China Reconstructs

How China Solved Her Food Problem

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CHINA is self-sufficient in grain. In the past quarter-century, led by Chairman Mao and the Chinese Communist Party, our people have self-reliantly solved the long-standing historical problem of grain shortages.

On the eve of the founding of the People’s Republic of China in 1949, the imperialists declared that China’s increasing population created “an unbearable pressure upon the land” and predicted that the new China would not be able to feed her several hundred million people. According to imperialist logic, China could survive only by importing rice and flour and becoming their colony.

In the 25 years since that prediction, China’s population has grown from 500 million to nearly 800 million, an increase of nearly 60 percent. Her grain production in the same period has more than doubled from 110 million to over 230 million tons, outstripping her population growth.

Though the per capita consumption of grain is still not very high, it is guaranteed by a system of planned supply. Grain prices have remained stable. The state, the people’s communes as collectives, and their member-households separately, all store reserves. This guarantees the grain needs of the people, in good years or bad. Every one of China’s nearly 800 million people has food to eat.

Having achieved self-sufficiency in grain, and in fact a surplus, China is free from foreign control, able to export and import very small amounts of grain — on the basis of equality and mutual benefit — to provide the people with a more varied diet and to suit certain needs of foreign trade. The imperialist prediction has been exploded.

Grain is a basic necessity of life. The imperialists and colonialists, both old and new, often use control of grain markets as a means of meddling in other countries’ affairs. In semi-feudal, semi-colonial China, imperialism, feudalism and bureaucrat-capitalism worked hand in glove to exploit and oppress the Chinese people so that the masses, especially the peasants, became impoverished. Farm production was severely impaired or ruined. Just before the liberation, the grain yield per hectare of land was only about a ton.

The imperialists carried out a twofold exploitation. On the one hand they plundered China’s farm and auxiliary products and her natural resources. On the other, they dumped their surplus rice and flour in a show of “philanthropy”, but actually to increase China’s dependence on them. The old China had to import grain almost every year to supply the big coastal cities. In the vast countryside and inland towns, a bad year always meant famine, begging for food and death by starvation. After the big drought in 1929, 20 million people in five northern provinces became refugees and 500,000 perished from hunger.

How did China solve the food problem left behind by the old society? The answer lies in what Chairman Mao said, in rebuttal of the dire prediction of the imperialists, “Revolution plus production can solve the problem of feeding the population.”

And that is how the new China, where the people are their own masters, has solved it in the last 25 years. A series of social rev-
olutions has taken place in the countryside — land reform, agricultural cooperation and the forming of the people's communes. Production has been developed by relying on the superior system of socialism, giving full scope to the collective strength of hundreds of millions of peasants, adhering to the national economic policy which takes agriculture as the foundation and industry as the leading factor, and ensuring increased support for agriculture by all other branches of the economy.

**Destroying Shackles**

In old China 70 to 80 percent of the farmland was owned by landlords and rich peasants. The masses of poor peasants were tenants, who had to pay 60 to 70 percent of their harvests in rent. Farming individually with crude tools on small plots, and subjected to this relentless exploitation, they could hardly maintain production, let alone develop it. Grain output was extremely low.

The land reform carried out under Communist Party leadership soon after the liberation destroyed the system of feudal land ownership, broke the shackles that had fettered rural productive forces for many centuries, and aroused the peasants' enthusiasm for production. Immediately afterwards, the Party led the peasants in moving forward along the road of collectivization pointed out by Chairman Mao — first to mutual-aid teams which had the rudiments of socialism, then to semi-socialist cooperatives in which land was pooled, then to fully-socialist cooperatives in which land was collectivized, and draft animals and farm tools were bought by the collective. Thus the labor power, land, draft animals and farm tools in the rural areas all came under unified management, helping production to expand.
In 1958 the fully-socialist co-ops amalgamated into people’s communes. With greater collective economic strength, the communes were able to organize both work force and means of production on a still larger scale and apply them still more effectively. The productive forces in the countryside expanded greatly. Being both economic units and basic units of political power in the countryside, the communes are better able to fit agricultural production into the national economic plan.

In leading the peasants along the road of collectivization, the Chinese Communist Party constantly educates them in socialism. It helps them to free themselves gradually from the idea of private ownership, rooted in thousands of years of individual farming, and build up the idea of farming for the revolution. It leads the peasants in criticizing capitalist tendencies, resisting the interference and sabotage by revisionist lines, keeping to the socialist road, and consolidating and developing the socialist collective economy.

After taking part in collective productive labor, the peasants have plenty of time for study, which is one of their rights. They study the works of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin and the writings of Chairman Mao, and the Party’s guiding principles and policies. They discuss national affairs and take part in political activities.

Because their political perspective is constantly widening and their socialist consciousness growing, China’s hundreds of millions of peasants are able to tell right from wrong and keep to the socialist road in the thick of the sharp class struggles in the countryside.

They have taken an active part in the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution and the movement to criticize Lin Piao and Confucius. They have been criticizing Liu Shao-chi and Lin Piao for pushing a counter-revolutionary revisionist line and examining and repudiating the schemes of these two renegades to sabotage socialism. They are criticizing the doctrines of Confucius and Mencius which Lin Piao used as an ideological weapon for restoring capitalism. They see that the Confucian ideas that “those above are wise and those below stupid” and “fate decides” were actually spiritual shackles fastened on them for centuries by the reactionary ruling classes. They have a better understanding of Chairman Mao’s historical materialist concept, “the people, and the people alone, are the motive force in the making of world history”, and amply recognize their own vital role in building socialism. As their spiritual outlook broadens and deepens, farm production too grows with great vigor.

Aim High

When Chairman Mao issued the call, “In agriculture, learn from Tachai”,* China’s new-type peasants, equipped with socialist consciousness, launched a mass movement to do so. They turned their own spirit of self-reliance and hard work into enormous strength for changing the face of nature, pushing socialist agriculture forward and transforming low-yield areas into high. Typical of this determination and drive is the way the peasants of the three northern provinces of Hopei, Shantung and Honan changed theirs from disaster-prone and grain-deficient areas into grain-sufficient ones. This they did by relying on the strength of the collective socialist economy and their own all-out effort.

These three provinces lie in the valleys of the Yellow, Huai and Haiho rivers. In China’s past history, droughts often turned their land into a parched desert and floods left it a watery waste. In famine years the toll of life ran into tens or even hundreds of thousands. Farm production was further disrupted through exorbitant taxes and exploitation of all

*The Tachai production brigade is a national pacesetter in agriculture. See the November 1974 issue of China Reconstructs.
kinds by the reactionary ruling classes, and in modern history by imperialist plunder.

To maintain their rule, the feudal dynasties for many centuries and the Kuomintang reactionary government in more recent times used to grab huge quantities of grain each year in the areas south of the Yangtze and the Huai rivers, then shipped them north to supply their officialdom and soldiery. The Grand Canal linking north and south was built mainly for this purpose. The calamity-ridden people of the three northern provinces had always longed to overthrow the reactionary rule, conquer both droughts and flood and free themselves from poverty.

After the birth of the new China, Chairman Mao and the Party Central Committee concerned themselves with the plight of the people of these provinces. Chairman Mao made frequent visits of inspection and gave important instructions on harnessing the Huai, Yellow and Haiho rivers, calling on the people to "change the situation in which grain had to be shipped north from the south".

The people of the three provinces responded by building a series of large-scale water-control projects over a period of years. Since the cultural revolution began, their peasants' enthusiasm for learning from Tachai and building a socialist countryside has mounted all the higher. Every winter and spring now tens of millions of people turn out to work on water-control projects. More than a thousand kilometers of the Yellow River Dyke in Honan and Shantung provinces have been raised and reinforced, ending the old pattern of "two breaches every three years". Several thousand waterways in the Huai and Haiho basins have been dug or dredged. All this has freed some seven million hectares of land from flood and waterlogging.

Besides harnessing rivers, the people of these three provinces have made basic improvements of their farmland, centering on drought prevention. In the mountains they have built reservoirs, terraced the slopes and planted trees to control erosion. In the plains they have dug wells and canals, opened up sources of fertilizer and improved alkaline soils. To increase yields, they have introduced superior seed strains, rational close-planting and intercropping, and increased the multi-crop area.

By 1970 Hopei, Shantung and Honan had become basically self-sufficient in grain. By 1973 their total grain production was 2.5 times that of 1949. After putting aside enough for food grain, seed, collective reserves, and consumption in their own cities and towns, the three provinces sold a total of 500,000 tons of surplus grain to the state. This not only turned their dream of self-sufficiency into a reality, it was a big step toward self-sufficiency in grain for all of north China and an important one in solving the food problem nationally.

