories and the villages, which daily reach the editorial boards of the magazines. Poems have become a well-nigh universal medium of popular expression.

Besides the veteran poets who are still writing, in the last ten years there have appeared a galaxy of young poets with solid achievements. Li Chi, Wang Hsi-chien, Yuan Chang-ching and Chang Chi-min in particular have made contributions to the new poetry written in the style of folk songs.

It is now thirty-four years since the publication of the earliest collection of *pai hua* poems. This is a short time indeed in the history of literature! Yet drastic changes have taken place in Chinese society in these years. Life has moved in this age of ours like the Yellow River in spate.

During these years, China's new revolutionary poetry, using socialist realism as its weapon, has successfully fought against the various schools of bourgeois aestheticism and decadence. At the same time it has struggled just as hard against those within the camp of revolutionary literature who tried to reduce poetry to cold abstract concepts and the mere shouting of empty slogans and clichés.

The new poetry which in the early 1920's was like a plantation of young saplings is today a great, verdant forest.

Victory of the Viet-Nameese People

— Introducing "Northwest Victory," a documentary
film of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam

Yang Yu

THE victories gained by the Viet-nameese people in their struggle for national liberation have shattered the dreams of the colonialists, dealt a devastating blow against the U.S. interventionists and made possible a solution of the Indo-China question. This is a great inspiration not only to the people of Asia but to all peace-loving people of the world.

Northwest Victory, a documentary film from the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam, recently shown in China, is a graphic account

of how the Viet-Nameese people liberated the northwestern part of their country in the autumn and winter of 1952. It shows how the Viet-Nameese people found their path to victory.

Northwest Victory opens with beautiful scenes of northwest Viet-Nam; with shots of its rich timber stands and fertile rice fields of that area. Miao people cultivate the highlands; the Muong people, skilled fishermen, inhabit the banks of the Black River; the Thai people, farmers, till the valleys. We see the peace-

loving peoples of Viet-Nam happily and diligently engaged in their work, or enjoying their simple recreations and amusements, their lovely traditional fan dance and silk dance on festival days or in their leisure time.

This tranquil, peaceful life was ruthlessly destroyed by the imperialist aggressors. Maps, sub-titles and commentary explain how, in September 1945, the French colonialists attacked and overran Liachau, Sonla, Laokay and part of Yen-bai Province in northwest Indo-China,



Viet-Nam People's Army men helping peasants thresh their grain

and tried to split the unity of the Viet-Namense people — the old imperialist method of “divide and rule.”

Newsreel shots of the enemy in action show how the people were compelled to tear down their own houses in order to provide timber for the French fortifications. Crops were destroyed and villages razed to the ground. We have the pitiful sight of refugees driven from their homes and herded together in special barbed-wire enclosures. Able-bodied men were press-ganged into the army.

We see the trail of rape and plunder left by the colonialists. . . . Such is the “civilization” brought by the colonialists.

But the people of northwest Viet-Nam refused to knuckle down to the aggressors. Underground revolutionaries maintained the resistance in the occupied areas. The commentator quotes a saying among the people: “We are like rice shoots, the French forces are like thunder clouds. Once the clouds are swept away, the sun comes out, and we shall see the face of our President Ho.” President Ho Chi Minh occupies a central place in the hearts of the people as the inspirer and leader of the liberation struggle of all the peoples of Viet-Nam. In a short but moving sequence, we see a revolutionary worker give pictures of President Ho to two old peasants. They carefully fold them in their handkerchiefs and hide them away in their breast.

The Northwest Campaign

In the autumn of 1952, President Ho Chi Minh issued the order to the people’s forces to liberate Northwest Viet-Nam. We see the Viet-Nam People’s Army—thousands of fighters of



A unit of the Viet-Nam People's Army in the campaign to liberate northwest Viet-Nam

the army and innumerable peasant helpers—start off on their offensive, marching over the hard trails of the northwest, across high mountains, turbulent streams and rivers, through dense forests, and down precipitous cliffs.

