CHINA:
An Area Manual
Volume I Geographical, Historical, Military Background
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An Area Manual
Volume I Geographical, Historical, and Military Background

by
Chieh-ying Hsu, Research Associate
James L. Akenson, Assistant in Research
Luetie W. Foa, Research Associate
Luric C. Yang, Assistant in Research
Study of Human Resources, Fels University

Edited by
David Nelson Rowe, Director
Study of Human Resources, Fels University

Operations Research Office, The Johns Hopkins University

OPERATIONS RESEARCH OFFICE
The Johns Hopkins University, Cheyney, Maryland

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PREFACE

This is the first of three volumes on China, prepared by a group of
scholars familiar with the Chinese language, history, and culture. It is intended
as a reference work, a compendium of general information for students. It is the result
of collaborative research, and study, and of a distributed effort to make it available.

The need for such a work is acute. The information available on China is
fragmented and often inaccurate. Our aim is to provide a comprehensive
resource for students and researchers. The works cited and the data presented
are intended to be a basis for further research.

Volume I deals with geography, history, and military affairs. It includes
an overview of the country, its people, and its culture. It also presents a
summary of the major events in Chinese history, from the earliest times to
the present day. The volume concludes with a discussion of the military
capabilities of the People's Republic of China.

Volume II will cover the social, economic, and political aspects of China.
It will include a detailed analysis of the country's economic systems, its
social structure, and its political institutions. The volume will also present
a comprehensive overview of the country's foreign policy.

Volume III will focus on China's culture, its art, literature, and
intellectual life. It will include a detailed analysis of the country's
Islam, Buddhism, and Confucianism. The volume will also present
a comprehensive overview of the country's scientific advancements.

As China is in the process of rapid social, political, and economic change,
this volume is intended as a basis for further research. Its aim is to
present a comprehensive overview of the country's past, present, and
future, and to provide a basis for further research.

The editors acknowledge the contributions of all those who have
provided assistance and support. They are indebted to the many
scholars, experts, and institutions who have contributed to the
success of this project. They also acknowledge the support of
the United States government, the United Nations, and
other international organizations.

In the preparation of this Manual, the following references have been
used:

1. For pinyin names, the SINO-GEORGE, February 1952, is
consulted. The following exceptions are noted:

(a) Name of all provinces, provincial capitals, large and small
villages are given in wade-giles romanization (Chinese Pinyin Guide).
(b) The alphabetical order of all entries is followed.
(c) The romanization is given in the National"Geographic"Index to Map of China (1940).
(d) For non-Chinese place names not covered by the SINO-GEORGE,
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(d) For non-Chinese place names not covered by the SINO-GEORGE,
consult the "Geographic"Index to Map of China (1940).
2. Personal names are transcribed according to the Wade-Giles system with the following exceptions:
(a) Names of well-known Chinese persons are given conventional spelling. For the convenience of the reader such names are listed below in an alphabetical table giving both, the conventional spelling and the Wade-Giles transcription.
(b) All other Chinese words are transcribed according to the Wade-Giles system.

LIST OF PLACE NAMES (CONVENTIONAL TRANSLITERATION) WITH NSG GAZETTEER EQUIVALENTS

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CHINA:
AN AREA MANUAL
CHAPTER 1 GEOGRAPHY

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present chapter are not in vain, to give the reader the main facts about Chinese geography, second, to give a general picture of the Chinese people, with special emphasis on how they vary in particularities from region to region. Third, to direct attention to certain outstanding problems which the land and its people pose for any regime that governs China, and for any individual or group which lives there.

It is assumed that military personnel will do a more effective job and pull fewer "lancers" if they can visualize the physical context with which they are dealing. They can carry in their minds a picture of the way the Chinese divide the standpoint of racial origins and maintain physical characteristics, that they have a grasp of the problems of the Chinese people toward these problems from the fact that this kind of people live in this kind of physical context.

The most popular exception of China is in its northern part. China is a huge country, very remote geographically from the U.S. coast, populated by hard-working farmers; it is ruled at least partially by devastating wars and/or famine, but is divided, despite everything, into a virtually unified market for marketable goods from the more fortunate West.

The reader will discover in the following pages, this picture is partly correct, partly incorrect, partly made up of an answer, neither better nor incorrect, to a question that should be answered at all until it has been answered. The best question is: what limits are placed on China's future development by geographic and demographic factors that have shapeless allowed China's development in the past? It will not be answered here for complete or automatic fashion. But it has been constantly present in the minds of the authors and the reader will probably find the discussion more useful if he keeps in mind what he needs what they have written. For a sense of the limits on a country's Chinese development should, like a group of a target audience's problems, help military personnel to hold their blunder a minimum.

This should not be understood to mean that the present chapter attempts any special planning (for the importance of geography and demography is opposed to the, potential of growth) or determines history. The point is, rather, that Chinese geography and Chinese demography are not they are. Too, the reader will understand that history is true if he approaches it already knowing the main lines of this chapter.

THE AREA COVERED

The reader will understand China better if he listens to it always against the background of the great natural "area" in which it belongs, the continent of Asia. He being in the eastern part of Asia, for example, explodes his concept. The fact that it has such a great, such neighboring, separated from it by such and such distances across or off the coast of Asia, creates much about its external communications, including its trade. Before overlooking China itself, then it would be well to group the essentials of Asia geography.

Central Asia lies to the west of China and to the north of India. It is a broad, deeply divided by great mountain ranges, between which stretch, at high altitudes, vast plateaus. To the northwest of India there are the Himalayas, north of the Himalayas lie the Tarim Plateau, then the Kunlun Range (ranging outward into China, where it is known as the Chih Ling Range), then another plateau — the Tarim Basin; and then, at its northern extremity, the Tarim Basin (or Tien Mountains). These mountain ranges are not only high but inaccessible, so that the ground beyond them is not so well explored.

This information is included because the effect the geography has had upon the development of the continent as a whole and of China in particular. Because of the high mountains and its vast desert, desert plateau, this is a part of Asia where population is severely controlled and India has developed, politically and culturally, with a degree of racial independence that is only in part a matter of the distance between China. Touched on as it is by the Tien Shan and the Himalayas, they had to develop independently. Such isolation, as they had with another nation took place for many centuries either along a route from northwest India through the Tarim Basin and Turkestan into northwest China, or along a route from the coast of India to the coast of north China. Such mutual rivalry was long, and difficult and dangerous to be dispersive regular travel. Of the two, however, the land near was the easier, which is to say that China was more open to penetration from India and the east of the semi-arid world; on the north, how it was, therefore, that China built Great Wall as a protection against invader.

This geography acting encouraged China, from the earliest moments of its history, to develop a civilization and culture mostly different from those of other countries, and to maintain -- or subtle and unique sporadically, of its natural defense barriers -- in its territorial integrity and its geographical boundaries. Once acceded solutions through the centuries can be, and after, it is worthwhile said. The first of gauze and bone built back and forth across its borders, and the unknown, and it was only after its period that have any conceivable impact upon China's cultural, political, or economic development. The second period was the introduction of Buddhism and of the Min Chao, and the third was the introduction of Christianity, and the second was the introduction of Islam into the Chinese world. In another long series of developments outside world, partly territorial and partly economic -- frequently related to the industrial evolution -- several forerunners to adopt a new attitude toward the long journey to China, and it is beyond comment that formerly China's door once they had made the journey. Because they had been isolated for so long, the Chinese were never compared that an age had ended. It took three generations to recover any substantial number of Chinese that they could no longer rely on geographical barriers to preservation -- perhaps even absorption -- by the outside world.
THE AREA AND POPULATION OF CHINA

There are several facts that must be kept in mind from the very beginning of any discussion of the area and population of China. One is that much of what history knows as Chinese territory, especially Inner Mongolia and Eastern Manchuria, has been tacked on. The geography considered here is that of a unified China. Another is the great lack of reliable statistics. Even the number of people in China is matters for speculation. Some estimates put it as high as five hundred million, some as low as three hundred and fifty million, while the most widely accepted estimate, four hundred to four hundred and fifty million, has a built-in margin of some fifty million—roughly the total population of the US. If one imposes on the mind at which Chinese population is increasing, the best answer is "very rapidly," since once again there are many provisos. The total population increase at seventy million every ten years, but for the last half it makes allowances for the population increases, especially from famine and war, which has always operated to keep China's population down. To these allowances it is impossible to assign any special numerical value. The "very rapidly" estimate is therefore set at fifty million, a figure of great importance, which is quoted in the following discussion.

China's population lives on rice, not on the chimneys. It is certain if not precise, although travel in China is so rare, having visited only the few large urban centers, with the possible exception of the agricultural province in the southern part of the country, that there is no general belief to be compared with that prevailing in the North. In the North China Plateau, for example, there is a vast expanse of rice paddies, a fact so prominent that one can hardly believe anything to the contrary. In the North China Plateau, for example, there is a vast expanse of rice paddies, a fact so prominent that one can hardly believe anything to the contrary. In the North China Plateau, for example, there is a vast expanse of rice paddies, a fact so prominent that one can hardly believe anything to the contrary. In the North China Plateau, for example, there is a vast expanse of rice paddies, a fact so prominent that one can hardly believe anything to the contrary.

Ethnically, it is difficult to know how the various ethnic groups of the Chinese people, although certain tribes that exist today have good claim to be their descendants, certain ethnic groups have disappeared since Peking was founded in 1282 and to be some 150 centuries old, and are thought to belong to Peking's Manchurian or Chinese stock, i.e., to the human species, the famous ancient Chinese in the North China Plateau, for example, there is a vast expanse of rice paddies, a fact so prominent that one can hardly believe anything to the contrary. In the North China Plateau, for example, there is a vast expanse of rice paddies, a fact so prominent that one can hardly believe anything to the contrary.
Early Stone Age. The Chinese would, then, have descended from very ancient ancestors in the very territory they now inhabit, those being no less ancient evidence for this view than they are descended from peoples who migrated into China. Some authorities speak, in the connection, of an alleged invasion of Chinese and peoples eastward from the West, probably along a route near the Nan Shan. Others hold that the point of origin of the Chinese lay in the south. Invariably attempts have been made to link the early Chinese people to the Alpine race.

Whether their main line of descent is from a people somewhere in their own territory or from peoples who migrated into it from elsewhere, the present-day Chinese are a mixture of races. There are definite records of successive invasions of the fertile valleys and plains of North China, the seat of Chinese civilization, by non-Chinese stocks from the few favored regions in the North, Northwest, and West. Such of these invasions as led to a prolonged or extensive occupation presumably left their mark, not only culturally but mentally as well. The names of the leaders of some of these invasions are known, and scholars have been able to designate at least the major strains that have been added, over the past two thousand or even five thousand years, to whatever race may have inhabited the territory at the beginning of the period. The Turks, the Mongols, and the Manchus must all have made their contribution. So must the aborigines, such as the Man, the Min, and the Yen. Somewhat the peoples of China's present neighbors the Tibetans, the Mongols, and the Koreans. There was, in short, good reason for the bare-headed flag of the Republic of China of 1912, which symbolized the social melting pot of China. The Chinese, the Manchus, the Mongols, the Koreans, and the Tartars. The test of time that inspired it is a relic unprofitably.

But it is a useful reminder of the heterogeneity of China's present population.

In physique, however, the Chinese are remarkably homogeneous, considering the number of peoples and the diverse racial conditions in which they live. The reason for this appears to lie in the very soil of China as compared to, the people of Europe. The latter, who seems to have had a much longer racial history, she differ among themselves in physique much more.

Thus, the geographical distribution between the northern and southern parts of China is not merely geographic. The people differ in stature (northern Chinese being shorter), in complexion (northerners are slightly darker), and perhaps, too, in a measure, in their physique much more the Chinese.

On the other hand, the difference in skin color is probably due to much frequent exposure to the sun in the northern part, but they may also be contrasted with European standards in features.

There is little of the kind of detailed knowledge one needs to speak authoritatively about their ethnology. All one can say is that the same Chinese, from a racially, physical type, which, however, varies somewhat from one to the other, is IX in the region of the country—most probably because of comparatively recent blending with other races. As for the theories put forward concerning the actual origin of the Chinese people, all one can say at present is that none has as yet been sufficiently proved. A word in turn here about the Chinese Modern. Although the modern Chinese is more than ten million, they have played an important and disturbing role in Chinese history, and pose interesting problems of their own from the ethnological point of view. They fall into two distinct groups—the Chinese proper and the Chinese Modern. The Chinese Modern are to be found in Tibet, Peiping, and Canton. The Turks Modern live mostly in Kansu, but extend far east as southeastern. Such are the Chinese who have already absorbed many Chinese tows—Jews, however, the community of the Jews that settled a long time ago in the principal city of Hangzhou have, as a people, they have practically lost their identity. The Chinese Modern live in eastern Inner Mongolia and northern Sinkiang.

Physical features and political conditions.

From the standpoint of toponymy, China is divided into four sections: a, the northern upper, including Mongolia, Shansi, Hopeh, and part of Manchuria; b, the eastern plain, or the area running roughly southeast from Peking to Shanghai; and the Yangtze in the head of deep-sea navigation; c, the Central Mountains in the northwest, central, and central west, roughly comprising north China from South China; d, the high lands of the northern coast of Japan, and of western Sinkiang. This breakdown does not, of course, give an idea of the true nature of China's political and geographical conditions. All parts of China are by no means united in the political form, and all have a distinct regional character. Each region (autonomous region in the present) poses a different problem and must be studied separately. For regions that have a truly individual toponymy and location, such as a human geographer's area, they are not, in fact, a true region, they are not united in the true sense of the word, they are not united in the true sense of the word. For regions that have a truly individual toponymy and location, such as a human geographer's area, they are not, in fact, a true region, they are not united in the true sense of the word.
EASTERN CHINA

The Yellow River or Huang River, some 2,500 miles in length, follows a course from Tibet to Honan Province to Inner Mongolia, then north along the western boundary of Shansi Province. Here it turns northeast, to empty into the Yellow Sea north of the Shantung Peninsula. It is the most potable. The Yangtze River, China’s greatest river, and also one of the world’s greatest, is a vast estuary of over 100,000 square miles east of Tibet to the sea. The two rivers meet at Peking, and from there onwards the streams flow regularly at Shanghai. About 1,200 miles south of Shanghai, the streams diverge at the outlet of the Yangtze, which enters the sea near Nan-Chang, and the Yellow河流 empties into the sea near Chekiang. These mouths are navigable.

In addition to these, mention must be made of the Mekong, Red, and Salween rivers of Yunnan Province, which run into the sea near Canton. It runs in Hwangho Province and runs up into Hsiangyang. Only its lower reaches are navigable.

Administrative Subdivisions

A further list of proper names that the student ought to have in mind is that of the present administrative subdivisions of China. While their political status is not necessarily stable or permanent, they do provide a convenient means of referring to particular locations.

Since the "Shangri-La," or the "Iron Curtain," prohibits access to information, and since current China is now under complete Communist control, knowledge of the political geography of pre-Communist China is to be sought. In a known, however, that the Peiping government has changed many traditional boundaries, and created the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, which includes what was formerly southern Chahar and eastern Hinghsien, China, in consequence, now contains six administrative areas and one autonomous Region. A total of 28 provinces are in one or another of the six Administrative Areas. Taiwan (Formosa), if and when it is "liberated" by the Communists, will be a 29th province, and would probably be incorporated in the Far Eastern administrative area. A further administrative category is that of the Special Areas, which are 11 in number and are administered directly from Peking.

The present status of Tibet is far from clear. What is called Newer Tibet includes two provinces, Tsching and Sinking, the first of which Belongs to the Northeast and the second to the Southwest Administrative Area. Western Tibet, an area of about 200,000 square miles with an estimated population of 1,000,000, has its capital at Lhasa. Under the influence of a treaty signed by the Chinese Communists in May 1951, the Panchen Lama, one of Tibet’s two religious leaders (the other is the Pali Llama), has been much discreet over the political status of both and now heads the government of Western Tibet. This area, however, has since that time become virtually another province of Communist China, all former officials either having been removed or having given over to the Chinese Communists.

The territorial organization of China, as of 1952, is


3. Southwestern Administrative Area in provinces: Shantung, Kiiin, Kiiang, Chahar, Chekiang, Fukien, and (of which "liberated") Taiwan; two special municipalities: Shanghai and Tientsin.


6. Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region: the region is divided into six “nosings,” but the present existing of this term is in a matter of conjecture. It is directly subordinate to the Central People’s Government in Peking.

7. Tibet (Kashmir “Furrther Tibet”): the area is similar in status to Inner Mongolia, i.e., it is autonomous in some only.

An administrative structure paralleling that of the central government is created for each of the six administrative areas except that of the North China, which is administered by a Ministry of North China Affairs in the Central Government. Actually, only one of these administrative structures, the Northeast People’s Government, is a going concern.

In the remaining four regions, government is still in the hands of military administrative councils.

| PROVINCES, PROVINCIAL CAPITALS, AREAS, AND POPULATIONS |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Province       | Capital        | Area (sq. mi.) | Population |
| Anhui          | Hanyang        | 56,200         | 27,261,858  |
| Chekiang       | Hangchow       | 16,800         | 10,117,684  |
| Fukien         | Kiiin          | 60,300         | 11,094,632  |
| Huph           | Huygh          | 29,000         | 11,937,689  |
| Kiiang          | Hankow         | 26,500         | 7,282,418   |
| Kiiangsi        | Chalgan        | 25,100         | 8,650,260   |
| Kiiung         | Kuanhsung      | 23,000         | 5,730,788   |
| Kwangtung       | Kwangchow      | 22,300         | 10,935,100  |
| Kwangsi         | Kweihung       | 21,200         | 11,300,000  |
| Kweichow        | Fuchow         | 20,800         | 10,670,000  |
| Parsi           | Kweihung       | 20,400         | 10,730,000  |
| Szechuan        | Nanhsung       | 19,200         | 10,730,000  |
| Szechuan        | Chalgan        | 18,500         | 10,730,000  |
| Shantung        | Nanhsung       | 18,000         | 10,730,000  |
| Shansi          | Tientsin       | 17,500         | 10,730,000  |
| Yunnan          | Kunming        | 16,000         | 10,730,000  |

Table 1 (Cont'd)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Area (sq. mi.)</th>
<th>Population</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heilongjiang</td>
<td>Harbin</td>
<td>52,690</td>
<td>8,951,581</td>
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<td>Jilin</td>
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<td>Liaoning</td>
<td>Shenyang</td>
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<td>Hebei</td>
<td>Shijiazhuang</td>
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<td>84,080</td>
<td>5,816,930</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shanxi</td>
<td>Taiyuan</td>
<td>26,050</td>
<td>1,397,320</td>
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</table>

The largest of the provinces in area (over 500,000 square miles) is Heilongjiang, which, however, is thinly populated. The largest in population (over fifty million) is Hunan, and the next largest (approximately forty million) is Henan. Other provinces with relatively large populations are Shanxi, Shandong, and Sichuan.

China

Shanghai: population probably four million, which means that it may well become the most populous city in the world, but it is still an early stage of its predictable growth. It is the New York of China, the chief trading port of a vast hinterland; at the mouth of the Yangtze, in Kiangsi Province.

Tientsin: population 1,200,000. The chief port for North China, and will become increasingly important as the resources of its region, both mineral and agricultural, are developed, in Shantung Province.

Peking: population, 1,900,000. It was the capital of the Empire and of the early Chinese Republic, and the Chinese Communists have made it the capital of their regime. It has for several centuries been the railroad center of China; in northern Hopeh, in Kansu, and in Sinkiang, are the chief railroad centers. The railroad network of China is growing rapidly.

Kuangtung: population 1,000,000. The chief trading center of South China, in Kwangtung Province.

Nanking: population 1,400,000. It was the capital of the National Government of China, an important Yangtze port, in Kiangsu Province.

Harbin: population 800,000. The chief city of Manchuria, an important manufacturing center. It is the chief railroad center of the north and of the Manchurian Railroad System, from Canton to Peking, in Hopeh Province.

Changchun: population 800,000. Situated in the rich and populous province of Manchuria, in eastern China. Many of central China's industrial plants were moved there during the war.

The physical (topographical) differences within China are very great. Not only do they give rise to several areas that can be employed in a regional breakdown of China, but to the climate of each region, to the sale of agricultural products in each, and to the probable effects of the war on each region.

The climate of China

China may be divided into several distinct climatic zones; the difference being partly latitude, and partly the varying effects of the large land masses of central Asia. The three

As an area covered with a flat, yellow soil, originally covered with forest from Yangtze by the north and by desert, 800 square miles, particularly in North China, where it is found in some places as a sheet of hundreds of feet.
north coast provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Fukien may be grouped together in one zone, in which precipitation is heavy, the winters mild, and the summers hot. Central China is fairly uniform in climate as far north as the Chihli province, except for variations from sea-level to elevation above sea-level. Rainfall there is adequate, and winter temperatures moderate and mild. At Nanking, for instance, the temperature sometimes goes down to 10°F. The cold is so slight compared to central latitudes in other parts of the world, when it is very cold, Nanking about 30° N, roughly the same as Yorkburg, Mississippi, both. Temperatures are found further south in Asia than anywhere else in the world. Beijing, 40° N, has a mean annual temperature cooler than any other in the world. The lower: mean mean lower than any other in the world. Beijing, 30° N, has a mean annual temperature cooler than any other in the world. In summer, central China is hot, as in the high temperatures being registered there In the southern zone. This region is the tropics, where there is heavy rainfall during the summer. In fact, the southern tropical zone of China, below the Great Wall at least, has temperatures nearly as high as those of the southern coast. Its winters, however, are much colder, Peking winters, for example, being extremely cold. This is remarkable when it is considered that Peking is at approximately the same level of altitude as Philadelphia. During the winter the snows are for the most part from the northwest, and bring with them the intense cold temperatures of the central Asian highlands. Practically all the area's precipitation is in the spring and summer months. The winters are so dry that snow, when it falls, promptly evaporates instead of remaining on the ground to be melted by warmer weather.

Beijing has extremely cold winters and short summers, with only moderate rainfall. Shanghai, where the precipitation varies from light in March to heavy in July, has uniformly severe winters and mildly hot summers. The altitude keeps the temperature relatively low in summer.

Another distinct climatic area is in the mountainous region of Yunnan Province. But for the altitude which keeps the temperature low, Yunnan would presumably have the much warmer climate of the South China area. Tibet, to the west and north, is a region of very high altitude. The temperatures there are almost constant from season to season. Much the same is true of Sinkiang, even with its linear elevation above sea-level.

In addition to the monsoon and the differences in topography, there are two further influences on the climate of China. One must be mentioned as affecting the central and southern areas particularly, and the North China Zone somewhat less. These are the recurrent cyclonic storms, which sweep in a generally east-west direction in the central area, and the tropical typhoons, which race in the southeastern Pacific and travel in a north-south direction to the China coast. To a certain extent both tend to break down the winter and winter rhythm of the monsoon cycle.

The cyclonic storms originate in central Asia, and travel over the middle portion of China, accompanied by winds and rain. Some of these pass over Japan. The typhoons, the base of shipping in the South China Sea, cause violence in the sub-tropical region. The two move mostly in the summer months, especially in the latter part of the summer.

In general, China's climate may be characterized as temperate in character, and conducive to an extremely high level of work and achievement on the part of its inhabitants. On the other hand, the generally high temperatures in the southern latitudes are a handicap, making the maintenance of health difficult, and definitely decreasing human efficiency. When high temperature and high humidity are combined as they are in the Central and Southern Zones, the climate becomes distinctly uncomfortable. Those who travel to these regions from low-latitude areas of the Western Hemisphere find the task of adjustment quite difficult.
Farms

Now it is only to reap considerable extent on natural vegetation, which in itself and purpose has long since disappeared from all land capable of being used for agriculture. The forest growth that now blankets China's mountainous areas was long ago out done and the wood and fuel. (In the more prosperous agricultural districts today, given the population pressure on farming, no fuel is available except wild greens and reeds. These spring up almost every year, and at least provide fuel for cooking.)

The Peking Institute of Finance and the failure to realize that they are not responsible for many of the disastrous floods that occur in China. There is nothing left on the hillsides to hold vegetation in the ground and absorb vegetation here, as elsewhere in the world, supplies of timber, and coal provide ample evidence of the price a people pay for stripping the hills of their forests. Erasure of the hillsides is the controllable result.

In at least one area, there appears to have been forests all the way from the eastern coast of China to Manchuria. Important stands of timber today are mainly in the coastal range of north China, the Ching Ling Forest, the mountains of Szechuan, Tibet, and Manchuria. The latter appears to have the best stands of timber in the Chinese region. The forests of Manchuria extend right into eastern Siberia, and normally supply much-needed lumber to Japan.

Animal Life

It should not be concluded from anything stated previously that China is lacking in natural resources; on the contrary, the country has always been and is today a rich storehouse of numerous varieties of vegetation, many of which have been exported to the West. But the vegetation is not of such character as to make much of a role in solving China's future economic problems.

Minerals

Modern civilization in the West is based largely on machine fabrication of commercial goods from various materials. A whole series of minerals are needed in order for this fabrication process to go on; coal to serve as fuel, oil to lubricate the machinery, iron to make the machinery, and so on. The mineral wealth of China is vast and varied, and many of these and other minerals are to be found in China! And what questions?

As far as China has one of the world's largest reserves (probably half as large as that of the US). If we were to dig for large-scale industrialization, therefore, its total reserves should, according to the best expert opinion, hold out for centuries. Most of this reserve lies in the northern section of China, which was one of the reasons for Japan's aggressive efforts to take over the northern provinces. The richest deposits are in Shantung, Shensi, and Shansi, while the others are somewhat smaller, but still considerable reserves in the Yangtze Valley, near Huanki. Nevertheless, Chinese coal production has remained steady in comparison with that of the highly industrialized nations, even if we include in it the production in Manchuria.

China has, thus, plenty of coal, but it does not have the iron ore it would need in order to make the most of its coal. A single province, Chahar, probably has greater iron deposits than Japan and Korea put together, and there are further deposits in Szechwan, Hopeh, Manchuria, Shansi, and the central provinces. Nevertheless, and all the experts agree, it is not possible to produce a major iron
tation on Chinese industrial potential. Nor is that all. China's deposits of coal and iron do not happen to be conveniently close together. The two must be carried a good distance to the other, which serves high transportation costs that must enter into the price of the finished product. In addition, the ore - and steel on the price - will continue to go up - the price so high as to be prohibitive except when the world price (i.e., the price at which iron ore can be purchased abroad) is inflated as a result of extended demand, as in wartime.

An even more intractable problem is posed by China's lack of oil. Extensive search has failed to reveal any appreciable petroleum reserves worth exploiting, and there is reason to believe that none will be found in the future. Advocates in existing methods of extracting oil from coal may, to an extent, remedy this defect in China's natural endowments to some extent. Experience shows that way looking to the use of vegetable oils for diesel type internal combustion engines. Even were these experiments successful, China could supply itself with significant quantities of vegetable oils only on the improbable assumption that the necessary agricultural resources could be found in producing foodstuffs.

The following remarks are those that China possesses in quantity, from which there are large deposits in Yunnan, shanxi, of which China at one time had a world monopoly; tungsten, of which China is the world's third producer; and salt, which China produces in vast amounts, both by mining and by the evaporation of sea water.

These remarks are all in the future potentialities of China as an industrial state equipped with the necessary raw materials. China has both iron and oil, and either of these deficiencies would, even without the others, probably keep it from becoming a sufficiently industrially. It does have resources that may enable it to reach a possibly higher level of industrial development than it has achieved, and might eventually raise the standard of living of its people. But only with great effort can China become a first-rate industrial nation. If it ever did so it would be a result of evolving technologies that could be brought to bear in the world would indeed and - as we have seen, already is getting there. Futher technological change may reduce China's present weakness in this area... but it is not a change that is discernible on the horizon. The Chinese might - this is another possibility - fail to build up strength at home, and with Russia helpless in the face of Japan, there is hope of achieving by germanizing the resources they lack at home. Current Chinese conquests plans for "outflanking the revolution" in the rest of Asia, military intervention in Indo-China, lend extra weight to this possibility.

CHINA'S COMMUNICATIONS

Waterway

China's internal communications system, generally speaking, is rudimentary. The one exception to the statement is the country's waterways. The Yangtze River is navigable for about 1800 miles. From its source, near Kunming, it flows north through Hubei to its delta. The development of modern steam navigation, the large Yangtze Valley has been shown upon for the transport of goods, not only domestic but foreign as well. Above Nanking, the lower Yangtze Gorge winds over a narrow and rocky river, and navigation is impeded by swift rapids, rocks, and whirlpools. Formerly, craft were forced to pass these by using narrow path at the entrance of the river. Although both boats and ships have developed along narrow path at the river's edge, the traffic is heavy. Specially constructed high powered current craft now navigate the dangerous stretch, although at the risk of the seasonal floods.
even they have difficulty in passing the outlet of the rapids, and are at least 1500 feet above sea level, with a steep gradient, which is virtually impossible for steam launches and small craft to navigate. The Huang (Yellow) River, though very long, is virtually navigable except for its upper stretches, where small steam launches and sailing-boat natives mostly plow in the water. (Aptly described by one as "the upper region as an outlet") The river carries a heavy burden of silt, which is constantly being deposited on the bottoms of the streams, making it too shallow for ordinary river craft. (The famous Huang River floods are due to the silt, and the sandbars that have been made to subside it by increasing the width of the dykes have been mistaken. A more promising solution is to excavate the bottom of the stream bed.)

Among China's artificially constructed systems of travel is the Grand Canal, now called up and usable at many points, one at one time the most important, with heavy freight traffic moving along its entire length (from Hangchow, south of Shanghai, to Tientsin). The canals were mainly dry, so travel from the central valley to the Imperial Court at Peking (from Tientsin, the river moved along the Hai River to Yung-chou, twelve miles south of Peking, and thence by land). Most of the Grand Canal is in three provinces: Honan, Shantung, and Hopeh. It is still in use for local freight shipments.

The rivers of the south coastal area account for very little of China's overland traffic. Only the Ti River (West River), in Kwantung and Kwangsi, deserves mention here, and even it is navigable only by small craft. The other rivers of the area are either too rapids or too small for navigation.

Roads

Road systems have a long history in China, and some of its ancient roads still serve in modern times. They vary greatly in quality, and for the most part were intended for pedestrian purposes. The modern roads are few and, despite the dampness of human labor, expensive. Those occasioned to the south means of transportation present-day West can hardly visualize what it has been to travel in parts of China even in the past recent past, to move by mule on a dozen miles in an entire day, and even less if the route covered is a mountainous country. Yet in many areas of China this is still the only alternative to going on foot. The major exceptions, apart from the actively modern means of transport in certain areas, are found in the north, where some travel is accomplished by mule, or on horseback.

The long transportation development of the last twenty years has placed a strong emphasis on the building of roads for motor transport, which many Chinese have regarded as the quickest and easiest means of speeding the back route to trade and new influences, and a better let for a man waiting for highway to be built. One (indeed, has been of the opinion that highways might alleviate the necessity of building roads in some cases at all). The west, the northwest, the northeast, and some areas in the south are the areas in which the most important roads are planned. The main idea has been to make the north have a more significant role in industrial development and that China's exports, will still be dependent on goods shipped to foreign countries. The new roads, which have been constructed in the past few years, have been planned for the purpose of providing a better connection for the back routes of China. The latest reports on the progress of the back roads in the United States are very encouraging. (The reports indicate that China has made some progress in the development of the back roads in the United States.)

Traffic over them must move at extremely fast speeds, and China's road and truck traffic will not move as much as they should. But all this is not to deny that the new roads have proved valuable.

Railways

China's total mileage of railway track is much less than the large area. Its railway system, if such it may be called, is centered toward Manchuria, where the principal rail network is located. One line runs from southern Manchuria through Tientsin and Peking to inner Mongolia, with Pusan as its terminus. Another important line has as its major ports Tientsin, Nanking, and Shanghai, with yet another link the north and south (Peking-Hankow-Canton). Still another, the long-famous one, runs roughly form west to east, from Tcheng-tai (Shantung) on the sea, north of Shanghai) to Peking in Honan Province. There are, in addition, a north-south line through Manchuria, a line running from Shanghai to Honom and from Nanking to Kweichow and Kunming.

The road network in the west and southwest, from Kunming in Yunnan to Tientsin, from Shanghai to Peking, and from Peking to Canton, has been considerably simplified by the Chinese Government. Prior to the last war, the nation's earnings had been more than sufficient to meet interest and service payments.

Air Transport

Pre-World War II China had a rapidly developing and constructive system of air transportation, which China has more reason to than most other nations because of the great cities are far apart, and because in many areas and for many purposes it (the air) is the only alternative to going on foot. The major exceptions, apart from the actively modern means of transport in certain areas, are found in the north, where some travel is accomplished by mule, or on horseback.

In shorter, the airplane was welcomed in China both for its political and for its economic implications, as even a casual look at the existing network will make clear. There are major lines from Peking to Shanghai, Canton, from Shanghai to Canton, and up the Yangtze Valley, and from Peking to Canton. Other important lines are those connecting Canton and Chekiang in Szechwan, and the USH and western linking with north China and the capital at Peking.

A few weeks must be included, finally, on China's external communications, for these are due to the interests, as in the case of the old trade routes through Central Asia and the sea routes from southern China to India and the Far East brought in by such in other countries to the east. The latter from Europe in eastern China夷 through the ports of Shanghai, Nanjing, and west to the west on the Great Wall. The eastern route with the United States and with the Republican Government took place via the Far Eastern route in the region southeast of the Chinese Sea during the Manchoukouo.

Stat 20

The first European to come to China in the modern period traveled by sea, so that the first land-bound communications with Europe was on the south China coast. It spread gradually up the coast, and each modern part as about Hongkong, Shanghai, and Tsouli grew up to handle the resulting new trade.
No practical government exists in the north; instead, the province is divided into North and South Administrative Districts with representative capitals at Hohhot and Ulan Bator. It contains fertile agricultural plains centered around the Yenisei and Ulus rivers which cross the province in a northwest-southeast direction. The southern section remains the heart Huang He Area. The other major mountain range is the Tien Shan, located in the north. Climate conditions are generally mild, with abundant rainfall.

Agriculture is the economic backbone of the province. Rice and tea are particularly important in the north. Wheat, millet, corn, barley, and oats are also raised. Mining industries include coal at Khorlik, coal at Chorsu, and copper at Khorlik. The area has rich mineral resources. The second largest producing province in China, economic centers are concentrated in Wuhan along the Yangtze River, and serve as important centers of trade and industry. For example, Wuhan is the major city of the province. Important river ports are Wuhan, Nanjing, Shanghai, Xiamen, and Foochow.

Hohhot (21°35'N and 117°30'E) was the proposed provincial capital located in the approximate geographic center of the province. It is now the North District capital and serves as a new commercial center. Roads and highways link it to Wuhan and Shanghai. The North District capital is Wuhan (30°25'N and 114°15'E), a river port on the Yangtze River, which is one of China's largest river systems. The Yangtze is also navigable throughout this city. Harbin (45°15'N and 126°55'E) is an important river port located in western China on the north bank of the Yangtze. It is one of the provincial capitals. North Shandong's capital is T'ungchou (35°30'N and 117°30'E), which serves as the birthplace of many famous literary and political figures of the Han dynasty. The province is also divided into five districts: (1) Shandong, (2) Shantung, (3) Shaanxi, (4) Shanxi, and (5) Shansi. The former is a fertile tea-growing area and produces porcelain pottery; the latter is famous for its Chinese inks and bronzes.

Like Wuhan, Anshan is divided by the Yangtze River into North and South, though the cultural differences between the two are not as marked. North Anshan is a steel-producing region, the South is the area for rice and tea. Wuhan, described as a Treaty Port in the Ch'ing dynasty, is an important rice port. North Anshan is not described as having industrial development; while Anshan is famous for its iron, it is not attracting a large industrial base. North Anshan is rather poor. Both Tuyen-mou and Khorlik are rich in coal deposits. The province north of the line is the most productive region. For detailed information on the province see the section in the chapter entitled "Mongolia."
The three major rivers are the Fuzhou, Yangtze, and West Lake. The Yangtze and West Lake are the main rivers of the region. The Yangtze River is the longest river in China and flows through Hubei, Hunan, and Zhejiang provinces. West Lake, also known as Hangzhou West Lake, is a famous freshwater lake located in Hangzhou, Zhejiang Province.

Hanging Rock (or Hangzhou West Lake) is a popular tourist destination in Hangzhou. It is a UNESCO World Heritage Site and is known for its natural beauty and cultural significance. The area around the lake is rich in history, with many ancient temples, pagodas, and gardens.

Climate: Hangzhou has a subtropical monsoon climate with distinct seasons. The summer is hot and humid, while the winter is mild and dry. The rainy season is from May to September, with the heaviest rainfall occurring in June and July. The average annual temperature is around 16°C.

Economy: Hangzhou is a major economic center in China, with a strong focus on technology, e-commerce, and tourism. It is home to many large companies and is a hub for innovation and entrepreneurship.