In south China where natural conditions are more favorable and yields generally higher, the peasants are applying the spirit of continuing the revolution they have learned from Tachai to raise yields still higher and change over from two crops a year to three. Relying on the strength of the collective, and with help from the state, they work constantly to improve soils, water conservation and fertilizer supply, increase mechanization and farm more scientifically. Through many years of effort, China has built up several bases for the supply of market grain — among them are the Yangtze River delta, the Pearl River delta, the Tungting Lake area and Chiang-han plain. These places, where high yields are now guaranteed in all weathers, play an important role in feeding the nation and
Two leaders of the Tachai production brigade join the scientific farming group in studying a superior strain of wheat.

Leading chemical fertilizer made by a county synthetic ammonia plant.

meeting the needs for socialist construction.

China's countryside today is better able to withstand drought and prevent flood and waterlogging. Close to 17,000,000 hectares of low-lying fields have been freed from waterlogging. The irrigated area has increased notably. There are extensive tracts of all-weather fields in every province, municipality and autonomous region. More than 200 counties and cities supply commodity grain every year in amounts ranging from 50,000 to 350,000 tons.

All-out Support for Agriculture

All the departments of China's economy are guided, in their plans and measures, by Chairman Mao's general policy, "Take agriculture as the foundation and industry as the leading factor". All do their utmost to support agriculture. The heavy industries exercise their leading role to the full by supplying more and better farm machinery, chemical fertilizer, pesticides, fuel and trucks every year, thus helping agriculture to mechanize on the basis of collectivization and increasing its labor productivity.

The farm machinery industry was non-existent in old China. Today more than 20 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions manufacture their own tractors, walking tractors, diesel engines and pumps for farm use. The rural areas, devoid of industry throughout their long past, are now dotted with small hydroelectric power stations and small factories producing steel, farm machinery, chemical fertilizer and cement. Ninety-six percent of the counties have their own factories making and repairing farm machines.

In 1973 the country produced six times as many tractors and 32 times as many walking tractors as in 1965, the year before the cultural revolution, and the tractor-plowed area almost doubled in that same interval. Pumps with a capacity of 30 million horsepower have greatly expanded the areas irrigated and drained by machinery.

When north China was hit by severe droughts in 1971-73, industry speeded the production of drill rigs. Such help was an important factor in ensuring good crops in each of the three dry years. Some 330,000 wells were dug there in 1973 alone.

The finance departments, too, went all out to aid agriculture. While the self-reliant development of farm production by the people's communes is the foundation of advance, the state appropriates certain funds every year to assist large-scale water-control projects and other measures for increasing farm output. The state fiscal policy is not to increase the agricultural tax when production increases. In the period soon after China's liberation, the agricultural tax amounted to 12 percent of annual farm production. Now it takes up only 5 percent.

The government also takes measures to narrow the "scissors" gap between industrial and farm prices. While retail prices for grain and principal non-staple foods paid by the consumer have remained the same, the prices at which farm and sideline products are bought by the state have been repeatedly raised, and those charged for agricultural means of production (machinery, fertilizers, etc.) repeatedly cut during the last 25 years. Purchasing prices for principal farm and sideline products today are more than 90 percent higher than in 1950, prices for chemical fertilizer, pesticide, and diesel oil are one-third to two-thirds lower than in 1950. In this situation, while ensuring that their members' incomes increase from year to year, the people's communes also amass more funds to spend on mechanization, diversifying their economy and setting up small industries serving agriculture, thus speeding its over-all development.

But even though China's developing agriculture is supplying the country with the necessary food grain, production has yet to catch up with the increasing demands of the people's everyday life, economic construction and aid to other countries. The yield per unit area is still not very high; the ability to fight natural disasters still not very strong and the level of mechanization still low. Viewed from any angle, there is a great potential for further increases in grain production. The Chinese people are working self-reliantly to build, before too long, a modern socialist agriculture with high and stable yields.
What Do We Mean by... ‘Take Grain as the Key Link and Ensure All-round Development’?

CHINA is a socialist country and her agricultural development is aimed at consolidating the national economic base and meeting the needs of socialist construction and her people’s livelihood. As in industry, production in agriculture is not for profit, nor is it governed by the capitalist law of value. China’s economy is planned and develops proportionately. Agricultural production is part of the national economic plan and serves the needs of the state.

“Take grain as the key link and ensure an all-round development” is an important policy formulated by Chairman Mao to guide the development of the country’s agriculture. It reflects the law of China’s economy which develops according to plan and proportionately. Under this policy, grain production comes first, but at the same time a proper ratio is maintained between grain and other crops, and between field cultivation, forestry, animal husbandry, side-occupations and fishery. The aim is to ensure an all-round development of farm economy.

Over the past 25 years, the Chinese people, under the leadership of the Chinese Communist Party, not only have solved the problem of feeding themselves by following the policy of self-reliance but have also produced a grain surplus. Surplus grain goes to feed the industrial cities, and to support industrial crop areas and those engaged in forestry, animal husbandry and fishery, and sideline production units. With their supply of grain guaranteed, everyone can engage in production without worry. Thus, an increase in grain production also promotes the over-all development of agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, sidelines and fishery. This contributes to the accumulation of funds and the provision of raw materials and markets for industry. An expanding industry and agriculture enables China to continue building socialism on an independent basis.

In drafting the annual plan for agriculture, the planning departments of the Central Government, provinces (or autonomous regions), administrative areas, counties and people’s communes repeatedly discuss and study what measures will be needed at each level to implement the basic policy. When fixing the area to be planted with various crops, the planning departments first make sure that the acreage allocated for grain will be sufficient to guarantee the required output. A number of bases for the supply of market grain have been built up. They produce high yields even in years of drought or waterlogging and play an important role in feeding the nation. Every sector of the national economy serves agriculture, which is the base. Finance departments allot funds; the state invests in large projects for irrigation and flood control; factories produce farm machinery to accelerate mechanization. The underlying consideration of all is to implement the policy of taking grain as the key link and ensuring an all-round development.

As the grain supply increases, the state gradually carries out plans for the extension of industrial crops, forestry, animal husbandry, side-occupations and fishery. The policy is applied on a nationwide basis. Staple crops vary in accordance with regional conditions and are fixed under the unified state plan. In general, the main work of production teams in people’s communes is grain growing. It is on this basis that they cultivate other crops, develop forestry, animal husbandry, sidelines or fishery. In those areas mainly cultivating economic crops or engaging in forestry, animal husbandry or fishery, grain and other crops are also grown on a subsidiary basis wherever possible.

The principle is that every area has its main emphasis while also shouldering other tasks. Only thus can an all-round socialist agricultural economy be developed.

In China, implementation of the agricultural policy can be roughly divided into two stages. The first stage began in 1956 with the setting up of agricultural producers’ cooperatives throughout the country. The scattered small peasant economy turned collective. Manpower, land, farm tools and other means of production came under unified management. This created the conditions for increasing grain production and, at the same time, developing a diversified economy. But each co-op had only about 100 households and 70 hectares of farmland. Their small scale limited all-round development.

Co-ops amalgamating into people’s communes in 1958 initiated the second stage. A commune generally has several thousand households with a population of around 10,000 and many more thousands of hectares of land. It has much more manpower, materials and funds than a co-op. Therefore, formation of people’s communes paved the way for further implementation of the policy — “Take grain as the key link and ensure an all-round development”.

Guided by this policy, China has been constantly raising agricultural production. Since 1962 — for twelve years running — she has had good harvests. In 1973, the yields of grain and cotton surpassed all previous levels and there was an all-round development of farming, forestry, animal husbandry, sidelines and fishery. The summer harvest in 1974 showed a substantial increase over the previous year, and although figures for the autumn crops are not yet available, forecasts are good.
Criticizing Lin Piao and Confucius

Keeping Their Roots in the Masses

JEN MIN

A workers' theoretical study group and professional theoreticians study together historical material on the struggle between the Confucian and Legalist schools.

WHEN people's thinking changes, the whole factory is transformed,” says Sung Yu-hsin, secretary of the Party committee of the Peking People's Machinery Plant. Here are several examples.

Early in 1974, not long after the movement to criticize Lin Piao and Confucius began, five workers put up a big-character poster that aroused a strong reaction throughout the plant.

The poster blasted the Confucian idea that “those who work with their minds govern, those who work with their hands are governed”, that “those above are wise and those below stupid”. Lin Piao also advocated these ideas.

The poster went on to say that to Confucius, the wise who were above were natural rulers while the masses of the people were stupid and should always be enslaved. Lin Piao considered himself a genius, “the noblest of men”. He likened himself to a “heavenly horse” that can traverse the skies at will. He believed that the masses were born stupid and only concerned themselves with matters of rice, firewood, oil and salt. Though the two men lived some 2,000 years apart, they thought along the same lines. Both sided with the decaying systems of their times: Confucius with the slave system, Lin Piao with capitalism. Both regarded the masses as riffraff and held it right for a small number of people belonging to a specially-privileged class to ride on the backs of the masses.