At the start of the expedition, the People’s Army men were carefully briefed on the national policy of the Viet-Nam Lao Dong Party. In the trenches and mustering points, while waiting for the order to advance, the soldiers study the regulations drawn up by President Ho Chi Minh governing the strict discipline of the people’s fighters in their relations with the people. Numerous incidents in the film reveal the fraternal relationship established between the People’s Army and the people. We see the army guarding the people’s homes and goods even in the thick of a fight. We see the people doing yeoman service in support of their army on the production front, in the field and factories and as ambulance workers. The question of supplies for the army in such a campaign is an enormous problem. But this was solved by the enthusiastic support the people gave their troops. We see an endless stream of peasants, both men and women, wind-

ing through the jungles, swamps and mountains, bringing supplies to the army—an unbreakable transport line.

It was the Viet-Nameese people's wholehearted support of the People's Army, and the People's Army, inspired to unparalleled bravery by this support and the ideals of freedom of the Viet-Nameese people that made the Viet-Nameese people an invincible force.

On the screen we follow the victorious sweep of the People's Army to liberate the area from the Red River to the northwest border. Not all the well-built fortifications of the French aggressors, nor all the U.S.-supplied planes and guns can stop the advance. From the Red River, the People's Army fought to the Black River and Song Ma, and successively took Nghia-lo, Quynh-nhai, Moc-chau, Son-la and Dien Bien Phu and laid siege to Na-sam and Lai-chau, wiping out one hundred and twenty well-defended French posts and taking over five thousand prisoners of war, Frenchmen, puppet troops and mercenaries from all over the world.

Liberation Restores Freedom

This film shows how an area of 28,000 square kilometres in northwest Viet-Nam was restored to its people. During the French occupation, even salt was unobtainable; the people had to live on sweet potatoes and wild herbs. The enemy slaughtered their draught animals and burned their farm tools. People in some localities did not see a grain of rice for four whole years. With the liberation, we see the population of 250,000 beginning to lead a life of freedom and happiness again. Once again the scene is one of peace and calm. The sun breaks through the clouds and casts its dazzling beams on the ridges. Under a clear sky stretch fields of lovely golden rice which are being harvested by peasants and soldiers. Having no sickles, the army men pick the ears of rice with their bare hands. The people's government distributes salt to the people. State-owned stores are set up to supply them with farm tools, cloth and other daily necessities. The people sing and dance.

All who have seen this film have been deeply moved by every scene. They cannot restrain their tears at the sufferings of the Viet-Nameese people; they applaud their victories. Chinese audiences realize that the road on which the Viet-Nameese people have fought forward is the very road that they themselves traversed to victory.

This film is particularly impressive in the light of events following the Northwest Campaign.

The French aggressors did not learn from their defeat in the Northwest Campaign. In November 1953, with the support of the U.S. imperialists, Henri Navarre, the seventh Commander-in-Chief of the French forces, again invaded northwest Viet-Nam. They re-occupied Dien Bien Phu, and turned it into a fortress. They surrounded it with a forest of pill-boxes and packed it with thirteen battalions. Every day about 130 U.S.-supplied planes dropped tons of U.S. arms for what they boasted was their "aircraft carrier in the jungle," a base they intended to use for the re-enslavement of the people of northwest Viet-Nam. That "aircraft carrier" sank with all hands on May 7, 1954, after some two months' fighting.

The Unconquerable People

Chou En-lai, Foreign Minister of the People's Republic of China, in his statement on the Indo-China question at the Geneva Conference expressed the truth of the situation when he said: "This history of the eight-year Indo-China war has proved that a people who are fighting for the independence and freedom of their motherland are unconquerable." The documentary film *Northwest Victory* gives a concrete proof of this truth.

Today, in the 20th century, peace, independence, unity and democracy are not only the reasonable demands of the Viet-Nameese people, but also the desire of peace-loving people throughout the world. Wishful thinking by militarists cannot block the mighty stream of history. Whoever indulges in dreams of a return of the "good old days" of colonial exploitation is heading for disaster.

A Palace for Peking Youngsters



Pei Yu-sun

PEKING has turned a lovely palace and pleasure garden over to its children. Right in the heart of the city and so easy to reach, it stands on the shore of Peihai Lake, deep in the quiet old imperial grounds which are now a public park. On Saturdays and Sundays, boys and girls in blue trousers or skirts, white shirts and red scarfs make their way along the lake shore to the park where the green glazed tile roofs and red walls of their palace rise over the tree tops. From the broad steps at the entrance they can turn and admire the prospect of the lake and boaters and the great Dagoba glittering white above the green island hill on which it stands.