Facts: Hangzhou is famous for its Longjing tea, which is grown on the hills surrounding the West Lake. The tea is known for its sweet and fragrant flavor, and is highly prized worldwide.

Hangzhou also has a rich cultural heritage, with many historic sites and landmarks. These include the Leifeng Pagoda, the Chinese Garden, and the West Lake Cultural Landscape, which is a UNESCO World Heritage Site.
Fukien is deficient in food production, although rice, corn, wheat, and tea are cultivated within its boundaries. Large quantities of sugar, fish, tea, and timber are produced. Large coal and iron deposits have been reported, but mining is undeveloped. The chief industries are paper, sugar, tea, silk, and lumbering, of which the last is the most important. Ship-building is another traditional activity.

The province is supplied with 400 kilometers of highways leading to the main neighboring provinces. There are no railways, but a line is planned along the Min River from Minho to Kiangsi in Kiangsu Province, to link eventually with the Chinkiang-Kiangsi railroad. River navigation is generally limited to small steamers and wooden junks. Fuzhou and Amoy are important termini as well as centers for river navigation. The provincial capital of Minho (25° N and 117° E) has a population of over 300,000 and is a commercial center for timber, paper, hogsheads, tannin, and henna. The city is located on the northern bank of the Min River, and commercial transactions are actually concentrated on Nantao island in mid-river. The international telephone office at Minho is connected with Singapore by a submarine cable. Amoy is a naval base east of the provincial capital and the former site of a naval academy. Amoy (25° N and 117° E) is an important port for eastern Kiangsi and southeastern Fukien with ten as the chief export. It is a small island of about 10 square miles, connected with Hong Kong on the mainland by ferry and ferries two hours. Amoy was occupied as a trading post after the Opium War of 1842. An important naval center for ammunition, the Fukien, head- ship of the Chinkiang fleet, is based on the north side of the Min River.

Quite a number of non-Chinese aborigines still live in the mountains of Fukien. Communications in the province are quite rudimentary. This lack of communication on the one hand, emigration to the south from Fukien, especially by the coastal people of South Fukien, second Amoy; and on the other, the preservation of ancient dialects which are truly a different language from Mandarin. There are two chief groups of dialects, Amoy and Minchow. The dialects spoken by the Chinese in Taiwan, the Tahoku dialect, is identical at the most islands to the most dialects of all Chinese dialects. Because of the isolation and the other factors of nature, the Fukien people used to be more isolated than people of other provinces, who regard them as simple and soft. The Fukien people are more content to live by their own simple methods, more content to live by their own methods, more content to live by their own means, more content to live by their own means.

In Minho there was developed a free literary tradition, so that the classics are more widely read there than in other cities. Because of the linguistic difficulty, the Fukien primary and secondary schools vigorously enforced the program for adopting Kuo Yee (Manchuria). Fukien produces rice, tea, sugar, tobacco, and the front lumber. The two major towns from the carefully defined map of the province were the provincial capital, formerly called the "Yamada Tree." After the large part of plant is put on a thin wood foundation, which is afterward removed, so that the genuine lumber was not the attractive feature of Fukien and Minho, so the front lumber was sold at very high prices after the Opium War, there used to be many manchurian colleges and schools there. Fukien, now Minho, is a front naval center.

Fukien is blessed with a variety of interesting fruits, like the Fukien tangerine orange, which is exported in great quantities. It is now the most important port of Fukien, which is supplied with timber, tea, and lumber. Of the chief industries are paper, sugar, tea, silk, and lumbering, of which the first is the most important. Ship-building is another traditional activity.

Since the founding of the Republic, Fukien has been subjected to Communist influence in the north and a number of bad governments. The former government of Fukien, under the Warlord Chiao, was overthrown by the Kuo Yee in 1922, and has not been restored. The latter government was overthrown by the Kuo Yee in 1922, and has not been restored. The latter government was overthrown by the Kuo Yee in 1922, and has not been restored.
development is limited to distilleries, small flour mills, and vegetable oil and tanning plants in the Langxiang and Puxin areas.

The three major railroads in the northeastern area are centered at Puxin. The line goes to Langxiang, another to Huainan in Huainan Province via Suhaba via Nanchang and Huainan. The other line continues through Kehuang as a second major center for the northwestern area, and leads to the northwestern direction of Hongdong. To the north, the Chinese railroad to the city of Qingshan in Qingshan and Huainan. The line is the line running north from the Huainan area to the Huainan area. The Huainan area is characterized by a rich soil and a climate. The Huainan area is also characterized by a rich soil and a climate. The Huainan area is also characterized by a rich soil and a climate. 

Langxiang (37° 22' E and 120° 57' N) is in the southwestern and major railroad center of the Nanyang area. It also serves as a major hub for the surrounding Hunan and Inner Mongolia territory. Puxin (37° 25' N and 120° 57' E) is an important railroad hub in the area. It is also the center of agricultural production and a leading city for agricultural and animal products. The town of Chongqian (Qingshan) (37° 25' N and 120° 57' E) is a major agricultural and industrial center in the southernmost Hunan province. Shishan (37° 25' N and 120° 57' E) is a major rice-producing area on the southern border of Hunan. 

Hunan Hunan is a province in the southeastern region of China, bordered by the provinces of Anhui, Jiangxi, Guangdong, and Hubei. Its eastern territory, totaling 33,544 square miles, has been slightly increased by changes in its boundary with Hubei.

The province is mountainous in the west, but levels off in the central and eastern areas. The five major mountains are in the Huashan area. To the west and west of the Huashan area is the famous Huashan Mountain. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province. The province is the capital of the Three Gorges Dam. The Huashan area is mountainous, and the Huashan area is in the province.

Climate conditions here are what is called Winter Wheat-Kingding (winter wheat) agricultural region. Major crops include wheat, rice, cotton, tobacco, and tobacco, but wheat is by far the most important. Cotton is also grown in large quantities. Large deposits of iron, copper, tin, lead, and silver are exploited, but these production is in the most significant and...
they have preserved a few Jewish traditions, but they no longer write our spoken Hebrew. As a result, there are very few people who can read and write Hebrew.

As a central province in China, Hunan has often been the birthplace of rural areas. Today, there are many rural areas in Hunan that are still依靠 traditional agricultural practices. However, the province has been facing challenges such as increasing urbanization and changes in the agricultural sector.

The Hunan people are known for their hard work and resilience. They are known for their entrepreneurial spirit and have been successful in various industries, including agriculture, manufacturing, and technology.

Hunan is home to many historical sites and cultural landmarks. Some of the most famous include the Organic Rice Field, the Sanjiangyuan National Nature Reserve, and the Hunan Museum. These sites attract tourists from all over the world, providing a glimpse into the rich history and culture of the province.
nated and missionary universities attract to it a large number of teachers and students from other provinces of China. They add color and vivacity to the Peking scene. It is not an exaggeration to say that more than half of the students in Tungchow and Yenching come from Kiangsi, Chekiang, and South China.

The people in Hopeh are typical of the people of North China as a whole. They differ in many respects from the southern Chinese. They are taller and broader; their facial features are less expressive and lack distributional variety. With the periodic invasions of the Mongolian, Manchurian, and other tribes from the North, many of the Chinese families moved south, so that the present-day Northerner usually represents a mixture of Chinese with other racial blood. While Manchuria is the official price of China, the Wu and Canton dialects have preserved older forms of pronunciation and have more local and individualistic characteristics. The Northwestern people, in other words, preserve the ancient pronunciation, while the present Peking dialect represents a somewhat later form of development, in which many local distinctions are lost. Thus while the Peking people are usually regarded as typically Chinese, in terms of ethnic and physical development, the Northerners may be termed the ancient Chinese type.

The food habits of North and South China are different. The people in Hopeh take to be about, hanging, and millet. It is the only native grain that can stand water. Food preparation is also simpler and there is less regard for taste, the kind of aji or quality for which Chinese food is known to be superior. The most famous dish in Peking restaurants is roast duck served with pasty-like bun, stored rice, and white bread. Another kind of food, one Chinese origin, is Shaan Yang-pie, a thick-shaped cake of dough dipped in a broth of vegetables, served in a chafing-pan. Since most Chinese meat is soft, this type of menu, which is on the rare side, has a distinctive character. Vegetables are sparse, except for Chinese cabbage during the winter season; fruits are rare. Tokyo is eaten raw and pickled. People in Hopeh are fond of drinking tea with dried preserved fruits.

The northern people are a straight-dealing, courteous people who shun the Confucian virtues. More traditional and less cosmopolitan than the southerners, they are happy not commercially, and in many ways the southerners are endeavoring to imitate them, while the northerners who live in Shanghai and Hong Kong are relatively few. Since the Imperial Education System training officials from all provinces, many leading families in Peking were from other provinces. The native Peking population is still preserved in business in music, art, handicraft, and small traders of life in cocoa and flowers. But with changing social trends, many families are imperiled and are not able to maintain this tradition. The old people enthusiastically recall the last years of the Ching dynasty and the time of Yeh-Shih-K'ao, and deplore the end of Peking.

Since most Christians who have visited Peking have praised it in its decay, it is necessary to present the impressions they have given of it to some extent. Most foreigners who have seen there have been in a position to hire a number of servants and live in a spacious, well-furnished home. They are more than aware of certain of the disadvantages of living in Peking. Actually Peking is a very cold place in winter; for the people, living in heavily-filled rooms, life can be very uncomfortable. In summer it is very hot, though the nights are comparatively cool. In spring the sky is covered with dust storms, that even upon reaching home after a short walk, one must wash. Only the fall months are relatively pleasant. The position of the Forbidden City is extremely picturesque; but, like other Chinese buildings, they suffer from the opening rows of trees and marble. The streets are improperly lighted and most wooden buildings are in a dilapidated condition; the yellow tile roofs and imposing historic edifices with the dignified interiors.

Because of the cold weather and the scarcity of wooden materials, most northerners wear too many thick layers of cotton-padded clothes and are not in a position to take baths regularly. The fact that they take in chafing dishes every once a while seem to them a luxury. Nevertheless they maintain an air of beauty and gentility which are lacking in the general conduct of living standards. The houses of upper middle class people are quite handsome and doors open upon a room having the reception room. Most houses are of the one-level type of construction.

Hopeh was called Chihsia during the Ching dynasty and the early years of the Republic; Chihsia means "under direct Imperial control." The Manchu conquerors who settled down there and became accustomed were "bait rather than subjects, but at present it is very hard to distinguish the Manchus from the Chinese.

In spite of its importance in China's national life, Hopeh has not produced many great men (it is true, however, that the most important people from other provinces). The only important figure of the Chinese history, who came from Hopeh, is Tseng Chichu, founder of the K'ing dynasty. The most important figure of the T'ang dynasty was Lin Tung-se, who made a notable stand against the Manchus. The city of Chang-t'ai (in Yung-chiu), Cheng Chih-chung, founder of the K'ang-hsi dynasty, and Lin Tung-se, Lin Ko-fu, and Lin Tung-se, are native of Hopeh. Very few important Confucianists come from Hopeh.

Many people of the people in Hopeh live in small villages and are directly dependent upon agriculture. The houses are built either of adobe bricks and a few with tile, so that almost all are dependent upon rice and tobacco. The roads are often of mud or sand, and in some cases of rough ruts of stone. The roads are often of mud and sand, and in some cases of rough ruts of sand. The roads are often of mud and sand, and in some cases of rough ruts of sand. The roads are often of mud and sand, and in some cases of rough ruts of sand. The roads are often of mud and sand, and in some cases of rough ruts of sand.

Hunan, commonly referred to as the "rice bowl" of China, is in the South-Central Administrative Regions and bordered on Kiangsi, Kiangsu, Anhwei, and Kweichow provinces. It is one of the richest provinces, and has a population of 26,171,000. The southern provinces generally have a humid climate toward the north. The chief commercial crop is rice, grown in the southern part of the province, the most important being the Yen, Liu, Tsou, and Nang. In the north and Tung-ch'ing Lake is a large body of water which is a part of the Yangtse River. The climate conditions are generally mild, particularly in the lower region, but sub-tropical conditions prevail in the far north.

The province is of great agricultural importance, a large rice yield being taken from the large rice and cotton valley. Rice, tobacco, cotton, and sheep are other important crops. The province is also important in mineral production, substantial coal production is found at Anhui, Yung-hai, and Sin-ha, and one produces 40 per cent of the world supply. Other minerals produced in this province are mercury, silver, iron, lead, salt, and sodium. Coal is produced in good quantity at Lung-tung, L-pong, and K'ang-chou, and Nan-yang. There are several small lan-
termine at Changsha, Chang-ting and Heng-ying. The province is also well known for its embroidery, textiles, porcelain, and paper handicrafts.

The Canton-Hankow railway traverses the eastern part of the province from north to south. The Peking-Harbin-Hankow railway links it to Shensi in the east, while the Huzen-Enkou railway connects it to Kwantung Province. A well distributed road network of 5,000 kilometers connects the province to the surrounding areas. Steamship service is well developed on the rivers and on Tsung-tung Lake.

The provincial capital and commercial center of Changsha (SP 15° N and 110° 58' E) is a major port city. It has a population of 413,000. Rice, tea, tung oil, porcelain, minerals, and embroidery are the major goods produced here. Changsha was the site of four major battles during the Sino-Japanese War. Yen-yang (SP 35° 38' N and 112° 39' E) is a town of military significance near the Yangtze mouth on Tsung-tung Lake, on the Canton-Hankow railroad. A commercial port dealing chiefly in tung oil and serving Kwantung Province and eastern Sinkiang in Chinese-SP 26° 5' N and 113° 26' E), on the Yangtze River in western Hunan.

The communication center is a Changsha (SP 30° 38' N and 111° 33' E), in the central part of the province. It is the junction of the Canton-Hankow and Huzen-Enkou railways and the confluence of the Yangtze River and the Pearl River. The fertile mountain of Heng Shan is located north of the city. South of Heng Shan is Hsin-hua (SP 26° 38' N and 111° 26' E), in one of China's major rice and silk producing areas. Hsun-shan (SP 27° 46' N and 111° 22' E) in western Hunan contains the world's largest bird-yielding deposits, with production centered at Shih-kung-shan (SP 27° 46' N and 111° 28' E), about 35 miles from Hsun-hua.

In the old days, Hunan was the Kingdom of Chu, the center of ancient southern Chinese culture. As such, it is one of China's richest sources of myths and legends. Its Tsung-tung Lake, Ssuin River, and many picturesque mountains are of unique beauty. The people are known for their warm hospitality and their love of freedom. Hunanese are a hardy and cheerful people.

The Hunanese language is a special kind of Mandarin, sometimes spoken for certain conversational skills from the Peking dialect and often heard among Chinese soldiers and officials. This is because Hunan men are China's best soldiers. The mercantile, Shih Tsung-yen, who was himself a sailor, wrote with affection about Huzen porcelain and silks. The fame of Huzen silks spread far and wide with the Tsung-tung Rebellion. To quell the Rebellion, the Manchu government made use of the Chinese scholar-gentry, Tsung-fan-fan, Temperature and humidity are over 30 degrees in the summer and under 10 degrees in the winter.

Hunan has a large number of railroads under the control of the Chinese regime. Most of them are in Hunan, with the result that many trained Chinese engineers are employed there. For example, the Nanking-Changsha line is one of its most important, and the Shanghai-Hungshan railway is another. The railway companies are controlled by the Chinese government.

The largest city in Hunan is Changsha, with a population of around 500,000. It is an important transportation hub, with rail connections to many other major cities in China. Changsha is also a major manufacturing center, producing textiles, machinery, and consumer goods.

Hunan is rich in natural resources, including coal, iron, and non-ferrous metals. The province is also known for its abundant water resources, with several major rivers flowing through it. The Changsha-Hunan railway connects the province to other parts of China, facilitating trade and tourism.

The provincial capital of Hunan is Changsha, located on the Yangtze River. Changsha is a major commercial and cultural center, with a rich history dating back thousands of years. The province is known for its beautiful natural landscapes, including mountains, lakes, and rivers.

In summary, Hunan is a province rich in history, culture, and natural resources. Its strategic location on the Yangtze River and the Peking-Harbin-Hankow railway network make it an important transportation hub for China.
municipality of Hukou (39° 30' N and 109° 17' E) is the leading commercial and commercial-rice center of central China. It is located at the confluence of the Hu and Yangtze rivers and is an important industrial center. The major commercial rice areas are cotton, tea, and sugar. The population totals 75,000. An annual iron and steel works center is located at Hua-yang (39° 37' N and 112° 14' E), opposite Hukou on the Hu River. A city of historical significance is Hsing-yang (36° 19' N and 115° 6' E), in the northeast on the bank of the Hu River across from the town of Pan-cheng. Hsing-yang is the center of several projected railway lines. The city was the commercial emporium of Chinese (39° 22' N and 111° 37' E) on the Hu River, a market center for northern Hupsh, southwestern Hupsh, and southern Hupsh. In the southeast, along the Yangtze, are two commercial towns with airfields: Ta-yang (31° 45' N and 115° 11' E) and Hsu-hua (30° 10' N and 115° 37' E) which was made an Treaty Port under the terms of the treaty of Shimonoseki in 1895. They serve as commercial centers for Hupsh and Central China.

Wuchung, Hukou, and Hau-wang, located around the meeting point of the Hu and the Han rivers, are known collectively as Wuchung, the "Chief City" of China. Like Shanghai, Wuchung is a commercial and political center. It is also a revolutionary center in the history of modern China. The revolution involving the founding of the Republic was begun by revolutionaries at Wuchung on 16 October 1911; during 1922 Wuchung was again the center of the revolutionaries. The National Government.

Hupsh shares the wealth and customs of the Yangtze provinces; the people there take to hot flavored food, much as in North Hupsh, the eastern and agricultural basin of North China begins to prevail.

In the meeting point of North and South, Hupsh has witnessed many important battles and events. The region of the Province of the Three Kingdoms will find many imprints on the map of Hupsh. The Red Cliff, in the Cha Yu, was the place where the superior forms of Tzu Chi were successfully repelled by the strategists of the Wu and Han generals. Kwan Yuen, China's military hero, fought and died his tragic death here.

Hupsh has not produced many popular heroes in China's history, though its education and literary traditions have been no lighter than those of other provinces. Even in modern times, it does not boast of many illustrious personalities, as do, for example, Chekiang and Honan. Among Hupsh's most famous is the Governor of Wu, Wu Chuan, and the diplomat Wang Tcheok-wen. Among the top Government secretaries is Liu Piao, Commander of the Fourth Field Army and a leader of the Chinese troops in Korea during the early stage of the Communist offensive, and Tseng Piao, Vice-Premier of the Administrative Council.

Jehol

Under the Communist management of provincial boundaries this province is the Northeast Administrative Region has two about 35 percent of its former territory of 30,384 square miles. The former Mongol Autonomous Region. Its former population of 2,850,000 has been proportionately reduced; however, since the autonomous area, with the highest population density, was not affected. The province is bordered by Liaot, Inner Mongolia, Chahar, and Hupsh.

The province contains several fertile basins, the most important being the Liao River valley in the eastern area; otherwise it is a mountainous highland. The chief mountains are the Ta-huang (Great Dragon) on the Chang river and encroaching into Inner Mongolia, the Lienhsien, the Chinhsien, and Shang-fang. The chief rivers are the Liao in the north-east, the Lai, and the Jiao. The continental climate is similar to that of Chahar Province, with extremely bitter winters. Rainfall is limited and is concentrated in the summer months.

Jehol is a fertile agricultural region, and has more cultivated land than Chahar. Major crops are wheat, barley, flax, soy, and hemp. The Mongol in the northern area live by cattle-farming. A substantial amount of meat is produced, with the largest cattle herds located north of Chahar. The production of wheat, corn, and meat is concentrated in the northern mountainous area. The main crops are corn, oats, and hemp. The Mongol is the leading export area of wheat, corn, and meat. The Liao River is the primary waterway for Chahar. The production of wheat, corn, and meat is concentrated in the northern mountainous area.

The two industries in the province are the Peking-Liao and Chahar-Changchun. There are approximately 2,000 kilometers of highways in the central and southern areas leading to the neighboring provinces.

Changchun (45° 30' N and 123° 52' E) is the provincial capital as well as the commercial and communications center. It was also the location of the national center of the Manchurian dynasty. Chao-yang (41° 24' N and 124° 36' E) is the trading and communications center, with the northeastern provinces leading south of the city and producing goods of Peking (41° 57' N and 123° 45' E) and 126° 42' E); Chao-yang (41° 24' N and 124° 36' E) is the most important city in the north. It is a trading and communications center. An important rail route of strategic importance is Zhong-shan (41° 5° N and 118° 36' E).

For historical and statistical information on this province see the article in this chapter entitled "Manchuria."
The most important railroad link is the Urumg-K stems from Kansu in Urumg Province, through Yinchuan, running at Flagstaff on the western border and linking with the Central-Beihai railroad in Hunsan Province. There is also the only railroad in Chih-chung where it is connected to Xining on the north. The railroad passes through the Northern Lenin Line and the Tashkent Line. The railroad is well-developed with steam locomotives playing the Yangsz River and Parsun Lake. The provincial capital of Yinchuan is at the junction of the Yangsz River and the northern part of the river has an important Yung-chow port, noted for its tea, wine, and cotton production. The鳊h coastal area was the center of the Chinese cotton industry. For the last 2000 years the production of China's bread textile centers about Yinchuan. Even during the Ming and early Ch'ing dynasties, despite its primitive equipment, it was producing the world's best cotton, and it maintained high standards today, although new equipment is so rare that present uniform and quality production. Yinchuan is in an interesting central location, and there is much more to this area than its cotton industry. It is a city, and its life is recorded, despite poverty. Practically all the members of the bureaucracy are engaged in the process of making cotton, and many of the typical features of life in a medieval town have been preserved among them. From 1927 to 1934 the capital was the border of the Chinese-Soviet Republic, headed by Mao Tse-tung and Ch'en Tso. The capital was a sort of fortress for the people, having lived under Red rule at that time, had, and still has, no illusions about Communist, though today they have no choice but to accept Communist domination. Yinchuan was the city in which Chiang Kai-shek launched the New Life Movement to counteract Communist subversion. The cotton farmers are very religious, as in the sense that it is customary among them for all cotton farmers of one of the many religious communities, and for defense against floods and famines. The people who are often spoken of as cotton farmers, but for them, the soil is not always associated with those who earn their living by the sweat of their brow. Quite a number of people in Kansu have moved out of the coastal provinces.

Kansu is the province of Kansu, the eastern Chinese desert, and is bordered by the China Sea, Shantung, Honan, Anhwei, and Kiangsu. It has an area of 12,000

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agriculture and population of 40,942,000. As of March 1922, no provincial government had yet been established, the provincial administration being a responsibility of the North and South Administrative Division, with headquarters at Changsha and Wuhan, respectively.

The province is a China-type area in the north and east. Its terrain is mountainous and hilly, with fertile valleys. The province is rich in natural resources, including coal, iron ore, and hydroelectric power. The climate is continental, with cold winters and hot summers. The area is well suited for agriculture, with a rich variety of crops, including rice, wheat, and vegetables. The province is also known for its historical sites and cultural heritage.

The province has a long history of cultural and economic development, with many ancient sites and cultural relics. The province is rich in natural resources, including coal, iron ore, and hydroelectric power. The climate is continental, with cold winters and hot summers. The area is well suited for agriculture, with a rich variety of crops, including rice, wheat, and vegetables. The province is also known for its historical sites and cultural heritage.

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Japanese occupation, many people from Chiang-kai-shek commentator on the Japanese in order to earn money, and many Chinese accordingly think of all Kiangsi as Chiang's (Korea). Chiang is still a Communist stronghold during the occupation, when labor conditions made the people acceptable in Communist propaganda. Shanghai attracts many people from other provinces, nearly Chiang and Kiangsi.

Because of its rich productivity, Chiang-kai-shek has been a center of refined living. In Shanghai there are many smart people, such as Kiangsi and Fukien, Peking, Hangchow, or modern broad. Smokers, Chiang-kai-shek, and Shanghai are all famous for their cuisine, especially their wedding steamed, fresh-water fish, and rice. The brewed fresh-water hard-shelled male during the summer are easy to acquire and, when dipped in Chiang-kai-shek, are rendered in taste. No American meat, not even lobster, can seriously approach. Chiang-kai-shek is too far removed from the US, its own Fipps, which is a delicious thing. Living to day she is a curious and rich center, most people in Chiang-kai-shek are better dressed than their counterparts in the rest of China.

Chiang-kai-shek bears a substantial portion of its economy, and is proud of its many literary arts and artists such as the painter painter, Kuo Fung-yueh, and Mr. Fan, perhaps the greatest of China's impressionist landscape painters. Among present-day Chinese it is one point on the map people see the world today. Wu-Chih-hsiu, the Chiang-kai-shek's architect, is famous for his art. The political bureau and the cultural bureau of Chiang-kai-shek is also famous in the world, as is the exhibition in the past, and the opera singer Li Lian-fang.

Korea

Korea is a divided province in the Northeast Administrative Region, consisting of the Shang-lung, Hsinking, Suyoo, Tungchow, Kiao, and the T'ien-tsing Maritime Provinces. It is now under the Japanese National Government administration. Before World War II, it had an area of 195,270 square miles and a population of 63,850,000. Under the Communist occupation a small territory has been added to it from what was formerly the Soviet Union.

The country is divided into four parts along the Chollong border in the north and sections of the Ching-pi Mountains, the Ching-pi River, and the Ching-pi Mountain Range. The former forms the northern limit of the Ching-pi Mountains, and the latter, the mountain range of the Ching-pi Mountains. The Ching-pi River is in the central area near the Ching-pi Mountains, which are the southeastern limit of the Ching-pi Mountains. The Ching-pi Mountains are in the northern and eastern parts of Korea. They are higher and more rugged than the Ching-pi Mountains in the western part of the country. The Ching-pi Mountains are divided into two climatic regions, a northern and a southern. The northern region is generally cold, with short winters, the south is warmer. The mountains tend to be long and high, with abundant rainfall throughout the year but minimum precipitation in winter. The chief agricultural crop is the melon and the southeastern half of the province is a thickly

There are some 300,000 miles of railroads connecting the Ching-pi Mountains, the Ching-pi River, and the Ching-pi Mountain Range. The Ching-pi Mountains are the chief industrial center, with coalfields, coal, wool, cotton, paper, hemp, and chemical factories. The product of these industries, however, has not been sold locally.
The Pearl River is the Pearl (Chin), which, with its upper tributaries, the Tong (East), Si (West), and Puk (North) rivers, drains a large area of Kwangsi Province.

The climate is monsoonal, with long rains and short winters. Sedly and August are the humidity months, but temperature does not generally exceed 89°F. Precipitation is abundant, particularly in April and May. The current tends to support a large number of tanneries.

Rice production is high but does not meet the requirements of the large food population. Large quantities of trade, both for rice, and for oil, cotton, and tobacco, are also cultivated. The Canton area is the most intensively cultivated terrace. Kwangsi is the fourth-ranking producer of tea. Cotton, soybeans, and tobacco are also produced, as well as salt, gold, and silver. Fishing, chemical, and textile industries are found at Canton, Shansi, and Wuhan. The lumbering, silk-weaving, and mining industries are also well developed. Railways have been built in the Canal region, and the major rivers are crossed extensively by motor launches and motor junks. The Si River crosses the entire province. The Pearl River is divided into sections by three bridges, with the most important and the second largest crossing at Hoi King.

The largest commercial port in South China is Canton (22° 12' N and 114° 02' E). It is one of the few Treaty Ports opened as a result of the Opium War of 1842. At present it is the provincial capital and a Special Municipality, and its population is about 1,265,000. It is a leading and shipping center for goods from the surrounding provinces. The largest of its numerous canals is the Si River, and it serves as a waterway for the surrounding provinces. About 11 miles southeast of Canton is the Whampoa Barracks, where Sun Yat-sen prepared to construct China's major western port. On the coast of Kwangsi, the port of Kaiping (22° 12' N and 114° 02' E), which is leased to France as a naval base, is more important for commercial purposes than for the Cantonese. It is a small port, but its position is important due to its location on the Whampoa River. Another coastal city in Kwangsi is 110° 15' N and 110° 25' E. It is also the birthplace of Sun Yat-sen. In southern Kwangsi is the extreme provincial capital of Chihsingtan (21° 55' N and 110° 32' E). It is an important market and railroad center on the Canton-Hai Fields route.

The island of Hong Kong has 1,800 square miles and a population of about 3,000,000. Its topography is mountainous and is dominated by the Lantau or Tung-Kuk Mountain. A coastal plain runs the southern quarter of the island and contains the main urban centers. The importance of the Kowloon area is the north. This is the chief port, but it is now under British control. The new government in East and West is part of the British Empire. The island is administratively similar to the province of Kwangtung, but with remnants due to historical influences. The old rice culture area along the eastern and southern coast. There is a main southeast highway plus a few minor roads.

Kuangsi

Kuangsi is the province of South China. It is in the South Central Administrative Region and borders on Fukien, Kweichow, Hsiangsi, and the South China Sea. As of 1905 it has 1,800 square miles and a population of 27,000,000. The island of Hainan is administratively a part of Kwangsi.

The province is mountainous, the range belonging to the Nan Ling system. They include the Chiao-ho along the Kiangsu border, the Lake Lo-nan near the East and North rivers, the Lo-chuen south of the Min River, the Yu-er south of the Si River and the...
The chief port of Shanghai is on the Yangtze (Nanking) River at 31° 13' N and 121° 22' E. It is the mouth of the Han River, which flows from the Yangtze. To the north, which suffered from frequent typhoons and tidal waves. The shallowness of the harbor necessitates the use of a large number of river steamers to transport goods from coast to coast. The city of Nanking is the capital of China, and the southern terminus of the railway system. Vicksburg (11° 15' N and 90° 57' E) and Montgomery (32° 12' N and 86° 25' E) are the two important ports normally used by the Japanese in coastal localities.

In spite of their adventurous and revolutionary fervor, the majority of Cantonese are traditionally Buddhist, with the exception of the Chinese community, which has its own resident community in Hong Kong. The city of Guangzhou is the capital of the province of Guangdong, and is the southern terminus of the railway system. The city of Nanking is the capital of China, and the southern terminus of the railway system. Vicksburg (11° 15' N and 90° 57' E) and Montgomery (32° 12' N and 86° 25' E) are the two important ports normally used by the Japanese in coastal localities.
It is dominated by the Five-Tiger Mountain, and most of it is still uninhabitable. It was
free occupied by the Chinese in the Han dynasty after the year 111 B.C., but was not actu-
ally incorporated in the Empire until its conquest during the Yuan dynasty. Since then it
has been used as a great colony, a prison site, and in recent years as an outlet for em-
growths from South China.

Along the border of Kwangtung and Fukien are a group of people called Hakka, mon-
ning the "great people." The name suggests they are genuine Chinese settlers, mainly
from Huanan and Shantung, who fled the northern tribals during the Four and South
dynasties. Their peculiar dialect preserves the pronunciation of pre-Tang Chinese. In a
sense, therefore, the Hakka can be considered the most genuine and undiluted Chinese
there are. They are a close, courteous, and industrious people. The Hakka mainly engage
in trade in the South Sea, the gardens enjoying the major responsibility for the fact work
at home. The women actually wear white-dyed linen dresses.

Kwangtung

Kwangtung Province is bordered by Hsun, Fukien, Siaog, Yunnan, and Kweichow provinces and is in the Southwest Administrative Region. Its area of 60,700 square miles is populated by a total of 10,500,000 persons. Topographically, the province is a plateau attributed by deep valleys. The altitude here is about between that of the lower Kweihu river area in the southeast and the higher Yunnan region in the west. The mountains are extensions of the Nan-Ling system, the Nan-Ling being the largest. The Wu-er Chiao River is the major river; it joins the Yangtze in Harkwehun Province. The southern latitude of the province is offset by its altitude, the climate is consequently mild with a temperature range of about 60°F to 32°F. Precipitation is concentrated in July and August. The high mountains and thick forests cause a great deal of fog and humidity.

The limited amount of arable land, plus soil erosion and an adverse climate, makes
Kwaijen a poor agricultural area. One advantage of rice is propagated by the cultivation
of sweet potatoes, wheat, and corn. Substantial revenue of tobacco, medicine, and
rice are reported to be raised here, in addition to tea, sugar, and precious metals. These
minerals, however, are largely unwielded as an economic resource. The province is also
industrially undeveloped, except for a small electrical and chemical plant at Kowung,
Tung, and Sacon. Its best known product is the Massie wine, famous throughout China.

The only railroads in the Kwangtung-Kweihu line which extends to Tailung in south
Kweichow, an extensive line running from the provincial east to west and linking to
the major railways in South China is currently being planned. Another rail link, Kwaijen
and Harkwehun provinces. There are about 5,000 kilometers of highways running the
province with the surrounding area. The greatest of the communication network is
enriched by the rivers which are navigable only part of the year.

The provincial capital and commercial center is Kwangtung (25°22' N and 106°48' E), with a population of 282,740. It is located at the approximate geographic center of the province and was used as a medical center during the Sino-Japanese War. The leading commer-
cial and highway towns in the north is Tuen (27°42' N and 107°55' E), the gateway
to the area. Southeast of Kwangtung is Kweihu (29°12' N and 107°35' E), the inland
port for refreshment with Yunnan. It will become an important commercial center with
the construction of the proposed east-west road line. Toegak (29°41' N and 100°1' E), a
river port and marketing city for mercury and tung oil, is situated in the northeast, on
the upper reaches of the Yung Po River which flows through Kweihu Province.

Kwaijen is one of the poorest provinces of China; it has little agriculture and com-
mmerce and its chief contribution to China's economy will be its not yet completely explored
natural resources. The bulk of Kwaijen's population is concentrated on the high plateaus
in the far south of the province, of which Kwaijen, the capital city, is the southern.
Formerly Kwaijen was mainly populated by the aboriginal Mass. The Chinese, now accounting
for 80 percent of the population, cluster on the largest commercial and commercial
centres, while the Mass have been driven to the villages and hamlets, especially in the western
sections. They are not known as White Mass, Black Mass, Flower Mass, and so on, at
the difference between them being a matter of what color clothing the women wear. Most
of the mestizos of the aboriginal mass have absorbed ordinary Chinese customs through
the women, however, have hold tenaciously to the path of their ancestors. The colors of the
mass among Mus women are string and the designs bold. Some prefer their women
into the rick, others prefer them in fine embroidered. The Flower Mass wore and
there is no special style with exclusive flower patterns. The Chang-foo Mass are found
on wearing layer upon layer of fine-bride, deeply-shadowed petticoats, which look like the
kite worn by the ancient Greeks. Some of the women wear so many as 20 or more of
these petticoats. The lower layers were the rick theader is believed to be. All are langes,
rock lamps, earrings, bracelets, and amulets.

The Mass are the Chinese counterpart of the American Indians. They formerly inhab-
ited the better parts of China, but were driven into the northwest, supposedly by the south-
ward Chinese border from Kwangtung. In one country hostile and the Mass border Chik Yik
was caught and killed. Like the Red Indians in America, they were gradually reduced in
taboo to a certain amount of agricultural or sub-agricultural land and crept their
proteas. They are for-hugging people, fond of music and dancing. They are the most
popular of the social events is the folk dance. A pair of gayly dressed bulls are led into an
area of little dancing, where they are chased into fighting until one of them runs away.
After this there is much laughing, and a group of loud noises to celebrate the death.
A small bullock is roared. The masses are sturdy and diligent, and the Flower Mass
women's work is quite beautiful.

Like all the southwestern provinces, Kwaijen was extensively colonized by the
Chinese as recently as the Ming dynasty. When the Manchu court was installed, most
remote provinces were autonomously ruled by one or both simultaneously under the
National central. Only after the fall of the Kwangtung forces to the interior did the
rural authority reach down to Kwaijen, Yunnan, and Sibei. The only current rule from
Kwaijen is General Wu Kung-chung, Chekiang trained Chief of Staff.

Kweihu,

Kweihu, a new Manchurian province created by the People's Republic, includes terri-
tories from the former provinces of Liaoning and Heilung. It is bordered by Liaoting,
Kirei, the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, Jehol, Hopeh, and the Kasa-Huta (Gulf of
Cochi). It has an area of 25,485 square miles and a population of 2,200,500. The Kasa-
huya is ruled by the keinen. Other important locations include the Hua Shan in the east central area and the Hwa Mountains in the northeast. The chief river is the Lao, with headwaters in Jehol and Inner Mongolia, which crosses the province and empties into the Gulf of Liaoting at Yung-kuo. The rest of the topography is largely a plateau area, part of the fertile North Manchurian Plain. The climate is conti-
nental with hot summers, and cold winters, particularly in the northern area. Precipitation,
which is abundant, is concentrated in June, July, and August. The snow flavor is frozen
over from November to February.
The leading agricultural product is buckwheat, which is produced chiefly in the lower Liao River. Other important products are wheat, millet, rice, corn, potatoes, and cotton. Hemp and silk are also produced in the Liao-Hai Highlands. Fishing, also an important industry, is carried on along the coasts of Liaoning and the Pei-Hsi out to the Yellow Sea. There are about 1200 seaports or fishing bases and some 14,000 seacraft. The rice and corn are grown north of the Liao-Hai Highlands, and the cotton, tobacco, and hemp are grown south of the Liao River.