It was pointed out in the poster that if you don't want to return to the old road there must be constant criticism and repudiation of the
A Meeting of Hammers

Back in September 1971 when the cultural revolution had scored great successes, a new Party committee had been set up at the plant. Several young workers made 17 hammers and wrote on the handles the words “Don’t divorce yourself from labor; keep your heart close to the masses”. They presented these to the 17 members of the Party committee as a gift from the 2,800 workers and staff members. At first the committee members followed this advice conscientiously. They often worked in the shops and kept in close touch with the masses.

Gradually, however, some members began to spend more and more time at meetings and in their offices. They became content to rely on briefings for information as to what was going on in the shops. The masses began to criticize: “We don’t want the Party committee members to come to the shops because we need extra hands. The question is, does the Party committee want to keep close to the masses, is it carrying out Chairman Mao’s revolutionary line of relying on the masses? This is what is important.”

The Party committee was quick to admit that the poster was correct and had grasped the essence of the problem. It immediately put up a poster accepting the criticism and called a “meeting of hammers”.

All 17 members of the committee came with their hammers. They were joined by the writers of the poster, the representatives who had made the gift presentation in 1971 and representatives from the shops. Party secretary Sung Yuhsin led the discussion of Chairman Mao’s teaching, “By taking part in collective productive labor, the cadres maintain extensive, constant and close ties with the working people. This is a major measure of fundamental importance for a socialist system.”

He thanked the workers for their timely warning and pointed out that whether to rely on the masses in earnest as true Marxists should, or to regard them as stupid as Lin Piao and Confucius and all reactionary rulers did, is in essence a struggle between the two lines represented by Marxism-Leninism on the one hand and revisionism on the other.

Discussion was lively. The “meeting of hammers” became a meeting to criticize Lin Piao and Confucius.

Workers who wrote the poster said they had also learned a lot from the discussion. They saw that as ordinary workers they should know what they were working for, and what attitude they should take toward their jobs. “We are masters of the country,” they said. “We should work with a high sense of responsibility and make a bigger contribution to the revolution.”

A resolution passed by the Party committee fixed Wednesday as the day for all cadres to work in the shops. Furthermore a “meeting of hammers” was to be held every season to examine how the resolution was being carried out and to exchange experience.

Party committee members immediately put the resolution into practice and made a point of having frank talks with the workers whenever there was an opportunity. The foundry was picked out as an “experimental spot” for gathering experience on how to lead the movement to criticize Lin Piao and Confucius. The results were to be spread throughout the plant.

Since the younger workers had never lived in the old society, they found it hard to understand what a capitalist restoration would mean. To help fill this gap, the Party committee called on the Communist Youth League branch to send its members to the foundry where there were the greatest number of veterans and make an investigation of the family histories of its 300 workers.

The young people found that at least 90 families had either fled...
from famine, begged or had their families broken up. Nineteen children from these 90 families had been sold and 113 persons had either died of illness because they could not afford medical care or become disabled through beatings by landlords or capitalists. At the foundry criticism meeting, the old workers described their bitter experience in the old society and lashed out at Lin Piao for trying to restore capitalism through the use of doctrines of Confucius and Mencius.

**Technicians’ Desks**

As criticism of Lin Piao and Confucius deepened, the people’s hatred of revisionism grew and their love of socialism became more intense. Criticism stimulated everyone to ponder such questions as: How do we recognize revisionist influence and get rid of it? How can we make our plant always advance in the direction pointed out by Chairman Mao?

One of the questions raised by many people concerned the technicians’ desks.

During the cultural revolution, technicians had moved their desks from their offices into the shops where they could constantly consult the workers about designs and technological processes. The workers had thought it a good practice. But after a while the idea began to circulate that this was “a departure from normal practice”. In the name of strengthening technical management, the technicians were told to move their desks back to their offices. This was a step back to the pre-cultural revolution method of work with the technicians alone responsible for designing and decision on processes, while the workers did what they were told.

Why was it that the technicians’ desks were moved out of the shops? Because, as the masses pointed out, people’s minds were still influenced by the idea that “those above are wise and those below stupid”. It was a question of standpoint, a matter of whether, in technological matters, to rely on the masses of the workers or on only a small group of people. It was a matter of what line to follow.

The technical department held an earnest discussion and, supported by the Party committee, sent out technical service teams to all the shops and provided them with desks and materials. This meant that the workers could consult the technicians whenever they ran into a technological problem. Workers and technicians were together able to correct irrational and impractical links and make improvements.

The factory then set up a three-way cooperation group composed of workers, leaders and technical personnel to develop new products. The majority of members were workers and a veteran worker was the leader. Their first job was to design an urgently needed four-color cylinder offset press to be used for printing color pictures in books for children and young people. “We’ll show Lin Piao that the working people are neither stupid nor backward,” the workers said.

Members of the group went to other printing research and production units in the city for advice and information. They went to each shop in their own plant to explain the importance of making the machine by their own efforts. The workers pledged unanimous support.

Initial designs were ready in a few months. Every member of the group joined in making the parts and working out processes. The completed sample machine was exhibited for all the workers to inspect and make suggestions for improvement.

The new product went into trial-production at the end of one year instead of the two years planned. Exultant, the workers called it “a tangible result of our criticism of Lin Piao and Confucius”.

**More Innovations**

The No. 2 processing shop had always been a weak link in the production process, its members often hard put to it to complete their assignments. In the first quarter of last year the shop was required to meet some stiff targets. Worried, shop director Chou Mei-tung sat a long time at his desk trying to figure out some way to fill the demands. Finally he called on another plant for help.

That day he emerged from his office to see a poster that had been put up by workers in his shop. Entitled “Rely on the Masses or Seek Aid from Outside?” it pointed...
out that to have no faith in the initiative of the rank-and-file workers but only to believe in one’s own figures was another expression of “those above are wise and those below stupid”.

A worker for nearly 20 years, Chou had never looked upon himself as one of “those above who are wise” or thought of the workers as “those below who are stupid”. But as he thought over what he had done since becoming shop director, he realized he had changed and now thought of himself as the one who knew best the over-all situation and therefore had the greatest right to speak. He had consulted the workers less and less. He had actually thought himself wiser than the masses. He had to admit the workers’ criticism was correct.

He called a general shop meeting and announced all the figures. “We can shoulder the heavy assignment,” the workers said. “Pressure is a good thing. We’ll turn it into our motive force. We’ll work hard to bring a change.”

All the teams tried to take on bigger assignments. Working as a collective, the members of each team contributed his or her ideas on how to fulfill the targets and make innovations. Three young women workers made an automatic fixture and fitted it to a machine, which raised productivity sevenfold. Others improved a machine for punching holes and boosted efficiency fourfold. A hydraulic automatic lathe made by the shop’s three-way cooperation group in just one month raised productivity of one process sixfold. There were more than a hundred innovations in all.

Each time a new piece of equipment was made through technical innovation, the workers held an on-the-spot meeting pointing out that this was a criticism of Lin Piao and Confucius. With Chairman Mao’s teachings that “the masses are the real heroes” and that knowledge is born of practice, they criticized such reactionary ideas as “the masses are backward” and “there are people born with knowledge” preached by Lin Piao and Confucius.

They reviewed the development of their plant — grown from a 100-man shop making foot-operated printing equipment to a big plant making large precision printing machines, including some for export. Recalling this growth and the vigorous development throughout the country helped the workers recognize their own strength and inspired them to move forward with still greater drive.

The Movement Spreads and Deepens

The workers learned that it was not enough to hate Lin Piao and Confucius. What was more important was to criticize their ideas from a Marxist standpoint, approach and method. All the shops formed theoretical study groups. A young woman worker, Cheng Hsiu-lan, had written the poster about the Party committee’s hammers. Though very shy, as a member of her shop’s theoretical group she gave a vivid talk on “The Reactionary Life of Confucius”. More than 200 workers are now in theoretical groups and one-third of the workers and staff have joined spare-time study groups.

To deepen their criticism, workers and staff, applying the principle of making the past serve the present, made a study of the struggles between the Confucian and Legalist schools and the entire class struggle over the past 2,000 years. Many took part in writing commentaries of Legalist works and critical notes for the Confucian classics. Now they are criticizing Lin Piao’s bourgeois military line. Other activities to spread the movement include exhibitions, color-slide showings and storytelling gatherings.

Today everyone in the plant is a critic. Posters are everywhere. There are frequent reports and criticism meetings. The plant is both a factory making printing machines and a big school for studying Marxism-Leninism-Mao Tsetung Thought.
THREE NEW PROJECTS

Yellow River Water Control

FROM the mountains which rise above the upper reaches of the Yellow River in the Ningsia Hui Autonomous Region, one looks down on a long dam and power stations. Through this dam, the turbulent down-rushing water of the Yellow River is channeled through headgates into seven large trunk canals which irrigate over 200,000 hectares of land. From the power stations a dozen high-voltage transmission lines carry electricity to the surrounding countryside and factories.