Inside, this former palace temple is a hive of industry. The Children's Palace—for this is what it is called—is a group of several lovely buildings built around two spacious courtyards in traditional Chinese style. Here the children engage in activities of many kinds. They do experiments in physics, chemistry and biology; they make aeroplane models; they learn and practise music and other arts. The spacious courtyards and grounds of the Palace provide ample space for dancing, a basketball court, and gardens ideal for field-work in nature-study.

The Children's Palace was organized in the autumn of 1952 under the joint auspices of Peking's Bureau of Education and the Peking

Committee of the Youth League. It aims at helping the schools train children through various activities outside their normal school curriculum, so as to raise their interest and aptitude in science and art. The instructors are either middle-school teachers or college students well qualified in their own fields. The Palace recruits its members from among the under-sixteens of junior middle and primary schools who have reached a good standard both in conduct and school work. Admission to the Palace is an eagerly sought honour. Attendance is voluntary and the children can take part in whichever activity they are most interested in. Over 1,200 children have gone through its courses and at present it has approximately 200 members.

A Sunday in Spring

I visited the Palace one fine Sunday afternoon. Children of the nature-study group were busy in their garden digging, planting, weeding or erecting trellises for their runner beans.

I stood watching for a time while Li Yu-ching, with her glossy black pig-tailed head bent, skilfully transplanted seedlings. The job done, she clapped her hands together and rubbed off the earth.

"That's finished!" she said with immense satisfaction.

Li Yu-ching is a first-year student at the No. 3 Municipal Girls' Middle School. Ever since she studied science in the primary school she has been interested in trees and flowers.

I asked why she joined the nature-study group at the Palace. "Oh, it's different here," she explained. "At school, we have good teachers and do experiments, but here, you can learn such a lot more. The groups aren't so big, so that the teacher can give a lot more time to us, and we can do more practical work and work on our own. Today, for instance, we had a talk on taking cuttings and layers from plants, and the best ways of planting them, and afterwards we actually planted some geraniums and carnations for ourselves. The lesson sinks in better when you follow it up with practical work."

Learn to Conquer Nature

In the nature-study room portraits of Darwin and Michurin held places of honour on the walls, together with Michurin's famous words, beautifully written in Chinese characters: "We must not wait for Nature's bounty. Our task is to wrest it from her!" There were also speci-

mens of animals, fish, birds, plants, butterflies and other insects. Some of these were gifts from friends in other countries, others were collected by the children themselves. Beside a bookcase was a microscope they had made themselves. "Its magnifying power is 300 times," young Li Yu-ching assured me. "You can see plant cells through it." The nature-study room had something of the atmosphere and orderliness of a well-organized science lab.

On the other side of the courtyard, in the model aeroplane room, models in all stages of construction were hanging from the ceiling or stood on tables. On the walls were pictures of models and real planes. Tools and materials were all over the room.

The Palace has organized a class to train young instructors in aeroplane modelling. When they have mastered the art, they will help to further interest in making plane models in their own schools.

Develops Young Imaginations

Outside the handicraft room a group of children with drawing boards and easels sat making sketches of activities going on in the courtyard. Specimens of the children's art—pencil drawings and water colours, including a portrait of the Soviet heroine, Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, were on show, and there were also plaster models of workers and peasants at work. This impromptu exhibition made it evident that the children had been encouraged to avoid mere copying and to develop their own imagination, drawing their themes from their own experience of the world around them. The pictures they drew therefore showed the world of the children of People's China: children playing, boating, swimming, the Tien An Men on a festival day, peace doves, factories with smoking chimneys, the Chinese People's Volunteers fighting against the invaders in Korea, and so on. One painting showed the young artist himself with his mother and young brother standing in a courtyard happily looking at a big building under construction. It bore



Pioneers listening to a talk on sailing-ships in the Peking Children's Palace

the title: "Building my Country—seen from our Home."

There were also many attractive paper-cuts made with scissors or knives. Needle work is popular among the girls, who busily embroider beautiful flowers, birds or other subjects on pillow cases, handkerchiefs and table cloths. They do printing and dyeing too.

The physics room also lays stress on practical work. Part of it is given over to an exhibition of skilfully made models of lathes, locomotives, threshers, etc. There are some model cranes and excavators which operate by electricity like real machines. Some of these were gifts from the Soviet Union and the German Democratic Republic, while others were made by the children of the group. The rest of the room was a busy workshop where youngsters were making crystal sets and dry batteries. The noise of hammering and filing was punctuated by lively talk.