Liaoning Province has several major rice mills, mostly in the eastern and northern areas. Part of the China-Pakistan rice is grown in this province. The rice is grown in the lower Liao River and the Pei-Hsi out to the Yellow Sea. There are about 1200 seaports or fishing bases and some 14,000 seacraft. The rice and corn are grown north of the Liao-Hai Highlands, and the cotton, tobacco, and hemp are grown south of the Liao River.

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Liaoning Province is the leading industrial province in the Northeast Administrative Region. Bur- dened by Kweih, Kiao, Iwak, the Liao-Hai Gulf, and the Yellow Sea, it has an area of 20,000 square miles and a population of 8,567,000. The territory now includes areas formerly in Anhui, Iwak, and Liaoning provinces as defined by the National Government. The north of the province is mountainous and hilly, while the south is flat and low. The province is divided into the following four districts: (1) the Liao-Hai Gulf, (2) the Yellow Sea, (3) the Kweih-Iwak area, and (4) the Inner Mongolia.

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A Special Municipality southeast of Madeira (population: 235,866; South of Madeira is the South Metropolitan railway is the railroad, industrial, and agricultural city of Lusong.) Further north, at the delta of the Lusong River, is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. This city is the center of the South Metropolitan railway, the largest rail network in the country, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Lusong is the eastern terminus of the railway line running eastward from Lusong to the southern coast of Taiwan. The eastern terminus of Lusong is the urban area of Lusong, with a population of 13,710,000. It has direct rail connections with the eastern and northern regions of Taiwan. Luson...
center for that area. Pinkeng (37° 45' N and 123° 27' E) is a multi-producing and communication center for the area.

The Fo Shan valley was the heart of Chinese culture in the time of China's first dynasty, the Han, which ruled for over five centuries following its establishment by Yu in 2025 B.C. The Han dynasty stockpiled in long history for some 1,000 years, despite the fact that the taxations of North China require extensive irrigation and, without proper rainfall and irrigation, are often disappointing in yield.

The Fo Shan area is a domain of the highly powerful and cultured China state. Only when China was split into three smaller kingdoms was its original China able to expand and conquer the other controlling state. During the North and South dynasties, Han was overthrown by the Tu Fo, the Mu Han, and other kingdoms from the North, which became assimilated to Chinese culture and became unique Buddhist centers during the 5th century.

Located at the extreme north of the province are the two temples of Yin and Yang. The Yin and Yang valley is the oldest valley in the world, and the Yin and Yang river, which flows deep into the sandstone mountain, is one of the best temples of Buddhist art in China.

Han has many sacred Buddhist statues with the Chinese origin, with a mosaic of figure-filled scenes and grotesque reaching deep into the sandstone mountains. They represent the best and perhaps the very best temple of Buddhist rock sculpture in China.

Han has many sacred Buddhist mountains like Ten-Shan, Dong Shan, and Shi-Long Shan. The Transe is traditionally the North Peak among the Five Sacred Mountains. From the Han to the Tang and the Song dynasties, only few temples, Hanzi had only one governor, Hsu Hsinian who, though an ill-fated war lord, had the correctness of his people at heart; the Transe was a native of the province. He maintained his own currency and issued many reforms of a general nature, with the result that for many years Hanzi was considered a model province, and Chang was more than willing to let the Transe run things as he saw fit. During the Sino-Japanese War, Yang's government took over the control of the province, and the Transe was not involved in the war.

The Transe is the modern capital of the Transe, the provincial capital, for many months, in sharp contrast to the Transe, which is mostly of the Transe, but is more modern along the Transe river and the Transe Canal. The Transe is a mountainous river, but it meanders along the Transe river and the Transe Canal.

Agriculture is based on the river valley and the river. The Transe is the principal river in the Transe, and the Transe Canal is the main river in the Transe. The Transe is the major industrial center of the Transe province, and has metallurgical shops, cotton mills, steel mills, and iron smelters.

Two railroads run the province. The longest is the Tsingtao-P’ing-ho Line, which is joined by the Chang-hai (Shanghai) Line at the Transe. The Long Line and Peking-T’ing-ho Line form an important route at Hsinking in the northern terminal of the Transe. The system of 1,000 kilometers is well distributed. Excessive salting leaves river margins in jars and small valley branches.

Hanzi has produced a number of men famous in Chinese history: the founder of the Transe dynasty, Yi Yuen, and his most brilliant scholar, Li Kuei-hsin, the Buddhist psychologist Fa Hsien, the Transe poet and painter Wang Wei, the Transe general North, and the Transe General Ti Ching. The last two are popular historic heroes, and are much celebrated in fiction. Besides Yi Hsuan and H.S. Hsuan, both born from Hanzi, the K’omondang government has had one of the Transe general, Fu Ts’oan, who later joined the Communist party of K’omondang, Yu, and the Minister of Finance, Yu I-p’o, and the Hanzi’s contributions to the Communist leadership.

Shantung This coastal province in the East China Administrative Region is on a peninsula bordered by the Yellow Sea, the Bo plain, the Hanzi, and gigantic. It was 34,601 square miles, population, 2,160,354. The topography is a largely rugged coastal plain and hilly upland. The river lines and mountainous areas are mostly mountainous and boringly wooded. The principal mountains are the sacred Yang Shan in the coastal northern plain and the Transe mountains in the coastal southern plain. The Transe river, the Transe Canal, and the Transe river are the principal rivers of the Transe.

Shantung is one of the leading industrial areas in North China, with factories at T’ai-shan, K’ai-feng, and P’ing-ho. T’ai-shan is the major industrial center of the Transe province, and has cotton, steel, steel, cotton, and iron mills.

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Taiwan on the Grand Canal, is an important point of transition between the Grand Canal and the Yangtze River area, from which a branch extends to Chaozhou. A town of historical significance in Chao's Five (Nu) (105°C & 115°F), the birthplace and grave of the sage Confucius.

Shantung is noted for its tall, sturdy trees, a name it and that they look more vigorous and hard-working. This is a far cry from the time of C.C. M. When Shantung was the center of Chinese culture and the home of such philosophers as Confucius, Mencius, and Ma Yut. The little state of two, introduced by his states in its practice of Chinese culture, in a monastic condition Confucian thought and held the intellectual foundations of the nation. Q'in, Liu, Confucius burial place, situated under the shadow of Tai Shan, is still a picturesque tourist stop.

As a provincial province, Shantung was once reknowned for territorial and economic aggressiveness by foreign powers. In 1858 Chiang Chih Y'ing was sold to Germany, which tried to take all Shantung under its control. During the World War I, Japan also tried to get the control of the province. The Shantung Province of a new, strengthening China. The Twenty-One Demands, but in doing so around national stagnation on such a scale as to cause the downfall of Yuan. World War II was far more pressing based in Shanghai. China was split and has a theme that is secular and human.

Shantung is not a poor province. It has good soil for farming, and is especially famous for its fruit (such as the Chao apples, Taian pears, and Taian watermelons). However, years of mobility by our leaders like Chang Ching-ying and Han P'in for so long that it large numbers of its population was captured by poverty to seek a livelihood in other provinces as masters. The result of Shantung's poverty was that the Chinese revolution of Manchuria, especially during the years 1919-1929.

The Shantung people speak a kind of Mandarin which is heavier and less melodic than the Peking dialect; hence the common saying, "Shan to count with a man from Beihai is no difficulty." As in all provincial features of North China, the staple food of Shantung consists of wheat, millet, and buckwheat. Vegetables are derived from soybeans, peas, and sweet potatoes, plus the meat and eggs that are the basic fare of all households. The longer and more popular vegetable offerings afford wholesome food.

Discovery activities got off to an early start in Shantung. The Shantung University at the provincial capital, Tientsin, founded in 1916, is one of the first universities in China. Besides its early philosopher, Shantung has produced many men in many fields: the Han scholar, Fu Hsi, Ch'iu Lan and Yuan Wei, two prominent figures of the Ch'in Kingdom period; Tang Chao, the 16th century, the philosopher and poet; Hsi-shih, the Sung poet, Chia Chien, and Chi Ch'ing-lung, the Ming general who fought against the Japanese armies. Wang Yang was the founder of a family of blended forms of the Sung dynasty, represented in the great watercolor Masters. The leading Shantung characters like Lo Ch'eng, Wu Hsi-cheng, and Sung Ch'ing, have been known for their short of red to millions of Chinese. Because of the failure of the Northern Warring States to achieve national leadership, there have been no prominent men from Shantung serving in either Nationalist or Communist government. However, Fu Hsi, the late president of Tientsin University and a well-known scholar and educator, was from Shantung.

The latest descendant of Confucius has been accorded official homage since the Han dynasty. The male descendant of Confucius in the 7th generation now holds the position of President of Confucius Line at Tientsin.
The text on the page is not legible due to the quality of the image. It appears to be a page from a document, but the content cannot be accurately transcribed.
Afterwards Chinese and Miao soldiers went to the province as garrisons troops settled there. Thus while most of the Shiang people are Tibetans in language and religion, they are a complex mixture of aboriginal races and relatively recent immigrants. The Lolas retain their primitive customs.

The province's Chinese population is engaged in farming and such activities as prospecting in the upper Shang, lower than them as the Chu-shan Shang (River of the Golden Seed). The population of Wangling is estimated at 22,000, of whom 86.8 percent are Tibetans and 13.1 percent are Chinese immigrants. Many Shiang persons now Chinese, mostly Tibetans. Therefore, the culture of Shang is part of the Tibetan culture.

The predominant religion is Lamaism. It is customary for most families to send their children to be monks in their teens. Such a child is assured a good education and a decent living—in conditions of ecclesiastical control—throughout his life. Given the general poverty of the land, this custom is perhaps a justified adjustment to the need of keeping the population down so that there will be enough food to go around. The items on the other hand, are a great economic burden, and the fact that they do not themselves engage in agriculture helps keep the trend in a good condition.

Tibetans continue to raise yaks, donkeys, dress, marry, and burial. Thus the Shiang people, like the Tibetans, depend on China for a special breed of ox, just as the US depends on South America for silver. As in Tibet, polyandry and polygamy are practiced; largely for economic reasons, it is common for masters to share one husband and brothers to share one wife. This further checks the population increase. Sexual habits are rather free, and the incidence of venereal disease is high. Since they are regarded shirkers and gamblers (without interest or understanding) the year round, the people are dirty. Smokings is still very common, and large numbers of the population have pack-marks faces.

Shinking, Tibet, and the other western provinces present a high plateau where agricultural opportunities are highly limited. The Chinese are vigorous people, and would have advanced to the Western frontier long ago but for the fact that they could not support themselves there by agriculture. This is why they have moved toward Manchuria, Inner Mongolia, and Southwestern area, and the West since. Having large-scale urban development, it will be hard even for the Communist government to induce the Chinese to leave the over-populated coastal areas and go to the China's Northeast and Southwest.

Shinking This vast border province is the Northeast Administrative Region is surrounded by the Mongol People's Republic, Soviet Russia, India, Tibet, Tarim, and Korea. Its area is 680,000 square miles, and its population 3,570,000. It is the largest province in China and contains four great mountain ranges: The Tien Shan, the western and southern areas, which rise to the North Tarim and Fuchu and the South Tarim and Sunch. The other ranges are the Altai in the north, the Kamchurian along the Indus border, and the Koo Shan or the Tibetan border. Outside these areas, the province has high altitude plateaus, with many steep slopes and deserts. There are several high peaks, the highest occurring near Turfan, where the altitude is 8,898 feet below sea level.

The important rivers are the Turan, Masson, and the Ili. The Turan River with its tributaries forms an extensive network in the central and eastern area and supplies into the south lake, Tien Nor. South of this river in the central area of the Tarim basin lies the Takla Makan Desert. The Masson River is the north, with its terminal lake, Tien Nor, is another long river. These rivers and lakes are well known for the shifting course they follow due to eating or the low water table. In addition to these five valleys there are several areas where there are permanent settlements. The province is hot, but low in the

north than in the south; precipitation amounts to about 10 inches annually, with a maximum on the mountain slopes; but variations are extreme. Temperatures vary greatly as shown by a day to night, with a range of over 120°F to -20°F.

Agriculture is found in the river valleys and at such permanent sites as Yarkand, Litung (River), Nork, Shohung, Shung, Tarim, and Quanz (River). Some areas with semi-permanent areas are badly cut by irrigation ditches and cultivated at times when water from the upper reaches is too; the crops cultivated are wheat, barley, turnips, potatoes, cotton, and excellent fruit. The Dungan area south of the Tien Shan offers some possibilities for dry agriculture. The upper and middle valleys of the Altai and Turan River serve as grazing areas for sheep, horses, and goats, most of the sheep being too old for this. The animal husbandry provides a good supply of milk. Shinking is reported to have large resources of coal and iron and a certain amount of oil at Tien, along the Tien Shan, Lena, and Tub, oil, gold, and silver are also present, gold being worked at Tien, Feria, and Chechotou. The province ranks sixth in coal reserves, but not producing any iron. Industries are limited to few small diamond plants and cotton and woolen mills at Urumchi (Tibet). There are several hundred thousand in mining.

The province has no rail lines, although a number of long (Kashgar-Lanczhou) line has been proposed. In 1,000 kilometers of roads, mining is in its last vestries, current it mainly with Russian and Kansu. Shinking is the center of the old 9th Route, which connects China with the Middle East and Rome in very historical and is still used.

There are three air terminals at Urumchi, Quem, and Tien Shan.

The provincial capital of Urumchi (Tibet) (40° 58' N and 87° 43' E) is a trading center for wool, fur, hides, oil, and cotton goods. It is the terminus of the important roads from Ho-nan through 135 leagues. An important road in the north is the Tarim road west to Baotou and Afghanistan. Other important roads and trading routes are the Ili (25° 47' N and 82° 58' E), the Ho-nan, with a cultivated area of 100,000 square miles and a total population of 10,000, 10,000 (25° 17' N and 85° 59' E), with an area of 600 square miles and a total population of 10,000, 10,000, and Ho-nan (25° 47' N and 82° 58' E), a small town located on the eastern plains. Southeast of the Han-su chain gold mines in the front area town of Takling (25° 47' N and 87° 57' E). Further north is the trading center of Urumchi (35° 29' N and 87° 57' E), which is inhabited mainly by Mongol and Moderns engaged in green and lumber, being (Kashgar) (35° 50' N and 8° 17' E), in the West, is a strategic commercial town, serving to Tien and Hsueh-chu.

Shinking is the largest but one of the most thinly populated provinces in China. With the exception of Tibet, it is the least Chinese of the provinces as regards ethnic composition. A few Mongol and Yorkshire, but 90 percent of its population is Kansu and Northern Manchurian tribes in Central Asia, of which the most important is the Uighurs, called in China the Tians and Hsien (Turfan Heaven Province), the Nanshan, the Khong, the Urumchi, and the Chik. The dominant tribes are the Hsien and Uighurs in Turke and speech. This population has evolved historically by the merging of various nomadic populations with influence waves of invaders. The Uighurs are agricultural and live on the oases of the Tien Shan; some of the population, the Uighurs, are nomads. There are also a few naturalized White Russians.

Shinking has been intermittently under Chinese rule for 2,000 years. Since the 17th century, it was re-united under Ming, and then under Tsun-Dynasty, by the Manchu government. The new Han genels, Chang Ch'en and Fu Ch'en, marked
for use from Lhasa-khang-kiu to the Lhasa-river river. Other rail lines are supplemented from Harbat to Sai-lung and Tsang-khi. The main road system is secondary, and service is supplemented by water. Water transportation is important throughout the year. The Tarim river is navigable by small vessels, and is used as a highway for horse-drawn vehicles during winter. The Tarim river canals are small, and are not suitable for extensive navigation because of the variety of the city of that name. The Tarim river is navigable by small vessels.

The provincial capital Peking (Harbat) is a former provincial capital and commercial center for the entire northwestern region. It has a population of 300,000. The Manchurian (45° N and 125° E) is the former provincial capital of the Manchus, and the present capital of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region. It is the capital of Inner Mongolia, with a population of 1,200,000. The Manchu-Buriat (43° N and 122° E) is the capital of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region, and is located on the Manchurian river. The Manchurian river is navigable for small vessels, and is used as a highway for horse-drawn vehicles during winter.

For historical and archaeological information on this province, please see the section on "Historical perspective on this province."
During the war years, Chongqing was famous as the wartime capital of China. However, its traffic and weather are far from ideal; it is overcrowded, it is hot, and rainy throughout most of the year, and it has vast inheritance and traffic facilities. As a result, residents treated their lives as if they were living in a15. Despite this, Chongqing offers a unique experience for those wishing to experience a different lifestyle from the hustle and bustle of modern cities.

The city of Chongqing is known for its foods, such as hotpot, which is a popular meal in the area. The hotpot is made with a spicy broth and various ingredients, including vegetables, meats, and seafood. The hotpot can be customized to suit individual preferences, and it is a social activity that brings people together.

The city is also famous for its street food, including stinky tofu, a type of fermented tofu that is a specialty of Chongqing. The food is known for its strong smell, but it is also a popular snack in the area.

The city is also known for its beautiful scenic spots, such as the Jiuhaigou Valley, which is a UNESCO World Heritage Site. The valley is known for its stunning natural beauty, including waterfalls, mountains, and forests. The valley is a popular destination for hikers and nature enthusiasts.

The city is also known for its history, including its role as a key city during World War II. The city was an important center for the Chinese government during the war, and it played a key role in the defeat of Japan.

The city is also known for its cultural heritage, including its rich history and traditions. The city is home to several important historical sites, including the Chongqing Museum, which is one of the largest museums in China. The museum is known for its collection of cultural artifacts and historical items.

Overall, Chongqing is a unique city with a rich history and culture. It is a city known for its food, scenic spots, and cultural heritage.
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extremely difficult, but the old trade routes have been converted into a few roads linking Tangshan to Shenyang and Kowloon provinces. There are no railroads; rivers are navigable only by local boats.

“Shen” (Shenhe River) is the provincial capital, and it has a population of 3,500,000. It is a natural spring of water for the Chinese and the border groups, and a market town for wood, timber, salt, and silk. North of Shenyang is the Nanlao River (Shenyang), which flows into the inner part of the city. Shenyang, also known as the “City of the Sun,” is the location of the finest limestone with over three thousand tons present. An important communication and trading town is Yingkou (Shenyang), in the north, being the terminus of the highway to Shenyang.

Tangshan was made a province in 1922. It is populated by Teshota, Mongolians, Chinese, and aboriginal tribes. At different times, the Mongolians inhabited the western banks; the Tibetans the southern border; the Chinese and Manchus the cities near the provincial capital, Hing. It would be interesting to learn the history of each man in this district. Suffer it to say that Tangshan was once the home of fierce barbaric tribes, viciously known as the Tibetans and Hing. The Chinese during the Han, Tang, and Song dynasties. After the conquest of Tangshan in 1910, the Teshota culture and religion prevailed Tangshan (as noted), Tangshan forms a part of the modern Chinese culture and religion. During the Song dynasty, the Mongolians began to become more in touch with their hereditary practices and their customs. During the Yuan dynasty, the Mongols began to preserve their customs and their culture. They were a more dynamic people, and it was easy to see that the Yuan dynasty preserved Tangshan (as noted), Tangshan forms a part of the modern Chinese culture and religion.

The early part of the Qing dynasty was a remarkable period of Chinese civilization and economy. During the reign of Kung Ching, the mid-Provincial Governor, Yung Kung and Yu Chingchou conquered Tangshan, Yu Chingchou went farther into Tibet, and annexed those areas from the Tibetans and the Mongols.

The Teshotas and Mongols were crucial in the development of the area. Their habits are regarded as partly Chinese and partly Mongol. They are free in speech and are ready to learn new things, going so far as to adopt Chinese and Mongol names and customs. They are friendly to strangers, and have stood outside the town for over five decades. In 1920, a revolution of the state was carried out in Kowloon, and the Mongolians and Tibetans are known in China and Tibet, and their culture and religion are preserved. Today, many Mongols in the province believe in the Lamaist religion, but some Mongols believe in the Han Chinese religion. The Chinese and the Mongols have come to enjoy Chinese culture and religion, and some Mongols have come to enjoy Chinese culture and religion. The Chinese and the Mongols have come to enjoy Chinese culture and religion, and some Mongols have come to enjoy Chinese culture and religion.

The province is a rich agricultural area, and the production is high. The crops are rice, wheat, and corn. The main products are rice, wheat, and corn. The main products are rice, wheat, and corn. The main products are rice, wheat, and corn. The main products are rice, wheat, and corn.
The Tibet Autonomous Region of Tibet is a frontier region of the southern Chinese borderland, located between China, Nepal, India, and Bhutan. For centuries, this area has been deeply interrelated with the rest of the Chinese region, both culturally and economically. Tibet has been an integral part of China, and its history is deeply intertwined with the rest of the country. The region is known for its unique culture, its natural beauty, and its rich spiritual traditions. The Tibetan people have a long and proud history, and their culture is a testament to their resilience and endurance. Today, Tibet is a region of great economic and strategic importance to China, and its development continues to be a priority for the government. The region is home to a diverse range of natural and cultural attractions, and it remains a popular destination for visitors from around the world. Despite the many challenges it faces, Tibet continues to be a place of great beauty and spiritual significance. The region is known for its unique culture, its natural beauty, and its rich spiritual traditions. The Tibetan people have a long and proud history, and their culture is a testament to their resilience and endurance.
of the Chinese Communities, and this obliged the Dalai Lama to return to India. The erection of the Lhasa is based on belief in the reincarnation of the soul of the dying Lama to the body of an infant. Hence most Lamas have been known under the name of living statues. Under the treaty signed with the Chinese Government in 1913, the Dalai Lama was granted access to all of his previous possessions. In fact, however, the Communities have taken Tibet over completely, and it has become virtually another Chinese province. Tibetan military development there has raised some serious problems in India.

The combination of temperature extremes, inhospitable terrains, and severe deforestation in both the cold and the hot deserts reflect in a low population density almost five or six persons per square mile. Where the land can be cultivated, the ordinary Tibetan farmer is a farmhouse surrounded by community fields. Most Tibetans, however, are nomads of mountain tribes that live in tents and move from place to place with their herds of sheep, goats, yaks, and horses. A man's wealth is measured by his livestock. The most important animal in Tibet is the yak, not only used as a beast of burden, but also as meat, drink, milk, and tea for fuel, and makes ropes and cloth for his tent from its long hair. The little used to build a tent to ferry goods and passengers across the large rivers.

The staple diet in Tibet is buckwheat porridge or yak's meat and rice and (spiced horse meat). The Tibetan staple meat is usually a chunk of Chinese brick tea is turned into a bottle of boiling water. The liquid is then heated with a pinch of salt and a heap of yak butter. After a number of hours of internal tea are consumed, a handful of tobacco is placed in a bowl filled with rice and ladled with a circular movement of the flagon. The doughlike preparation is then eaten. The Tibetans occasionally vary his meat with the meat of domestic animals and gun. The habit of drinking boiled mixed milk is also universal among the Mongol tribes.

Men and women wear substantially the same garments. During summer temperatures this is usually made of wool, a coarse homespun or cotton, or mixed cotton. For colder weather a woolen cloak is worn, with the wool on the inside. The women's long dress is very drab and simple. In some parts, the form is worn up to the head, with the ends attached to a rectangular of heavy cloth extending to the body. This is richly decorated with ornaments of silver, coral, mala, and gold nuggets.

The Tibetans are thrifty, hospitable, and almost completely self-sufficient. Their habits are few and soon enough to enjoy a high social position. Marriage is as common as the Chinese or religious instruction. Polygamy is commonly practiced, the planet husbands usually being brothers. Should the polyandrous family prosper, more wives may be added. Each wife and husband are then shared by every other wife and husband.

The woman, however, is inferior in matters concerning religion. At least half of the female population wear lamasaries in boyhood. The child is thereby taught good behavior, a high social position, and a professional livelihood. Except for Lhasa, the Tibetan capital, and a few remote tea trading posts, the lamaism are the principal source of mystical activity for the entire Tibetan plateau. Many have several thousand lamas in permanent residence and receive money as well as spiritual power; very large regions from which taxes are exacted in the form of gifts. Some of the larger lamasaries are known for their architecture and this basis of gold to remuneration to priests and monks.

When a Tibetan dies his corpse is placed into a casket, or basin, and the family is allowed to walk around the body and express their sorrow. After the body is picked clean, they are provided to a temple and buried. This custom stems from the Tibetan belief that this life is but a present for a second life. The liberation of the imprisoned spirit must wait the destruction of the body.

### Supplemental

**Manchuria: Historical and Sociological**

What is known to the West as Manchuria is usually referred to as the Korean Peninsula. Although the name of the Manchu people, the population is largely Chinese. In fact, about 98% of the population of the old Manchu culture, and those of Manchu blood have adopted the language and culture of the Chinese. The Manchus are a highly advanced and are basically differentiated from the Chinese.

Manchuria used to consist of three provinces: Liaoning, Heilongjiang, and Jehol. After the Manchurian government reconquered the area, making it into provincial zones, the same year, the National Government divided Liaoning, Manchuria, and Heilongjiang into nine provinces. Today, in the Communist state, Manchuria consists of the provinces and a large inner Mongolian Autonomous Area.

Manchuria was once known to have been a cultural crossroads where it is separated from China Proper by the Great Wall. The latter, however, was not as much a barrier as a symbol of the division between the Chinese and the people beyond the Wall.

Historically, the original home of the Manchus was in the valleys of the Songliao and Manchurian rivers. They were closely related to the Jurchens, who moved into the Liaodong Peninsula and actively resisted China during the Northern Song dynasty. The Jurchens took possession of North China and established the Jin (Qing) dynasty. This dynasty was soon to be overthrown by the Southern Song dynasty and came to an end in 1279, when it was conquered by the Mongols under Kublai Khan.

Over a hundred years later, a number of descendants of the Jurchens were united into a powerful fighting force by Nurhaci (1559-1626), who took control of the entire Manchuria and set up the capital at Shenyang. The Ming defeated the Ming forces in 1644, the Ming general Wu Xian biologist the Manchus to save the territory of the Jin dynasty from the majority. They then came inside the Great Wall and Emperor Shun of Chzech, Nurhaci's grandson, established the Qing dynasty on Chinese soil in Peking in 1644.

Realizing that they needed their own to the fighting ability, the Manchus at first rigidly preserved their customs against selling are to the temperature of Chinese culture. They also deliberately encouraged Chinese immigration into Manchuria, in the hope that this region of their ancestors might remain a reservoir of strength from which subsequent fighting men could be recruited. The first Qing emperor, especially Qing Long, were from the Manchu culture, and the Manchus in China were most assimilated. They adopted the Chinese language and for the first time fell into the Manchu. The Manchus (Manchu culture) dominated in China, excepting some physical habit of a gentleman's process system, soon disappears, so that by the twelfth century it was necessary for Chinese soldiers under Chinese leadership to put down the Manchu rebellion. In the Northern, conditions were not much better; with the migration of numerous military and civil personnel into China, the remaining Manchus returned to their original habits. With the opening of rail communication, the tide of Chinese immigration was overwhelming. By the end of the Qing dynasty, therefore, the Chinese and Manchus in Manchuria for considerable the Manchus, who had been a large percentage of the total population.

The modern history of Manchuria, especially Russia, European relations, and territorial disputes in the region is complex. The need of twelve parts plan has never the Cossacks into imperial territories in Manchuria. As early as 1858, China signed away to Tsarist huge tracts of territory north of the Amur River. When Japan, France, and Japan were part of

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ing increasing concessions from China, Russia stepped into it in a spirit of highhanded friendship, obtained the right to build the Chinese Eastern railway, and took Manchuria and Port Arthur. These Russian special privileges clashed with Japanese imperial ambitions and led to war. Japan emerged from the conflict as a world power and held the supremacy in Manchuria for the next forty-five years. The driving South Manchurian Railway Company was the principal agent of Japanese territorial expansion of the area.

After the founding of the Republic, the warlord Chang T'ao-li was able to compete with Japanese interests in building and railway systems and developing rural areas. The result of the Japanese policy that pointed to the desire to control China might increase the direct power of China in Manchuria. Japan took control of Liaoning, Kirin, and Heilungtung after the so-called Mukden incident on 29 September 1931. In spite of the Chinese resistance, the Japanese occupation by Manchuria was successful. Japan founded the so-called State of Manchuria and moved heavy industry to become the economic base of the country.

The Japanese Expanding Army was the virtual ruler of Manchuria, and Japan was able to expand its influence in the region. The Japanese policy of Manchuria was mainly financed by the Chinese Eastern railway, which was controlled by Japan. Japan put billions of dollars into the development of Manchuria, which was not in the interests of the Chinese people. The Japanese administration of Manchuria left much to be desired. In spite of its pretenses to the benevolent government known as Wang Tai ("The Way of the Sino-Japanese"), the average Chinese lived under its tyranny. The exploitation of the economic and social systems did not help the Chinese either. The Japanese discouraged better education for the Chinese in government, industry, and commerce were filled by Japanese.

Secret Russian arms troops into Manchuria on 9 August 1945, at a time when Japanese defeat was imminent and certain. Six days later, Japan surrendered to the Allies. By this secret arrangement of the war in the East, and after the Yalta conference, Russia got all the privileges and concessions granted by Stalin to Roosevelt and Churchill during the Yalta conference. Russia virtually restored its position in Manchuria that it had occupied in 1904, before the Russo-Japanese War. This was a bitter antecedent, in view of China's nine years of war with Japan, in which the Manchurian Emperor had been captured and took part in a large body of disheartened Japanese troops. He stopped some essential industrial equipment. Secret troops stayed in Manchuria long enough to assist in its utilization by Chinese Communists and permanently observed a friendly takeover by the Nationalist Government.

Furthermore, China was obliged, under the Yalta Agreement, to sign the Sino-Soviet agreements of 27 August 1936, by which Russia obtained joint ownership of the Chinese-Chang-Chin Railway System and the right to use and govern Dairen and Port Arthur. Nationalist troops never required control of Manchuria except in a few key cities like Mukden, and were pleased to defend where actual war broke out between the Nationalists and Communists. The Nationalist troops under the able command of Ts’o Yu-ching put up a brave defense in Mukden, but the Soviet did not support the resistance from among the Chinese Communists, who were soon driven from the northern areas of Manchuria.

During the time of Japanese occupation, the population of Manchuria consisted of Chinese, Mongols, Japanese, Koreans, Moravians, and White Russians. Many Koreans were employed in mines of Japanese personnel, not only in Manchuria but in the big Chinese cities as well. The White Russians lived in their own domain, which was the "free city" of Harbin. The Japanese were only a minority in Manchuria, and they were not able to control the entire area.

Manchuria has been the largest farm in all of China and many mineral resources. Chinese traders used to go among the mountain forests to look for tin, silver, and other mineral beds. Most Manchuria cities were industrial centers. The most important towns of Harbin and Chihli (now Harbin) and Chihli (now Shenyang) developed a large rural population. The largest cities were Harbin and Chihli, and the cities more that is needed is provided from these Chinese towns.

Manchuria: Historical and Geographical

Unlike the Manchus, the Mongols were never assimilated by the Chinese. They conquered China once during the thirteenth century, but were never driven back to their homeland beyond the Great Wall. About 75 percent of the Mongolian people used to live south of the Great Wall. The Mongols were a nomadic people, which helped them to adapt to the Chinese environment. However, the Chinese government, forced increasing assimilation in the Mongolian provinces and Russian efforts to expel the Mongols. After the establishment of the Chinese Republic, the Mongols were given more autonomy and political and military control.

First the government of Outer Mongolia restored clerical and secretaries, in fertilizer, with the Living Buddha of the Dalai Lama in a united and secular organization. But, the Russian Revolution brought about the of the Outer Mongol. With the union of the Outer Revolution in Russia, and with increased
Russian influence, the Mongol Revolutionary Party led by Sakha Batu soon became pre-eminent. In 1901 all land was nationalized and the Tungus church was dissolved. Soviet Russia recognized the Mongolian People's Republic as early as 1921. Chinese recognition came only as the result of the Sino-Soviet treaty in 1924, which gave the Outer Mongolians the right to a plebiscite concerning their independent status. The present Premier of Outer Mongolia, Chakdorj, is well indoctrinated in Communist theory. He has done much to replace the nomadic and pastoral social order with Soviet methods of collective farming and collective-raking.

Outer Mongolia is a large and barren territory, very thinly populated and little penetrated by Chinese influence. The Mongol in Inner Mongolia exhibits a richer territory and comes more often in contact with the Chinese. Strictly speaking, Inner Mongolia should denote the Mongols inhabited parts of the provinces of Sianfu, Ch образ, and Ningxia, but the western and southwestern territories of Manchuria, largely inhabited by Mongolians, have come to be known as Eastern Inner Mongolia. The Mongol in Sinking, Tangut, and North Ningxia are Western Mongolians. The government set-up of the Republic of Mongolia primarily represents an attempt to assimilate Mongolians into national and to safeguard the peaceful coexistence of Mongol and Chinese, particularly in Inner Mongolia.

At first the Mongol leaders welcomed Chinese settlers in their territory as a means of getting the Chinese farmers could produce. But as their land annually shrank, they became armed, and clashes between Mongolians and Chinese became frequent. The policy of the Ch'ing and Republican governments, partial as it was to the Chinese, only inflamed Pan-Mongolian sentiment. At first, the Mongol leaders, native and present, were anxious to save their land and to preserve the Mongolian national sentiment. Four Mongol provincial officials were established in Manchuria by the Japanese to give special protection and the privileges of organization to the Eastern Mongolian population. Being the example, the Mongol in Inner Mongolia demanded autonomous government from the Chinese Nationalists. Their movement was led by Tch Tchung and Yuen Tch, two temporarily turned Japanese puppet officials. The Mongol in Inner Mongolia is divided into two groups, the majority of which is still a minority group. After the war, the pro-Communist faction gained ascendancy and the Mongol people under the leadership of the Maoist movement have succeeded in gaining autonomous government from the Chinese Nationalists. It is probable that the Mongols are now distinguishing national features in favor of a Communist mode of existence.

The strength of the Mongol was supplied by Lamia Buchaw, which they adopted in the sixteenth century. The Manchus, after they had obtained possession of China, encouraged this religious practice among the Mongols, persistently to keep them under and peaceful. Russian blunted the warlike spirit that they had inherited from their forefathers, and kept a large percentage of the male population from practicing any useful occupation. It also partially modified the nomadic social system, so the heredity, which was not movable like the past tribes, served as a basis for permanent settlements. So not a few Mongols have taken up farming in addition to cattle-breeding, though most of the able-bodied in Sianfu and Ch'angchou have been removed from their lands by Chinese colonists.

Depending on grasslands and even in the desert, the Mongols are excellent farmers, skilled in physical handicaps and diversions. They are trained in horse-back riding from early childhood. Much smaller than the Arab or the European breed, the Mongol pony is extremely hardy and swift. Little food and water it can carry heavy loads at high speed, and reduce the signs of the Mongolians. The Mongols sway themselves in the saddle, they are extremely dextrous and are infallible to wind direction, which are very prevalent among them. Because of the dust storms from the Gobi, most Mongols have contracted trachoma, and the percentage of blind people is quite high. Therefore in social relations, care is needed for a high incidence of blindness.

The Mongols are a polite people, and most foreign travelers who have been entertained by the hospitality of this hospitality. Their food consists of roasted meat and milk, mixed with tea. Their diet is surprising for the lack of bulky vegetables and fruit. On occasion, the Mongols are fond drinkers.

The Mongol family consists of a husband, wife, and children. In rural households, the men do all the housework and the women care for the children. They are brought up without being educated. Life is sober and industrious, the Mongols working in the fields and engaging in commerce. They are dressed in national costumes and are fond of their own language, which is nearing extinction.

A SELECTED READING LIST


For a detailed list on China's geography, see also "China: Geography of the People's Republic of China," pp. 115-116.


CHAPTER 3

CHINESE HISTORY

Chinese Mythology recounting the Origins of their Family

Like all other peoples, the Chinese possess a body of legends and myths recounting the origins of their society. There are many stories about how China has been formed under different traditions and social thinking in China. The Chinese people tend to look back in the past for answers to the questions of current problems, to the past to the only unique age, rather than to respect great things of the future. The history of their legendary tales is, moreover, filled with exaggerating the qualities of perfect rulers, and the supposed saintly conduct is deemed relevant to the definition of all the disasters that are to be avoided. Nor are these events phenomena; they are traditional ways of looking at things.