This is the Chingtung Gorge Water Control Project, one of the major constructions in the first stage of work to control and develop the Yellow River. It is Chinese-designed and built.

Construction of the project started in 1958. It began supplying water for irrigation in 1960 and generating electricity at the end of 1967. Grain production in the 7,000 square kilometer irrigation area has averaged over three tons per hectare over the past few years and some counties, communes and brigades have achieved over six tons. Water from the Yellow River has made it possible to establish dozens of farms, orchards and forest-farms on desert land and dry riverbeds at the foot of the Holan Mountains and on the Ordos tableland. There is now ample water for the irrigation area, while flooding by the Yellow River has ended.

The Chingtung Gorge project is the hub of the power grid in the autonomous region. Formerly without modern industry, Ningsia is now rapidly developing in the fields of metallurgy, coal mining, machine tools, chemical fertilizers, farm machinery and textiles. The total value of industrial production in the region last year was more than four times that in 1966, the year before the Chingtung Gorge power stations began generating. Ninety-five percent of the agricultural production teams in the irrigation area now have electricity.

As early as the Chin dynasty, over 2,000 years ago, the laboring people of various nationalities in Ningsia began to use the Yellow River for irrigation. But before liberation the corrupt and inept rulers had never attempted to dam the river. All they did to counter the frequent floods was to build a temple on the east side of Chingtung Gorge to underscore the belief that the fate of the people lay in the hands of the "Dragon King".

After the founding of the People's Government Chairman Mao issued the call, "Work on the Yellow River must be done well." Control of the river was begun in a planned way. The Chingtung Gorge project—with its headquarters in the Dragon King's temple—was started in 1958 during the big leap forward.

The complete project embraces a concrete dam 697 meters long and 42 meters high with six sets of generators, two headwork power plants, seven spillways, three sluice gates and a switchyard. Most of the work was done during the winter low-water season so as not to interfere with irrigation. To save time and economize, the builders used traditional local methods to make 250,000 cubic meters of earth-and-straw cofferdams which diverted the river while the foundations were dug. The cost of the cofferdams was 80 percent lower than if concrete or sand and stone had been used, and work efficiency was raised.

Significance of Hunan-Kweichow Railroad

THE Hunan-Kweichow railroad runs westward from Chuchow in Hunan province to Kweiyang in Kweichow province—a distance of over 630 kilometers. Built in just two years (October 1970 to October 1972), it links up the Chekiang-Kiangsi line in the east and
the Kweiyang-Kunming line in the west to form an east-west trunk line across south China parallel to the Lunghai line in the north. It is thus of great political, economic and strategic significance.

Szechuan, Yunnan and Kweichow provinces, which cover a vast area in southwest China, are rich in natural resources, but because of the many high mountains, thick forests, swift rivers and precarious paths, means of transportation have always been lacking. After liberation the state built or rebuilt northern and southern railroads which made it possible to reach other parts of the country from the southwest. But there was still no direct line to the capital, Peking, or to the industrially developed east and mid-south. Moreover, the capacity of these lines was far from adequate to meet the needs of socialist construction. The Hunan-Kweichow line has radically improved communications between the southwest and the rest of the country.

In the two years that the new line has been open to traffic, it has carried a constant stream of ores, timber, farm and sideline products from the southwest to the east and mid-south. Industrial equipment, chemical fertilizers, cement and other materials have been shipped westward. A string of new towns and factories have sprung up all along the line and the minority nationality areas of western Hunan and eastern Kweichow have witnessed unprecedented economic development.

Construction of the railroad was done over some of the country’s most rugged terrain. The line had to be taken across the Hsuehshang (Snowy Peak Mountains) in mid-west Hunan and the Miao-ling and Yunwu mountains on the Kweichow plateau. It had to cross the Wushui River five times, the Chingshui three times and the Hsiangkiang, Taushui and Yuan-kiang rivers, each once. Work was made extremely difficult on many stretches because of geological faults, grottoes, underground streams, quicksand and soft soil. Twenty-three percent of the line goes over bridges and through tunnels, and the building of these constituted a large part of the work. The scope of construction can be imagined by the fact that an embankment one meter high and one meter wide built with the earth and stone moved would encircle the equator more than twice.

The 2,000-meter-long tunnel through the Hsuehshang is the longest on the Hunan stretch of the line. Blasting had been started in
1958 and then suspended, and water two meters deep had accumulated in the passage. Workers of the 12th Engineering Department of the Second Railway Engineering Bureau and militia units from Shaoshan and Ninghsiang came to resume work before the necessary machinery had arrived. Refusing to delay, they went into the tunnel on rafts, bailed out the water and set to work. The tunnel—the "east gate" of the line—was completed in less than nine months.

In Kweichow the line crosses high mountains and deep canyons with swift, treacherous rivers running through them. This section contains two-thirds of the bridges and tunnels on the line. Some of the tunnels caved in repeatedly during construction, others poured forth over 40,000 tons of water a day. Many stretches of the line were threatened by mountain movements and avalanches of earth. Showing great wisdom and a fearless revolutionary spirit, workers and militia members overcame one difficulty after another to ensure the smooth completion of the project.

**China Opens Another Big Oil Field**

CHINESE WORKERS have constructed a new oil field named Shengli, meaning "Victory", on the Gulf of Pohai in north China. Vast in area and rich in resources, the new oil field lies relatively close to important industrial and farming areas. Transport by both land and sea is convenient.

The prospecting and development of the Shengli field have been a battle ranking in importance next to that which took place for oil in Taching in the early 60s. In
1964 oil workers from Taching and an army of builders from other parts of the country converged on the coast of Shantung. Joining forces with the prospecting team, they worked mainly around the village of Shengli.

That summer heavy rains turned the white salt flats into a knee-deep sea that swept into the dug-outs where the workers lived and carried off some of their belongings. Trucks could not deliver drill rigs. "You’re tired? Think of our revolutionary forbears!" the workers said. "You find it hard? Think of what Taching went through!" They slogged on day and night in mud and water, carrying in drilling equipment on their shoulders to save time.

In less than a year they had drilled the first high-production well near Shengli village. A high-producing oil field had been opened up and there were broad vistas for oil prospecting and development on the Gulf of Pohai. "Let’s call it the Shengli oil field," workers suggested.

A large number of wells have gone into production and the state plan has been overfulfilled every year since the beginning of the cultural revolution in 1966. Drillers have worked together with researchers to create a new set of coring tools. These have increased the length of the cores from a few meters to 102.32 meters. Drill team No. 3252 has set a national record by cutting 150,000 meters in a year.

The plan called for a large pipeline to be run beneath the Yellow River—a distance of over 700 meters—the schedule demanding that the work be completed in three months. Breaking with convention, the workers pooled their wisdom and produced a new work plan. As a result the job was completed without difficulty. This guaranteed transport and enabled the new oil field to go into production on time.

The Shengli oil field is located in what is known geologically as the North China Basin. Some foreign bourgeois scholars had denied the possibility of oil existing in such a place. But the successful tapping of oil at Shengli has enriched and developed theoretical knowledge of oil prospecting and development in China. It will speed up significantly similar work elsewhere in the country.
SHENYANG is one of China's major bases for heavy industry to support her socialist construction. Its products, including metallurgical equipment, precision lathes, heavy machinery and prime movers, can be found all over China.

Located at the southern end of the three northeastern provinces (Liaoning, of which Shenyang is the capital, Kirin and Heilungkiang), the city of 4.2 million is also an important communications center for them and a juncture for rail lines to all parts of the country. To its south is the Anshan steel center, to its east the Fushun coal mine. Several coal and iron towns are its neighbors on the west and southeast.

Imperialist Invasion

On September 18, 1931, the Japanese army launched a sudden attack on a garrison on the city's outskirts and from there soon occupied all of northeast China. To turn these provinces into a base for further aggression, the Japanese imperialists proceeded to set up industry. One of their
points of concentration was Shenyang's Tiehsi (West of the Railway) district. These factories were, however, mere appendages to industries in Japan, doing only assembly and repairs and unable to manufacture anything independently. They were colonial industries of a low technical level with equipment old even at that time. Labor conditions were terrible.

In 1945 the Japanese aggressors were defeated and industry owned by them was taken over by China's reactionary Kuomintang government. Many of the machines were stolen and sold by corrupt Kuomintang officials. They used the factory buildings as their army stables and weeds overran the grounds. Only 5 percent of the 357 factories they took over resumed production.

In November 1948, when China's liberation war had entered the stage of strategically decisive battles, the Chinese People's Liberation Army under the personal direction of Chairman Mao annihilated Chiang Kai-shek's Kuomintang army in northeast China in a series of brilliant victories. Shenyang and the whole of the northeast were liberated. The workers of Shenyang, with leadership from the Communist Party, immediately threw themselves into a new battle to build an industry for China out of the ruins.