Young Hsieh Chung-ling, a pupil of the No. 35 Municipal Middle School, was making an electric battery. He had been regularly attending this group ever since last autumn. When I asked him what the attraction was, he said he loved it there because of the way the Palace gave him the chance to "make things." Then he went back to school with what he had learned, and spread his enthusiasm for physics among his classmates. As he told me how he passed on what he learned here, he looked down at his red scarf as if to say: "That's part of a Young Pioneer's job."

From the front courtyard drifted snatches of song. The music group has a choir, a band and a dance troupe. Some of its members can compose their own songs and music. Its instructors come from the Academy of Music. The music group is well known in Peking, for it gives shows to various factories and schools, and is also very popular on the radio.

* * *

The bell rang. Dusk was falling and another happy day was over. The children tidied up and reluctantly began to leave. Their voices mingled and faded in the throng of people strolling and playing in the park outside.



In their Palace library

As we sat on the steps before the Youth Hall looking towards the lake, Comrade Hsu, one of the young organizers, told me more of the activities of the Palace.

He told me they frequently organized activities for the tens of thousands of children in Peking who cannot yet join the Palace. These usually take the form of film shows, lectures and song-and-dance performances, all done with their own resources—though they get help with the organizing from experts.

Many well-known scientists, artists, heroes of the People's Liberation Army and the People's Volunteers have visited the Palace and talked to the children on astronomy, how the Soviet Union is transforming nature, work in a prospecting team, the origin of music and stories of the heroes of Korea. Chang Ming-shan, the famous labour hero from Anshan, was one of the many eminent people who came. The Palace has also sponsored city-wide painting competitions and organized the children to plant trees during their school holidays. Concerts and scientific experiments are particularly popular and sometimes attract audiences of over a thousand.

Seventy thousand and more youngsters have been brought into touch with the Palace in ways like these. This year it is planning activities on a still wider scale.

CHINA TODAY

Half-Year Production Plans Overfulfilled

Many factories and mines throughout the country are reporting overfulfilment of their state production plans for the first six months of 1954. State-owned coal mines surpassed their production plans by 4.2%. Coal output increased by 31.3% compared with the corresponding period of last year, and is only about 900,000 tons less than the whole output of 1950. The total value of production for the first half of the year in the petroleum industry was equal to 115.7% of the plan. Production plans set for four main products—crude oil, gasoline, kerosene and diesel were overfulfilled by 7.6-29.5%. State-owned power plants overfulfilled their plan for generating electricity by 5.8%, an increase of 22.3% compared with the corresponding period last year.

The total value of output in factories and mines under the Iron and Steel Administration of the Ministry of Heavy Industry in the first half of the year was 7.99% above the plan. The total value of production of the Northeast's Anshan Iron and Steel Company was 3.7% over the plan and 27.4% more than in the corresponding period last year.

Thirty-three state-owned light industrial enterprises hit their half year's targets for production value or output of their main products ten days in advance.

Reports are published from nearly 60 Peking factories and mines, 47 state-owned factories and mines in Shansi Province and many factories and mines in other

provinces and cities which also fulfilled their half year's state production plans ahead of schedule.

First Soviet Atomic Power Plant Greeted

On July 2, China's press front-paged the announcement of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. on the completion of the construction and start of operations on June 27, 1954, of the first industrial atomic power station.

The *People's Daily*, in an editorial entitled "The Great Significance of the Use of Atomic Energy for Peaceful Construction," writes:

"The over 600 million people of China warmly greet this magnificent achievement by the Soviet Union in the use of atomic energy for peaceful purposes and the raising of the level of modern scientific technique by the Soviet Union as it builds communism. This gives us a hundred times more confidence in our own efforts for the cause of world peace and the great constructive work of bringing about the socialist industrialization of our country. This further development of the first-class, advanced scientific technique of the Soviet Union and the accompanying expansion of its national economy will greatly promote mutual assistance and cooperation between China and the Soviet Union and the whole camp of peace and democracy."

Chinese scientific circles have expressed their admiration of this splendid new achievement of Soviet science as a further example of

how science in the camp of peace and democracy serves peaceful construction, in contrast to the drive in the United States to use science for war purposes and atomic energy for weapons of mass destruction.