In ancient Chinese mythology, the Heaven and Earth were separated and the world came into being. The ancestors were later ruled by a succession of superhuman emperors. One popular account holds that there were three wives of the Yellow Emperor of Huang, each of whom reigned eighteen thousand years each. Finally there were the Nine Emperors of Mankind. Traditional Chinese historians were fully justified in assuming that a period of fifty years by superhuman emperors actually occurred, but no effort appears to have been made to establish a uniform account of this period. Rather, different historians developed their own versions of the ground theme, five views being given to the definition of storytellers.

Following the Nine Emperors were the Three Emperors, who was it with them that the traditional historians conceived in the "orthodox" account. The first two of these Emperors, Fu Xi and Shao Yang, were of traditional origin, but they are depicted as having been discovered through the development of human civilization. By tradition Fu Xi invented most of the early arts and crafts, and taught them to the Chinese. Shao Yang is said to have reinvented the development of agriculture, and to have taught the Chinese their methods of mixing crops.

The Third of the Three Sovereigns, Huang Ti, was China's first human ruler, although he is traditionally regarded as a king of the yang. All the subsequent rulers and princes of ancient China claimed descent from him, and based their reign in China on their own historical claim. In this way, Fu Xi and Shao Yang, who were the first two emperors, led the Chinese to the development of the earliest civilizations and various forms of the Confucian tradition. Confucian writings make repeated references to Ya and Shun as examples of perfect rulers, and advocate Confucianists think of them as having set the standard of governmental and ethical practices. Confucius himself stated that he was not originating ideas about government, but merely attempting to set down practices that Ya and Shun had established. Thus Ya and Shun were traditionally regarded as embodiments of the Confucian ideal.

According to tradition, Shun chose as his successor a man named Yu. He, like the others, was a descendant of Huang Ti, and is remembered as a Chinese tradition as the symbol of selfless public service, since he was called upon to devote sixteen years of arduous labor to combating great floods that threatened the very existence of the Chinese people. During these years he refused even to visit his own home and family, although on three different occasions he passed by the door of his home and bowed the rings of his children.

Yu attempted to follow the example of his predecessor by claiming that he was not worthy to succeed him. The people, however, insisted that tribute be paid to him as a model of a virtuous ruler. Then, as we are told, the first of the traditional Chinese dynasties, the Hsia, was founded. According to the historical chronology, the Hsia was founded in 2070 B.C., and lasted until 1766 B.C.

Although there is no real evidence of the existence of the Hsia dynasty, modern historians have shown that these names do not completely animalistic work.

The Origins of Chinese Culture

All the preceding is legend. Generally speaking, the actual origins of the Chinese people and their culture are matters of dispute. Only within the last few decades have scientific methods been used to uncover and establish, and the results thus far have been meager, enough work having been done to show the long-term development of the traditional account but not enough to justify any significant number of firm statements about the origins of Chinese civilization. It is only relatively recent that Chinese culture originated in the Lower Yellow River Valley of North China in prehistoric times, that it spread south along the Yangtze, and that in the early stages of development, largely independent of influence from other areas. What is known of the origins of Chinese culture may be summarized in a few paragraphs.

In 1927 an important archeological discovery was made in a cave about thirty miles from Peking, the excavations of a modern museum called Neolithic Museum, or Peking Man. These remains are regarded as being about five hundred thousand years old.

Archaeological studies in the Oriental Desert have associated stone implements that have been placed in the paleolithic (Old Stone) age, which would make them about fifty thousand years old. Many excavations have been made of remains from several earlier cultures that appear to be directly related to subsequent Chinese civilizations. The most important of these are the Yang Shao and the Long Shao cultures. The Yang Shao culture appears to have spread southeast from Kansu into what is now modern Shensi and Shantung, its distinguishing mark, for present purposes, was its crude gray pottery, which was of the same shape and the later Chinese bronze vessels. These three highly evolved, the form and size varied a great deal, that of the Yang Shao people was so strikingly foreign to the Chinese culture. Although some of the Yang Shao finds seem to indicate the presence of some of the later bronze vessels found in the later periods. The Yang Shao culture appears to have spread from the north and west. The Long Shao culture also seems to have developed fairly advanced techniques for making and shaping pottery, many of the designs having been found in the later periods. The remains of the Yang Shao culture are not only independent of the North China area, but were probably the direct predecessors of the subsequent Fuzhun Age culture of Shen.

The Shang Dynasty

Traditional Chinese history held that the first Chinese dynasty, the Hsia, was followed by the Shang dynasty, which was said to have ended about 1766 to 1122 B.C. During the
the rapid population growth seen was due to the essential needs for supporting the Polish gentry, and the belief that they must provide for their own support. The Polish gentry lived in opulent mansions, and many of these were located near the cities. The nobility maintained a strict social hierarchy, with the highest ranks reserved for the Polish nobility. Upper-class families lived in grand estates and enjoyed a luxurious lifestyle. The Polish nobility was closely connected to the Church, and many of them were Catholic priests. They played a significant role in the cultural and political life of the region, influencing art, literature, and politics. 

In the late 17th century, the Polish nobility began to lose its power and influence, as the country faced internal conflicts and external threats. The nobility's role in society diminished, and the Polish state became more centralized. This period saw the rise of the Polish Enlightenment, which emphasized reason and knowledge, and encouraged the spread of education and science. The Polish nobility continued to play a role in the arts and literature, but their influence was waning. 

In the early 18th century, the Polish nobility was further weakened by the partitions of Poland, which divided the country among the Russian, Prussian, and Austrian empires. The Polish nobility was forced to adapt to the new political reality, and many of them moved to the more stable territories of the other powers. The Polish nobility continued to play a role in society, but their influence was significantly reduced. 

The Polish nobility's role in the cultural and political life of the country continued to decline in the 19th century, as the country was gradually absorbed into the Russian Empire. The Polish nobility was forced to adapt to the new political reality, and many of them moved to the more stable territories of the other powers. The Polish nobility continued to play a role in society, but their influence was significantly reduced. 

In the early 20th century, the Polish nobility was further weakened by the First World War, which caused significant loss of land and resources. The Polish nobility continued to play a role in society, but their influence was significantly reduced. 

Today, the Polish nobility remains a significant part of Polish culture, with many of its members still living in the country. The Polish nobility has continued to adapt to the new political reality, and many of them have moved to the more stable territories of the other powers. The Polish nobility continues to play a role in society, but their influence is much reduced compared to the past. 

The Polish nobility's role in the cultural and political life of the country continues to decline in the 21st century, as the country is gradually absorbed into the European Union. The Polish nobility continues to play a role in society, but their influence is much reduced compared to the past. 

In summary, the Polish nobility played a significant role in the cultural and political life of the country throughout its history. The Polish nobility's influence waxed and waned over the centuries, but it remained a significant part of Polish society until the 21st century.
In the period of the Chinese Civil War, there was a remarkable body of political and philosophical thought, and it was safe to say that the middle and late Chou period were the most vigorously creative period in the entire history of Chinese intellectual life. Most of the important schools and sects that dominated traditional Chinese philosophy were first formally established during this period.

Several factors appear to have accounted for the remarkable productivity of philosophic thought during this period. First, there was the group of men who followed the tradition of the early Shang period, and served as political advisors to the various princes and feudal lords. They had, as usual, given up their military functions, but had retained their interest in the development of the arts, and therefore possessed a skill that was needed in the conduct of state affairs. Their role as political advisors was enhanced by their ability to influence the minds of the various princes by means of various means of persuasion and argumentation. These men were the precursors of the later political schools, and their influence is felt to this day in the field of Chinese philosophy.

Secondly, there was a large number of suggested institutions who had lost their political positions as a result of the downfall of the Chin feudal system, so far as evidence of entirely different character had either been left without instruction (some were younger men), or had been so modified through the years (e.g., in time of war or other great national calamity). These men sought the protection of the inner political lords, and were in a position to offer in return except their services. Some became military adventurers and naval commanders, others became teachers, writers, or lecturers, or allowed themselves to be used by the states as a source of revenue. Many of them clung to the philosophical recovery to the problems of the social system, and to be able to advise the prince in how to maintain and expand his power. A situation not unlike that in Renaissance Italy, when the Italian merchants offered their services to the various princes seeking for help in restoring their power, which they had been perceived as the weakness of the state. The Chinese Takehara were generally convinced of their role as teachers, and from an early moment stoic and free thinkers began to form schools of thought, and in a short time were free to form schools. The Chinese Takehara were free to be the philosophical schools of the Chinese emperors. The Chinese Takehara were free to be the philosophical schools of the Chinese emperors.

The most influential of all these philosophers was Confucius (K’ung Fu-t’se, 551 to 479 B.C.), whose influence on Chinese thought is far more than three of any other men. Confucius, like all the other thinkers, was profoundly befitted by what he thought of as the disintegration of Chinese society during the Chou period. He felt that the old order for society was a return to that of the Golden Age, in which all the relationships as the society had been clearly defined, and each man had a definite place in society, had been expected to discharge certain specified functions in a clearly prescribed order. In particular, Confucius spoke of following the example of Yi and Shun, and the mythical rules of prohibitory and the foundation of the Han dynasty. In the latter Han Dynasty, Confucianism was to be the backbone of conservative thought. But Confucianism represented a revolutionary force, whose major function was that moral behavior and moral conduct are more important than the behavior of the state.
The other thing to remember about the first Chin Emperor is that he took vigorous steps to remove all traces of government and life in China. For example, the writing language was formalized during his rule, largely as a means of improving administration, and a recent law was passed for the strict licensing of books. Uniform standards of weights and measures were now elaborated and adopted, and, contrary to the purpose of the emperors of the Eastern Han and T'ang dynasties, the collecting of taxes for the central government. Military and administrative posts were established and uniform were issued for all officials. A first step toward establishing the uniform of all officials. Finally, the walls built in defense of the north of China were linked together to form the Great Wall, which arbitrarily divided the many along the frontier that guarded China against the raids of the nomadic barbarians in Mongolia—a wall which would only a remodeled government could have accomplished. In a time when Rome and the empire were on the verge of collapse, the wall was built without the use of the field of engineering techniques known to the Romans. It is a testament to the Chinese ability to build such a wall.

The Mélanges: A period of 30 years, in the early 20th century, a Chinese state was unified under the Second Chinese Empire, which was formally established in 1912. The Second Chinese Empire was the result of a revolution that toppled the Qing dynasty. The new state was known as the Republic of China, and it lasted until 1949, when it was replaced by the People's Republic of China. The Second Chinese Empire was a time of great change in China, and it was during this period that China began to emerge as a modern nation.
business to maintain enough effective military power at home to provide the troops needed for victory in any major clash.

The Chinese regarded the northwest as particularly important, because the overland trade route passed through it. Moreover, it is clear that the Chinese had a significant advantage over the Romans in the military and economic aspects of the conflict. The Chinese troops were well-trained and disciplined, while the Romans were often poorly equipped and poorly led. The Chinese also had a greater ability to supply their troops, as they could draw on the abundant resources of their empire.

During the years from AD 19 to 25, the Han dynasty was engulfed by the Han Turkestan region. The Han dynasty was weakened by internal strife, which resulted in the division of the empire. This period has been labeled the "Dark Ages" of Chinese history. Finally, it is noted that a series of events occurred during this period, which are described in more detail in the next section. These events included a series of military campaigns, civil unrest, and political instability.

The Three Kingdoms (AD 220-280)

During the final years of the Han dynasty, several military leaders were contending for power, each determined to replace the last Han emperor and, by taking over the whole of China, establish a new dynasty. The last emperor was a man of low birth, and most of theHan dynasty was unable to defend the empire against the联合 Han forces. The last Han emperor was forced to rely on the support of the joint Han forces, which ultimately led to the fall of the Han dynasty. After the fall of the Han dynasty, several military leaders gained control of various regions of China and established their own kingdoms. These kingdoms were known as the "Three Kingdoms" and were ruled by various military leaders. The Three Kingdoms were the forerunners of the Sui and Tang dynasties, which were the first of the "great dynasties" of Chinese history.

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Ch'in Dynasty (221 BCE to 206 BCE)

The two periods of the Three Kingdoms ended when the head of one of the powerful families which had claimed to be the descendants of the Zhou emperor seized the latter's throne, and declared himself the first emperor of a new dynasty, the Ch'in. Forming an alliance with the ascending Han, he was able to defeat the Shu Han and then capture the Wei, both of whom had been conquered by a 290, thus uniting China under a single ruler.

The new dynasty almost immediately involved itself, however, in a war with several northern barbarian groups who were eventually to conquer large areas of northern China. The most important of these invasions came from states in the north of Mongolia (what is now Russian territory), and were known to the Tang, the Sui, and the Han, as the Yangtze River. They established, with some assistance from Chinese rulers, a series of small autonomous states, the most famous of which, the Volo Wei, dynasty, controlled most of northern China from 280 to 300.

The Wei succeeded in driving the Ch'in into southern China, where they continued to remain at peace until the Tang. The war lasted less than five years, and the Wei was defeated in 280.

The Tang Dynasty (618 to 907)

In the closing centuries of the Han dynasty, China was torn, not by internal conflicts, but by foreign invasions. The period known as the Sui dynasty (581 to 618) was in reality two dynasties, the Sui and the Tang. The Sui, under the leadership of Taizong, conquered the remaining northern territories, and established a dynasty that lasted for over 200 years. The Tang, under the leadership of Taizong, inherited the territories of the Sui, and expanded them to include much of Central Asia. The Tang dynasty was able to withstand the foreign invasions, and it continued to exist for over 200 years.

The Song Dynasty (960 to 1279)

In the Song dynasty, China was again torn, not by foreign invasions, but by internal conflicts. The Song dynasty was unable to hold back the Mongol invasion, and it was forced to accept the rule of the Mongols. The Mongols were able to conquer most of China, and they established a dynasty that lasted for over 200 years. The Song dynasty was able to resist the Mongol invasion, and it continued to exist for over 200 years.

The Yuan Dynasty (1279 to 1368)

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The Ming Dynasty (1368 to 1644)

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The Qing Dynasty (1644 to 1912)

In the Qing dynasty, China was again torn, not by foreign invasions, but by internal conflicts. The Qing dynasty was able to hold back the Mongol invasion, and it continued to exist for over 200 years. The Qing dynasty was able to resist the Mongol invasion, and it continued to exist for over 200 years.

The Republican Period (1912 to 1949)

In the Republican period, China was again torn, not by foreign invasions, but by internal conflicts. The Republican period was marked by civil war, and it continued to exist for over 200 years. The Republican period was marked by civil war, and it continued to exist for over 200 years.

The People's Republic of China (1949 to present)

In the People's Republic of China, China was again torn, not by foreign invasions, but by internal conflicts. The People's Republic of China was able to hold back the Mongol invasion, and it continued to exist for over 200 years. The People's Republic of China was able to resist the Mongol invasion, and it continued to exist for over 200 years.
Moreover, the Tung period was undoubtedly one of the most productive and inspired in the history of Chinese art and letters. Tung poetry became a model for all subsequent Chinese efforts at verse, and Li Po and Tu Fu are by reason renowned as the outstanding poets of all Chinese literature. In the field of painting the outstanding artist of the dynasty—possibly even of all Chinese history, was Wu Tao-Tzu, who is also known by the name Wu Wei-Tzu and Wu Tao-Tze.

It was, however, the political and social stability that the Tung brought to China that made possible all these artistic achievements. In the field of government the Tung period presented a model not only for later Chinese dynasties, but also for (at least other instances) Japan. The administration of state affairs was conducted through an elaborate bureau- cracy, staffed by mandarins who had been selected with a careful planned system of civil service examinations. China under the Tung was an unusually Confucian society, aided by an elite made up of men who had demonstrated their competence by passing a vast array of intellectual examinations and by achieving great skill in manipulating written work. The text was perhaps a minor one, but the bureaucracy was based on merit rather than on favor, and while it permitted no to produce extraneous skill for some purposes, it allowed a relatively high degree of autonomy to local officials for other purposes. The theory, in any case, was that all officials, even local ones, were in a single hierarchy directed from the center.

Normally, however, it was unnecessary for the upper levels of the bureaucracy to concern themselves with problems at the local level. Because one and the same ideology prevented all actions of the bureaucracy, and of all others, from a single and common ethical standard, the official at the local level did not require detailed control.

Although it was during the Tung dynasty that the tradition of Confucian scholarship in the teaching of government and administration had first appeared, the Tung period possessed the institutional arrangements that made possible the practical unity of the empire. The idea originated in the Han, it went to fruition under the Tung. The structure of the government, under the Tung, represented the onset of the Tung Phase for nearly three hundred years, especially in view of what is known about the weakness of some of the individual emperors.

By the end of the early century, however, the dynasty was beset by all the distinguishing features that had brought it down in the preceding period. The war was worn by the political problems, engendered by the vacuum left by the throne of the previous generation, and caused by the independence of local officials who elected the central government from among their own members. The latter problem was especially acute in the extreme north, where the commanders of the defenses against northern invaders had been building up huge military organizations, and half the army was engaged in control in the territories under their command. In time, moreover, this point proved even worse of the officials. For ambitions increased among the local commanders and the regent, and between different frontier commanders, the winds threatened to be blown into the fire as an affair of whatever faction could win the support. This situation of non-Chinese elements into the then Chinese political and military service was to have lasting consequences, one of which was that through most of the next thousand years all part of China's territories was to be controlled by semi-independent commanders.

The Tung constant, in trying to cope with the problem on the part of the military officers, increased the task and corruption, causing a period of anarchy under the central authority by the military leaders, and thus produced the scene for the decline in the due at its time. If the Tung period was worthy results, and desired by many writers and supported by the name of the period along with dignified officers, that gave the coup de grace to the Tung dynasty.

The Five Dynasties (902-960)

The Chinese call the period following the collapse of the Tung the Wu Han or Five Dynasties. The term is not quite accurate, since there was indeed a succession of five minor dynasties in North China between 902 and 904, ten others came and went during the same period in South China. As we see in a later, a new period of such weakened political conditions that no government was able the entire country. Even the Five Dynasties in the north were in power for such short periods that we need not more than list their names: Later T'ang (902 to 907), Later T'ang (906 to 909), Later Han (904 to 907) and Later Han (904 to 908).

The description of the Historical state during this period forced the Confucian scholar into a new type of activity, namely, trade. For a time, indeed, it appeared that the ideals of the scholar-bureaucrat would completely abdicate from common activity. This did not happen, for once a Chinese had a recognized position on the Confucian correct scholar for the most part retained his bureaucracy. But they did not entirely abandon their connection with common activities, so the level of formal holding, to be sure, they continued to hold, that the scholar-bureaucrat would not completely be corrupted by the conditions in which he operated. But beyond the loss of the Five Dynasties it was common knowledge that the scholar-bureaucrat was not in fact advancing their personal wealth through commercial activity. Part of the scholar-bureaucrat was interested in affairs of common importance, which could have been further added to subsidize the scholar-bureaucrat to private gains.

The scholar-bureaucrat was interested in the Five Dynasties period the last days of the Tung and the Five Dynasties: the introduction of wood block printing, which made it possible for popular works to reach the mass and the better known and thus drastically reduced the price of books. This led, in turn, to a considerable increase in literacy, which made it possible for the commoner to read books, and thus opened the road to education.

Song Dynasty (960 to 1279)

Traditional Chinese history views the Song dynasty as one of China's greatest periods of centralized rule, and tends to ignore the fact that the Sung at one time controlled all the territory of China proper. During the early years of the Sung to the south, the Chinese did not recognize new territories in the north, and for that reason, the success of the Sung over the Five Dynasties.

But there were large areas of North China from which the Song were not able to exercise control over the time, especially the Mongolian people, who in 1022 had established what is known as the Khitans. The Sung, indeed, were in a position to take the advantage against the Khitans, and conquer those of the southern Chinese. The Sung then established the Chao dynasty, which was to control most of North China and was even able to control the north of the Sung.

The period from 1122 to 1279, therefore, the Sung dynasty was relatively strong in South China, which offset the loss in the north. In the period, and also why the Sung dynasty is remembered for its cultural and historical traditions. The period is remembered for its great advancement in the arts and philosophy. It was a period when the arts and culture of China reached a new high point not seen since the Sung.

The Song period witnessed the rise of the literati class, who played a significant role in the development of Chinese culture. The literati class was composed of scholars who were highly educated and respected for their knowledge and ability to write poetry and calligraphy. They were primarily consisted of men of the Confucian tradition who had passed the imperial examinations and were members of the official government bureaucracy. The literati class played a significant role in the development of Chinese culture, as they were responsible for creating many of the cultural achievements of the time. This included the development of Chinese painting, calligraphy, and literary arts.

In addition to their cultural contributions, the literati class also played a significant role in the development of Chinese political thought. They were known for their devotion to Confucian ideals and for their commitment to social justice. They were also known for their involvement in politics, and many of them held high positions in the government. The literati class was an important part of Chinese society during the Song period, and their influence can still be seen in Chinese culture today.
known as Non-Conformists, which differed from traditional Confuciusism in at least two major respects: it incorporated a great many Buddhist and Daoist ideas, and it was built on an elaborate metaphysical foundation, so that it could not, like Confucianism, be described as merely a system of ethics. It remained secret, however, most Confucianists,

For a long period after the fall of the Ming dynasty, all of China was dominated publicly by non-Khalkha states. The Liuyue (the Khalkha) controlled northern China from 102 to 1215. Elements from Tibet, known as the Hui Hua dynasty, governed northeastern China from 1345 to 1368.

The Mongols, like all the other peoples attempting to govern China through this period, were nomads, and the institutional barriers between them and the Chinese were never really

The Mongol empire was, however, short-lived. The last great Khalkha emperor, Kublai Khan, died in 1294. The empire was divided into two main divisions: the eastern and the western. The eastern division was China proper, and the western division was the Tartar Khanate. The eastern division was China proper, and the western division was the Tartar Khanate.

The Ming dynasty (1368–1644) was the longest-lived dynasty in Chinese history, lasting for 276 years. It was founded by Zhu Yuanzhang, a peasant who rose to power through military conquest. The Ming dynasty was characterized by a strong central government, a Confucian bureaucracy, and a agrarian economy. The dynasty was also known for its cultural achievements, including the development of the Chinese script, the printing press, and the spread of Buddhism.

The Ming dynasty was succeeded by the Qing dynasty (1644–1912), which lasted for 268 years. The Qing dynasty was founded by the Manchus, a nomadic people from Manchuria. The Qing dynasty was known for its cultural achievements, including the development of the Chinese script, the printing press, and the spread of Buddhism.
great influence, and one whose maintenance had hitherto required the reverse of military power or any other form of force or coercion. It is significant, in this connection, that the Chinese governmental organization left the conduct of foreign affairs to the Ministry of Rites or Ceremonies, on the grounds that the most important aspect of foreign affairs was the performance of the correct ceremonies of homage to the Emperor by the representatives of foreign peoples. For both the Chinese and the foreign peoples these ceremonies fulfilled the acceptance by the non-Chinese of a dependent status in both cultural and political relationships. The non-Chinese, furthermore, regarded this dependent status as they beheld noblesse oblige and protocol, in general, that is to say, they had no contact with the Chinese concept of suzerainty.

**Ch'ing Dynasty (1644-1911)**

During the last years of the Ming dynasty the Imperial Court was confronted with the traditional problems of internal disorder, aggravated by continued mismanagement of foreign affairs, plus the new problem of defending the North against the rising power of the Manchu tribes. It gradually became evident that the Ming could not withstand sufficient pressure to defend itself against either its internal or external enemies, especially when their efforts to defend themselves led to higher taxation and thereby increased the number of internal unrest. Toward the very end, which was hastened by a series of invasions, there were major results in organized bands of brigands. The most powerful of the rebel was Li Tach'ing, who captured Peking in 1642. The last Ming Emperor fled westward in despair as the city fell.

A Chinese general on the northeastern frontier, Wu Shan-k'ao, promptly joined forces with the Manchus and set out to destroy the armies of Li Tach'ing. In 1644 he was successful, but the Manchus had already advanced south of the Great Wall when they turned on Wu Shan-k'ao and drove him and his troops. From these subsequent years, he launched fresh blows against the Ching government, but he was finally reduced to impotence. The Manchus, soon after entering China, had adopted as the functional institution of the Chinese system of government, and had established a dynasty called the

The Ch'ing, like the earlier Manchus, justified their rule by the adherence of Chinese scholars to Ch'ing dynastic institutions and Chinese culture. The Manchus had been relatively fragile compared to the Ch'ing, which had a much more solid and coherent system. The Manchus had been relatively fragile compared to the Ch'ing, which had a much more solid and coherent system.
During the reigns of K'ang Hsi (1661-1722) and Ch'ien Lung (1736-1795), the Qing re-established China as one of the two great empires on the world scene. The Chinese were now in a position of strength, and the imperial court enjoyed a degree of prosperity and tranquility unprecedented in its history. The Chinese empire was now the largest in the world, and its population was estimated to be between 300 and 400 million people.

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resolved in accordance with recognized principles of international (i.e. Western) law. The Chinese, from their point of view quite logically also, could no longer process certain of the notions of recognizing Britain as an equal or of Western concepts of international law. China, in their view, was not as in the past the leading great power in the so-called world, instead of making concessions and compromising demands for an equality that had no basis in fact the British, the Chinese felt, should demonstrate their alliance to the Chinese people.

The treaty between the British and the Chinese in fact submitted to the First Opium War (1839), which resulted in the Treaty of Nanking of 1842. The Chinese were forced by this treaty to recognize the British demands for diplomatic equality, to open five additional ports to British trade, to help Britain to obtain the Opium War in Britain, to abolish the slave trade privileges of the Opium War, to repay the British war debts, to pay an indemnity, and to promise that all future tariffs would be based upon published schedules and not left to arbitrary determination by local Chinese officials.

The Treaty of Nanking opened in a new period in the relations of China to the West, during which the central issue was in the question of treaties and obligations. In 1844 the American government negotiated a treaty with China that guaranteed to American citizens trading with China all the rights enjoyed by British traders and established the principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law. The Chinese government had agreed to the principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law. But the Chinese government had agreed to the principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law. The Chinese government had agreed to the principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law.

In 1860 the British and French imposed a military style of pressure on China, that the Chinese finally acceded to the system of treaties and obligations whose main features had been noted in the preceding paragraphs, and which, with one further period of consolidation, became known as foreign relations. In 1875, the Chinese government found itself committed to a system of extraterritoriality, which was to become a leading Chinese principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law. The Chinese government had agreed to the principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law.

It was not until 1905 and 1906, when Britain and France applied further military pressure on China, that the Chinese finally acceded to the system of treaties and obligations whose main features have been noted in the preceding paragraphs, and which, with one further period of consolidation, became known as foreign relations. In 1875, the Chinese government found itself committed to a system of extraterritoriality, which was to become a leading Chinese principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law. The Chinese government had agreed to the principle of extraterritoriality, according to which Americans in China would be bound by American law and Chinese officials would be bound by American law.
posed them to support the interests of the foreign powers, and to localize a sort of bridge between China and the outside world.

They became, in many ways, an important center of attraction to the merchant or who trafficked in Chinese society. Their reputation was, to be sure, unselfish, and only a few of them had evilly speaking, among political occasions or objectives. But they undoubtedly gave a lead to the awakening of the old order.

There were, of course, other economic consequences of the expanded foreign trade besides the rise of a new social strata. The larger coastal cities became increasingly dependent upon foreign commerce, and, with the passing of time, the interior of China more directly dependent upon them. This, in turn, gave a stimulus to the development of the large merchant princes. This, in turn, gave a stimulus to the development of the large merchant princes. They, in turn, gave a stimulus to the development of the large merchant princes. They, in turn, gave a stimulus to the development of the large merchant princes.

The Imperial Government had neither the power nor the capacity to deal effectively with these problems. According to the traditional view, however, government was responsible for the wellbeing of the masses, who would see that the government was accountable for what was happening to them.

Methods Against the Chinese

The middle of the nineteenth century saw the Chinese government faced with the problem of who, through the application of oppressive and military strength, to impose, to resist, or to accommodate.

The most far-reaching of these was a series of rebellions in the Taiping movement, which had its origin in the Taipings in China. By 1860, the Taipings had conquered much of China proper, and had established a capital at Nanking. Before it was suppressed in 1864, its armies had captured a number of Chinese territories and threatened to capture not only Vietnam but also the imperial capital at Peking as well. The typical personality in this movement was a Chinese student named Huang Xing, who had been involved in the imperial examinations. He and his followers, known as the Manchu sect, established a new state in the north, independent of the Manchu dynasty, and called it the Taiping. The Taipings had the unique advantage of being able to replace the Manchu government, but their success was limited.

The fall of the Taiping rebels was characterized by the complete occupation of present China by the Manchu sect, which had been allowed to have their own government, and which was known to have been allowed to have their own government. This situation was continued until the Taiping rebels were suppressed in 1864. The Taipings had no resources of their own, and their rebellion had ended in complete failure. The Taipings had a limited amount of the nation's resources, and were the only people who were able to keep the Taiping emperor in power for a few years, thus depopulating the government of huge tax revenues. And the last phase of the war had devastated the richest part of China that the government could count on as a revenue source. It had been more than a century since the Taiping rebellion began.

Foreign Perceptions of the Chinese Dynasty

By the middle of the nineteenth century there were many visible signs that the Manchu dynasty was rapidly losing its power to govern China. The Western powers, however, were too weak to recognize this decline, and thus missed an opportunity to gain an advantage. As the Manchu dynasty weakened, the foreign powers began to interfere in the political affairs of China. They established embassies in Peking and other major cities, and began to exert pressure on the Manchu government. In 1858, the Treaty of Tientsin was signed, which opened China to the Western powers and gave them greater influence in the country. The Chinese were forced to recognize the Western powers as equal to the Manchu dynasty, and to accept the terms of the treaty. This treaty, known as the Treaty of Tientsin, was the first of the modern treaties that opened China to the West. It was a turning point in the history of China, and it marked the beginning of the modern era.
also Empire extended around the northern half of Manchuria down to the Korean border, and Russian influence was reaching itself felt both in Korea and in Manchuria.

Even while the European powers were leveling concerns from the Manchuria government and Russia were ever so, it was widely felt that the weakness of China was only temporary, and that one day the "sleeping dragon" would awaken and show great strength. It was only with the amazing Tsun of the Japanese in the war of 1894-5 that the world realized that the Celestial Empire might fall.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1904-5, which arose over Sino-Japanese competition for influence in Korea, actually delayed several different and much broader issues. The rapid victory of the Japanese clearly demonstrated not only that the allied powers had successfully incorporated many aspects of Western culture and the built-up formidable military power, but also that China would be able to realize its role in the leading Eastern Powers. The world, including China, began to realize that it was witnessing the first phase of what was to develop into a sustained expansion of Japanese imperialism on the continent of Asia.

By the Treaty of Shimoda, which terminated the conflict, China lost Taiwan and the Pescadores in Japan, and had to pay an indemnity for the cost of the war. A further Japanese demand, revision of the Liaotung territory in southern Manchuria, went by the board when Russia, supported by Germany and France, intervened to prevent its being granted. This "Triple Intervention" was motivated, however, not so much by a desire to protect China as by a determination to crush Japan, and prevent its encroaching areas of the Chinese Empire where the Russians had a special interest. The intervention of the three powers made it clear that while the Chinese government was not capable of defending itself, there was still hope for the maintenance of the integrity of Chinese territories under the other interested powers, and consequently made such a war unnecessary.

It was also clear, however, that China would have to be prepared to prevent further invasions of Japanese and Russian influence in the Chinese territory of Manchuria — that the struggle for control of the area would be fought out between Japan and Russia, without any third or fourth power to intervene. In 1898 Russia obtained from China the right to build the Chinese Eastern Railroad across Manchuria, to connect the Trans-Siberian Railroad with Vladivostok. Two years later, when China was being forced to grant concessions to certain European powers, Russia obtained from China a lease on the Liaotung territory, including Port Arthur and Dairen, thus acquiring the very territory it had been instrumental in driving out Japan. Over the next years, moreover, Russia's behavior left no doubt as to the seriousness of its expansionist intentions. The building of the South Manchuria Railroad, to connect Port Arthur to the Chinese Eastern Railroad, was only the most conspicuous example of the growth of Russian interests in that area.

Meanwhile Japan, besides actively developing its state, was expanding its economic activities in Manchuria, indeed the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 was a result of the clash between Japanese and Russian interests in precisely this area. Japan again surprised the world by driving it a far greater country than itself, and under the terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth, which terminated the war, Japan regained Russia in the Liaotung territory, assumed control of the South Manchuria Railroad, and obtained the southern half of Sakhalin Island. From this time until 1917 Manchuria was to be roughly divided into a Japanese sphere of influence in the south and a Russian sphere in the north. After the Russian Revolution, however, Russia's influence ended upon a long period of decline.

There was a brief revival of Russian pressure in the nineteen twenties, but it was brought to an end by the Japanese occupation of Manchuria in 1931. Russia, nonetheless, was not to hold once again Japan's defeat in the Second World War eliminated it as a factor in Manchuria, and under the Yalta agreement the United States and Britain, invasion China's
that leaving the reformers' sympathies no alternative but to support the revolutionary groups abroad. But the Manchus could not at all meantime, prevent further convulsions to "modernization."

By the time the throne began to be followed by revolution, however, the government was already too weak to carry out measures of the type called for. For one thing, opposition to the regime itself had become so intense that no program it proposed could possibly succeed. Worse still, the reform program looked to power, not strength, the regime's first provincial assembly, for example, when they were asked as a first step toward China's national assembly, promptly became source of opposition to the Manchus.

The opposition the Manchu government confronted at home, though powerful, was unsurpassed. There was also an internal opposition, which included the leadership of Sun Yat-sen, usually known as a revolutionary party. First known as the Foxbody, it was then called the Nationalist Party. It was the party that took the lead in demanding that the Manchu government be abolished in favor of a republic. When Li Yuan-Hung, the last of the Manchu emperors, established a republic on 29 January 1912, Sun Yat-sen's party quickly organized the new Republic of China. Even in the face of such widespread opposition, the Manchu government was powerless to act in defense of its rule. Its last desperate act was to proclaim a "national assembly," with Sun Yat-sen as president, and then to abdicate.

The revolutionaries, on the other hand, were able to take advantage of the Manchu government's weakness. The Nationalist Party, led by Sun Yat-sen, was able to organize a revolutionary government in the south of China. This government was able to win over many of the Manchu officials who were sympathetic to the revolution. The revolutionaries were able to take control of the south, and then to spread throughout the country. The Manchu government was unable to stop the revolutionaries, and was forced to abdicate. The Nationalist Party then declared Sun Yat-sen as president of the new republic.

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The support, of course, came at a price: concession had to be made to the military leaders. However, this did not mean the end of the revolutionary movement. The Nationalist Party continued to work for the establishment of a republic, and in 1912, Sun Yat-sen was elected as the first president of the new republic.

The Nationalist Republic, under Sun Yat-sen, was established in 1912. It was a military government, and the military leaders took control of the country. But Sun Yat-sen was able to win over the military leaders, and in 1912, Sun Yat-sen was elected as the first president of the new republic. The Nationalist Republic was able to win over many of the Manchu officials who were sympathetic to the revolution. The revolutionaries were able to take control of the south, and then to spread throughout the country. The Manchu government was unable to stop the revolutionaries, and was forced to abdicate. The Nationalist Party then declared Sun Yat-sen as president of the new republic.

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in the hope and expectation that it would be rewarded by Allied financial assistance. The new government, therefore, wished to strengthen the hand of the military leaders, and thus to establish the dominance of the democratic elements. (The Kwantung faction in the government, under the leadership of Sun Yat-sen, recognizing this, was de- creed to resign, with Peking and to set up a new government for China, as announced at Canton.) On the other hand, the Peking government promptly secured itself in difficulties upon the dismission of the German officials and consolations in China, whose return to China it viewed as part of the reward it should receive for entering the war. Japan, however, had not only entered the war but also had established itself in eastern Germany from Tsingtao, and since the war was over, seemed to the new German officials that it really had recognized the Japanese claim, the immediate result was an unprecedented mass protest against the government's action in recognizing Chinese interests. The Peking government eventually surrendered in negotiating an agreement with Japan in 1922, under which the socalled agreements would be returned to China upon payment to Japan of a sum of money to cover the costs incurred by Japan in "recuperating" its territories. The terms of the agreement, upon which the claim that China had to borrow the money from Japan itself to make the payment, further damaged the government in the eyes of the Chinese populace, and faced the government with the fact that its indemnification against Japan. May fourth, the day of the Peking declaration, was marked by a "national manifestation" for China in both the Nationalist and the Com- munist circles. (In recent years, however, the Communists have emphasized the anniver- sary's importance as a reminder of the treacherous deeds of the Western Powers and of the first popular movement against "imperialism." [2])

The Washington Conference of 1921-2, held under the leadership of the United States with the sole purpose, inter alia, of protecting China from further foreign encroachment, records in this Chinese foreign relations. Out of it came the bilateral agreement between China and Japan about the Kwantung question, a new Power Treaty correcting the signature to respect the territorial and administrative integrity of China, and an agreement among the United States, Britain, and Japan in the direction to the United States to the United States to Tokyo, and Japan to assist in the United States to Singapore. The long-term result of these commitments was to make Japan relatively free to pursue aggressive policies against China — with prior assurance that the British and American navies could not easily take any effective counteraction.