**Reviving Production**

During the struggle with the reactionaries the workers had hidden away equipment to preserve it from Kuomintang sabotage. Now they brought it out into the daylight, reinstalled it and began an emulation campaign for restoration of production in which they were continually breaking each other's output records.

In June 1950, only nine months after the People's Republic of China was established, the United States launched its war of aggression against Korea. The flames spread all the way to the banks of the Yalu River, only about 400 kilometers from Shenyang. To aid Korea and resist U.S. aggression, the workers in Shenyang's infant socialist industry stayed at their machines day and night and overfulfilled the state plan every month.

Reconstruction, expansion and new construction during China's First Five-Year Plan (1953-57) built Shenyang's industry into an integrated system. Important developments took place: the switch from copying models to independent designing, and the production of high-level, precision, large-size and the most advanced types of products.

In the years of the big leap forward which began in 1958, the city's workers made good use of a new method designed to suit China's technical conditions at that
time—"ants nibbling at a bone". It entailed using many small machines to process a huge machine part. Shenyang's experience with this and other methods was spread far and wide throughout the country.

Since the cultural revolution Shenyang's industry has made further progress by following the path of independence, self-determination and self-reliance. In addition to the mainstay machine building, the city now has many branches of industry—metallurgy, chemicals, building materials, textiles, food processing and paper. Output value in 1973 from its nearly 2,000 large and small factories was 42 times that for 1949.

The 7,000-worker Shenyang No. 1 Machine Tools Plant, located in the center of the Tienhl district, is a big enterprise producing many types of machine tools. Originally set up by the Japanese in the 1930s as a factory to repair the mining equipment with which they plundered China's resources, its history parallels the development of Shenyang's industry over the past 25 years.

At the time of liberation it had only three belt-driven lathes that worked. After liberation the workers quickly restored production and before the first year was out were making their own belt-driven lathes, modelled after the old ones. The factory was rebuilt during the First Five-Year Plan and then went all out for technical innovation. It designed and began producing machine tools more suited to China's needs. One of these, a jig borer, was displayed at an international exhibition in 1965.

During the cultural revolution the workers went further. All designs based on foreign products were replaced by more advanced ones drawn up by the workers and technicians themselves. Output in the eight years since the cultural revolution was greater than the total for the 17 previous years.

Working-class Will

The Shenyang workers will never forget how in 1960 the revisionist clique which had usurped leadership in the Soviet Union seized the opportunity of China's temporary economic setbacks to withdraw its specialists and technical material and to stop supplying China with machine parts. Thus they thought to have China at their mercy. On the eve of the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949 Chairman Mao Tsetung had declared, "Our nation will never be an insulted nation any more: We have already stood up." Acting in this spirit, the workers of Shenyang met the treacherous attack of social-imperialism with self-reliance and hard work.

At this historic juncture, a number of experienced workers organized a "workers' technical cooperation team". They got together in their spare time to try to solve problems in production. When a worker found a good method the word was quickly passed on to thousands in other plants.

The Soviet revisionists tried to paralyze China's railway transport by stopping the supply of locomotive tires. Bringing together their collective wisdom, after repeated experiments the Shenyang workers made China's first rolling mill for such tires. When the old rollers on other mills broke down they made their own replacements. Night after night they gave up sleep to overcome countless obstacles. In conquering many difficulties of the time they also made a great contribution to changing the city's industry as a whole.

From a few dozen people this group has today grown into the citywide Technical Cooperation Committee with thousands of members, both veteran workers and young worker-innovators. Its branches in different industries hold regular meetings in places provided by the Shenyang trade union committee or local factory unions. Members swap experience and work together on measures to raise the technical level of their industries. Participation is on a volunteer basis. Nobody gets paid.

The ancient palace.
for extra time spent and there are no exclusive patent rights for a big innovation. "We aren't doing this for fame or money," the worker-innovators say. "We're doing it for socialism."

During the cultural revolution a large number of advanced workers from Shenyang, as members of workers' Mao Tsetung Thought propaganda teams, went to units in the educational, health, scientific, art and other cultural fields. They provided proletarian leadership in helping such units improve their work.

Many ordinary workers are demonstrating great proletarian wisdom and ability in the political arena. There is, for instance, Wang Feng-en, who is deputy chairman of the Liaoning Province Revolutionary Committee. An ordinary worker in an electrical equipment factory at the time of liberation, he became a worker-engineer and is also a professor at the Northeast Engineering Institute. Wei Feng-ying, a woman worker in a machinery plant, has displayed high communist consciousness throughout the years and is now a member of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party and a vice-chairman of the Liaoning Province Revolutionary Committee. She has several hundred technical innovations to her credit. Li Su-wen, the vegetable saleswoman who for wholehearted service to the people became a national model, has been elected a member of the Party Central Committee. Representing China at the last session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, she spoke at its plenary session.

At the workers' sanatorium of the Shenyang Metallurgical Plant.

Better Environment

The development of Shenyang's industry has added to its environmental pollution. The city's successes with controlling industrial pollution, however, demonstrate that in socialist China this is not an "incurable disease" as some people say. Along with leading the people to develop industry, the Communist Party has always shown concern for the life and health of the people. As a result of the untiring efforts of the city's office for environmental protection, fuel is now more fully utilized and more than 70 percent of its chimneys have ceased to emit black smoke. The method has been, by relying on the working people and on scientific researchers, to constantly summarize and spread the word about any effective measures.

The fragrance of flowers beneath tall locust trees greets one on entering the gate of the Shenyang Chemical Works. This 30-year-old plant which makes caustic soda from salt by the electrolytic
A workers' technical cooperation team studies an improved drill.
Machines going out to all parts of the country.

Relays being tested at the Shenyang Railway Signal Equipment Factory.

A worker-lecturer at the Northeast Engineering Institute.

A double-head lathe designed and made at the Shenyang Heavy Machinery Plant processes parts for a 2.9 meter ball mill for mine use.
process used to be a prime source of pollution from waste in all three forms — gases, liquids and solids. After liberation the factory's Party organization led the campaign against pollution. The changeover from coal to oil as a fuel cut down on soot. Then the workers improved boiler operation so as to use the oil most effectively and cut smoke to a minimum. Some of the harmful gases like carbon dioxide and propane are recycled and used to produce soda ash. Over 90 percent of the plant's liquid and solid wastes are treated to render them harmless. One can scarcely detect the smell of chlorine in the plant.

Adjacent to the factory district but still part of the 36-square-kilometer Tientsi area a new apartment community has been built, serving the people who work in the plants. It is a pleasant place, with the sun shining on the russet buildings set off by light green doors and windows, wide streets and plenty of trees. Twenty-five years ago this used to be a wasteland. Now the 730 buildings with 630,000 square meters of floor space house over 80,000 workers' families. There is also a cultural palace which can hold 4,000 people in its auditorium and recreation rooms, a 10,000-seat stadium, six middle schools, 20 primary schools, two hospitals, three rest homes and a park. Shenyang has several residential areas as large as the one in Tientsi in which the slum-dwellers of the past have been rehoused.

Under Japanese imperialist rule, Shenyang had only one wide paved street, and few of its drains were unclogged. Its one fairly large park was exclusively for foreigners. Today the shabby lanes have been replaced by asphalt streets, a sewerage system covers the whole city and there are no less than ten scenic parks.

City-Country Support

One of the outstanding things about Shenyang is the way it, though a large industrial city, has basically solved the problem of grain and fresh vegetable supply. Before the cultural revolution, while Shenyang's industry grew by leaps and bounds, agriculture around the city lagged behind. Dependent on grain from outside and vegetables shipped in from 17 different provinces, this rich industrial city was like "a beggar with a golden bowl". This was the influence of Liu Shao-chi's revisionist line, which placed industry and agriculture in opposition to each other and did not recognize the importance of self-sufficiency, therefore did not lay enough stress on agriculture.

The new revolutionary committee born during the cultural revolution determined to correct this situation. They carried out in earnest the general policy advocated by Chairman Mao for developing the national economy, "Take agriculture as the foundation and industry as the leading factor." They promoted construction of irrigation projects to more fully utilize the 440,000 hectares of land in the municipality's four suburban districts and two outlying counties. On-the-spot meetings in the area introduced advanced methods, resulting in higher yields. Now, in the event of prolonged dry spells, to which the area is prone, city people are mobilized to help. Since 1970 the city has been able to basically satisfy the grain and vegetable needs of all its inhabitants, three million of whom live in the new urban part of the municipality. Streams of trucks entering the city loaded with fresh vegetables are a common sight in Shenyang.