Discussing Draft Constitution

The recently published Draft Constitution of the People's Republic of China is being eagerly studied and discussed by people in every walk of life throughout the country.

Committees for the discussion of the Draft Constitution have been set up in all provinces, cities, counties and special regions to promote and organize discussion of the Draft Constitution.

Local people's representative conferences and people's congresses convened since the local general elections have put down the Draft Constitution as the first item for discussion on their agenda. Deputies have expressed their unanimous support for the Draft Constitution and announced their determination to participate actively in its discussion and also make every effort to mobilize the people to do so on the widest possible scale.

Korean People's Delegation Leaves for Home

The Korean People's Delegation headed by Kim Ung Gi, and the art troupes that came with it, left Peking for Korea on June 27 after a stay in China of over three months. A grand meeting was held at the station, where more than 3,000 people came to see them off.

Training Better Farmers

Many Agricultural Technique Instructional Centres have been opened in various parts of the country to help peasants improve their farming methods and to promote the development of the movement for agricultural mutual aid and cooperation. By the end of last year China had over 3,600 such centres; more have been opened this year. The 900-odd centres which the Northeast had last year have increased to 1,060. Anhwei Province has already established 68 new ones this year.

The advice which the centres were able to give peasants this spring has gone a long way towards helping them improve farming methods. At cotton-sowing time the centres in Hopei Province gave technical advice on such matters as selection of seed, its mixing and soaking, sowing on sodden fields, closeness of planting, re-planting, examination and protection of seedlings and so on.

Another achievement of many of these centres is the training of technicians. In Liaotung Province alone in early 1954 they trained over 10,000 skilled technicians for mutual-aid teams and agricultural producers' cooperatives.

Historic Relics

The Ministry of Cultural Affairs has sponsored in Peking a national exhibition of relics unearthed in the course of building operations on various sites. It contains over 3,700 typical relics chosen from over 140,000 recovered in various parts of the country since China

was liberated. Among them is a fossil skull of a race believed to have lived over 100,000 years ago, unearthed at Tzeyang in the province of Szechuan. This skull differs from that of the world-famous "Upper Cave Man" that was discovered at Choukoutien, and its discovery throws new and valuable light on the inhabitants of prehistoric China.

Other interesting articles in the exhibition are ancient iron spades, ploughs, hoes, axes and other implements; millet, rice, *kaoliang* and other grains which had been preserved in earthenware vessels; bamboo writing tablets, lacquerware, earthenware and porcelain, wood carvings, stone statuary, models of houses and wooden boats and a host of other objects invaluable for the study of China's material and cultural past.

New Theatre for Peking

A large and beautiful theatre—the Capital—is being built in Peking on the east side of Wang-fu Street, her main shopping centre. The building, covering an area of some 15,000 square metres, will seat over 1,300 people. It will be surrounded by 3,000 square metres of spacious lawns with shade trees and flower-beds. It will have a revolving stage and other mechanisms for scene changing. It is planned to complete the theatre by May Day 1955.

For New China's Children

New China is continually improving and extending measures for child welfare. In the cities the number of new kindergartens and nurseries is steadily growing.

Peking now has 435 child-care centres, catering for over 20,000 children. In the villages seasonal nurseries are becoming very popular, and there is a steady increase in the number of regular nurseries run by agricultural producers' co-ops.

The past few years, too, have brought more and better children's books. Between 1949 and the spring of this year, the China Youth Publishing House published 115 different new children's books in over five million copies.

In an effort to encourage the creation of works of literature and art for children, the Chinese People's National Committee for the Defence of Children sponsored a national review of books, art and music produced for children in the four years between October 1, 1949 and the end of last year. Over 400 items were submitted by various local writers' groups, children's organizations, periodicals and by the Ministry of Education, and from these the Committee selected 46 prize-winning works.

More children's playgrounds and recreational centres are also being opened. The Children's Palace in Peking, the Children's Palace of the China Welfare Institute in Shanghai, and the Children's Palace in Canton are now nationally known. China's first children's cinema was opened early this year in Changchun, and nearly 130,000 children saw its programmes in its four months.

Another landmark in child care is the modern, 600-bed children's hospital, the largest of its kind in China, which is nearing completion in Peking.

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The Young Musician

A sculpture by Sun Shan-kuan