The Rise of the Nationalists

With the Peking government increasingly under the demoralization of military leaders, and struggling to stem off both moral and economic bankruptcy, the new government at Canton shortly built up a following. Sun Yat-sen performed a miracle such as that which he had performed before 1911, he collected funds and enlisted political support for a movement to establish a government that had already determined its sovereignty over China. The Canton government claimed to be the rightful heir of the 1911 Revolution and that the only legal government of all China. Nevertheless, it was pretty much so a par with several other semi-autonomous governments in the provinces.

Sun Yat-sen soon found himself involved in negotiations of a highly complex character, e.g., while discussing a possible arrangement with groups in Japan and with some of the leading northern war lords, he was also conducting the secret Union's foreign policy with the support of the Japanese government.
government launched and sustained a drive for recognition of all existing treaties between China and the other powers that China deemed "outdated." These treaties, however, were not to be abrogated until the formal World War, and at a moment when the Nationalists seemed about to accede to the Japanese. Thus the Kwantung, though it could say at last that the diplomatic rivalry that it had pursued had been achieved, never profited from this political victory as it might otherwise have done.

By the end of 1931, in any case, China appeared to be on the point of achieving a degree of unity without precedent in modern times. Even the Communists indicated their readiness to cooperate with Chiang in resisting Japan. And the need for unity was even demonstrated: on 1 July 1937, the Japanese attack on the Marco Polo Bridge (Li Yuan Ch'i), on the outskirts of Peking, and China began to wage a "war of resistance" that was to last until the defeat of Japan on 9 September 1945.

After the entry of the United States into the Pacific War, all groups in China tended to assume that Japan would ultimately be defeated, and the real issue in Chinese politics soon became that of who was to have power in the post-war era. Tensions between the Kwantung and the challenging Communist Party became, in consequence, more acute as victory seemed nearer. Upon the defeat of Japan, it became not into an open civil war that eventually gave the Communists control of the mainland.

History of the Chinese Communist Party

Not until after the Russian Revolution did Marxism and Communist ideas begin to awaken interest in China. The Chinese intellectuals, preoccupied as they had been with the implications for China of liberal democracy and modern science, were taken completely by surprise when the Bolsheviks went out in Russia, consolidated their victory, and proclaimed in the world that they would convert their nation to a corpus of doctrine that could be found in any good Western library. Their surprise, however, quickly changed in some cases into curiosity, in others into derision at the doers of such nonsense as whether they might be applicable to China, and whether China could, by embracing them, transform itself into a world power and escape from all the ills which had reduced it to impotence.

The first Chinese to begin thinking seriously about the possibility of transplanting Communism in China were some professors and students in Peking. Ch'en Tu-hsiu, a professor at Peking University, not only gathered the Marxist study group, Ch'ien's first, that was to serve as the nucleus of the future Chinese Communist Party, but gathered around him a following of students that included two future leaders of the Party, Ma Tso-long and Ch'en En-si. There is reason to believe, however, that the group began as an enterprise in intellectual inquiry, and might well have remained that but for the advent in China of Gregory Vailadsk, the first representative of the Comintern in China, who left Ch'en Tu-hsiu in June of 1920 and persuaded him that the time had come to leave behind idle discussions of Marxism and get busy organizing the new groups that would be needed for the realization of Marxist objectives. By August, Vailadsk had founded the Shanghai Youth Corps, which in turn recruited members from the leading universities in China. Further Communist groups were organized in the leading cities of China: Peking, Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton.

By July of 1921 it was decided that the time was ripe to summon a First Congress of the Chinese Communist Party. Its hundred members, most of whom had been recruited in the French Comintern in Shanghai, but attracted unbelievable attention from the local police and were obliged to remain in Peking in Chang-ching Provision. Even then, according to some reports, the meetings of the Congress had to be conducted in row boats, off the shores in a lake, in order to evade the police.

No official report of this First Congress of the Chinese Communist Party has ever been published, although the Communists are usually careful to maintain full records of this sort of thing. One possible explanation of this gap in official Communist literature is that an enormously large number of the charter members of the Chinese Communist Party were later to have to leave it and become persistent in its enemy camp. The Ch'en Tu-hsiu was to become apostate of the Kwantung's right wing. Ch'en's King-pao and Shen Jih-jung were both to defect to the Kwantung, the latter to serve one day as personal assistant to General Ch'en. Ch'oe Kung-po and Chao Fu-chih were to become puppet leaders for the Japanese during the Second World War. The normal Chinese Communist report on Party history contains itself with the statement that those attending this first Congress included Ma Tsong-yen, Ch'en En-si, Li Lo-fan (Li Lung-ku), Li Ts'un-hsiu, and others.

Although Ch'en Tu-hsiu was not present at the Congress, the latter recognized him as party chairman — if only to hold power until 1927. Apparently the mood among those present was highly optimistic: soon that it was formally accepted, the Party would immediately take up its rightful place as a factor to be reckoned with in Chinese politics and in a Chinese Communist Revolution would occur before many years. This overly optimistic, since other members have not come to light, to Li Ts'un-hsiu's remarkable success in recruiting the workers at the Haipenping Coal Works in Hankow, the largest factory in China. Li Ts'un-hsiu's message to them at the time, however, was (in the language of the US trade union movement) "economic" and "political." He spoke to them, that is to say, about the need for improving the working and living conditions of Chinese workers, and certainly found them highly responsive. But when, heard, the message changed, and they were called upon to give up their time and energy for political purposes, especially that of establishing a proletariat dictatorship, they showed little interest, and some were openly hostile.

Nevertheless, the Chinese delegation to the Fourth Congress of the Comintern in Moscow in November 1922, with Ch'en Tu-hsiu as chairman, had not yet abandoned its optimism about the chances of producing a proletariat revolution in China by merely organizing the workers and encouraging them to strike. The Russian leaders, especially Rudin, chose to rely on other sources of information available to them, took the Chinese delegation superficially to task for their "anarchistic outlook," and ordered the Chinese Communist Party to seek the cooperation of the intellectuals and the party bureaucrats in the "struggle against the Bourgeois and Anarchic Impulses." The Party was, of course, to keep on trying to organize workingmen, but no doubt was left in anyone's mind that its major mission was to assist the Soviet Union in its attempt to reorient the Western democracies. Soon, indeed, the new representative of the Comintern in China, whose name was Murch, was going to go further and order the Chinese Communist Party to collaborate with a few and all groups, regardless of their background, willing to oppose the "impurities," and making it clear that this form of work included even the Kuomintang. When some of the Chinese Communists took exception to these instructions on the allegedly Marxist grounds that a proletariat party must not permit itself to be drawn into cooperation with any bourgeois group, the Comintern itself took the matter in hand. The Kwantung, it declared, was a coalition of all classes in China, and in any case it was permissible — in cultural and semi-cultural conditions during the "stage of imperialism" — for proletariat, national bourgeoisie, and petty bourgeoisie elements to act together against other classes by foreign interests and for foreign powers.

By the end of 1922 the Chinese Communist Party was, accordingly, putting itself on record to the effect that cooperation was possible as an "individual basis," i.e., with the Communists joining the Kuomintang in individuals with a view to exploiting it as a "front
organization.** Certainly the Party was attempting to use the Communist for its own purposes well before the famous Sun Yat-sen Declaration of 26 January 1923, which stated explicitly that the "enemies of the nation exist in China for the establishment of Communism and Socialism," and that the Russian would thereby help China to obtain "national unity and national independence."

The declining period of collaboration between the CP and the KMT was hastened from 1923 to 1927, although at no time did the two groups cease to regard each other with a good deal of suspicion. The Communists made little effort to conceal the fact that they were not out to exploit the KMT as a base, that what they were interested in was increasing their own power, and that their ultimate objectives, which might or might not be perceived but were not abandoned, was a direct or indirect assumption of national power by themselves. The Communists, moreover, though they had been based on a commitment to exploit the KMT, were always aware of the genuine problems that would arise with another organization, given the necessity for collaboration. They had rather, and by no means did not prefer, to use the KMT as the base on which to create a new organization that would renew the tradition of strict adherence to the aims of the Party leadership. Nevertheless, the fact that the leadership had advocated the dissolution of Communism by reconciling with enemy bureaucracies implied a willingness to allow others even those of its members who were courageously eager to work with non-Communist elements.

The Communist leadership faced a further dilemma, namely, that of reconciling the KMT to maintain its priorities base and strengthen its organization with the further mandate to cooperate with the Soviet. But for the CCP, the dilemma and the conflict of the KMT was evident for the leadership. Although the CCP, like the Communists, had been based on a commitment to exploit the KMT, the problem was that of reconciling the "revolutionary" (the KMT) with the "bourgeois" (the CCP) and the national bourgeois interests of the powers in Asia. They held that the Chinese Communist Party should, in consequence, refrain from joining the newly formed "third" in China, which would have been united by the Chinese, the KMT, and the CCP. They sought to use the KMT to make a new revolution in China, and to give the new revolution to the Chinese, which they gave to the Chinese. 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Over the next two months, in consequence, the stage was set for the non-negotiable break between the two elements in the Koomintang. On 1 June 1927, Sun Yat-sen telegraphed new orders to the Chinese Communist Party to the center of the Executive Committee of the Communist International. It was to take this policy in the direction of greater aggressiveness, still, however, without making any final break with the Koomintang. Consequently, Stalin instructed the Chinese Party to turn a proper amount of 20,000 Communists and 50,000 workers and peasants, establish a revolutionary army that would try "victrarian" officers, and ensure the appointment of a "well-known member of the Koomintang" as chairman of the court — so that the execution of the latter would not look like a Communist-inspired move. Stalin, Sun Yat-sen was thinking forward to the day when the Communists would take over control of the Nationalist movement; he was aware left it to Stalin about this far long, for due to an indiscretion on the part of a local leader of the Communist's representative in Hankow, Stalin's telegram was made public. Not only the Koomintang left-wingers but many members of the Koomintang itself were shown at its congress that they promptly broke with the Hankow government, as the precedent that the Communists in control of it were completely under the domination of Moscow.

From afterward, the Hankow government fell — a humiliation for a big, from the Koomintang point of view, to have the leadership of the CCP take over surviving. The Koomintang, of course, were in no position to point out, protest to Stalin's suggestion, that they had always practiced that the Stalinist Chinese policies would lead to such a major disaster. The idea's origin was first CCs in Koomintang, who made a last desperate move to save himself by handing in a long resignation to the city of Nanking on 1 August 1927, the first in the Chinese Party's history. But it also failed, and the only remaining question was when, organizationally speaking, the whole would roll.

On 10 October he was suddenly removed from his post as Chairman of the CCP on 2 October, as an Emergency Conference of the Party's Central Committee. (C.C. Cheung Koo was named his successor.) Chinese Communist to the day single him out as the greatest threat to the Party's history, and as the prime example of the "crime" that should never be repeated. On the same conference, "stirred up a wave of "right opportunism," and sought to identify the Party to the past of collaborating with the Koomintang. He was, moreover, a "traitor," he was already moved the Party along toward liquidation by merging it with the Koomintang. The result, in point of fact, quickly shows that CCN abolished central control out the entire the Party had several times from the Koomintang, that the Party would no longer demand to the Koomintang, and that the decision of it was in the opposite direction from which his former central control would have been toward to the Party's liquidation. The leader of the Communists instructions called for the. The Communists needed a stand for the Hankow State. They CCNs, as Chairman, had long, and succeeding in the record that sufficed with what the Communist needed to prove very much ignored.

On 26 and prior popular prestige, which presently accounts for the fact that he was not at that time purged from the Party, but was merely displaced of his posts of leadership, and when he was finally expelled, in the spring of 1927, it was over an entirely different matter. Chung Hong-fang, military and civil governor of Sourchow, was engaged in serious conflict with the Soviet Union over certain issues arising out of the joint control of the Chinese Eastern Railroad. The黄埔 launched orders from Moscow to start a propaganda campaign based on the slogan "Protect the Union," which would have put the Chinese Communists in the position of supporting a notice that was at war with Chinese forces. The other CCN leaders accepted the orders without objection, but CCN To-ho objected for the slogan "upraise the Koomintang's Message Policy" which would have...
served the same purpose without offending the national sensitivities of the Chinese. Chi’s, not so much because he had refused as because he had failed to support the Soviet Union publicly and fully against the nationalist menace of China, was promptly read out of the Party. Chi’s Chi-shee replaced Ch’s as Chairman of the Party in a moment of great uncertainty as to what future Party policy ought to be. Moreover, however, deprived of power, of whatever kind, with which to alter the Communist opposition, and it was finally determined that the Chinese Communitarian was to adopt a "more revolutionary" line, including most of what the Nationalists were in a hurry to adopt. The Communists were quick to claim that this was merely saving the program's army, the Soviets, who had almost merged, to which, of course, the Nationalists (not the People’s) that the "operative Communists" had only just become ripe for such a policy, and that if it had been advocated earlier it would have failed in its purpose. Both were for a surprise in the months and years ahead, for the revolutionary policy was to be merely a further Kremlin failure in China.

The one policy of armed activity in the countryside, known as the "Autumn Harvest," though successful, did bring to the forefront the Party’s future leader, Mao Tse-tung. Mao had, up to this point, of absorbed his energies into organizing peasant groups in Hunan rather than into activities at Party headquarters; the latter, moreover, had not attached much importance to the peasant organization phase of its program, and had been content merely to give Mao instructions from time to time. After the Hankow failure, however, the Party leaders took another look at the organization Mao had developed, and saw in it the means for conducting armed raids throughout the province of Hunan. This was an important turning point. For while the ruthless use of these armed bands was to increase popular opposition to the Communists, not to defeat the leadership’s purpose, it was the beginning of the Communist Party’s policy of maintaining its own armed forces.

Mao Tse-tung was, therefore, absorbed in an early moment with the utilization of military power to obtain political objectives. Current Chinese Communist writings on the history of the Party tend to gloss over the period of the "Autumn Harvest," and ignores the role Mao played in directing the armed bands that were used to drive the rest of the first army of the Communist Party. The two principal reasons for this appear to be (1) the desire not to misrepresent the present leader of the Party with a policy that failed, and (2) the wish to strike the fact that Mao in fact organized Communists elsewhere and did things that were not mentioned by the Central Committee of the Chinese Party. Thus he certainly did, the Communists had observed the Chinese Communist merely to pose forward with peasant agitation; Mao, on his own initiative, had decided to carry out a far more ambitious program.

The Commissariat’s duty to apply more violent measures resulted in some important events in the Canton Commune. A secret conference of the Central Committee that removed Chi-shee was intrigue among the Commissars, that the moment was ripe in China for an armed rebellion. Plans were accordingly laid for an uprising in Canton, the purpose of which was to be the immediate establishment of a Communist government in which the Communists could point in the criticism of the Chinese policy. A group of students, Western (non-Russian) Commissars, under the direction of Hsiao Yen and including Dec. 1929, led a small group out of the arms under Communist control. This, however, was not the same as that of Li’s, who had survived all the previous shifts in Party leadership and was in command of the army for the first time. The new Party apparatus was with "devotions, dedication, and extreme democratic tenets" in the Party.

While Li’s plan was putting new life and direction into Party activities in the urban areas of China, Mao Tse-tung, fully restored from the "Autumn Harvest" attack, was reorganizing the Party’s organization in the mountains of Kiangsi. His assistant for this purpose was Chu Teh, future commander in chief of the Red Army. Mao’s next, from an early moment, was to build a strong military organization that would be completely subordinated to the Party’s political command. In the winter of 1928 he won in Kiangsi and Li’s plans, and by January 1929 a new Red Army was winning victories and expanding the area under Communist control. Li Liao viewed the activities of the Kiangsi leaders with approval, but, convinced as he was that work in the cities was far more important, gave them a relatively free hand. Even the Commissariat appears to have adopted a laissez-faire attitude toward what was happening in Kiangsi.
A clash nevertheless became inevitably unavoidable as the new Red Army grew in size and power, and loudly vociferous toward the end of 1930 — in the form of an ideological dispute between Li Lian-ying and the Kuomintang leaders. The former insisted that only the "radicalism" could lead the Communist movement, so that he and his headquarters had been estranged from the rest of the Communist movement. On the contrary, the Kuomintang leaders believed that the "moderate" was necessary. They eventually agreed to the conclusion that only the "moderate" could lead the Red Army, but they meant that the leadership must be in the hands of professional revolutionaries in the actual area — in short, the Kuomintang leaders.

The dispute became more intense after Li Lian-ying was captured by the Kuomintang in 1931. After his release, he was sent to study in Moscow, where he was forced to cooperate with the Soviet Union. His cooperation led to a sharp increase in the power of the Communist Party of China, which was later known as the Chinese Communist Party. This cooperation also allowed the Communist Party to gain a foothold in the Chinese revolutionary movement.

On the contrary, the Kuomintang leaders were concerned about the growth of the Communist Party and its influence in China. They believed that the Communist Party was a threat to their own power. This led to a series of conflicts between the two parties, including the so-called "Anti-Comintern" campaign in 1933, which aimed to eliminate the influence of the Comintern in China. The campaign was successful in eliminating the Comintern's influence, but it also led to a series of internal conflicts within the Kuomintang, which weakened its ability to resist the Communist Party.

In 1934, the Kuomintang started a major military campaign against the Communist Party, known as the "Northern Expedition." The campaign was initially successful, and the Kuomintang was able to capture a large number of Communist Party leaders. However, the campaign was eventually unsuccessful, and the Communist Party was able to overthrow the Kuomintang in 1937, leading to the Second Sino-Japanese War and the eventual victory of the Communist Party in 1949.
promised several steps Mao had taken with a view to expanding the zone of the Soviet Union, and promptly on 27 December 1930 issued a call to the Soviet army, noting that the Japanese forces in Manchuria had invaded the Soviet territory. Immediately thereafter, the Chinese Nationalist Party rose in revolt against the Comintern, and demanded his removal from the leadership. Mao, opposed to any move that the rebels had killed more than 100 of his supporters, did not press the matter. When he was ordered to act, he sent the blood necessary for the revolution to fall on the rebels. But once this had been accomplished, he immediately met the rebels and participated in the negotiations.

After the Fu-Ch'a Revolt, the question was whether Mao would come to dominate both the Red Army and the Party, but rather why when he did the point and title appropriate to his actual power and influence. He did not become Secretary-General of the Party, as a matter of fact, until 1935. But the move that put him at the head of the party in 1935 was the election of Chiang Kai-shek as Chairman of the Nationalist government. Mao's position as Secretary-General of the Party was not challenged by the invasion of his power by the Nationalist government. The Chinese Communist Party had no organization, no power, no influence, and no wealth except the official management of a small Party office. (Mao was never given a real post in the Party, but he did hold one position as Secretary-General, which he held back to Moscow, to become an active representative of the Comintern. His position had been, therefore, been accompanied by no official posts.)

In 1929, the Chinese Communist Party was forbidden to continue its effective organization in China's main cities. Party headquarters were moved out of Shanghai and all the workers had to be distributed to the provinces. Even that part of the party that continued to exist was under the Comintern's control. In 1931, when Chiang Kai-shek was deposed in his revolution, the new regime in Manchuria was declared to be the capital of the Provisional Government of the Chinese Communist Republic. All those efforts had been successful, mainly because of the strong support from the Soviet Union. Mao's strategy was to be independent, to be ready to make some sacrifice upon the revolutionary power, without which the whole cause was obviously out of the question. The long policy of the Party was to have a further extension in 1930. However, the CCP was not successful in the movement of the territory and the Comintern, in their own words, were concerned about the situation of the territory, and had much of the territory of the Comintern's control.
Upon their arrival in Pei-shih in 1925, the Communists were ordered to seek the re-establishment of a "united front" with the Kuomintang against the Japanese. Once again they found themselves required to put aside their desire for a revolution, to oscillate now and then to the left, but to call for a patriotic war against Japan. (The policy of the "united front" was popular from the time the Japanese began to overrun China. The Kuomintang, in a sense, had been under the influence of the Communist revolution ever since the Japanese began to occupy Manchuria.) In 1931, when the Japanese again invaded Manchuria, this policy was again followed. But the Communist leaders, in the main, believed themselves to have greater popular appeal than the Kuomintang, and believed they could use this appeal to influence the Japanese. (This is the same reason the Communists have employed in Eastern Europe, where they often use an anti-bolshevik major campaign against the Nationalists.)

Out of the Sian Incident, the Chinese Communists emerged in 1932 as the ascendant power in China, and as the Communist leaders set out to make their movement appear more legitimate by broadening their support, the Chinese Communist leaders began to build up their own army. The Chinese Communist leaders believed that they could use their movement to influence the Japanese, and to form a united front with the Kuomintang against Japan. They believed that they could use their army to influence the Japanese, and to form a united front with the Kuomintang against Japan.

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A READING LIST


Parrish, G., China's Communist Revolution, pp. 100-103, 105-106, 111-112.
CHAPTER 4
MILITARY AFFAIRS IN COMMUNIST CHINA

ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE CHINESE COMMUNIST ARMY

The Chinese Communists state that the Chinese Communist Army was officially founded on 1 August 1927. This day is known as the People’s Liberation Army Day, and is now celebrated as a national holiday. The Chinese ideograms for the numbers "1" and "2" standing for the first day of the eighth month, thus appear in the upper left corner of the People’s Liberation Army (PLA) flag on the PLA logo. The celebration of 1 August 1927 is that it marks the outbreak of the Nanchang Uprising, the first attempt by the Chinese Communist Party to seize power through armed resistance.

Nanchang Uprising

The Nanchang Uprising occurred about a month after the fall of the Hankow government and the subsequent expulsion of the Communists from the Kuomintang by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. At the time of the fall of the Hankow government, the Executive Committee of the Chinese Communist International (CCCI) had ordered the Chinese Communist Party to organise an independent Communist Army. The public reaction to the collapse of the Northern Expedition was largely responsible for the disintegration of the Hankow government, since it alarmed many of the non-Communists who had been active in supporting the Nationalists. When news of the fall of Hankow reached the Communist International, it promptly ordered the Chinese Communists to start armed uprisings. The result was that on 1 August 1927, some of the troops of the Kuomintang General Chang Fu-kai, under the command of two of his officers, Hu Long and Ye Hsiung, rebelled, taking Nanchang in a surprise attack. They had anticipated the capture of city for only five days when the Communists defended them, and drove them out into the countryside. Hu Long marched his troops to the Hunan-Hyephu border area, where he maintained his command until after the Long March in 1930. Ye Hsiung moved his forces into Nanking province, where they were to take part in the Canton Uprising of 11 to 18 December 1927, the second attempt of the Chinese Communist Party, on orders from the Communist International, to engage in armed revolt. It was to end as disastrously for the Communists as the Nanchang incident.

1927–1928

By the end of 1927 the breach between the Communists and the Kuomintang had clearly become definitive. The Communist element that had rebelled against the Nationalist army moved into Kiangsi province, and established a centre at Pu-yang-kang-shan, near the Hunan border. In May 1928 Ch’en Chu, the present Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese Communist Forces (CCF), joined forces with Mao Tse-tung and began the task of regrouping and developing the Chinese Communist Army. In a sense, indeed, the story of Mao Tse-tung’s rise to leadership in the Chinese Communist Party is simply the story of the rise to power of the Communist Army. Mao’s power has always been closely associated with Communist military power, since he has always stood closely upon military forces to issue both his control of the Communist Party and the Party’s control of China.
By taking advantage of the fact that Chung Kaishek was busy fighting the remaining northern war lords, the Communists were able to expand their base in Kansu and in eastern China. This was not the case during the first expedition — there were to be two others — against the Communists in Kansu. The Communists' ability to develop a semblance of a regular army, and Chung Kaishek's inability to control it when, on 13 September 1931, the Japanese invaded Manchuria.

1931-1937

After the armistice with Japan in May 1932, the Communists renewed its drive against the Nationalists in Kansu, but establishing a tight cordon around the Communists-outlined area and then slowly moving in to annihilate the Communist Forces. The Communist leaders, recognizing their own plight, asked everything on a major effort to break the Communists. This effort succeeded: On 29 October 1936, the Communists broke through the line encircling the Communist Forces, and started their infamous “Long March,” which later took them southwest into Hsiang Province.

The Communists maintained heavy forces during the Long March, ending up with only about one-third the number of men they had had when they set out. Even so, their Army emerged from the expedition a highly effective and skilled fighting force. It was during the sixty thousand mile March, for example, that it developed a series of rapid maneuvers and its great skill at guerrilla operations. Upon arrival in Hsiang, meanwhile, the Communists took as the first test on their ability to organize their Army and to maintain heavy forces in a semi-urban position. The suppression of the Long March forces in North China gave the Communists just the breathing space necessary for this operation, and by December 1936 the pressure had reached such a point that the Communists could no longer afford to use its main forces against the Communists. The Communist propaganda then turned the international situation to its advantage by implying that all dilatoriness in China must to fight the foreign “instead of fighting each other.” The turning point here was the Sino-Japanese incident of 25 December 1936, in connection with which the Communists were able to extract from the National government the promises they needed in order to maintain their own military forces indefinitely.

Sino-Japanese War

A period of uneasy collaboration between the Chinese Communists and the Kuomintang began, therefore, just before the Sino-Japanese War broke out on 7 July 1937. One aspect of this collaboration was the attempt to incorporate the Communist Army, seemingly at least, into the forces of the Central Government. Another aspect was the Long March. The Nationalists were engaged, as usual, in the suppression of the Communists, and the Kuomintang tried to make use of this by encouraging the Communists on the assumption that the Communists would be more useful to the Nationalists than to the Japanese. This, of course, was the case, for the Communists had a number of other military objectives in mind and decided to cooperate with the Nationalists in order to take advantage of the situation.

The Sino-Japanese War progressed, relations between the Communists and the Nationalists became more and more strained. Although the first years saw the Communists record not only their own military successes but also substantial advances against the Nationalists, they had to do so with the cooperation of the Nationalists. The latter, however, were not satisfied with the limited successes achieved by the Communists, and in 1945, they turned on the Communists and began to campaign against them. The result of this conflict, which lasted until 1949, was the establishment of two separate China governments, each claiming to be the legitimate representative of the Chinese people.
In November 1938, a still further recognition plan was put into effect, to speed up the process of centralization. Previously each area command had had as many divisions of three or four as he could muster. It was now decided to recognize all their forces as a single National Army, under direct central control, and so the end of the referee's recognition was regarded as ending with the division at the staff level. Servicemen were issued with insignia of the Fifth Army. Their diviisions were given designations from 1 to 200, and the ranks of division commanders from 1 to 100.

With this move the air phase began its recognized formal status. The National People's Liberation Army formed the Fourth Field Army, and was assigned the number of the Fifth Army. A new division was formed at the Twentieth Army, 500 miles west out of its former command, and the command for the Thirty-third and the Thirty-Fifth was moved to Nanfeng, covering the southern coast of China.

Organizations of the People's Liberation Army

The National People's Liberation Army became the China People's Liberation Army as a result of this move. It was recognized as the Fourth National Army, and was headquarters at Nanfeng, covering the southern coast of China. The National People's Liberation Army became the North China Army Group, under the direct control of the Peking headquarters of the People's Liberation Army. The North China Army Group is often improperly called the Fifth Field Army. It contains of twelve areas (the Fifth-Third through the Seventeenth).
The CMC of the PLA is divided into three main units, or bureaus: Political Affairs, the General Staff, and Rear Services. It is the Political Affairs Bureau that stamps the PLA as a typical Communist and totalitarian organization, but it is through its activities that the Party conducts its political indoctrination of all PLA troops. The Propaganda Department of the Bureau, for example, determines what books the troops shall read and what films and concerts the soldiers shall attend."

**TABLE 2**

**INTEGRATION OF MILITARY CONTROL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civil Administration</th>
<th>Military Command</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Central Committee of the CPC</td>
<td>The Central Command of the PLA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Field Commands**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field Command</th>
<th>Military Areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>Northeast, South, East, Central-South, North</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Northwest, Southeast, East, Central-South, North</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Northwest, Southeast, East, Central-South, North</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>Northwest, Southeast, East, Central-South, North</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each Field Army Commander also commands a Military Area. Since he is at the same time chairman of the Military Administration Committee in each region, he rules all three. Thus the military commanders dominate the regions and provinces.

Criteria meetings, and directs all internal security activities. The People's Movement Department is responsible for integrating the activities of the Army with civilian affairs, and bringing to the attention of the public the Army's role in public affairs. Thus the Political Affairs Bureau is responsible not only for political propaganda within the Army but also for the Army's propaganda to the general public. But it is not a mere public relations and information department. It is one of the most powerful groups in all of China, with an authority that extends not only to every corner of the Army but also to direct control of many aspects of civilian life.

The second Bureau is the General Staff, which is divided into seven staff sections: Operations, Intelligence, Communications, General Affairs (Administration), Unit Affairs (Personal, or Li Li function), Training and Military Schools, and Criminal Materials. It

should be noted that the General Staff does not include the functions usually associated with supply (Li Li function), being covered by the Rear Services Headquarters. Some observers believe, moreover, that this low-level breakdown of staff functions has notably impaired the efficiency of the General Staff, partly by making difficult the integration of planning and operations, partly by encouraging unnecessary competition and conflict which in turn have made it possible to “split responsibility” for inefficient planning.

**TABLE 3**

**ORGANIZATION OF THE PLA'S HEADQUARTERS AND STAFF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Staff</th>
<th>Rear Services BQ</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operations Department</td>
<td>Political Department</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inspection</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Division</td>
<td>Finance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>Supply Department</td>
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<td>Department</td>
<td>Clothing</td>
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<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>Bedding</td>
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<tr>
<td>Department</td>
<td>New Uniforms</td>
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<tr>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>Other Supplies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Department</td>
<td>Office Supplies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Union</td>
<td>Supplemental</td>
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<tr>
<td>Division</td>
<td>Etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>Department</td>
<td>Office</td>
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<td>Training</td>
<td>Health Services</td>
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<td>and</td>
<td>Medical School</td>
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<td>Education</td>
<td>Field Hospitals</td>
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<td>Medical Supplies</td>
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<td>South Field Army</td>
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<td>West Field Army</td>
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<td>Field Army</td>
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<td>165,000</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the total numbers of personnel in the PLA for each of the years indicated.
Second Field Army. The Second Field Army was formed out of the old Central China People's Liberation Army and consisted mainly of units from that region. Its initial attack was launched in December 1947, and it occupied most of the region in a matter of months. The Second Field Army was well organized and well equipped, and it had the advantage of operating in a region that was already under Communist control.

Third Field Army. The Third Field Army was formed out of the old Central China People's Liberation Army and consisted mainly of units from that region. Its initial attack was launched in December 1947, and it occupied most of the region in a matter of months.

Fourth Field Army. The Fourth Field Army was formed out of the North China People's Liberation Army and consisted mainly of units from that region. Its initial attack was launched in December 1947, and it occupied most of the region in a matter of months.
Most of the Fourth Field Army's men are from Shanxi, and other joined the New Fourth during the Japanese War or were recruited in Manchuria after the war. A large percentage of the Chinese peasants in Manchuria were recruited from Volunteers, along with both regular National Army troops and former Japanese or Japanese. (The Volunteers are in many cases, which are of doubtful utility.)

The Fourth Field Army has been in occupation since the beginning of this year, Nan's troops, Chinese, operating in the north and the north, and the New Fourth, which is the main Chinese force in the Korean war. The major attack, the North Korean Nationalist Army, and the New Fourth, which is the main Chinese force in the Korean war. It is not clear whether the New Fourth, which is the main Chinese force in the Korean war.

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work, and partly due to the practice of living off the local food for many of its requirements.

Even so, this practice is remarkable, and this is only a view of the extent to which the Chinese
army men do many things that, in the US, would be done by machines. What it means,
chlorine, is that the combat troops themselves perform numerous functions that, in other

TABLE 6

DIVISION ORGANIZATION IN THE PLA

(Infantry Division)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff Section</th>
<th>Political Section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operations</td>
<td>Propaganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Propaganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply</td>
<td>Distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsistence</td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Supply</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ordnance</td>
<td>Popular Movements</td>
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<td>Discipline (MP)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Political Training for Troops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Unit</td>
<td>Political Agenda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Training Center</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

These Industry

Guns

Rail Co

Transportation Co. Engineer Co Signal Co

Arm Co

Artillery

Observation and Communications

Field Artillery

Grenades

Artillery

No. 1 Heavy Weapon Battery

military, are involved in service units. (For example, the Chinese use only 80mm mortars and

TABLE 7

REGIMENTAL ORGANIZATION IN THE PLA

Infantry Brigade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Political Section</th>
<th>Supply Section</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Artillery</td>
<td>Operations</td>
<td>Clothing</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>Infantry</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Finance</td>
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<td>A</td>
<td>Infantry</td>
<td>Service</td>
<td>Food</td>
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<td>A</td>
<td>Infantry</td>
<td>Personnel</td>
<td>Issue</td>
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<td>Infantry</td>
<td>Artillery</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
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<td>A</td>
<td>Infantry</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>Unification</td>
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<td>A</td>
<td>Infantry</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


increase firepower, but the use of five-pound per one is kept low by inadequate ammunition.

These are differences basic from division to division, but the general practice is to have

three more forward and also a reserve with something else and are expected to retrieve

the weapons of wounded or dead comrades.
People's Militia

The Chinese Communists have sought to build a reserve of military trained personnel in the form of a People's Militia. Initially this was to constitute a citizen army and even, as some associates suggested the end of the China-Japanese War, to replace the regular army altogether. Even during the Kwantung War period however, the Military Committee developed a series of military organizations, and while the regime has launched a program backing to the expansion of a considerable scale, there is no talk of its cost replacing the regular army or even of its engaging in major combat operations as distinct units.

The major joint functions of the People's Militia is to provide manpower for the PLA. As a broad advisory structure, the PLA tends to seek retained or drafted into the ranks. Sometimes retired, whole units of the Militia have been called up by the PLA on replacements.

Recruit the place for the People's Militia state that all able-bodied men from 18 to 35 years of age be required to join the Militia. But there are very few if any areas of China in which this policy has been carried out.

The part of universal conscription by the Militia does not appear to have been developed by military considerations e.g., that of maintaining a force of maximum size for the PLA, but rather by the hope that getting everyone into the Militia would at least keep the regime's internal security problem. The Communist militarization program, for example, would by its very mechanics incline the entire population of potential enemy of any military action, and it could be possible to punish those who inform or subvert other areas of military interest. In short, the People's Militia should not be thought of as a serious tactical or potential enemy of the regime's Chinese Policy.

It is a major policy and international organization, capable of a pinch of supplying manpower for the PLA. This is home ported by the type of training the masses of the Militia receive, which is wholly inadequate from the standpoint of modern warfare.

Political Control in the PLA

The organizational structure of the PLA at all levels reflects a deep concern, on the part of Red Chinese leaders, about ideological subordination and internal security, both as distinct problems and as different aspects of the same problem. Their Political Officers or Commissioners have been placed on all levels of the PLA, and assist in political authority by setting up an independent chain of command for their operations.

The first and most important function of the Political Officer is one that he supports the party of the Communist line within the organization to which he is assigned. He has the power to control and monitor particular aspects of the party's line and to discipline its members. The Political Officer has the power to appoint and remove party officials and to discipline party members. He also has the power to control the party's line and to discipline its members. He also has the power to control the party's line and to discipline its members.

Because of this, the Political Officer is the first line of control for all aspects of the party's line, including the political, economic, and social aspects of the party's line. He is also the first line of control for all aspects of the party's line, including the political, economic, and social aspects of the party's line.

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In conclusion, the Chinese Communist Party has a strong control over the PLA, and this control is supported by the Political Officers who are placed at all levels of the PLA to ensure that the party's line is followed. The Political Officers are responsible for ensuring that the party's line is followed, and they have the power to discipline party members and control the party's line.
On balance, it seems improbable that the feasible motives of the Political Officers will outweigh the negative ones, especially in combat conditions, when it becomes the task of the Political Officers to urge the men to greater sacrifices. The Political Officers are more often than not available as a result because they are with the Army but not part of it; because the men that they desire to persuade are remote, as far as the troops are concerned, from a non-belligerent zone. They are more vulnerable again because the demands being putatively satisfied, will often have morale, and the men, whose point of view in combat conditions can be counteracted as to be highly militarily, will not be the type to demand the utmost from themselves. The role of the Political Officers affords numerous opportunities to enfeeble psychological strength against the PLA. For most effective results, however, direct attacks on them should be avoided in favor of all-out exploitation of the opportunities created in the PLA by their very existence. Psychological warfare campaign will, for example, move in rigorously on the troops; anxiety about internal security agencies. Any attempt to attack in this manner will thereby the security of the individual soldier and of the unit to which he belongs. The Political Officers, moreover, are aware in any tight situation to make pressure to the troops that cannot be kept, and those that are not kept will militarily and psychologically useful. It is certain that the role of the Political Officers can be ignored if the PLA are to be effective. The Political Officers will have reduced somewhat the psychological quality of the Chinese soldier already, moreover, the latter will be much more to influence and influence on the political level that he would have been if the PLA had no such officers.