Industrial support for agriculture played an important role in solving the problem. Workers and leaders from factories went many times a year to find out what the commune members needed from industry and what problems they had that required timely solution. There has been a striking increase in the output of products for agriculture. Twice as many large and medium-sized tractors, 22 times as many walking tractors, 29 times as many diesel engines and 9 times as much chemical fertilizer were produced in 1973 as in 1966, the year the cultural revolution began. Output of mechanized-well and electrical equipment, rolled steel products and materials and equipment of all types needed by the countryside has gone up yearly.

Ancient Palace

Shenyang was mentioned in history as a town some 2,500 years ago during the Warring States period. Later it was an early capital of the Manchus before they established rule over all China in 1644 as the Ching dynasty, and moved their center to the capital in Peking. A popular tourist attraction in Shenyang are its ancient palace and the Eastern and Northern Tombs of the Manchu rulers outside the city. The palace, built in 1625, is fairly well preserved. Its central, eastern and western parts together cover 50,000 sq. m. Looking down from Phoenix Tower, the highest structure in the center, one has a view of more than 70 complete buildings, renovated and their original brilliant colors repainted, surrounded by green pines and flower beds, and the working people of Shenyang strolling among them on their day off. Forbidden to the people under feudal rule, these grounds are now theirs and are a popular spot of historical interest.

These ancient buildings were plundered on many occasions during modern times by Chinese and foreign reactionaries. In the days of Kuomintang rule, even the magnificent and unique Pavilions of Ten Princes were used as stables for a cavalry division of Chiang Kai-shek's army. Now this precious legacy, restored and partly rebuilt after Shenyang was liberated, has been listed by the State Council as one of the country's important cultural sites to be preserved. Due to strenuous efforts over the past 25 years, most of the treasures once kept there that had been lost have been traced and brought back.

The feudal dynasty's cruel rule and oppression of the working people enabled it to build this lavish palace. Yet the construction and artistry of it were created by the working people out of their own wisdom, sweat and blood. To this it stands a monument today, an exposure of the feudal ruling class and tribute to the people, a place for deepening their understanding of the class struggle and inspiring them to build with still greater energy their socialist industrial city of Shenyang.
Paintings of the Times

MA KE

The great changes over the past 25 years and China's growing prosperity can be clearly seen in art works featured in a new national exhibition. These themes are also prominent in a second show of paintings by workers from Shanghai, Yangchuan in Shansi province, and the northeast port of Luta which ran concurrently.

The over 600 works in the two exhibitions include paintings in the Chinese traditional style, woodcuts, oils, sculpture, New Year pictures, picture-stories, posters and papercuts. Most striking are the vivid portrayals of workers, peasants and soldiers as they take part in the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution and the movement to criticize Lin Piao and Confucius, and of the new socialist creations. The militant tone of the exhibits makes the viewer feel he is right in the midst of the realities depicted. These achievements are a result of the artists' following Chairman Mao's revolutionary line in literature and art.

Chairman Mao's revolutionary activities, the present-day class struggle and the struggle between the two lines are the themes of many works. "When We March Together We Will Win" is an oil painting done jointly by three army artists, Kao Hung, Peng Pin and Ho Kung-teh. With compact composition and clear colors, through the earnest figures of the participants, it re-creates the historic scene in the Hunan province village where in 1928 Chairman Mao put forth the three main rules of discipline and the eight points for attention* for the Workers' and Peasants' Red Army. Chairman Mao's idea that only by marching in step could victory be won, which in the past guided the Chinese revolution from victory to victory, is today guiding the army and the people throughout the country to unite and march in step along the socialist road.

"Big-Character Posters Are Great", an oil by Fu Chih-kuei, shows Chairman Mao reading big-character posters and chatting with workers in an auto plant during a high point in socialist revolution and construction. It is a warm and intimate expression of the close ties between leader and masses.

The sculpture "Heroine of the Borderland" by Wang Chi-ta and Hsu Hsiao-sen shows a militiaman of a minority nationality lassoing a class enemy from her galloping horse and pulling him off his, dagger still in hand. The contrast between high and low, strong and weak, contribute to the ex-
FROM THE RECENT ART EXHIBITION
pression of the woman’s courage, high sense of vigilance and deep-seated hatred for the enemy.

Three young artists from Kwangtung province, Wu Chi-chung, Chou Po and Lin Yung, produced the traditional-style painting “Presents from Peking”. It depicts the people of the Hsiasha Islands and armymen stationed there, fresh from their victory in a self-defence counterattack battle. They are opening gifts — Chairman Mao’s works and materials on the criticism of Lin Piao and Confucius— sent them as a tribute by the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party on behalf of the people of the whole country. The artists who were themselves in the Hsiasha Islands capture the feeling of the moment. The army and people, united in their determination to defend the sacred territory of the motherland, are portrayed in bright colors and light but firm strokes.

Children are a popular theme. The poster “Take over the Militant Brush and Carry on the Fight” by Hsiaoy Chen-ya and Liu En-pin shows a Little Red Guard carrying on the militant spirit of the great writer Lu Hsun, whose image appears in the background. She is writing something which she will use in the class struggle in the cultural field. The sculpture “Miner’s Son”, by Tsai Hsiu-chi, has a little boy laughing from beneath his father’s safety helmet which he holds on his head, showing his wish to become a miner like his father.

An outstanding feature of the national exhibition is its portrayal of a new type of people who are building a new world. Among the woodcuts and oils are some particularly good works depicting proletarian heroes. This is the result of studying the creative experience gained in emphasizing the principal hero, as the model revolutionary theatrical productions are doing.

“The Azalea Blossoms in the Chingkang Mountains Are Red Every Year” by Tsou Ta-ching and “Wide Horizons” by Ho Kuo-hua both feature school graduates making their home in the countryside. To emphasize the vigor of youth, both use rugged, blunt strokes against symbolic backgrounds.

The forte of the black-and-white woodcut is well utilized in both Li Huan-min’s “Emancipated Serfs Look Ahead” and Chien Lai-chung’s “Touring Propagandist”. Fine, sensitive strokes and multiple shadings are used to bring out expressions on the faces of the emancipated Tibetan and Yi peoples, conveying their vision of the future and determination to continue the revolution. Economy of knife-stroke and variation in line and shading all go to create an impression of figures in the round.

“Drilling Begins”, an oil by Li Shu-chi, shows a typical scene of oil workers emulating the spirit of the famous model worker, the late Iron Man Wang, to produce more oil for the country. In it husky men are braving a downpour to get drilling started.

Another oil, “Building an Aqueduct” by Sun Kuo-chi and Chang Hung-tsan, portrays young commune members battling the elements with revolutionary optimism and overcoming the lack of machinery by using home-devised methods. The snowbound worksite in the background heightens the impression the picture gives of the commune members’ fighting will.

There are a great many works by worker, peasant and soldier amateurs and they show a higher level of ideology and artistry than before. Drawing themes from what they are most familiar with, these artists give a fresh and original treatment to their ideas and imbue them with deep class feeling and a militant spirit.

“The Battle Continues”, an oil by army painter Shang Ting, portrays a People’s Liberation Army soldier sitting beside his tank, using a package of explosives as desk, absorbed in writing a speech criticizing Lin Piao’s attempt to restore capitalism.

Several amateur artists in the Shanghai Bureau of Communications and Transport collaborated to produce the traditional-style painting “New Force on the Transport Front”. It depicts Shanghai workers making large trailer trucks for long-distance hauls. The painting
has a depth of feeling and power that flows from the artists’ knowledge of the struggle between the two lines in the communications and transport field, and the role such a product will play in socialist construction.

Traditional-style landscapes and bird-and-flower paintings have always been much appreciated by the Chinese people. Putting into practice Chairman Mao’s principles “Make the past serve the present and foreign things serve China” and “Let a hundred flowers blossom, weed through the old to bring forth the new”, some artists have worked to take over the good features of these two genres. By doing this and producing works infused with the spirit of the times they have achieved unity of form and content.

After living for a long time in a rural commune, Pai Hsueh-shih, a veteran painter, and Hou Teh-chang, a young art instructor, collaborated on “A Canal of Happiness at the Foot of the Great Wall”. A winding canal, a reservoir, terraced fields and rows of factory buildings blend harmoniously in a thriving rural scene. Typical of the paintings showing how the rural commune members, learning from the Tachai brigade, have built water-control projects and are now reaping bumper harvests, it is a landscape in praise of the idea that man’s will, not heaven, decides, and of the superiority of the people’s communes.

Other landscapes that breathe the spirit of our times include “Oil Tanker’s Maiden Voyage” by Chen Chung-yi, a young artist, and “The South Is More Beautiful Than Ever”, a new work by the 76-year-old painter Chien Sung-yen.