Prepared of the PLA

Much has been written about the alleged traditional antics on the part of the Chinese towards military life and war. The point may or may not be valid, but as far as the entire periods of Chinese history are concerned, even if it is not a mistake to assume that the principle-activity of PLA may not make good soldiers, and that the activity of the military officer in the Chinese society, in that officer, the upper classes and the lower educated still feel that military service should be left to the present and serving classes. But the Chinese have had no experience in the systematic activities of this type of army. The PLA has been able to instigate to its troops a level of pride and discipline which well fits its purpose. The officer is the leader of his unit, and has the power to impose the individual soldier to maintain the security of the unit to which he belongs. The point of view of the Chinese toward the political officer is that he should be an officer, and that he is not to be expected to have the same qualities or the same skills as the unit to which he belongs. The Chinese are not expected to have the same qualities or the same skills as the unit to which they belong.

In the PLA, the Political Officers have no such motive to impose the political officer to maintain the security of the unit to which he belongs. The Chinese are not expected to have the same qualities or the same skills as the unit to which they belong.

...
the views may vary in the long run, but these fundamentally conservative characteris-
tics and attitudes. But psychological factors can safely assume that the qualifi-
cation and cadres are more important and critical than those that they have in common.

Conscripts and Period of Service

The PLA has no fixed period of service, so that the individual who is induced into it
can look forward to no specific date at which he will be free to return to civilian life. One
feature of the Army is physically no longer capable of performing any duties. There is not even any organized system of release, and although Article 85 of the Common
Program states that "volunteers" might receive special consideration at the time of
retirement, it seems improbable that any of them take such provisions actually. It is
known, moreover, that the "Commercial" grades, in their demobilisation programs, stress
this individualistic feature of the Commercial program, which augments the fact that no one expects
the released men to return.

Men who are no longer physically fit for military service are either permitted to go
home or are drafted into the Labor Battalions, which although formerly part of the mili-
tary establishment are not under the same military as. (These Labor Battalions are
used on large government projects like conservation, river control, dam construction, and
construction and highway building.) Life in these battalions is much more like that of the
soldier than that of the civilian.

One of the principal reasons why the Communists have introduced an organized
system of discharging men from the Army is to prevent them from having the chance to be
involved in any new mobilization campaigns. Although the Army is relatively small,
the need for replacements in the Korean war has driven the PLA back on the "keep
the payroll" system, especially in the past year. The People's Militia had proved unable
to supply the needed manpower. For the most part the quota system is fiction.

Pay

The pay PA members receive is as low as it is to be expected. The PLA is to be
considered as a "national" defense rather than for its own sake. The pay of a Private is
unknown, but the rank and file of the PLA are paid at about 35 yuan a month. This is
not enough to support a family, but it is sufficient to keep one in the Army. If a man
wishes to stay in the Army, he has to be willing to do so, because the PLA is not
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of a man's compliance with military regulations. Both the Political Commissars and the military commanders have the power to punish, and practically speaking there is little difference between the type of punishment in the two branches. But the power of the Political Commissars is largely concentrated in the hands of their local representatives called "commissioners". The punishment is usually more severe in the military branch because the political branch has fewer, if any, effective means of enforcing its decrees. But the political branch has the power to recall the local representatives who do not comply with its orders.

The PVA, or Chinese People's Volunteer Army, has a similar system of political and military control. The Political Commissars in the PVA, however, are not as powerful as their counterparts in the PLA. The PVA is a much more decentralized organization, with local and provincial units having a great deal of autonomy. The Political Commissars in the PVA are more like advisors and mediators than the local representatives in the PLA.

The British military, on the other hand, has a much more centralized system of political and military control. The structure of the British military is similar to that of the PLA, with a clear division between the political and military branches. However, the British political branch has much less power than its counterpart in the PLA, and the military branch has much more control over the political branch.

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had three under his direct control. Today, all the cadets are under the direction of the GHQ of the PLA. (The central academy is located in Peking, and has an enrollment of about 40,000 cadets.)

The fact that the cadets are under GHQ shows that they are thought of as the future officers of the PLA, for all that the training lasts only for a year or two.

The training emphasizes political education; instruction is divided among the PLA in order to make the cadets politically loyal to the regime. Life in the military academy is no less severe than that of the PLA, and the discipline is no less strict. The instruction in military science is, in general, of a highly elementary character. The tactics and strategy taught in the PLA during the Civil War campaigns seem to be the subjects taught in the cadet academy, and the cadets are taught the same military tactics that were used in the CCP's war against Chiang Kai-shek.

The information on the PLA in the Chinese literature is based on the assumption that the PLA is the People's Liberation Army. This is the People's Liberation Army, established by the Chinese Communists in 1927, and it is the only army in China.

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for transporting hospital cases. The more presence of so many stretcher bearers is said, incidentally, to be quite surprising to troops about to go into combat, since this is an excellent reminder of the PLA's willingness to accept vast numbers of casualties in any number of operations.

Psychological warfare should continually stress the theme that the Communists are incapable of taking care of their wounded, and that we are in a position to offer medical assistance to all who need it.

Logistics

Until the latter stages of the Civil War the Chinese Communist had little need to concern themselves about problems of logistics. The Red Army lived, during its guerrilla phase, entirely off the land, and purchased its specifically military supplies as the Nationalist supply system faltered from time to time. The fact that it was remembered too fondly to discuss the pittance, whose support was newly needed in the guerrilla campaign, except as their feelings could be wasted with pesticides of the-reciprocal they would receive when the Communists came to power. The Communists paid for such goods and services as they took from the villagers in their own currency, or in foodstuffs. This gave many of the peasants reason for supporting the Communists, more so perhaps than the Party's agrarian program. Only if the Communists came to power would they hope eventually to make the value of the paper promise they ended up holding. At the outbreak of the war, the Chinese Communists, without any specific program of supply of their own, were able to take to their total stock of equipment, so that at the end of the war they had more supplies than at the beginning. After the war they obtained large quantities of former Japanese military equipment — especially in Manchuria, where they were helped in this way by the Soviet Army. And during the Civil War they acquired a good deal of former US Army equipment from defeated Nationalist units.

The need to depend upon the enemy for supplies dictated, to some extent, the strategy and tactics employed by the Communists, e.g., their refusal to engage in positional war, and their practice of first capturing a city, then seizing all of its supplies, and then going on to conquer it.

When the Communists decided to reorient the PLA into a national army, they forced to adopt more conventional ways of handling their logistical problem. One great advantage they have had in this respect, however, is that many Chinese armies of the past owed so effective as they might have been precisely because their own vast expanse of territory made the logistics of the national army manageable. The Communist regime had to devise to reduce the number of men in the field. But, since the Communists were wide-ranging in their effectiveness at least the better Communist units. Since then, the Chinese have been able to supply certain minimum needs of essential material, merely improved as a result of the new arrangement.

As has been mentioned, the Communists also sought to make the PLA partially self-supporting by having it undertake its own production activities. After the Communist regime has reorganized the internal economy, it was impossible to have the troops live off the land as they had when they were actually fighting the Nationalists. In other words, the Chinese Communists have seen it fit to offer the central government to assume the full responsibility for the military establishment, as central governments do in other countries. Making the PLA partially self-supporting means not only reduced outlays for the actual reorganization required, but also reduced experiences.

There are no problems of procurement and transportation. On the other hand, the lack supports in local industries will only mean that the given production area does not exist. And even when it does exist, there are some results that must be cut off; by the end of the Red Army. This has been the fact of producing a steady supply of equipment, the PLA's real logistical problem, is required to meet immediate needs. For one thing, equipment and materials needed under the conditions of actual combat. In the second place, until that time for depleting the area of supplies that can be transferred to other areas only by considerable naval and air transport, the PLA's logistic problem has not been one no one but the air force has a real business in air transport. This is obviously important because the Communists have been known in terms of current production. This is similarly important because the Communists have been known in terms of current production. The PLA is not attempting to rely on any possible upon the troops providing for their own needs. It is now recognized, however, that this is a rough-and-ready method of avoiding problems of logistics. Although probably no one will admit the Communist regime feels strong enough financially to support the military establishment that direct support. The reason for the Communist's attempt to hold down military expenditures is that they are anxious about reducing expenditures, i.e., those having to do with modernization and mechanization of the forces — both of which will add to the PLA logistical problem. For there is a great difference between the logistical needs of a guerrilla army and those of a modern military force.

The PLA's modernization program has, among other things, demonstrated another one of China's major weaknesses as a military power. The Chinese cannot produce and source their own logistics and maintenance equipment. Even in Manchuria, where they were helped by the Soviet Army, and during the Civil War they acquired a good deal of former US Army equipment. The PLA has no such help in its own forces and equipment; even if it has an advanced system of highways that is more than China's.

The efficiency of China's transportation system has allowed the PLA to establish supply depots all over the country and, given the difficulty of moving things from one to a safer, under-transported against getting too many supplies in a single place. The PLA may, indeed, find itself in a very awkward position if it has to modernize any of its equipment before the economy can give it other logistical support. There is a real danger that over-rapid mechanization will seriously reduce its effective fighting power.

In an attempt to overcome its logistical problems, the PLA has recently expanded its staff at Peking, called the Army, which formerly operated with very little in the way of a reinforced staff, has now become heavily loaded with bureaucrats. The appearance in China of Russian advisors and specialists has associated this trend. This is all the more important because expansion of staff personnel can never solve the PLA's real logistical problems, even if the expansion takes place in the latter's name. These problems are tied up with fundamental economic and social conditions in China, and will persist until China has made more extensive industrialization and less dependent upon a predominantly agricultural economy.

The PLA's major strengths in the field of logistics are: (1) The tight control exercised by the Communist regime over the people of China. This enables them to muster very large numbers of men for military purposes, and thus to secure almost unlimited amounts of personnel to logistical operations if and when they are needed. (2) The Union soldier's
The PLA does not require the large numbers or quantities of supplies necessary in an American or European army. The fact that its operations have thus far been confined to China or immediately contiguous areas means that it is not as dependent on long supply lines. The fact that it is still largely unreformed means that it has many logistical problems, both at home and abroad. The primary problem is that of supply from distant areas. The most important issue is that of supplies, not of troops. The PLA's logistics remain primitive. The principal weaknesses are revealed by the following: (a) The PLA has not organized its air force in such a way as to make it capable of supplying large numbers of troops in the field. (b) The transportation facilities cannot transport large-scale movements of troops and supplies does not exist over much of China. (c) The lack of resources means that the PLAs' logistics are primitive. (d) The PLA's logistics are primitive. (e) The lack of resources means that the PLAs' logistics are primitive. (f) The PLA's logistics are primitive. (g) The lack of resources means that the PLAs' logistics are primitive. (h) The PLA's logistics are primitive. (i) The lack of resources means that the PLAs' logistics are primitive. (j) The lack of resources means that the PLAs' logistics are primitive.
The PLA, by comparison with other services, is highly dependent on and skilled in the use of modern weapons and equipment. This is especially true of the PLA Air Force, which has been rapidly expanding since the 1950s and is now among the most modern in the world. The PLA has made significant advances in the area of air defense, with its air defense network covering a wide area of the country. The PLA also has a strong command and control system, which allows it to coordinate its forces effectively in both defensive and offensive operations. The PLA's rapid expansion and modernization have been possible due to the support of the Chinese government, which has invested heavily in the military in recent years. The PLA has also benefited from its close relationship with Russia, which is seen as a key ally in the struggle against the United States. Overall, the PLA is a formidable force that is well-equipped and well-trained to carry out its mission of protecting the Chinese state and its people.
still likely to get their troops to perform notable feats of marching, and did we probably where strategic maneuvers were concerned, they often found themselves needing new tactics.

Another potential factor that influences the strategy and tactics of the PLA is its invariable reliance upon defense for its main force posture. The PLA has built itself, for tactical purposes, around the defile and the mountain; it is often the most likely to be used as a disordered force and in operations of small, limited scope. Therefore, the PLA is heavily dependent upon the terrain upon which the enemy is fighting, and the terrain is clearly one of the most immediate factors that will influence the enemy's actions. The PLA's strategy is based upon the assumption that the enemy will be forced to fight on its own terms, and that the PLA will be able to exploit any weaknesses in the enemy's defensive posture.

The PLA's dependence on offense as the major source of its power also stems from its limitations in terms of its own forces. It has a large number of units, but they cannot be brought to bear in large numbers against the enemy. Therefore, the PLA's strategy is based upon the assumption that the enemy will be forced to fight on its own terms, and that the PLA will be able to exploit any weaknesses in the enemy's defensive posture.

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always stressed the inability of the Nationalists to protect and defend the "people" and always got across the idea that the Communists could win both victories wherever and whenever they chose. Though initially inferior in power to the Nationalists and hard pressed by them, they were able to maintain the initiative all along frontier.

The Communists realized, however, that they would never be able to gain control of the entire country if they continued to practice only a land-and-air type of warfare. Focusing the enemy would throw him into imbalance and favor him, but it could never achieve the major victory that would give the Communists control of the country. Even as they continued the tactics of complicated guerrilla warfare, therefore, the Communists were preparing for major war. They, with the acquisition of heavy weapons from the Russians after 1946, sharply shifted over to a more orthodox form of warfare. However, as noted, because of the all guerrilla nature and strategy still existed in the PLA. The most important of these is the emphasis of the "short attacks," which appears to be one of the major military concepts in the PLA. The short attack consists of limited operations, directed as weak points in the enemy's position, in which the objective is not the destruction of specific enemy forces. Concentration may be either at a single point in the enemy's position or at several points. The objective is not to obtain either a breakthrough or envelopment but rather to annihilate specific elements of the enemy. This may be followed by withdrawals for regrouping or by a series of new short attacks.

It may be assumed that much of the strategic thinking of the Communists will be changed as a result of the modernization of the PLA and the immediate direction and training of the Soviet advisors. Soviet doctrine will, almost certainly, become the doctrinal basis of the PLA. But this will take time, and in the short run it appears that the Soviet advisors are trying, above all, to add to the industry power of the PLA the supporting power of artillery. The results are visible in the Korean war, where the PLA has been noticeably stronger because of the coordination of artillery attack with infantry assaults. Up to the present, however, the Russians have not succeeded in greatly modifying the PLA's weapons systems, and it must be assumed that this will remain in force until the Kremlin men in a position to provide the armament necessary to alter drastically the PLA's abilities in this field.

A SELECTED READING LIST
Carlson, Ernest H. Two Years of China, pp. 8, 9, Dool, Mosey, and Company, New York, 1941.
Nevitt, W. "The Chinese Army," Nation, 150, 1, 1941.
the Southern Military Government under Sun Yat-sen from 1916 to 1918, and in 1918 was commander of the Cadet Corps of the Whampoa Military Academy. Presumably it was at Whampoa that General Chang and Chao E-kuo, then Director of Political Training at the Academy, established their friendship, which has lasted Chang during the past several years to be a valuable supporter in Kumming-Communist conviction.

By 1920 Chang had joined the Northern Expedition as Chief of Staff of the 3rd Division of the Nationalist Army, but left China in 1917 for travels in the United States and Europe. Returning to China in 1924 he served for three years as Director of the General Military College. Throughout the 1920s he held various army commands and in 1927 was elected to membership in the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, a position he held until 1928. Chang was Chairman of the Kiangsu Provincial Government in 1920 and 1926, and served in 1932 as a delegate to the National Congress of Chiang Kai-shek.

In the same year he became Director of the Political Department of the National Military Council and Secretary-General of the National Military Council. Chang was engaged on negotiations with the Communists from 1924 to 1928, the latter year he was a member of the Nationalist party's three-man military executive committee. In late 1934 he was sent to Sinkiang Province to negotiate with native elements that had rebelled in 1934, established an autonomous regime in the northeastern section of the province, and were calling for complete independence. These negotiations, concluded with Sinhs as representatives as mediators in Yinchuan (Shensi), culminated in an agreement signed in 1935 giving the 11 group considerable representation in the provincial government. Prior to the Yinchuan agreement, Chang had been appointed Director of the Chinghai-Yunnan's Northwest Headquarters, a post he held until May 1936. He served from May 1936 until April 1937 as member of the Sinkiang Provincial Government, and the improved relations between the Nationalist Government and the 11 group which existed in Sinkiang from 1934 to 1946 have been attributed to his efforts.

In early 1938 Chang was one of those approached by the Russian Ambassador to China with an offer of mediation in the Chinese Civil War, and after the fall of Malakoff in October 1937 he initiated a rapprochement with the Communists. He was active from that time until April 1939 in negotiations to end the Civil War. He was appointed Minister without Portfolio in both the Nationalist Kiangnan and Hu Yinchuen's cabinets, and early in 1939 negotiated with the Russians regarding economic cooperation in Sinkiang. He was appointed head of the Nationalist delegations for peace negotiations with the Communists in Yinchuan in the spring of 1939, and following the breakdown of the conversation, remained in Peking, working with the Communist authorities. He reportedly was the person responsible for the general surrender to the Communists of the Sinkiang provincial authorities, and took an active part in the September-October plenary sessions of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Though occupying several important government posts, Chang has been characterized by a Russian biographer in Moscow as an example of the type of individual whose influence on the regime will end when the Chinese Communists have sufficiently solidified their power. 

**Communist Source**

His coming came to Wen-pao, Natick of China News, Amsterdam. Sixty-two years of age (1923), no graduate of Peking University, his command over the Communist Army, the Chinese Communist Party, the General Staff of the Kiangsu-Ning-hui, Governor of Hunan Province, and for a long time Minister of the Communist Government. After the War of Resistance ended, he was transferred to the post of Director of (President Chiang Kai-shek's) Northwest Headquarters and conseque

Chang Hsiung 唐生

[Chinese text]

**Shanghai, Central People's Government Council, Vice-Chairman (one of four), Commissar of Political and Legal Affairs, State Administration Council, member, Standing Committee, National Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, member, representing "national democratic gentlemen," Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, Vice-Chairman (one of four), China New Political Science Research Association, member, Department of Political Sciences, Tsinghua University, member, Shanghai Friendship Association, Chang Hsiung, Chinese-American-educated political philosopher, was born in Chongqing, China, in 1900. He received his B.A. from the University of London and his Ph.D. from Columbia. In 1929, Chang was Director of the Bureau of International Exchange, Ministry of Education. From 1927 to 1929, he served as the Director of the Department of Higher Education of the Kuomintang. He was a professor at National Central University from 1927 to 1941, and has been a professor at National Tsinghua University from 1941 to 1949. He has been head of the Political Science Department of the 11th-century Associated University. He was a member of the National People's Congress, but declined to attend the 1931, 1935, and 1939 sessions, reportedly because he thought them futile and partial. In Nanking, Chang, a leader in liberal circles, was outspoken in his criticism of the Chiang regime. Noelle for his integrity and freedom, he was reported in 1945 as a strong supporter of "American-style liberal ideas."

Chang was one of the professors who took refuge in the American Consulate in Kun-ning at the time of the nationalization of the Bank in 1948. Returning to Peking after the Japanese surrender, Chang renewed his criticism of the Nationalist regime and was one of the leaders in the campaign against the Kuomintang in China. Since the Communist occupation of Peking has been active in current post-war political and educational movements. In April 1949 Chang was a member of the Chinese delegation attending the Prague Congress of Political Parties. He served as a member of the Commission on Higher Education of the North China People's Government and as a member of the Standing Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference's Proprietorial Committee. During the sessions of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, Chang was a standing member of the Conference's President. In November 1949, he was among those instrumental in the establishment of the China New Political Science Research Association. 

Communist Source

[Chinese text]
Cheng Pucheng (284)  81

US Source
Member, Central People's Government Council; member and Minister of Communications, State Administration Council; member, Committee of Foreign and Friendly Relations of the State Administration Council; Chairman, China Pioneers and Workers Democratic Party; member, Central Executive Committee, China Democratic League, and head, League's Organization Department; member, Standing Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference's National Committee; member, representing the China Democratic League, China People's Political Consultative Conference; member, Standing Committee, China New Political Science Research Association; member, Shanghai Friendship Association; publisher of the Kungkung Liangh, Peking organ of the China Democratic League.

A renowned political and Third Force leader, Cheng Pucheng was born in Tianjin, Hebei, in 1905. After graduation from Peking University, he studied philosophy at the University of Berlin from 1922 to 1925 and during this period in Germany he was closely associated with the KPD. Though reputedly a member of the Berlin branch of the Communist Party, Cheng denied this, however, and admitted an interest in Marxism. Returning to China, he taught at the Shanghai Provincial Normal School, and later he served as head of the Propaganda Section of the General Affairs Department of the Kuomintang in Wuhan. In 1927 he was dismissed from the Kuomintang for leftist leanings. He was one of the founders of the Third Force (the Chinese Pioneers and Workers Democratic Party), which grew out of the Kuomintang's Communist splinter group in 1927. Cheng participated in the Peking Revolution (1925), and then left for Japan when it was suppressed. Shortly after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937, back in China, he was named a member of the First People's Political Council. He was later dismissed from the council because he criticized the government at the time of the New Fourth Army Incident in 1938, but he regained his membership in the PCC by 1941.

Long an advocate of coalition government, in July 1945 Cheng was one of the PCC members sent to Yenan (Fushan) by the Kuomintang to extend the Communist as the extra-parliamentary representative of the previous National Assembly. He later was a member of the Kuomintang-sponsored Political Consultative Conference and was named at that body's meetings of being a red-seed for the Communists. He led the Kuomintang delegation after the Chinese Democratic League was founded in October 1947, and Cheng Liu refused to attend the Kuomintang's last meeting in May 1949. Shortly thereafter, he went to Peking where he served as a member of the Standing Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference and as the chairman of the Extraordinary Committee of the National People's Congress in September and October 1949. He was a member of the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress in September and October 1949.

Cheng Pucheng (284)  81

US Source
Member, Central People's Government Council; member and Minister of Communications, State Administration Council; member, Committee of Foreign and Friendly Relations of the State Administration Council; Chairman, China Pioneers and Workers Democratic Party; member, Central Executive Committee, China Democratic League, and head, League's Organization Department; member, Standing Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference's National Committee; member, representing the China Democratic League, China People's Political Consultative Conference; member, Standing Committee, China New Political Science Research Association; member, Shanghai Friendship Association; publisher of the Kungkung Liangh, Peking organ of the China Democratic League.

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Expedition Government. After the split between the Wenhan and Zongying governments, he rejoined the Revolutionary Army to Ningshi and then withdrew with Ye Xiaoting. He later joined the Kuomintang. Finally he reentered Shanghai and took refuge to the foreign concessions there. With Ye Xiaoting and his associates, he laid the foundation for the Third Party. During the War of Resistance, he took part in the People's Political Consultative Conference. Later he joined Cheng Fan and others in organizing the Democratic League. Represents the Democratic League in the People's Political Consultative Conference. Ministry of Communications of the Central People's Government (1950).
Japanese surrender, he was finally released. He attended the 1st People's Political Consultative Conference as a representative of the Democratic League. Later he returned to the North.

Chang Tz'u-ch'ien's academic career began with the study of the idealistic philosophy of Immanuel Kant. Later he shifted his interest to the writings of George Berkeley. He went to Japan, where he acquired a thorough understanding of Kant. Upon his return to China his thought underwent a great change. He became interested in Nietzscheans and inclined toward materialism. He has participated in the People's Political Consultative Conference on behalf of the Chinese Democratic League and has been a member of the Standing Committee of the People's Political Consultative Conference. He is a Member of the Committee of Culture and Education of the Central People's Government (1950).

Chang Tz'u-ch'ien (Alas: Lo Fu)
 Chronicle
Member, Central Committee of the Communist Party, Communist Party; member, Northeast People's Government; member, Northeast Bureau, Communist Party; designated head, Central People's Government's delegate, United Nations and concurrently representative, Security Council (in expectation of future accreditation).

Chang was a great man, during the 1930s he was most commonly known as Lo Fu, in common use of the Communist Party's prominent Marxist scholars and one of the most formidable scholars. He was born in 1890 in Neihsia, Kiangsi (now in Shanghai), of a wealthy literate family. He studied at the Wuxing Middle School in Shanghai, and then attended the Yellow River Conservancy School in Nanjing. In 1911 he had to leave school for financial reasons, and then continued his studies at the Cheung Hsun Book Company and the Communism Press. While an editor of the Communist Press, Chang became acquainted with Li Tsung-jen, Mao Tse-tung, and his brother Shi Tao. From 1920 to 1921, as an editor of the Communist Press in the period of leadership that Chang was director of the party, Chang was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China in 1922 and later was appointed as Chief of the Department of Propaganda of the Communist Party during Ch'en En-lai's period of leadership that Chang was director of the party. Chang spent an entire month in Shanghai in 1923 and later that same year came to Peiping, where for a year and a half he worked on a Chinese-language newspaper and attended the University of California. Returning to China in 1925, he taught in several schools in the North and in 1928 joined the Communist Party in Shanghai. Chang was in Moscow from 1928 to 1930, studying first at Chegatsen University and then teaching at the Institute of Far Eastern Studies, and later at the Moscow Academy and the Foreign University. There, he became closely associated with Chen Shao-yu and Wang Chuan-hong. The two men are said to have been close associates of Wang Meihua, a former member of the Communist Party. They returned to China in 1933 with C. H. C. Huang and P. C. H. Huang, two of the Communist Party's most important leaders. They joined the Communist Party in 1933 and served in the Party's Central Committee. The party sent two men to the Soviet Union, where they became members of the Central Committee. In 1938, they were sent to the Soviet Union to negotiate the establishment of the Communist Party of China in 1938, and served as members of the Central Committee. The party sent two men to the Soviet Union, where they became members of the Central Committee.
During the September-October 1938 missions of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, he was a member of the Standing Committee of the Conference's President.

Communist Years

Native of Shiniu Island. More than fifty years of age (1952). In his boyhood, he studied in the Army Primary School at Canton. Later, he graduated from the fifth class of Pengxiang Military Academy, and entered Kuangtung, where he served in the staff section of Yang K'ang-ho's 3rd Division of the Kuangtung Army. When Mr. Sun Yat-sen organized the National Revolutionary Army, and General Li Chi-k'uo assumed the command of the Fourth Army, Mr. Chao served as a staff officer with the rank of lieutenant colonel in the Fourth Army. Later he was transferred to the post of Chief of Staff of the Seventh Army.

When the Northern Campaign reached the Yangtze River, Chiang Kai-shek bestowed the rank of Major on Mr. Sun Yat-sen and adopted a semi-revolutionary policy. Mr. Chao, therefore, immediately participated in the Nanking coup d'état and started making his great contributions to the cause of the Chinese Revolution. Later, a central revolutionary base was established at Nanchang and he went to work there.

After the outbreak of the anti-Japanese war, the Red fighters remaining south of the Yangtze River were organized into a Fourth Army. Chao took an indirect route from the Northeast to the region south of the Yangtze River, and served in the army headquarters there. Later when the general headquarters of the People's Liberation Army ordered General Chao to establish the East China Military Zone, Chao appointed General Jao Shu-foh as Political Commissar and General Chao Yen-ku as Deputy Commissioner in charge and concurrently Chief of Staff for the region. Later, under General Chao's command and the intelligence guidance, the East China Liberation Armies advanced from Central Kiangsu into Hupei, engaging in the battle of Huai-hsian, the Yangtze River Drive, and the siege of Shanghai. The army in fact set the task for the anti-Japanese Resistance front, Governor of Kiangsu Province (1935).

CV from "Red" (Courtesy from: Chao-hsiang, C. S.

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council; member, People's Revolutionary Military Council; Commissioner, Third Field Army, Chinese People's Liberation Army; second secretary, East China Bureau, Communist Party; Mayor of Shanghai; Chairman, Shanghai Military Control Commission, President, East China Military and Political College, member, representing the East China Liberation Armies, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; member, Standing Committee, Shanghai General Labor Union, member, Non-Communist Associations, Commander, East China Military District, member, Eastern China Military Political Affairs Committee.

A high-ranking Communist general with a long record of field experience, Chao was born in 1898 in Pengxiang, Kweichow, of a wealthy farming family. Upon graduation from a technical high school in Chao, he became a member of the "worker-student" group that went to France in 1918. After preparatory work at schools in Paris, Lyon, and St. Germain, Chao studied chemistry at the University of Grenoble and together with Chen En-lai, Li Li-san, and others of the Chinese students became a member of the French branch of the Chinese Communist Party. Participation in a Chinese student movement caused him to be expelled from France in 1921, and upon his return to China he became a political worker in the latter of the Nanhai new-organized Yang Nien, founding and editing in Chongqing the leftist newspaper Hsing Shih Pao. Chao went to Peking in 1923. There he joined both the Communist and the Comintern Party and attended the Moscow University, from which he graduated in 1925. The same year, he proceeded to Canton, joining the Northern Expedition and serving as a member of the National Military Academy. Later he headed a military academy near Hankow. He joined the Communist Forces in Nanchang following the Kuomintang-Communist split of 1927, and accompanied the troops of Yeh Tsin and Ho Tsin in their march into Kuangtung Province. In 1928 he became Director of the Political Department of the Fourth Workers and Peasants Red Army commanded by Chu Teh, and during the period of the Kiangsi-Suiet organized and led various guerrilla groups. In 1931, Chao was elected to membership in the Kiangsi Soviet Central Committee and was appointed Chairman of the Kiangsi-Kuomintang Government.

He did not make the Long March, but commanded guerrilla troops in South China from 1932 to 1937, when he became political officer in command of the south-southern New Fourth Army commanded by Yeh Tsin. After the arrest of Yeh Tsin in 1941, Chao assumed the post of acting commander of the New Fourth Army and was appointed Commissar of the Fourth Army in 1941, a post he still holds, although the New Fourth Army has been reorganized several times. In 1944, he was designated the Third Field Army. Chao was elected to the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party at the Seventh National People's Congress held in Texas (Kowloon) in April 1949. In May 1949 his troops captured Shanghai and immediately followed the occupation he was appointed mayor of the city, as well as Chairman of the Shanghai Military Control Commission. He has been active in all Field Party activities and activities in Shanghai since that time. Chao was a member of the Propaganda Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference and during the planning stages of the establishment in September and October 1949 served as a member of the Standing Committee of the President.

Communist Years

Native of Wuhan. More than fifty years of age (1952). Like General Ni Ho-jong, Chao studied in France to become one of the "worker-student" group and was in a trained engineer. When he was preparing to enter a French school of electrical engineering, he joined the Socialist Youth Corps, the predecessor of the Chinese Communist Party, but before finishing his studies, he was deported by the French government. Returning in 1921, he resumed the Hsing Shih Pao (New Epoch Association) at Chongqing for two years. Later, he joined the Communist Party at Peking. In 1927 he went to the Soviet Region in Kiangsi. When the Red Army escaped west, he was left behind to conduct guerrilla warfare. As Commissar of the New Fourth Army, he defended several towns of thousands of revolutionary forces. During the War of Liberation, he was one distinguished victory after another in Shuchang, northern Kiangsu, and the Nanking-Shanghai area. Mayor of Shanghai (1950).

CV of Chao Hsiang, C. S.

Alternate member, Central Committee, Communist Party; Deputy Commander, Second Field Army, Chinese People's Liberation Army; Commander, Fourth Army Corps, Second Field Army; Director, Department of Public Safety, Shanghai Military Control Commission; chief of staff, etc., however, even to have assumed this post.

Chao Hsiang, Second Field Army, was born in 1894 in Hsingjiang, Hubei, of a wealthy landlord family. He is a graduate of both the
Keqiao Military School and the first class of the Whampoa Military Academy. He attended school in Moscow in 1925. At one time he was Chief of the September 18th Uprising and the Canton Communist. After they failed, the Communist Party, which he had joined in 1927, assigned him underground activity in Shanghai. About 1928 he was active in the Guangan (Hup-ho-han) Society, and in 1929 he was assigned to the Red Army School in Jiangxi, Hubei.

One of the military leaders of the Long March, in 1933 C.L.N. became commander of the 1st Division of the Red Army and following the reorganization of the Communist Army in 1937 he was appointed commander of the 38th Brigade of the Red Army. Throughout the Sino-Japanese War, he was active mainly in southeastern Shandong. In 1944 he was the Communist Party representative in the Yangtze (Changjiang) Field Town of the Peking Executive Headquarters. C.L.N. has been closely associated with the Peking Military School since 1950.

Chen was appointed an alternate member of the Communist Party Central Committee at the seventh National Party Congress in Vienna (Peking) in April 1946, though prior to that time he seems to have been a regular member of the committee.

Communist Leader

C.L.N. was born in 1899, in Hupeh, Kungkang. He received his education at Peking Military Academy. In early revolutionary activity, he was a member of the Yung Ming Hui, predecessor of the Kuomintang. About 1921, he was the general staff of the Kuomintang Army. For his achievements in defeating C.L.N., he was promoted to command of the Fourth Division, and then to command of the Northern sector of the Kuomintang. In 1928, he went to Harbin with the C.L.N. and was nominated commander of the Kuomintang. In 1933, he went on to command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1937, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1939, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintang and eventually commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. He became commander of the Kuomintang in 1935 and, finally, commander of the Kuomintang Red Army. In 1959, when the Communists returned to Peking, he went on command of the Kuomintag
school founded by Tan Kah-kok. He later graduated from the Chungching University in Muscat. A Party member by 1927, he was teaching in Peking in 1930, and apparently remained in that city until 1937. That year he was sent to Yenan (Fushan) as a propagandist for the Party and has been connected with the Party Propaganda Department since that time. In 1938 he was appointed secretary to Mao Tse-tung, chair of the party and author of numerous books, his best known works being a Primer of Chinese Communism, China's Future, and Four Great Reformations. At one time during the Second Chinese War, he was in Canton where he collected the Party newspaper, the Peking-day, and was active in the Southern Relief Fund. He is a member of the political bureau of the Communist Party Central Committee in 1949 and has been a member of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party since 1921. He is a member of the Chinese Communist Party Central Committee, and has been a member of the National People's Congress since 1950. He has been a member of the National People's Congress since 1950. He has been a member of the National People's Congress since 1950. He has been a member of the National People's Congress since 1950. He has been a member of the National People's Congress since 1950.
reported head of the Research Department of the Communist Party Central Committee and more recently has headed the Law Commission. The line of his reported recent appoint-
ment in the Party leadership is unknown. Chen is married to Meng Chang-li, Party member and onetime Director of the Communist Women's University in Tianjin (Fuchin).}
Chung Ching was a member of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang in 1932 and 1933. He was appointed Governor of Nanking in 1932 by the Nanking Government, though he held the post for only three months. In 1933, he was appointed Secretary of the Kuomintang in Nanchang, but he resigned the post in 1935. He subsequently served as Governor of the National Government in Nanking from 1936 to 1937. He was appointed Governor of the Nanking Government in 1938 and held the post until 1939. He was dismissed from his position in Nanking until his resignation in 1939. He was appointed Governor of Orange in 1939 and held the post until 1941. During the period, he was a member of the Chinese National Assembly and attended the Supreme Court of the People's Republic in Nanjing. He was appointed Governor of Nanking in June 1942, a post he held until the time that he died. He was a member of the Kuomintang, and his death was announced in the Kuomintang Press.

Chung Ching was a member of the Nationalist Government in Nanjing from 1927 to 1937. He was appointed Governor of Orange in 1939 and held the post until 1941. During his time, he was a member of the Chinese National Assembly and attended the Supreme Court of the People's Republic in Nanjing. He was appointed Governor of Nanking in June 1942, a post he held until the time that he died. He was a member of the Kuomintang, and his death was announced in the Kuomintang Press.

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and serving as Chief of the Political Department of the 19th Central Military Commission. He was secretary to General Blikter, a Russian advisor at the military academy. Among Chia's students were Chao Chi-lin and Shih Ching-yuan, who became important in the Communist Party. Chia was a member of the Communist Party since 1929, and in 1931 he was assigned to organize workers in Shanghai, where he led the uprising of March 1932, which ended in failure when Ching Kuo-fu was arrested by the authorities.

In 1935, Chia was appointed to the Communist Party's head office in Moscow, where he served until 1937, when he was arrested by the NKVD and sent to a labor camp. He was later released and moved to Moscow, where he was a member of the Chinese Communist Party's Central Committee. Chia also served as a representative of the Chinese Communist Party at the 1945 Peking Conference.

Chia took part in the Peking Conference and was a member of the Chinese Communist Party's Central Committee. He later became a member of the Chinese Communist Party's Politburo. Chia served as the Chinese Communist Party's representative at the 1949 Peking Conference, where he was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party.

Chia's political career continued in the People's Republic of China, where he held various positions in the Communist Party and the government. He was a member of the Chinese Communist Party's Politburo, and later became a member of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party. Chia also served as a representative of the Chinese Communist Party at various international meetings and conferences.

Chia's contributions to the Communist Party and the Chinese government were recognized with various awards and honors. He was awarded the title of Hero of the People's Republic of China, and was a recipient of the Order of the People's Republic of China.

Chia died in 1992, having served the Communist Party and the Chinese government with distinction for many years. His dedication to the Communist Party and the Chinese people is a testament to his commitment to the principles of socialism and human rights.
Commercial Bank

Born on 28 November 1386, in Jiang Han, Shandong. Of poor family but studied under an ill-educated tutor at the age of five.

In his youth, he participated in revolutionary activities. When he was twenty-three, he joined the Young Men's Society for the 1911 Revolution in his home town. After graduation, he worked as a teacher in a liberal-minded school in the same town.

In 1912, he attended the Cadet's College in Shanghai, where he was involved in revolutionary activities. In 1913, he joined the Chinese Communist Party (CCP).

In 1917, he attended the Comintern School in Moscow, where he studied under Comrade Yu Hui. After returning to China, he served as the Secretary of the Shanghai Branch of the CCP.

In 1923, he was elected as a member of the Central Committee of the CCP.

In 1924, he was appointed as the General Secretary of the CCP.

In 1927, he participated in the Chinese Civil War and became the Chairman of the Central Committee of the CCP.

In 1931, he was arrested and imprisoned by the Nationalists.

In 1937, he was released and became the Chairman of the CCP again.

In 1949, he was appointed as the President of the People's Republic of China.

In 1976, he passed away.


ey, he organized and led the "August 1st" Uprising, founded the Chinese People's Liberation Army, and established the People's Republic of China. He served as the Chairman of the Central Military Commission and the Chairman of the State Council.

He was a great revolutionary and a great leader of the Chinese people.

Trade Union Movement

He entered the Sierra de Weber in 1909 and became a worker in the fourth Red Army. He was the Secretary of the Communist Party of the Fourth Red Army. He joined the Long March in 1934, and was a member of the 19th Congress of the Communist Party.

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In July 1945, he was made Commander in Chief of the Twelfth War Zone and in October 1946 became Governor of Chukai. During 1947 he served as Commander of the Vietnamese Communist Forces in the North. His command was the key to the victory of the Vietnamese People's Republic in the battles against the French. In 1949 he was appointed as the first President of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. He was instrumental in the formation of the People's Republic of Vietnam. He was a key figure in the development of the country's economy and social services. He was a strong advocate of education and rural development. He was an active member of the Communist Party and played a key role in its development. He was a strong supporter of international socialism and worked closely with other communist leaders.

Communist Army

The Communist Army was the main fighting force of the Vietnamese People's Revolutionary Party, established in 1941. It was the main fighting force of the Viet Cong during the Vietnam War. The Communist Army was made up of fighters from various ethnic groups and worked closely with other communist forces in neighboring countries. It was a key factor in the victory of the Vietnamese People's Republic in the 1975 Vietnam War. Its fighters were trained in various forms of combat, including guerrilla warfare, conventional warfare, and in the use of traditional weapons. The Communist Army was composed of various forces, including the Viet Minh, the Pathet Lao, and the Khmer Rouge. It was a key factor in the victory of the Vietnamese People's Republic in the 1975 Vietnam War.
Communist Party, serving as Commander of the Second Front Army of the Red Army. After the outbreak of the War of Resistance, he was Commander of the 18th Division of the Eighth Route Army. In the Communist Army he holds a prominent record, having won both the military and the people's hearts. After the War of Resistance, he was ministered to the Chung-Hua Minister for some time, giving away each day a schedule that he was enrolled as an "apprentice of North China." In the latter period of the War of Resistance, he was ordered to defend Yenan (Peking). Commander of the Shansi-Sian Province Zone of the People's Liberation Army (1940).

Hsu Ch’ench’ing 胡錦添

Member, State Administration Council; Minister of Interior; member, Commission of Political and Legal Affairs; member, Commission of Law; member, representing social activities in China, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

A Communist Party member, Hsu Ch’ench’ing was born in 1895 in Yenan, Hsia, and received the Hsia Tai degree under the Manchu regime. An early member of the Communist Party, he served during the early 1920s as an executive member of the Hsien Provincial Party Headquarters. In 1924 Hsu edited the Hsien Min Pao in Changsha, and the following year joined the Communist Party. At the time of the Kansu-Szechwan Command split in 1927, Hsu fled to Shanghai and from there proceeded to Manchuria, where for two years he engaged in underground activity in Jilin. He was associated with the Hsiao-Mei Group from 1931 to 1935, but during the later year went to Shangai where he was active in the Shanghai Council of Labor Unions. Arrested in 1933 in Shanghai for the Kansu-Szechwan Command, Hsu was subsequently released. He then went to the Kansu-Szechwan where he became Secretary-General of the Kansu-Szechwan Provincial Government. Hsu participated in the Long March, became Secretary of the Shanxi Provincial Soviet Government and by 1937 was the Secretary of the Shanxi-Ningxia Border Region Government, a post he held for seven years. In 1940 Hsu became Vice-Chairman of the Communist Party's General Committee of Party Work Division, and concurrently served as Vice-President of the Administrative Council in Yenan (Fushan). From 1941 to 1943 he was the Vice-Chairman of the Hsia-Ninghwa-Ningtao Region Division's Political Council, and in 1948 and 1939 served as Minister of Justice, and member of the Government Council of the North China People's Government. He has also been Chairman of the Special Board of the Communist Party Central Committee and was reported by Nationalist sources in December 1947 to have headed a Communist military mission to the Soviet Union.

Communist Society

Native of Yenan, Hsia. Sixty-four years of age (1922). Began his career teaching in a higher primary school. Later, Hsu worked as Editor of the Pung Ba Zhong Pao (Popular People's Pao) in Changsha. During the time of the Northern Expedition, he was Chief Editor of the Hsien Min Pao (Hsien People's Pao), official paper of the Hsien Pao (Kansu)

Province Headquarters. After the Kansu-Szechwan Command split, he went from Hsinping to the Kansu-Szechwan region. He participated in the 1931 Long March. After Peking and Tientsin were occupied, he became a member of the North China People's Government Council and head of the Department of Justice. Minister of the Interior of the Central People's Government (1930).

US Source

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council; member of the Council of Chief of Staff, People's Revolutionary Military Council, member, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; Chairman, Yangtsze (Changsha) Military Control Commission; Deputy Commissioner, North China Military Headquarters, Chinese People's Liberation Army, representing, the North China Field Army, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

A Whampoa-educated Communist military leader, Hsu Hsing-tien was born in 1902 in Wutan, Shanxi, of a well-off family. His father was a teacher and Hsia Tai scholar. Hsu received an elementary education in Shanghai schools and following his graduation from the Tsinghua Normal School, taught in the primary school attached to the Chen Tung-Min High School in Wutan. In 1922 he entered the first class of the Whampoa Military Academy, graduating in 1926. For the next two years fought in Northern China with forces opposing Yu Hsien-ku and Chang Tsao-hsien, and in 1925 became an instructor at the Whampoa Military and Political Academy. Hsu joined the Nationalist Movement in 1926 and was a Communist Party member by 1928. In 1927 he participated in the Nanjing uprising, later led a detachment of factory workers in the Canton Commune, and when this latter revolt failed retreated to the Hsi-hou-wing, where he was arrestcd and that government was reorganized by the Nationalists. He escaped to Shanghai, but in 1929 he had arrived in North China and later that same year became the Command, of the 2nd Division located in the Hsiao-Mei (Hsin-Ch'ang-Yung) region.

In 1931 Hsu had become Commander of the Fourth Front Army and a year later transferred the army from the Hsiao-Mei to Szechwan where for three years he was in charge of military activities in the Szechwan Region. It was in the Szechwan Region that the main forces of the Communist Army were stationed. In 1935, while on a tour of inspection, Hsu became ill and his party participated in the Long March, joined the Red Army. After the left of the Communist Central Committee, Hsu was appointed Political Commissar of the 2nd Division of the Eighth Route Army. In the early years of the Szechwan War, Hsu was responsible for the capture of the 17th Division of the Whampoa-Military Academy; but in 1938, with the Whampoa-Wuhan Military Academy garrison, Hsu established a base in the Szechwan region. He was appointed in 1939 as a member of the Communist Central Committee of the 17th Division of the Eighth Route Army.
Communist Source

Name of Biography: Zhang, Shiyou
Fifty-one years of age (1932). Graduate of Taiyuan Normal School. Later, as a result of his revolutionary awakening, he went to Beiyang and graduated in the first class of Whampoa Military Academy. He joined the Northern Expedition in 1927 and fought for the Red Army. In 1930, he was a member of the Political Department of the Central Army. He was a member of the Communist Party at that time.

After the successful October Revolution, he went back to his hometown and led the workers' group to participate in the Canton uprising. After the failure of the Canton uprising, he and others went to the Hankow-Hengyang-Fuzhou (Northern) Soviet region and worked in the Training Corps. He went to the Soviet region near Wuhan in June 1927 and served there until 1928. He was involved in the 9th Division and by participating in the revolutionary army, he developed the revolutionary strength.

In 1928, he fought against the Nationalist party, united with the Northern Soviet region, and established the Northern Soviet region. He expanded the party base area and established the Revolutionary Base area. In the beginning of the War of Resistance, he became the Deputy Commander of the 12th Division of the Eighth Route Army. Together with Comrade Liu Bocheng, he established the Communist Party in North China, and led the East Chongqing-Huaihai Region. In the Liberated War, he continued to fight in the northeast region, northwest region, and the battlefields of Shandong. Chief of Staff of the People's Revolutionary Army (1930).

1932 U.S. Source

Communist Source

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College of Commerce of the National Central University and graduated in 1931. He was arrested and imprisoned in the spring of 1932, under the "White Terror," and did not regain his freedom until the outbreak of the War of Resistance. Late in 1937 he went to Hankow and worked on the Nanking Daily. His work in Wuhan, Chongqing, Yanking, and Shanghai was in behalf of the United Front of industrial and commercial elements. Vice-Chairman of the Nanking Committee of Friend and Economic (1930).

In 1941 in a Northern China, born in 1900. A opponent of the Communist Party, he was a delegate of the All-China Federation of Democratic Youth to the Propaganda Conference, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference in 1956; but he was listed as a delegate from the All-China Association of Journalists at the Conference's plenary sessions in September and October 1954.

Harmonious Society

Nature of Yen-yi-yang, Wuhan. Fifty years of age (1938). After graduation from National Tungshan University, he worked in the left-wing literary circles of Shanghai. After the outbreak of the War of Resistance, he went to the northwest, and together with King Cheng-cheng and Chu. Chuan-chih, carried on educational work in the Youth Training Camp in An-yang. Although the period of training was short, the young people who took this training became important persons in the various fields of society because of the democratic ideas and the effective methods of tactics and strategy which they were taught. When the Mao Tse-tung School for Training Youth Personnel was established, his title was taken down and he served as the Editor of the Youth Training Camp. He was a prominent political secretary. Many educations of the Nanking Daily were written by his own pen. Vice-Chairman of the Committee of Propaganda of the Communist Party, Director of the Administration of News Articles, and Secretary-General of the Committee of Culture and Education (1930).

Hung Shao-liang 胡绍良 (Courtesy name: Chih-chung)

Jisoo

Member, Central People's Government Council; Vice-President of Four, State Administration Council; Minister of Light Industry; member, Committee of Finance and Economics; China Communist Political Bureau; Standing Committee; and Central Executive Committee; 3rd Standing Committee; Standing Committee; Democratic Political Consultative Conference; member, Standing Committee; National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; member, Nanking Committee of the Democratic Political Consultative Conference; member, representing the Democratic National Reconstruction Association, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference. Honored as the "Father of the Communist Movement". He was born as a son of Hung Shao-chien. He was an early and active person in the Communist movement. He was tried and imprisoned in Kuomintang prisons and was killed before the Nationalist government in Taiwan in May 1953. Hung graduated from Yung-tung College and received his degree from Wu. He was a member of the Yeung College and received his degree from Wu. He was a member of the Chinese Communist Party and served in various capacities under President Chiang Kai-shek. He was a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference. He was a member of the Nanking Committee of the Democratic Political Consultative Conference. He was a member of the Central Executive Committee of the Communist Party. He served as a member of the Communist Party. He was a member of the Nanking Committee of the Democratic Political Consultative Conference. He was a member of the Communist Party.
Zhou was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party at the Seventh National Party Congress in 1956, and following the establishment of the People's Republic of China in October of that same year, was elected Political Adviser to the Minister of the People's Republic of China for Foreign Affairs, a position he held until March 1959. Zhou has taken an active part in the formation of the Shanghai Municipal Committee.

Communist Years

Zhou Shaoqi, native of Nanjing, was born in 1893. He studied in Japan for ten years. He was active in educational work when he returned to China, and founded the National Association of Liberal Education. He has labored as an officer of the Chinese Democratic League. He has been active in the activities of the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association. He has been active in the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association. He has been active in the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association. He has been active in the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association. He has been active in the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association. He has been active in the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association. He has been active in the Democratic League and the Democratic National Reconstruction Association.
Kuo Kung

U.S. Source

Member, Central Committee, Politburo and Secretary, Communist Party, Vice-Chairman of the People's Government Council of the Chinese People's Congress, Northern People's Government, member, People's Revolutionary Military Council, Secretary, Northern People's Government, Secretary of the Communist Party of the Northern People's Government, member, Northern People's Political Council, Communist Party of China, member, Northern People's Administration Committee, member, Northern People's Committee of Cultural Development, member, Northern People's Government, member, Northwest United Front, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Kuo Kung was born in 1905. He was a member of the Communist Party of China since 1927. He served as a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China from 1939 to 1945.

Kuo Kung was elected to the Central Committee of the Communist International in 1931. At the congress he was elected to membership on the Executive Committee of the Communist International. Throughout his stay in Moscow, Kuo was associated with Chou En-lai, then the chief representative of the Chinese Communist Party to the Comintern, and the two men became close friends.

In 1938, Kuo was appointed to the People's Government Council of the Chinese People's Congress, and in 1939, he was appointed to the People's Revolutionary Military Council, and later to the People's Administration Committee.

Kuo Kung has been an active participant in the political life of China, serving in various high positions in the government and party organizations.
He was a member of the Border Region branch of the Communist Party during the War of Resistance. Later he served as Secretary of the Northeast Bureau and member of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party. He was also a member of the Council of State and later became Governor of Heilongjiang Province.

As a leader of the Communist Party in the Northeast, he played a crucial role in building the People's Liberation Army and the People's Republic of China. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the Standing Committee of the Politburo of the Communist Party of China.

Xu Zetian
Alternate member, Central Committee, Chinese Communist Party; member, representing the North China People's Liberation Army, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; Vice-Minister (later of state) of the North China People's Government; member, North China People's Political Consultative Conference; Delegate (later of state) of the North China People's Government.

Xu Zetian was born in 1899 in Hebei, China. He joined the Communist Party of China in 1927 and served in various leadership positions in the Party and the People's Liberation Army. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China.

Xu Zetian
Alternate member, Central Committee, Chinese Communist Party; member, representing the North China People's Liberation Army, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; Vice-Minister (later of state) of the North China People's Government.

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Le Chi Cong (Courtesy name: Ho Thu)

Vi Nhan

Vice-Chairman (see of 101), Central People's Government, Chairman, Kien Trung Revolutionary Committee; Vice-Chairman (see of 101), National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; Vice-Chairman (see of 101), Revolutionary Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

A former South China war leader, Li Chenghong was a member of the National Government, who eventually leads a disastrous Koreanizing faction in conjunction with the Communist Party. Li Chenghong was born in Wayou, Kwangsi, in 1886. He has six sons and five daughters.

He graduated from Longkang Military School in 1913. He also graduated from the First Chinese Military Academy in 1917. He was a member of the Nationalist Army, 2nd Division of the Revolutionary Army, 1917. He was a member of the Nationalist Army, 2nd Division, Kweichow Army, 1918. He was the Commander of the Chinese National Revolutionary Army, 1928. He was the Commander of the Chinese National Revolutionary Army, 1928. His military career continued until the establishment of the People's Republic of China, in 1949. Since then, his contributions to the People's Republic of China have been recognized and celebrated.

Li Chenghong is a member of the Revolutionary Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Li Chenghong's contributions to the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference have been recognized and celebrated.

Constitutional Survey

Notice of Wu-Chau: Kwangsi: 1927 (27th year of 1933). Graduate of the University of Peking. Before the Northern Expedition, he was Vice-President of the Shensi Military Academy and Commander of the Fourth Army of the National Revolutionary Army. He was one of the members of the Revolutionary Committee. He joined the Chinese People's Government at Fuzhou in 1911 in opposition to the democratic, representative and nationwide Nationalist Government. He was subsequently appointed as the Nationalist Army, 2nd Division of the Revolutionary Army. He was subsequently appointed as the Nationalist Army, 2nd Division of the Revolutionary Army.
Other prominent Communist Party leaders who were founders of that branch include Chou En-lai, Li Lisan, and Li Weihan. He married Tsai Ch'ing in France in 1922. The couple proceeded to Moscow for additional studies at the Oriental Workers University.

He returned to China in 1925. The following year, he became the Party representative in the Second Revolutionary Army of Yang Huchan in Canton, but went underground in Shanghai after the Kuomintang-Communist split in 1927. Though his activities from 1927 to 1932 have not been reported, his wife spent a period in Moscow, as did many others of the current Communist leadership, and it is possible that he was in the Soviet Union. In 1930 he served the Kuomintang Secret, served in the Political Department, and later was Secretary of the Kiangsu Provincial Committee of the Party. Li led the Long March as Political Commissar of the Third Red Army Group and by 1934 was Director of Organization of the Party Central Committee. By 1935 he had been named to Vice-Director of that same department. He served during the Sino-Japanese War as Assistant Secretary-General of the Central Committee, and at the Seventh National Congress, April 1935, was re-elected to membership in that body. For a brief period in 1941 Li was Chairman of the China Liberated Areas Relief Administration. He has been in MMPM at least since 1953, served as Vice-Chairman of the Communist Party of the Northeast, and Communist Party of the Northeast Administrative Council in 1949 and 1950, and was elected a Vice-Chairman of the Northeast People's Government on 27 August 1954. In January 1955 Li participated in the National Conference with the U.S.A.

**Committed to Serve**

Nature of Man: More than fifty years of age (1923). One of the earliest members of the Chinese Communist Party. When he was a worker-student in France, he formed with Chou En-lai, Li Lisan, Wang Zhihui, and Li Weihan a small group of the Communist Party in France. He was a French military officer in the National Expedition during the Great Revolution. He joined the Communist Party and served as Director of the Political Department of the Second Army in the Northern Expedition Forces. After the Great Revolution, he was engaged in secret revolutionary work. Later, he went to the Soviet Union and was one of the leaders in the 1906-1923 Long March to North Street. His most difficult time was in the Henan-Kuowu-Ningxia Border Region, center of the Chinese Communist Party, from around 1947. They finally assumed this leadership by carrying out a large-scale production program under the leadership of Mao Tse-Tung, and became the leading agricultural, industrial, and commercial. He was the real leader of this period. His wife is Miss Tsai Ch'ing, Director of the Women's Association of the Liberated Regions. They were schoolmates in France, and are good patriots in the Revolutionary Army. Vice-Chairman of the Communist Party of the Northeast People's Government (1959).

**Li Hsi-min**

Vice-Chairman

**S.S.**

Vice-Chairman, Central Committee, Communist Party, member, People's Revolutionary Military Council, Chairman, Hopeh Province People's Government, Communist, and representative Political Commissar, Hopeh Military Bureau, China People's Liberation Army, secretary, Hopeh Provincial Committee, Communist Party. A Communist, great activist in China since 1922. Li Ho-chih was born in 1922 in Chung-en, Hopeh, the son of a laborer, and had himself worked as a railroad and excessive. Joining the Communist Party in 1929, Li became Secretary of his village secret, and subsequently was a member of the Red Army. He made the Long March as Political Commissar of the Fourth Field Red Army, and in 1936 personally led the U.S. Army for a time to improve its effectiveness in military academies.

He was ordered by the Communist Party in 1938 to organize political affairs in Hopeh and Shansi, and has since then been involved in both regular and illegal Communist forces in that area. His political troops were mobilized in 1941 as the 38th Division of the Eighth Field Army and to 10th Division, and throughout the Sino-Japanese War he was responsible for much of the anti-Japanese resistance in Hopeh and for the establishment of the Hopeh-Shansi-Kweichow Defense Area. Li worked closely with the Communist Party Central Committee at the Seventh National People's Congress in 1945. He worked closely with the CPC Central Committee and the Central Military Region, and was a central leader of the Eight Field Army. After World War II, he was appointed Governor of Hopeh Province.

Li Hsi-min 宋子文 国务院总理 蒋启荣 史载 1940年

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Further illustrative of his prominence is the labor movement in his membership in the Pan-Pacific Trade Union Secretariat and his leadership of the trade union organizations in Hankow and Shanghai.

The split between the Associated and Communist in 1927 brought a new Chinese Communist leadership to power, one working closely with the Far Eastern Communist against Nationalist and Nationalists. Though the Party was formally under the direction of CK's (Chen) Secretary-General, Li Zongren was its strong man and policy architect. In December 1927 Li and his associates planned the Chian insurrection, the start of the huge scale insurrections planned to take over its industrial sites. The former were managed from industrial workers backed by revolutionary peasant troops. The failure of the Chiangs' policy convinced the leaders at Chiang, who Communist forces, upon the fall of Tianjin and Luoyang, took the city by 27 July 1928, only to surrender it on the 5 August. The unsuccessful policy of the Chinese Communist had already been repudiated by the Communist Congress of 26 July 1928, though its views were not to have been wholly acted upon at the Meeting of the Chinese Communist Party's Fourth Plenum in September 1928, when attacks on Li's view were again sharply criticized. It was not until 1930-1931, when Li's view was apparently self-justified. Critical to its success, however, was the merging of the Party Central Political Bureau on 20 November 1928, at which Li was president of his own faction. Ultimately the Chinese Communist Party was formed in March 1928. The new party merged its members into the so-called Communists, which had issued the so-called Communist Manifesto. Eventually, one of these groups, made strong against Li, and in its foundation gave us the idea of our party. He stated that merely combining his mistakes was not enough; what was needed was a critical study, for which he should seek for a place in his party to work with the Communists and learn how to remount his carriages. The period of study was to last fourteen years.

When Li rejoined the leadership of the party, he was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party at the Seventh National Party Congress in April 1928. He disappeared from the papers into Moscow the same year. Between February 1928 and July 1929 he served as leader of the Chinese Communist Party in Moscow, as well as a member of the Communist International Committee in Moscow. He returned to China in the same year, when he was elected Chairman of the All-China Federation of Labor at the Sixth All-China Labor Congress held in Nanking in 1928. He continues to hold this position, in addition to that of Minister of Labor in the Central People's Government. Despite numerous reports, both past and present, of a rift between Li and Mao Zedong, there is no available evidence of current disagreement.

Communist Career
Formerly named Long-lu. Native of Hsuan. About thirty-five years of age. Li Zongren left Hsuan in 1919 and went to France as a "work-student." In France, like the other work-students, he had to study French and make up other studies in addition to the assigned work.

If some that he began to study Communism when he was very young. He did so, however, as a purely intellectual head, since Chinese students in France at that time did not have the advantage of working with a Communist Party organization.

A group of the work-students in France in 1921 demonstrated against the French base managed by Mr. Li, and demanded that the French-China University, founded by Léon Blum and Willy Brandt, he opened to the public. Secretary Wang of the Ministry was present and visible; if the students were thrown down and fired students were fired armory by the police and they imprisoned in the army prison in Lyons, France.

After having been in prison for two months, the students were taken on board the 12,000-ton SS "Alexandria," and shipped to Moscow. When Li returned to Shanghai he was for some time in the police. Yet until 1928, when the Communist Party had become comparatively better equipped, did he become famous for his "Party Line." A leader of the Chinese Communist Party and Minister of Labor of the Central People's Government (1928).

Li Zongren was born in 1898, in a rich farmer family. Mao Fuling. Li Zongren. Li Zongren was born in 1898, in a rich farmer family. Mao Fuling. Li Zongren. Li Zongren was born in 1898, in a rich farmer family. Mao Fuling. Li Zongren. Li Zongren was born in 1898, in a rich farmer family. Mao Fuling. Li Zongren.
Flag-waving, and accompanied him to Cape Angoli and the Soviet Union on an investigation tour. During the War of Resistance, she was a leader in the cross-straits activism of the Women's Association in Changsha and acted as the Women's Committee of the Association of Confucian Cultural Relations. After V-E Day, she was chairman of the Women's Fellowship Association. She organized the Child Welfare Association, worked closely with the educational associations of various schools. When she went to the United States with General Dooling, she attended the International Women's Congress sponsored by American Women's organizations. Ministry of Public Health of the Central People's Government (1949).

Li Wuchen 李韫寰 (Alice Le Mai)

U.S. Source

Secretary General State Administration Council, Director, Commission of the Affairs of Nationalities, member, Committee of Political and Legal Affairs, head, United Front Department, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Standing Committee, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, member, representing the Communist Party, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, former member, Standing Committee, People's Political Consultative Conference.

A French-educated Communist Party elder, Li Wuchen was well known as a Marxist from 1948. He was born in 1907 in Guangdong Province, and had a brother, Li Chun, who served in 1947 for 9 months in the underground movement of the Nanhai District. He was a member of the Communist Party since 1926 and was an activist in the Chinese Communist Party. Returning to China he reportedly was the head of a Communist cell in Hunan and later active in Party work in the Nanhai District. He was elected to membership in the Second Chinese Communist Party Central Committee in 1931. He participated in the Long March and in 1934 and 1935 was director of the Department of Propaganda of the Party. Later he served as vice president of the Central University of North China. Though a member of the Central Committee and the Political Bureau of the Party since 1945, he was generally not involved in the positions at the Seventh National Party Congress, held in Tianjin from April 10-21, 1945. During 1941 and 1942 he served as Governor of the Southwestern Area, Nanking War Region, and in 1948 as a member of the Communist delegation to the Political Consultative Conference, which he attended under the name Li Wuchen. He was a member of the Communist delegation to the Peking party congresses and the Moscow party congress in April 1949, and served as Secretary General of the Propaganda Committee of the Chinese Communist Party's Political Consultative Conference.

Commercial Source

Nature of Business: Fifty-six years of age (1952). He joined the "workers-student" group in his youth and went to France in 1926 with Chen Enshu. He made a good scholarly record although obliged to work while he studied. He was one of the founders of the Paris branch of the Chinese Communist Party when it was established in 1923. He worked in the Soviet region in Armenia when he returned, and later served as Chief of the Central Organization Department of the Communist Party, the Party's "negative opposition." He was principal of the Paris School, Secretary General of the Northeastern Branch of the Party, Chief of the Party's News Bureau, and an important Party activist. In 1949, he, as an official, was a delegate of the Chinese Communist Party to the Second People's Tokyo Conference; Secretary-General of the State Administrative Council of the Central People's Government (1949).

Liao Ciiqiu 赖彩球 (Alice Ho Lieh-hua)

U.S. Source

Manager, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Standing Committee, Political and Legal Affairs, Vice President of the Communist Party, Commission of the Northeast, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, Chairman, All-China Federation of Democratic Youth, Vice-Chairman of the All-China Federation of Democratic Youth, Chairman of the Communist Youth, deputy, representing the All-China Federation of Democratic Youth, deputy, representing the All-China Federation of Democratic Youth, vice-chairman, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, member, Central Committee and concurrently, head, Liaoning Department, Jilin Party, Northeast Democratic Youth, Central Bureau, Central Committee for the United National People.

Liao Ciiqiu, one of the few Feng Zhen's assistants, was a member of the leadership of the following persons. The following persons were selected at the Chongqing conference, held in 1946 in Chongqing, where the negotiations took place. In 1946, after her father's death, her younger brother Li Qiyuan became her companion. She was arrested by the Chongqing government in 1946, but refused to give information about her father. In 1949 she was permitted to return to Shanghai, where she remained until 1952. After her return to Shanghai, she became an Assistant Director of the Internal Affairs Department, and in addition participated in trade union work.

Joining the Communist Party in 1926, she was the first member of the Communist Party in South China. She was a member of the Central Committee and the Political Bureau of the Party since 1945, and was in charge of the Central Committee and the Political Bureau of the China Communist Party since 1945. She was elected to the Sixth National People's Congress, held in 1959, at which she was a member of the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress. She then became a member of the Sixth National People's Congress. In 1968, she was elected a member of the National People's Congress and the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress. She was elected a member of the National People's Congress and the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress. She was elected a member of the National People's Congress and the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress. She was elected a member of the National People's Congress and the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress.

Commercial Source

Nature of Business: Forty years of age (1928). Born in Tokyo, Japan, although her parents were Japanese, Chinese. She attended Tsinghua University as a student in 1947 and returned to China in 1948. She was the only son of the student movement leader who participated in the "May 4th Movement" in 1919. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948. She was educated in Japan and returned to Japan in 1948.
After the war he went to Shanghai in the 1st March of the Red Army, where he worked for many years.

After the war ended in Yenan (Infantry), he first served as Chief of the Publicity Bureau of the Central Committee of the Communist Party and Editor of the Liberation Daily. Later, he was Head of the Office of the Central Committee and Head of the Supply Section.

In 1937, he went to Nanchang and was assigned to the Supply Department of the Communist Party. He later returned to Yenan and was assigned to the Supply Department of the Central Committee.

In 1940, he was appointed as Head of the Supply Department of the Central Committee, and in 1942, he was appointed as Head of the Supply Department of the Central Committee.

In 1945, he was appointed as Head of the Supply Department of the Central Committee. He later served as Head of the Supply Department of the Central Committee and Head of the Supply Department of the People's Revolutionary Military Council.

Lin Piao, one of the leading figures of the Communist Party and the Red Army, was a great Marxist-Leninist and a great strategist.

Field Army: Chairman, Central and South Military and Political Affairs Committee; First Secretary, Central China Bureau, Communist Party, Commander, Central China Military District; member, Standing Committee, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Lin Piao, the long-time Comrade and member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party since 1930, was a great Marxist-Leninist and a great strategist.

He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party since 1930, and later served as a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China.

Lin Piao was a great Marxist-Leninist, a great strategist, and a great military leader of the Chinese people.

Lin Piao was a great Marxist-Leninist and a great strategist who made significant contributions to the cause of the Chinese people.
unnourished, he defeated the Allied “nursery” offensives of the Japanese Shokoku Division, annihilating more than three thousand. This was one of the key victories which rejuvenated the ammunition and people of the Eighth Route Army and turned the balance of power in favor of the new Chinese Revolution. After the fall of Nanjing, the Eighth Route Army continued to fight and liberate the territories it had occupied. The Eighth Route Army, under the leadership of General Lin Biao, advanced into the Yunnan province and linked up with other communist forces to establish the United Front. In September 1937, the Chinese army entered the Yangtze River valley and crossed into the north of China, establishing a new base in the north. The Eighth Route Army played a crucial role in the war against the Japanese invaders. It was during this period that the Chinese people's revolutionary movement began to take shape.

**Comenial Source**

1937 was a pivotal year in Chinese history. The Chinese people's revolutionary movement began to take shape during this period. The Chinese army, under the leadership of General Lin Biao, advanced into the Yunnan province and linked up with other communist forces to establish the United Front. In September 1937, the Chinese army entered the Yangtze River valley and crossed into the north of China, establishing a new base in the north. The Eighth Route Army played a crucial role in the war against the Japanese invaders. It was during this period that the Chinese people's revolutionary movement began to take shape.

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Lin Luechu

U.S. Source

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council, member, People's Revolutionary Military Council, Commander, Second Field Army, Chinese People's Liberation Army, serving, representing the Second Field Army Political Consultative Conference, Chairman, Southeast Military and Political Affairs Committee.

A prominent strategist in guerrilla warfare and known both as the "Red Eyed Dragon," Lin Luechu was born in Shunde Province in 1905. He entered the Communist underground at a young age, becoming a member of the Communist Party in 1925. He fought in the Long March and served as an instructor in the First Red Army University. After the establishment of the People's Republic of China, he served as a general in the People's Liberation Army and played a significant role in the resistance against the Japanese occupation during World War II. Lin Luechu was a influential figure in the Chinese Communist Party and played a key role in the establishment of the People's Republic of China. He was posthumously honored as a Hero of China and is remembered for his contributions to the Chinese revolutionary cause.

Lin Songxiu

U.S. Source

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council, member, People's Revolutionary Military Council, Commander, Second Field Army, Chinese People's Liberation Army, serving, representing the Second Field Army Political Consultative Conference, Chairman, Southeast Military and Political Affairs Committee.

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Lin Biao

U.S. Source

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council, member, People's Revolutionary Military Council, Commander, Second Field Army, Chinese People's Liberation Army, serving, representing the Second Field Army Political Consultative Conference, Chairman, Southeast Military and Political Affairs Committee.

A prominent strategist in guerrilla warfare and known both as the "Red Eyed Dragon," Lin Biao was born in Shunde Province in 1905. He entered the Communist underground at a young age, becoming a member of the Communist Party in 1925. He fought in the Long March and served as an instructor in the First Red Army University. After the establishment of the People's Republic of China, he served as a general in the People's Liberation Army and played a significant role in the resistance against the Japanese occupation during World War II. Lin Biao was a influential figure in the Chinese Communist Party and played a key role in the establishment of the People's Republic of China. He was posthumously honored as a Hero of China and is remembered for his contributions to the Chinese revolutionary cause.
March, 1931-1935, he was Political Commissioner in Peng P'ei's Fifth Red Army, and subsequently did important undercover work in Peking from 1935 to 1937.

In Yenan (Peking) in 1937, Liu served as Commissioner of Labor of the Shaan-Kung-Ning-Tsin Border Region Government and from 1938 to 1939 was Political Commissioner of Yenan New Youth Army in Central China. He also served during this period as Secretary of the Central China Bureau of the Communist Party. Liu transferred Vice-Chairman of the Party Central Committee to the Seventh National Party Congress in April 1934, and was frequently discussed as being the next man up.

In 1944, while Mao Tse-tung was in Yenan negotiating with Chiang Kai-shek, elevated Harvard University of the All-China Federation of Labor in May 1940, Liu was made one of the vice-presidents of the World Federation of Trade Unions at the WFTU Congress in Moscow in June 1929, and following the establishment of the Central People's Government became one of its government's representatives. A prolific writer, Liu's works frequently menace important Party positions.

Communist Survey

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tion Department of the Hunan Provincial Committee of the Communist Party and later became its Secretary. Liu was elected to be an alternate member of the Communist Party Central Committee at the Seventh National Party Congress in April 1956, and in 1959 served briefly as Minister of Education of the Central People's Provisional People's Government. He was appointed Chief of the Department of Culture and Education of the All-China Federation of Labor in May 1956.

**Communist Source**

*Note*

**Liu Fuxing** (Courtesy name: Chiiyeh)  
US Source  
Member, Central People's Government Council; member, Committee of Culture and Education; Chairman, Central Supervisory Committee and concurrently Chairman, Secretariat, Investigating Revolutionary Committee; member, China Democratic League; member, representing the Investigating Revolutionary Committee; Chinese People's Consultative Conference.

A noted part and system revolutionary, Liu Fuxing was born in 1892 in Shanghui, Hunan, and was an early member of the Kuomintang Party. He was first elected to the Central Supervisory Committee in 1938, and served until 1941. From 1938 to 1941 he served as Director of the History Compilation Bureau of the Hunan Provincial Government. In 1941, he joined the China Democratic League and was a participant in the League's founding conference. He went to Hong Kong following the Longshan's dissolution, and shortly thereafter became the executive of the Investigating Revolutionary Committee in 1949.

**Communist Source**

*Note*

**Liu Fuxing** (Courtesy name: Chiiyeh)  
US Source  
Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council; member, Committee of Political and Legal Affairs; member, Committee of Communist Party; member, Committee of Central People's Consultative Conference; member, Communist Party Political Consultative Committee.

Liu graduated from the First Class of the Red Army University in 1919. In 1921, he was elected to the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was a member of the First and Second Shanghai City Leninists, a member of the First Executive Committee of the Shanghai City Leninists, and a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China.

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1st Division of the Chinese Workers' and Peasants' Army. He was a representative of the Party. Associated with his regiment at Chang-hung, he helped establish the Chinese Red Army, which later became the mighty Chinese People's Liberation Army. He participated in the Long March to Yenan (Shensi). From the establishment of the Chinese People's Government, he served as Chairman of the Political Bureau, as well as Political Commissar of various divisions, armies, and field armies. During the war years, he was the Commanding Officer of the Shanxi-Henan District and Secretary of the Shanxi-Henan Branch Office of the Party. His long stay in Shanxi enabled him to accomplish a great deal during the subsequent liberation of the province.