Two flower paintings, Liu Tsun’s “The Persimmons Are Red and the Granaries Full” and Su Pao-chen’s “March in Western Szechuan”, are appreciated for their expression of socialist mood and ideas. A finished ink-and-brush technique is utilized in painting the red persimmons, golden blossoms, green bamboo and rows of granaries, all symbols of a good agricultural year. With a mood entirely different from the decadent one of the exploiting classes so often found in the old bird-and-flower paintings, these works use dynamic images and express the feeling of the working people.
The Azalea Blossoms in the Chingkang Mountains Are Red Every Year

Woodcut, Tsou Tu-ching

Presents from Peking

Traditional-style painting, Wu Chi-chung, Chou Po and Lin Yang
Miner's Son Sculpture, Tsai Hsin-chi

The School Comes on Horseback Gouache, Chen Yen

A Channel of Happiness at the Foot of the Great Wall Traditional-style painting, Pui Hsueh-shih and Hou Teh-chang
The Third World Is a Great Motive Force for History

JEN KU-PING

A striking manifestation of the excellent world situation today is the awakening and growth of the Third World. In the struggle against colonialism and imperialism, particularly against the superpowers, the countries of the Third World are continually strengthening their unity and mutual assistance, and scoring brilliant victories. Playing an increasingly important role in international developments, they have become a great motive force pushing forward the wheel of history.

Making up the Third World are more than 100 developing countries in Asia, Africa, Latin America and other regions. Their population of about 3,000 million is over 70 percent of the world's total. Long oppressed and exploited by colonialism and imperialism, they still face aggression, interference, subversion, control and plunder at the hands of imperialism, particularly of the superpowers. Hence theirs is the strongest revolutionary demand for an end to oppression and for liberation and development. The whole world is swept by the storm of the struggle against imperialism and hegemonism. The Third World is its main force. The old order based on colonialism, imperialism and hegemonism is collapsing.

The Third World Awakens

Since World War II, the political forces in the world have undergone a drastic division and realignment as a result of prolonged struggle and trials of strength. In the midst of the turbulent international situation the Third World has awakened and gathered strength.

In the early years after the war, the United States took the place of German, Italian and Japanese fascism in trying to gain a monopoly on power over the world. The western capitalist world headed by the U.S. was then known as the First World. The socialist camp consisting of the Soviet Union and other socialist countries was called the Second World. The countries of national independence and those striving for independence in Asia, Africa and Latin America were called the Third World.

In the late fifties and particularly in the sixties a great change took place. The socialist countries continued to make new achievements both in revolution and construction and the national liberation movements were developing vigorously and winning significant victories. U.S. imperialism was daily on the decline. While Japan and countries in western Europe and Oceania were gradually restoring and developing their economic strength, the western world was disintegrating. At this time, the Soviet revisionist renegade clique took power in the Soviet Union and turned that country into a social-imperialist power. The socialist camp ceased to exist. Since the early sixties, the two superpowers, the Soviet Union and the United States, have been contending fiercely for world hegemony. According to present international relations, now the First World consists of these two superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union; the Third World is the developing countries in Asia, Africa, Latin America and other regions; and the Second World is made up of the developed countries between these two. These three worlds are both interconnected and in contradiction with one another.

Lenin has pointed out: "The characteristic feature of imperialism consists in the whole world, as we now see, being divided into a large number of oppressed nations and an insignificant number of oppressor nations, the latter possessing colossal wealth and powerful armed forces."

As when Lenin wrote this, our era is still one of imperialism and proletarian revolution and Lenin's brilliant thinking is still an important guide for viewing the world situation. In the contemporary world the two superpowers are the biggest international exploiters and oppressors. The numerous Third World countries carrying on a struggle to eliminate the remnant colonial forces, to develop their national economies and consolidate their national independence constitute the main force in the struggle against colonialism and imperialism, particularly against the superpowers. Their interests are diametrically opposed to those of the two superpowers and the contradiction is extremely sharp.

The situation of the Second World countries is complicated. Some of them still retain colonialist relations of one form or another with Third World countries. At the same time, all the Second World countries are in varying degrees controlled, threatened and bullied by the one or the other superpower. Therefore they, too, have the desire to oppose the hegemonism of the superpowers.

Third World Strength

Chairman Mao points out, "What imperialism fears most is the awakening of the Asian, African and Latin American peoples and of the peoples of all countries."

Today the long oppressed and enslaved Third World countries have awakened and stood up. Undaunted by bullying, they have dared to uphold their national independence, defend their sovereignty, develop their national...
economies and cultures and wage a tit-for-tat struggle against imperialism, particularly against the superpowers. In the world today, those who are really strong are not one or two superpowers but the people of the Third World and of all countries who unite and dare to struggle. International developments fully demonstrate that the Third World struggle against imperialism and hegemonism is forcefully pushing forward the wheel of world history.

Let's look at some facts:

• The Third World has won victory after victory in its heroic struggle against aggression. Contending for world hegemony and seeking to expand their spheres of influence, the two superpowers have never ceased to instigate aggressive war, whether directly or indirectly. The Third World countries and peoples have risen in resistance to oppose aggressive warfare with anti-aggressive warfare. The people of the three countries of Indochina have defeated the monster of U.S. imperialism and provided a brilliant example of how a small country can defeat a big one and a weak nation defeat a strong one. This has greatly strengthened the Third World's confidence that it can resist superpower aggression. In their Fourth Middle East War the people of Palestine and other Arab lands dealt a heavy blow to the Israeli aggressors, who were backed and encouraged by the two superpowers. This was a demonstration of the great strength of united struggle of the Arab peoples.

• The national liberation movements in Asia, Africa and Latin America have developed rapidly and vigorously. In the early fifties there were only a few independent countries in Africa, but now in the seventies the number has gone up to 42. The people in Portugal's African colonies have won one victory after another in their armed struggle. After Guinea-Bissau gained its independence, Portugal had to recognize Mozambique's right to independence. In parts of Africa which have not yet won independence, the popular movements and armed struggles for national liberation are forging ahead triumphantly. In Asia and Latin America too, many countries have gained national independence through protracted struggle.

• Superpower control of the United Nations has been smashed. The fact that Third World countries now constitute the overwhelming majority in the UN has changed the composition of this world body. The restoration of China's legitimate rights in the UN was a victory for the united struggle of medium-sized and small countries. The so-called UN Commission for the Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea, an instrument for interference in the internal affairs of Korea and for aggression against that country, has at last been thrown onto the garbage heap of history. Gone forever are the days when the superpowers could lord it over the UN and do whatever they liked there.

• The Third World has waged a resolute struggle against exploitation and plunder by the superpowers. As a result of the united struggle of more than 100 developing countries, the Sixth Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Declaration of the Establishment of a New International Economic Order and the Program of Action. This was a powerful challenge to superpower monopoly of the international economy. The struggle for the defence of 200 nautical mile maritime rights initiated by Latin American countries has spread swiftly to other continents. The Arab countries' use of oil as a weapon to deal a heavy blow to Zionism and hegemonism was a historic pioneering action. It enabled the Third World countries to see that natural resources, formerly plundered at will by imperialism, can become a potent weapon in their struggle against imperialism and hegemonism.

Raw material-producing countries have formed a number of producers' organizations. With the further consolidation of their political independence, the Third World countries are waging a persistent struggle to defend national sovereignty, safeguard their natural resources and develop their national economies. This signifies that the struggle of the people of the world against imperialism and hegemonism has entered a new and deeper stage.

• Third World countries have begun a fight against domination, subversion and interference in their affairs. Incomplete figures show that since 1971, 20 Third World countries have unmasked more than 700 Soviet spies, 200 of whom were expelled. The Third World countries are recognizing more and more clearly the ugly social-imperialist features of Soviet revisionism and are heightening their revolutionary vigilance.

• Summit conferences of varying scope have been held by the Third World countries to coordinate actions and strengthen unity. Such conferences demonstrate these countries' determination to unite to struggle against their common enemies and the fact that they have mounted the stage of international struggle as a strong and independent force.

Lenin said in the 1920s: "...the morrow of world history will be a day when the awakening peoples oppressed by imperialism are finally aroused and the decisive long and hard struggle for their liberation begins." Today's realities prove the truth of Lenin's scientific prediction.

Inexorable Trend

It is historically inevitable that the Third World should become a great revolutionary motive force pushing forward the wheel of world history. Marxists have always maintained that in the era of imperialism and proletarian revolution the oppressed nations have an inexhaustible revolutionary potentiality. They have the biggest population but are the most cruelly oppressed. Therefore, they are bound to play a tremendous revolutionary role in the efforts of the people of the world to smash imperialism. There has been a great development in the anti-imperialist revolution all over the world. The national liberation movements of the various countries have united to become the main force directly hitting at imperialism, particularly at the superpowers.