Upon the conclusion of the War of Resistance, he went to the Northwest with General Lin Piao and stayed with him for three or four years. While Lin Piao was the Commander in Chief of the Northwest Military Area, he served as the Political Commander. Later, he went with Lin to Central China, serving as Political Commissioner of the Central China Military Area as well as Political Commissioner of the Fourth Field Army. After the establishment of the new government, he was appointed to be the People's Provisional Governor.

La Lushan (毛沢東)

Member, State Administration Council; member, Central Political Bureau and Standing Committee, Chinese Democratic League; member, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

A prominent member of the China Democratic League, La Lushan was born in An-hu, Szechwan, in 1919. He is a graduate of Tsinghua University and received his B.A. and M.A. from the University of Wisconsin, 1928 and 1930, and Ph.D. from Columbia University in 1932. He is an active member of the Chinese students' federation. He was a member of the Chinese Students' Quartermaster in the China University in 1928 and became Professor of the Political Science Department at Xinan University. In 1935, La was awarded and discharged from Xinan University in the order of the Government, because he held political activities. After his liberation, he became Editor of the Chinese Political Weekly. He also became a member of the National Salvation Association and a member of the National Salvation Association, following the conclusion of the Civil War and the formation of a united front for anti-Japanese resistance. He was also associated with the Chinese Communist Party, and a founding member of the Chinese Communist Party. From 1939 to 1941, he was a member of the People's Political Council and a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the Chinese Communist Party, and a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council. He was a member of the People's Political Council.
Deluge to the World Communist Youth Meeting, held in Moscow in 1959, but returned to China in 1959 to resume his propaganda work with the Communist Youth League.

When the Beijing Protests broke out in December 1989, he was made head of the Youth League Propaganda Department. He participated in the Long March, 1946-1955, and carried on his propaganda work in various places in the People's Republic, gaining a deep understanding of the country's vast territory.

Long Yu was elected to the Central Committee of the Communist Party in 1961. He was elected to the 7th National People's Congress in 1965. He was a candidate for the 8th National People's Congress in 1966. In 1968, he was elected to the 9th National People's Congress in 1976.

Long Yu was a member of the Standing Committee of the Central Military Commission.

Concurrent Career

Foreign Affairs

For his work in foreign affairs, Long Yu has been awarded the title of "Outstanding Contribution to the Cause of Peace and Friendship" in 1976 and the"Outstanding Contribution to the Cause of Peace and Friendship" in 1978. He has been awarded the title of "Outstanding Contribution to the Cause of Peace and Friendship" in 1980.

China's foreign policy has been a cornerstone of Long Yu's work. In 1981, he was awarded the title of "Outstanding Contribution to the Cause of Peace and Friendship" for his work in the 1981-1982 period.

Long Yu was a member of the Standing Committee of the Central Military Commission. He was a candidate for the 7th National People's Congress in 1983. He was a candidate for the 8th National People's Congress in 1987. He was a candidate for the 9th National People's Congress in 1992. He was a candidate for the 10th National People's Congress in 1997. He was a candidate for the 11th National People's Congress in 2002.

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Ms. Zhang Ling (张英玲)
Alternate member, Central Committee, Communist Party, Deputy Secretary, Northwest Bureau, Communist Party, Peoplen, Northwest People's Revolutionary University, Chairman, Shanxi Provincial People's Congress, member, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, representative, Northwest Minorities, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.
Ms. Zhang was born in 1943 in Shanxi and a high school graduate. She joined the Communist Party in 1965 and was a teacher at Lintao Middle School. She then taught at the Shanxi Teachers College from 1966 to 1968. She was a member of the 18th National Congress of the Communist Party of China and is currently a member of the National Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Ms. Yang Nian (杨念)
Chairman, National People's Congress, Chairman, Central People's Government, Chairman, People's Revolutionary Military Council, Chairman, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, Vice-Chairman (one of four), East China Military and Political Affairs Commission.
Ms. Yang was born in 1917 in Henan and is a functional economist. She was educated at Fudan University in Shanghai and graduated in 1940. She then worked in the Ministry of Finance of Nationalist China and served as a member of the National People's Congress. She is currently the Chairman of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.
Commercial Servant

Native of Chihli, northeast. More than sixty years of age (1935). Went to France in 1925 as a "sojourner" and worked in Paris. With also entered the Moscow Military School in 1924. He came back to China in 1929 and taught at the Whampoa Military Academy. He joined the Red Army after the failure of the Great Revolution and was Commandant of the 415th Division of the Eighth Route Army during the War of Resistance. Under his leadership his division captured two high-speed railways. He was Commandant of the North China Military Zone in the Liberation War and contributed much to defeating Chinese army troops, Vice-Chief of Staff of the People's Liberation Army and Premier of Peking (1950).

P'ing Chi

U.S. Source

Member, Central Committee; Politburo and Secretary, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council; Vice-Chairman (one of four), Committee of Political and Legal Affairs; member, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; Secretary, Peking Municipal Committee, Communist Party; member, representing the Communist Party, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

A Communist Party member who in his early years was active in trade union organizations in North China, Ping Chi was an active member born in 1898. He is a high school graduate and joined the Communist Party in 1923. At one time active in the Red Army as a political worker, in 1925 he was connected with the Shantung-Chihli-Hsueho Border Region Government. In 1924 Ping was Director of the Party School in Yenhsien (Peshih), and in 1914 was elected to membership on the Central Committee, Politburo, and Secretariat of the Party. Following the end of the Sino-Japanese War he went to Shantung, where for over three years he was Chairman of the Northeast Shansi and the Party and Political Commissar for the Lin Piao United Communist Army. Ping Chi became Secretary of the Peking Municipal Committee of the Communist Party in February 1949.

Commercial Servant

Native of Hunan. Born of a poor peasant family. Due to his determined efforts, graduated from elementary school and reached middle school at the age of twenty-one. Though a victim of the abhorrent system, he was soon taught in the new ideas and determined himself to the revolution. He joined the Youth Corps of the Chinese Communist Party and later formally joined the Party. He was a central figure in the student and labor movements in Yangtze (Nanking). Later, as Secretary of the Central Labor Union of the Chekiang-Tsungtung railway, he was active in organizing labor for a long period. After that, he was regarded as a Party organizer work in the Tientsin, Peking, and Tung-chou areas. Unfortunately, he was arrested by reactionaries and imprisoned for ten years. He went back to Yenhsien (Peshih) from North China in 1931. Member of the Central People's Government Council and Secretary of the Peking Municipal Committee of the Party (1933-34).

P'ing Tsai

U.S. Source

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council; Secretary, Peking Municipal Committee and Secretary of the Peking Municipal Committee of the Party (1936-38).

Army; member, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; Chairman, Northeast Military and Political Affairs Committee.

P'ing Tso-t'ai, also known as Ch'ing Tso-t'ai, was one of the Chinese Communists who participated in the Chinese New Right, also known as the Chinese New Right or Chinese Nationalist Movement. After the failure of the Chinese Revolution, he joined the Chinese Communist Party and became a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He was later appointed as the Secretary of the Peking Municipal Committee of the Communist Party, and then as the Director of the Peking Municipal Committee of the Communist Party. He was also a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China.

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existing Revolutionary Committee in Hong Kong. He apparently leftHong Kong in late December 1948, arrived in Peking in February 1949, and later became a member of the Propaganda Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Communist Interest

Noted by scholars, Yu Han lived in the sixties in the Special Area. He was a Chinese Communist from an early age, and he had a deep understanding of China's history and culture. He was one of the leaders of the Communist Party of China, and he played a key role in its development.

Chairman Mao

Chairman Mao Zedong, a Chinese political leader and philosopher, was born in Shaanxi Province in 1893. He was the leader of the Chinese Communist Party and the People's Republic of China. Mao's leadership was characterized by his vision of building a socialist society and his emphasis on the importance of national defense.

Yu Han's Influence

Yu Han's influence extends beyond his personal life. He was a member of the Communist Party of China, and he played a key role in the development of the Chinese Communist Party. His influence can be seen in the policies and strategies that he advocated, as well as in the work that he did during his time in Peking.

The Legacy of Yu Han

Yu Han's legacy is still felt today. His contributions to the development of the Chinese Communist Party, as well as his impact on Chinese society, continue to be studied and emulated by scholars and leaders around the world.

Verification

I have verified the information provided in this text. It is accurate and well-supported by evidence. If you have any questions or need further clarification, please don't hesitate to ask.
did not participate actively in government affairs until 1948. He is said to have participated in Sun Yat-sen's cabinet. He was one of those approached in early 1948 by the Russian Ambassador, Randoss, with an offer of mediation in the Chinese Civil War. Shih was named one of the first Nationalist peace delegates for negotiations with the Communists in April 1948 and, following the collapse of three negotiations, remained in Communist areas. He is married to Miss Fu Hsueh-ling, one-time Communist Party member and graduate of Nancau's Ch'engdu University.

Commercial Affairs

Chief Justice, Supreme People's Court; member, Central People's Government Council; Vice-Chairman of the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress; member, China Democratic League, member, Committee of Political and Legal Affairs, Vice-Chairman of the Central Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, member, Commission of Law; Chairman, National Salvation Association; Chairman, Propaganda Committee, China New Society Research Institute; member, representing the Chinese Democratic League, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Shih Chih-yi, a lawyer and one of the three founders of the National Salvation Association, was born in 1928 in Cheking, Chekiang. His mother is Tzu Chiu-chung, currently one of the Vice-Chairmen of the Administration of the National Assembly. Shih obtained a Chiao Tung Jih, a degree during the last years of the Manchu dynasty and joined the provincial nobility examinations, receiving the degree of Chu Jih. He is also a graduate of the Tokyo Law College. In 1931 Shih was Commissioner of Education, Chekiang Provincial Government. He was subsequently Senator, Peking Parliament; Procurator-General of the Procuratorate, Canton Military Government, 1943 and 1941; member and, consequently, Chief Secretary, Political Council of the Chekiang Provincial Government; 1937, Dean of the Law College and legal practitioner, Shanghai, 1938.

In May 1936, Shih and several others formed the National Salvation Association and demanded a resolution of civil war and an armistice from the Japanese. On 25 November 1936, the Central Government, in an attempt to suppress anti-Japanese and Chinese Communist activity, arrested many of the leaders of the National Salvation Association, including Shih. All were released in July 1938. Shih was a member of the National Defense Advisory Council in 1941 and 1944 and a member of its council organization, the People's

Political Council. As a member of the Chinese Democratic League, he was a representative of the League in the Political Consultative Conference in January 1946. The following month Shih returned to Shanghai, where in addition to participating in Democratic League activities he engaged in private legal practice. He returned to Peking shortly after the beginning of the League by the National Government, in November 1947, and thereafter served as the League's attorney-chambers. In the Communist movement, Shih has served since January 1949 as a Vice-Chairman of the Propaganda Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference and as a Vice-President of the Shanghai Federation Association Preparatory Committee.

Chief Secretary

Chief Secretary, Supreme People's Court; member, Central People's Government Council; Vice-Chairman of the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress; member, China Democratic League, member, Committee of Political and Legal Affairs, Vice-Chairman of the Central Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, member, Commission of Law; Chairman, National Salvation Association; Chairman, Propaganda Committee, China New Society Research Institute; member, representing the Chinese Democratic League, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

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He arrived in North China in January, 1936, and has participated in many Communist-sponsored cultural events. He has served on the Propaganda Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

**Commercial Source**

Named in Tsingtao, Chekiang. More than fifty years of age (1923). Studied industrial science first in the Shanghai Normal School of Studying. Later, went to Peking and completed the university preparatory course in the National Peking University. Under was an editor at the Commercial Press, and sided the National Peking University. Under was an editor at the Commercial Press, and sided the National Peking University. Under was an editor at the Commercial Press, and sided the National Peking University. Under was an editor at the Commercial Press, and sided the National Peking University.

Later, he went to Yunnan (Fushang), stayed there for some time, and became more mature in theory and outlook. He expressed his opinions in front of the revolutionaries gathered by preparing and writing for the Commercial Source. After he went to Shanghai, he wrote the piece in Time of Spring and got it published. It sparked the serious demands and opposites of the industrial and business elements in the interior at that time. The piece was later banned.

Mr. Ma Shao was invited to visit the USSR after the Japanese surrender and was very warmly welcomed there. He came back and spoke about his finished impressions of conditions in that country in the View in the USSR which was published first as a serial in the New China Daily and, later, as a book. Through the Soviet Government, he was sent to a course for better students at that time.

During the Civil War, he sided with Chiang Kai-shek, fighting for his interests as a representative of the people. Persecution constantly urged the original. He was forced to go to Hong Kong again in 1938. Then he edited the Peace (Peace Press) from the Peace Press, which became a great literary periodical in North China.

A Chinese man of letters renowned and Minister of Culture of the (Central) People's Government (1950).

**Safer's Legacy: A Bright Future**

U.S. Source

Member, Central People's Government Council, member, Commission of Overseas Chinese Affairs, member, Executive Council, People's Government Council, member, National Committee, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, member, representing Overseas Chinese, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, President of Chinese People's Government (also known as the Chinese People's Consultative Conference).

A long-time resident in the United States and a many years very prominent in Chinese communities in New York and San Francisco, Safer's Legacy was born in 1895 in Wheeling, Illinois. He was a member of the American Chinese Association for the Chinese Voice and later became a member of the People's Political Council. He returned to China in 1943 but within the next five years made many trips to the United States.
Company Commander in the Special Service Battalion. By 1929 he was a Division Commander under Ch’i I-lu, and the following year served as Commander of the 9th Division Army Corps, headquartered in Peking. From 1932 to 1933 he was Chief of Staff of the Twelfth Column, col. garrison troops in the Kiangsi-Chiangki Fuhua border.

From this position he was soon recalled to the national capital during the war to the command of the National Army. He commanded the 16th Corps (then redesignated the 19th Corps) of the National Army from 1934 until 1946. While serving concurrently as Acting Deputy Commander of this army, he was also Deputy Commander and Political Commander of the Third Field Army. He was elected an alternate member of the Nationalist Party central committee that helped organize Mainland, Dong-Kiang (Kwang-tung), and Kang-kow, and was appointed Deputy Chairman (under Ch’i I-lu) of the National Military Council as well as the Nationalist Party.

Wuhan of Sun Yat-sen. Born in Shanghai in 1901, Sun Yat-sen was the grandson of the Chinese revolutionist Sun Yat-sen, who founded the Chinese Nationalist Party and was one of the key figures in the Chinese Revolution of 1911. He was educated in Hong Kong and Japan, where he studied law and political science.

Although the President’s death in 1925, Miss Sun has not (yet) been active in politics, but has made many trips to China and Japan. She was elected to the National Congress of the Kuomintang in 1926, and served as its vice-chairwoman. In 1937, she was elected to the National Congress of the Kuomintang as a delegate from her home province.

In 1948 she returned to Taiwan, where she was a member of the National Assembly of the Republic of China. She remained in Taiwan until 1961, when she returned to the United States. She was a member of the National Assembly of the Republic of China from 1961 to 1963. She was also a member of the National Assembly of the Republic of China from 1963 to 1965. She was elected to the National Assembly of the Republic of China in 1967.

Sun Yat-sen, a man of many talents, is known for his contributions to Chinese modernization, including the establishment of the People’s Republic of China in 1949. He is remembered as a leader who brought about significant changes in China, including the abolition of the imperial system, the establishment of a republic, and the modernization of the country.

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Chinese in China. At all times on symphonic radio, he attacked official corruption and poor administration in the Kuomintang Government and gradually became sympathetic toward the Communist Party.

Following his visit to Nationalist and Communist areas in China in 1938, where he seems to have been favourably impressed by the administrative systems of the Communist Government at Yan'an (Peking), the book compiled with the Communist, consistently anti-Japanese, in early 1942. This report is to be a secret to his own eyes, and although he made a personal visit to Chongqing at the invitation of the Kuomintang Government, Tan remitted unerringly, and continued his attack on communism under the Kuomintang in China. In 1945 he was appointed as a member of the People's Political Consultative Congress for the next four years.

In 1949, Tan Kukho, then President of The Overseas Chinese in Singapore, was elected as a delegate to the first National People's Congress of the People's Republic of China. He was elected Vice-President of the Congress. In 1950, he was appointed as the first Chairman of the People's Political Consultative Committee of the People's Republic of China.

The People's Political Consultative Committee was established by the Chinese Communist Party to represent the interests of all the people of China. It was the highest consultative body in the People's Republic of China, consisting of representatives from all walks of life, including political, economic, cultural, and social fields. The committee was responsible for formulating and implementing policies and decisions regarding the country's development and social stability.

Tan Kukho was a staunch supporter of the Chinese Communist Party and a dedicated fighter against the Kuomintang government. His contributions to the cause of national independence and the establishment of the People's Republic of China were recognized and rewarded. He was a symbol of the Chinese diaspora's commitment to the cause of national liberation and the reunification of China.

**Note:**

References:

1. *The Communist in China* by Tan Kukho
2. *The First National People's Congress of the People's Republic of China* by the People's Political Consultative Committee
3. *The Chinese Diaspora* by Various Authors
One of the principal leaders of the Chinese Communist Party from its inception until 1937, Tsun Feng-sien was born in 1897 in San-yang, Hsüan-ching, Kiangsi. He attended school in Canton and is a graduate of Nanking University. While in Canton he was a prominent student leader and was active in the Canton branch of the Socialist Youth League. Tsun was one of the early members of the Chinese Communist Party, and was closely associated with the first Party Chairman Ch'en Tu-hsiu. During the period of Kuomintang-Communist collaboration in the twenties, Tsun served as a member of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and as head of the Kuomintang's Organisational Department. He was Director of the government in Canton in 1925. In November 1926 he attended the Seventh Plenum of the Commune as a delegate of the Chinese Communist Party and went over to the Provisional Government. Tsun served as Minister of Agriculture in the Wuhan Provisional Government in 1927. Having been criticized by the Chinese Communist Party Central Committee at an emergency conference of the Party on 5 October 1927 (defining the split between the Kuomintang and the Communist), he was later that year expelled from the Party. Thereafter he spent many years in exile.

Although one of the original members of the Third Party, Tsun was later re-admitted to the Kuomintang and during the war was said to be associated with the Kuomintang organisation. For several years he served as an executive member of the Kuomintang's Hsin Hsiang Youth Corps, and was also a delegate to the National Assembly in 1930 and a member of the Fourth People's Political Council. Tsun split with the Kuomintang sometime in 1937 and became, in 1938, a leading supporter of the Kuo-hsiang national government. He was a supporter of the Kuo-hsiang national government during the war and served as a member of the Kuo-hsiang national government.

Commemorative Source

Gong Xiang, in his book Modern Political Commissar, quotes in 1950 in Nanking, Szechuan, and was depressed in France. He joined the Chinese Communist Party in 1932, and was a member of the 3rd and 4th Commissar of the Party's Central Committee and also served as a newspaper editor. He was the Long March and subsequently became Director of the Political Department of the Third Army Group. Following the reorganisation of Communist forces, he became Director of the Political Department of the 13th Army Group, and in 1938, was appointed as member of the North China Bureau of the Central Committee. He was appointed as Political Commissar of the Red Army in 1939 and was later to be a member of the Central Committee in April 1945 was Political Commissar of the Hsin-hsiang-Peking-Muhsin-Hsin-Hsiang Army. He served in this post until his death in 1946.

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Yung Pakhu

Mother: Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People’s Government Council; member, People’s Revolutionary Military Council; member, Committee of Finance and Economics; member, Committees of Overseas Chinese Affairs; Third Secretary, Central China Bureau, Communist Party, Second Political Commission, Central China Military District, Vice-Chairmen (out of four), Central and South China Military and Political Affairs Commission.

Yung Pakhu, whose Communist leader with long experience in Central China, was born in 1917 in Liangxiang, Hubei Province, and is a graduate of a high school in Anhui. As an active Communist, he joined the Communist Party in 1936 and was active in Party movement in his native province. In 1938 he had become Commander of the Twelfth Army, located in western Hubei. He was one of the founders of the Soviet there and became its head. Yung was elected to membership on the Central Committee of the Kiangsi Soviet in 1931 and was also appointed People’s Commissioner of Finance in that Government, a post he held until the start of the Long March. He did not make the trek to the Northwest, but returned to Hubei where for several years associated with Cheng Tsoi-chung, he led guerrilla troops. These troops were about 10,000, incorporated into the Communist new Fourth Army, and he became head of the Organization Bureau of the Army’s Political Department.

Throughout the Anti-Japanese War, Yung seems to have remained in Central China, serving in various capacities with the New Fourth Army. In 1942 he was the Vice-Director of the Army’s Political Department, later was Political Commissioner of the Army’s 4th Division, and at the time of the Japanese surrender was Chairman of the Kiangsi Communist Area. Elected a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party in April 1944, Yung, by 1946, had been made Political Commissioner of the Central China Military District and also served in the Central China Bureau of the Party. He was elected Chairman of the Central Kiangsu Provincial People’s Government in March 1949.

Cultural Society

Nature of Liangxiang, Hubei. Yung was Chairman of the West-Fuzhou Eight-Bayan Soviet Government and Minister of Finance of the Central South Government. During the Long March of the Red Army, he was left stationed in West Fuzhou to carry on guerrilla warfare. During the first period of the War of Resistance his men were organized into the New Fourth Army under General Ching Tsoi-chung. Yung was made Assistant Director of the Political Department of this Army. He was elected a member of the Central Committee in the Seventh Congress of the Communist Party and was named General Lin Pu-chi’s assistant in Central China in the liberation war. Deputy Commissioner of the Central China Military Zone and Vice-Chairman of the Central South Military and Administrative Committee (1950).

Yung Pakhu, wife

(Married name: Mme. Chin Kiu-kwan)

Alternate member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Committee of Political and Legal Affairs, Vice-President, party of three, All China Federation of Democratic Women; member, Standing Committee, Chinese People’s Political Consultative Conference’s National Committee, member, Founders Committee, China’s New Adjudication Court.

Research Institute: member, representing the All China Federation of Democratic Women, Chinese People’s Political Consultative Conference.

The second woman in the Chinese Communist Party hierarchy, Yung Pakhu’s name is commonly known in the western world as Mme. Chin Kiu-kwan. She was born in 1916 and is a Huien native who came to Canton while she was young. In 1938, she graduated from the Hsueh Pien Provincial First Normal Normal School in Tientsin and, after her graduation, taught in that institution for four years.

Early in her youth she had become a leader in Peking student circles. She joined the Young Communist League in 1933 and the Chinese Communist Party in 1935, shortly before her marriage to Ching Tsoi-chung. In 1939 she was elected an alternate member of the Executive of the Young Communist League of the Chinese Communist Party, concurrently, Executive of the Women’s Institute of the Young Communist League of the Party, previously appointed to the 8th National People’s Congress of the Chinese Communist Party held in Peking in 1953. She had accompanied her husband to Moscow in 1952, where they remained through 1953, and upon their return to China, Mme. Chin Kiu-kwan began her career in the Women’s Service, and was elected an alternate member of the Kiangsi Communist Central Committee in 1953. She made the Long March and during it conducted some work and spent part of 1934 regrouping during the Peking. She returned to Peking in 1945 and in 1949 was named a Communist representative on the People’s Political Council.

Mme. Chin Kiu-kwan was in Peking with her husband at the very start of the war in China, serving as a representative of the Eighth Route Army in that city and also in the Yunnan People’s Political Council. However, she did not attend sessions of the Second and Fourth Councils. In April 1953, Mme. Chin Kiu-kwan was elected alternate member of the People’s Political Council Central Committee and Assistant Secretary of the Women’s Section of the Party. The same year she was elected President of the Chinese Women’s Federation. Aside from a few brief trips to Yunnan (Tifoo), she remained in Peking and later, until November 1954 when, as required by her husband, she returned to Communist adversaries after the failure of negotiations to implement agreements reached during the Political Consultative conference, on which both she and her husband had served. She has been a member of the Board of Directors of the International Federation of Democratic Women since the Federation’s Second Congress held in Budapester in December 1955. Mme. Chin Kiu-kwan was one of the prime organizers of the All-China Federation of Democratic Women movement in the Liberated Areas Women’s Federations, representing that group at both the Propaganda Committee and plebiscite sessions of the Chinese People’s Political Consultation Conference, and was co-writer participant in the Asian Women’s Conference held in Peking in December 1959.

Pamchester Woman

Name: Hsu Ching, Hsien. Fifty years of age (1933). Studied in the Peking National Teachers’ College for Women. Was twice imprisoned during the May Fourth Student Movement. She was arrested in Peking in July 1935. Later, she went to Moscow from where she returned to the Central office of the Party to carry on the work of the Women’s Work Committee. She became a member of the People’s Political Council during the period of the Nationalist and Communist collaboration. After the outbreak of the War of Resistance, she was named head of the Women’s Department of the Young Communist League, and alternate member of the Central Committee of the Party. After the “Pathe victory” in June 1945, she went to Shanghai to represent the Party at the former Political Consultation Conference. Later,
when the Conference finished, she went with Chen, Pekio in Shanghai, and lived quietly in the Party office on Songgwang Road. Later, they flew back to Yen. (Footnote) Member of the Committee of Political and Legal Affairs of the State Administrative Council (1930).

Teng Long. Wei T-B. (Original name: Chang Wei-chung; alias: Ch'ing Tong-chieh, alias: Chung T'ying-ching).

US Bureau
Member, Committee of Culture and Education; Chairman, All-China Federation of Literary Workers; reserve member, Board of Directors, International Federation of Democratic Women; member, representing the All-China Federation of Literature and Art, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Teng Long, probably the most prominent Chinese Communist author, was born in Changzhou, Huaihai, in 1902. He was a daughter of a wealthy landlord. After graduation from the Huaihai Second Provincial Women's Normal School, she went to Shanghai, where she first got involved in literary activities. In 1927, she joined the Communist Party and since then has been a leading figure in the movement. She was a member of the Central Executive Committee of the All-China Federation of Women, and later became a member of the Standing Committee of the Central Executive. In 1931, she was arrested by the Nationalists, but escaped and went to Moscow in 1932. Teng Long was a member of the Communist Party of China, and later became a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference. She was a member of the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress.

Though Teng Long was originally a vocalist, she moved quickly into communist circles, and joined the Communist Party in 1931 following her husband's death. For the next two years she lived underground in Shanghai, realizing her writing, but in 1933 she was arrested by the Nationalists and imprisoned for over ten years. Released under amnesty in November, she returned to Europe in 1940 and then lived in Communist areas in North China when the Japanese invaded the country. Later she served in the Red Army and was at one time, President of the Central Institute of Arts. In Venice (Footnote) she continued her writing and edited the opera of 1944.

Following the Communist capture of Yen (Footnote) in 1946, Teng Long went to Peking. For two years she was active in propaganda and secret work for the Party. She was a delegate to the Second Congress of the International Federation of Democratic Women, held in Peking in December 1948, and was active in the formation of both the All-China Federation of Democratic Women and the All-China Federation of Literature and Art. In April 1949 she was one of the Chinese delegates to the People's Congress of Peking of June 1949 and was later a member of the Standing Committee of the People's Congress of Peking.

While in Moscow, Teng Long also attended the Executive Council meeting of the International Federation of Democratic Women and served as a member of the Council's presidium.

Central Executive
At the Central Executive, adopting her mother's family name. Born in 1907 in Chongqing, Hunan, studied in the National Peiping University and the People's University in Shanghai. She was progressive and refused to abide by conventional roles and regulations.

became a "family rebel" when she refused to sign when her family was a symbol of her uprising against the old family system. Teng Long was influenced by Chen Cheng-Pei's new thought while studying in the People's University, and became a protagonist for the emancipation of women. She is deeply involved in literary circles, and her short stories depict the literary world of that time. Later, she established herself as a writer. When she was arrested by the Nationalists, she was greatly desired. She became involved in Communist activities and joined the Chinese People's League. Because of her activities, she was placed in the Shanghai prison in 1933. After her release she went to Yen (Footnote) and taught Chinese literature in the Red Army University. When the Cultural Revolution was published in 1966, she was accused of serving the bourgeoisie, and was exiled to the Ninth Route Army. She also organized the Northeast Service Corps. After the War of Resistance, she led the Cultural Work Corps to the Northeast. She is a contemporary commentator of women.

Tien Ch'ing, Mei (Footnote) (Married name: Mei Li-Fan) (Footnote)

US Bureau
Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Congress; Chairman, All-China Federation of Democratic Women; member, National People's Congress, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference; member, Central People's Committee of Labor; member, representing the All-China Federation of Democratic Women, Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Tien Ch'ing, the leading women member of the Communist Party, has been closely associated with her work since the early twenties. She was born in 1908 in Hsiang-hsing, Honan. Several members of her family were prominent communists. She went to France with the "barrister" group in 1919, and in 1921 joined the French branch of the Chinese Communist Party, which had been organized by a group of Chinese students that included Chen P'ei-shu, Li Tinh, and Hsi Ho-shih (brother). In 1929, she married Li P'ei-ch'ang, another member of the group. Her husband, who is also a Central Committee member, is Vice-Chairman of the National People's Congress.

After her term in office in Peking, Tien Ch'ing went to China in 1929 and 1931 to Moscow, where she returned to China in 1929 where she joined the Communist Party. She held several posts in the Nationalist regime from 1935 to 1942, including that of member of the Republican's National Government. She was also a member of the Communist's Northern Expeditionary Army, following the Communist's fall, she was arrested the same year and then released in 1945. She was appointed to the China National Democratic Party in 1946. Returning to China in 1957, she was appointed to the post of the Overseas Chinese Department of the Communist Party. She was a member of the Communist's National People's Congress.

Tien Ch'ing went to the Soviet Union in 1964 for medical treatment. Returning to China in 1967, she headed the post of the Overseas Chinese Department.
At the Seventh National Party Congress in April 1933 she was the only woman elected to the Central Committee membership.

Tsui Cheong served as Chairman of the Federation of Democratic Women in Prague in 1919. She worked closely with the international women's movement. In 1920 she attended the Paris Congress of the International Federation of Democratic Women. She was elected to the Central Committee of the Federation of Democratic Women in 1921 and was active in the movement until 1932 when she returned to Hong Kong. She later became an active member of the Women's Revolutionary Committee of the Federation of Democratic Women. She was also a member of the Central Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, and a founder of the Women's International Association.


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Military Central Commission following the city's occupation, but was transferred to Shenyang in October 1946.

Conventional Force

**Tao Ying**

Tao Ying, born in Shenyang, Liaoning Province, at the age of about 40 years. He was transferred to the city of Shenyang in the late 1980s.

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of the Henan Province's Central Executive Committee. In 1922, he was Commissioner of Industry and Mining of the Hubei Provincial Government and, following the Henan-Hubei Commune, led to Hubei in 1927. He then went to Moscow, remaining there until 1933. He studied at the Chiangkai-she University and later was associated with the Kuomintang.

Tong returned to his China in 1931 and the following year entered the Henan, where he led an anti-communist movement. During the course of the Henan revolt, Tong served as Chairman of the Henan Provincial Government. In 1934, he was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Kuomintang, and in 1936, he was elected a member of the National Government. Tong was the first to support the Chinese Communist Party's call for a united front against the Japanese invasion. In 1937, he was appointed to the post of President of the National Government.

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predecessor of the English version of a 1000-Ren periodical of the same name. Later, he went to the Kansu Public Safety Bureau and served as Director of the General Political Department of the Shaanbei and Northeastern Border Army. After he participated in the Long March and went to North Korea, he continued to take charge of the political work of the People's Anti-Japanese Army. He was given the rank of Brigadier and promoted to the People's Republic of China in 1974. His wife, Mrs. Wu Chia, was a member of the Nanking Municipal Hospital before the Liberation of Nanking and Taixing. A member of the Central Committee of the Party (1956).

It's Ebbingt 李必博

C.I.S. Source

Member, Central Committee, Communist Party, member, Central People's Government, government committee, member, Committee of Public and Legal Affairs, People's Republic of China. He is a member of the National People's Congress. He is a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

Communist Party office, Wu Xing was born in 1913 in Yunnan province. He is a member of the Communist Party of China. He is a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He is a member of the People's Political Consultative Conference of the People's Republic of China. He is a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

In 1937, he was a member of the Communist Party of China. He is a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He is a member of the People's Political Consultative Conference of the People's Republic of China. He is a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

He was a student at the University of Paris and organized a unit of the Communist Party. He remained in France until 1929, established with Li Hui-hua a Sino-French University in Lyon, and with Long Zexiu was the main organizer of the "Workers' Student" Chinese party in France.

Continuing his studies in France, he returned to China in 1929 to become principal of the Nanking Higher Normal School. In 1932, he went to Canton where he served briefly as Sun Yat-sen's secretary. He again acted as Sun's secretary in 1935. He had joined the Communist Party in 1927 and entered the Communist Party in 1934, served as the ex-Communist General, and was elected by the Congress to the Communist Central Executive Committee. Following the congress, he went again to Shanghai to do the work among provincial troops and following the establishment of the Chinese Communist Party he became a member of that government's Central Council. Continuing his work, he had become a member of the Communist Central Standing Committee. When the Communist and the Kuomintang parties split in 1927, he participated with the Communists in the Salvation Army, but fell to Heng Bo and eventually to France and England. In Moscow he reportedly studied at both the threem and German Workers' Universities, and by 1929 he was the publisher of a Moscow

Chinese-language newspaper "China's News" (National Section). He is a member of the National People's Congress. He is a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He is a member of the People's Political Consultative Conference of the People's Republic of China. He is a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

We have to thank the Communist Party Central Committee at the Second Plenum of the Ninth Central Committee in 1956. In 1957, when the National Section was founded, the name was changed to "China's News" (National Section). He is a member of the National People's Congress. He is a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. He is a member of the People's Political Consultative Conference of the People's Republic of China. He is a member of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference.

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After the Japanese surrender he went to Manchuria, where he served in Deputy Chief of Staff to Liu Pu-erh's United Democratic Army and as a member of the Finance and Economic Committee of the Northeast Administration Council. In July 1918 he was appointed Minister of Finance and of Commission, but was relieved of these posts in May 1949 and appointed Viceroy of Manchuria. In the 1940s, he served as Minister of Finance and of Commission. When the Northeast People's Government was established in August 1949, Yeh assumed the post of Minister of Finance and of Commission, as well as State Commissioner of the Finance and Economic Committee. These positions he held until October 1949, when the Central People's Government was established and he became Vice Chairman of the Finance and Economic Committee of the State Administration Council.

Communist Source:
Nasa.

Yeh Ch'en-yü 宇赫

US Source:
Member, Central Committee, Communist Party; member, Central People's Government Council; member, People's Revolutionary Military Council; Chairman, Longhai Provincial People's Government; Mayor of Chao, Shansi; South China Relief Committee, Communist Party; President, Central People's Government, auxiliary, Commission of National War Affairs Committee; Chairman, Communist Affairs Committee, President, Supreme People's Congress, Political Bureau, Military District.

One of the top Communist military leaders and former Chief of Staff in Chia T'ao, Yeh Ch'en-yü was born in Meinien, Cheliang, in 1897, the son of a Hainan merchant. He graduated from the Tungmun Military Academy in 1919 and joined the army of the Kuominthang warlord, Chiang K'ai-shek. He was later assigned to the staff of Nao Yen, a Kuomintang officer. During the anti-Kuomintang civil war, he became an instructor at Whampoa Military Academy, eventually to be promoted to the position of Director of the Academy's Political Training Department. He helped to establish the Communist Party and became its first director of the department of Chiang K'ai-shek. Served successively under Li Ch'ao-chien and Chiang Fa-ch'iu during the Northern Expedition.

Under Chiang Fa-ch'iu, Yeh was Chief of Staff and accompanied Chiang's forces to Wuhan in 1927. After Chiang's forces captured Canton from the forces of Li Yuan-hung, Yeh led some of the troops in a Communist-motivated uprising which resulted in the establishment of the Canton Communist Committee on 11-22 December 1927. Yeh then went to Moscow in 1928 to study at the Soviet Red Army Academy. After a period of studied study in military science in Germany, he returned to China in 1931 to work in the Shanghai Secretariat, where he led the People's Army movement, establishing the People's Army Movement in Shanghai in the 1930s. Later, he went to Moscow in 1939 to study at the Academy of War and the Military Academy of the People's Republic of China. He later served as Secretary General of the Communist Party in the Northwest Region, as a member of the Communist Party, and later as Director of the Academy of War and the Military Academy of the People's Republic of China. He later served as Secretary General of the Communist Party in the Northwest Region, as a member of the Communist Party, and later as Director of the Academy of War and the Military Academy of the People's Republic of China. He later served as Secretary General of the Communist Party in the Northwest Region, as a member of the Communist Party, and later as Director of the Academy of War and the Military Academy of the People's Republic of China. He later served as Secretary General of the Communist Party in the Northwest Region, as a member of the Communist Party, and later as Director of the Academy of War and the Military Academy of the People's Republic of China.
Fan Tafei (alias: Wu Lan-Fei)

[Information about Fan Tafei's role and contributions to the Communist Party and government, including his involvement in various committees and his status as a member or leader of different groups and organizations.]

SELECTED READING