As a developing socialist country, China is part of the Third
World. Although its social system differs from that of most of the developing countries, China can stand only on the side of the developing countries in the political, economic and other spheres. Developing socialist countries have the unshirkable duty of supporting the liberation struggles of oppressed nations and peoples. They, too, are subjected to aggression, interference and bullying by the superpowers. Therefore they must form a common front with the numerous developing countries in the struggle against imperialism and hegemonism. The militant slogan “Workers of all countries and all oppressed peoples, unite!” put forward by Lenin in the 1920s, has been made a great revolutionary reality by the proletariat and hundreds of millions of people throughout the world.

After World War II the victorious development in socialist revolution and the Asian, African and Latin American national liberation movements could not be held back, despite Soviet revisionist betrayal. The emergence and growth of the Third World realized a further merging of the two great historical developments, the movement for socialist revolution and that for national liberation in Asia, Africa and Latin America.

The strength of the united struggle of the Third World has put the Soviet revisionist renegade clique in a panic. In an attempt to downgrade the great historic role of the Third World, this clique has spared no effort in smearing and attacking the Third World as being “impure in composition” and merely a group of countries with “economically backward social-economic conditions and differing political systems”. On the other hand, it has shamelessly lauded its “socialist community” as a “decisive factor” and “decisive force” for the destiny of the world. In a word, in the eyes of the Soviet revisionist lords the Third World countries are good for nothing and can accomplish nothing without being dependent on them.

It is true that the Third World is composed of a large number of small and poor countries. But, since poverty gives rise to the desire for change, they want to stand up and make revolution. They are the new and rising revolutionary forces. Soviet social-imperialism, on the contrary, is a decaying, reactionary, moribund force and its so-called “socialist community” is nothing but a colonial system in a new form. This system, like the old one, is bound to collapse in the struggle by the people of the world against hegemonism. Are not the small and poor countries of the Third World joining forces against imperialism and hegemonism and striking terror into their hearts? Under such circumstances, the Soviet revisionists have the audacity to boast of their “socialist community” as being the “decisive force” in the destiny of the world. Ridiculous!

A New World

The present international situation is characterized by great disorder throughout the world. As a Chinese saying goes, “The wind sweeping through the tower heralds a rising storm in the mountains.” Countries want independence, nations want liberation, and the people want revolution. This has become the irresistible trend of history. All the basic contradictions of the world are sharpening, particularly the contradiction between the two superpowers and the people of all countries, and that between the two superpowers themselves. The two superpowers, now beset with difficulties both at home and abroad, face one crisis after another. A second Chinese saying is appropriate here: “Flowers fall off, do what one may.”

The situation is becoming more and more favorable to the revolutionary struggle of the people of the world and unfavorable to imperialism and social-imperialism. But while the prospect is bright, the road has twists and turns. If the countries and the people of the Third World strengthen their own unity, unite with all countries of the world subjected to the superpowers’ bullying, and unite with the people of the whole world — including the people of the United States and the Soviet Union — to form the broadest possible united front and wage a protracted and unremitting struggle, surely they will be able to bury colonialism and imperialism and the hegemonism of the superpowers and usher in a brand-new world.
HALF a century ago the Chinese Communist Party, in the first days of its leadership of the workers' movement, organized a night school for the workers of the Anyuan Coal Mine and Railway. Its textbooks were like lamps in the darkness to workers seeking a truth that could liberate them.

After the Chinese Communist Party was founded on July 1, 1921, it concentrated on directing the workers' struggles. That autumn Chairman Mao went to the mine at Anyuan. Chinese bureaucrat-capitalists owned it, imperialism controlled it and feudal-type bosses managed it. The oppression of these three made the Anyuan miners a tremendous potential revolutionary force. Chairman Mao led the workers' movement there. He educated and armed the workers with the basic theories of Marxism-Leninism, pointing out to them the road to emancipation.

The workers' night school opened in January 1922. Its policy was to "help the workers acquire necessary knowledge and strengthen their resolve to change society". The students' card bore the hammer and sickle in a five-pointed red star. The school played a great role in arousing, educating and organizing the workers with the basic theories of Marxism-Leninism. Most of the workers who attended became leaders or activists in the labor movement.

Following the success of the night school, a workers' club was organized on International Labor Day, May 1, 1922. Its purpose was to unite the Anyuan miners and the railway workers on the Pinghsiang-Chuchow line.

In September, under the leadership of Chairman Mao and the Party, the workers struck 17,000-strong, demanding back pay, higher wages, benefits, and a guarantee of political rights. The strike was a success.

After the strike, the night school expanded to seven branches and six extra reading places. Night
classes for the workers and day classes for their children counted about 2,000 students.

Two textbooks were used in the night school — the Workers' Textbook and the Supplementary Book. They linked Marxism-Leninism directly with the workers' actual struggles and criticized the doctrines of Confucius and Mencius, spiritual chains which the reactionary ruling classes had used to enslave the working people for over two thousand years.

Lesson 27:

The idea of "fate" is a narcotic
Used by the oppressing classes,
Rogues also use it to cheat for a living.
We will not submit to the "will of Heaven",
We will overthrow the oppressors
And save ourselves.

These texts struck squarely at the reactionary Confucian theory that "life and death, rich and poor, are decided by the will of Heaven", freeing the workers from the shackles of believing that it was their fate that had given them a hard life.

The workers' books also exposed the "benevolent rule" and the "rule of rites" taught by Confucius and Mencius and peddled by the reactionary ruling classes. A simple picture in one of them illustrated the true nature of the old ethical code—a combination of respect for the emperor, man-eat-man relations and tyranny.

Using different forms — comparisons, questions and answers, rhymes and stories — the books constantly repeated the truth about classes and class struggle. The sixth lesson of the Workers' Textbook went like this:

Capitalists do not work,
But wear the finest, eat the best.
Where do their clothes and food come from?
Out of the blood and sweat of the workers!

And Lesson 38:

Rich people's tables have the best wine.
Their tables offer the best dishes.
The wine is the blood and sweat of the common people,
The dishes are their flesh and bones!

Awake, you who are being eaten by others!

The texts also gave class education by describing life in the mine and the miners' bitter family histories:

The books were written to help the workers recognize their own strength and encourage them to struggle. In concise, everyday language, they soon became very popular. Old workers still remember some of the texts and the influence they had in their revolutionary struggles.

Lesson 5 in the Workers' Textbook was:

Workers and peasants
Are the most noble;
With no workers and peasants,
There'd be no world.
The father digs coal in the pit, the son drags it out. While the coal piles into a mountain, the father and son go hungry. Today’s food was eaten yesterday, the wife and children are cold and hungry. For three months no wages have been paid. Life is so hard!

Lesson 61 of the Workers’ Textbook reads:

My grandfather, a blacksmith all his life,
His life is almost spent.
My father knew how to make a machine,
But his body was cut into three pieces.
My uncle was a hired farm laborer,
Later he spat blood.
I came to Pinghsiang to be a miner,
And suffer every heavy oppression:
Though I work around the clock,
I never earn enough to eat and wear.

The Supplementary Book contained a short essay called “Robbery or Making Fortunes”:

A man, holding a glittering sword, stands by a road. When a traveler comes, he holds him up, robs his treasure and runs away. This is called robbery.

Landlords force their tenants to pay rent, and thus become richer and richer.Bosses deduct from workers’ wages; warlords exploit the people to fill their pockets. This is called amassing great fortunes!

The robber only harms one or a few, but whenever people see him, they grind their teeth in hatred. The landlords, bosses and warlords harm as many as a hundred thousand, but this is called “making a fortune”!

What’s the difference between the two? When one robs a few, it is called robbery, and when one robs great numbers it is called making a fortune!

The textbooks also criticized the obscurantist philosophy of Confucius and Mencius, such as “the doctrine of the mean” and “harmony is to be prized”. They taught the Marxist philosophy of struggle.

In the Supplementary Book, a piece called “Workers and Students” sharply posed the question: “Why do the classes which hold power by violence hate and fear the aroused students and workers?” It answered in everyday metaphors. The old ethical code and culture of feudalism was “opium treasured by the ruling classes to use against the poor”. The new Marxist culture and thought was a “disinfectant”. “If this disinfectant is used widely throughout society and the oppressed classes are awakened, it will be a big threat to the rulers! And if the workers acquire working-class consciousness and unite to challenge them, it will shake the foundations of their life even more.”

This was precisely why the reactionary ruling classes bitterly hated the spread of Marxism in China. It was also why their hack writers worked so hard to say that Marxist theory on proletarian revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat was out of keeping with China’s traditions, that it was a Chinese characteristic to “compromise”, that “the Chinese are not used to and do not like to make drastic revolutionary changes”.

The Supplementary Book expounded the basic theories of proletarian revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat with themes like the working class, capital, capitalists and capitalism, imperial capitalism, why we want revolution, political revolution and social revolution, socialism.

The text “Why We Want Revolution” explained to the workers the Marxist theory of the necessity of meeting the violence of the ruling classes with violent revolution. It quoted Marx as the answer: “There is only one way in which the murderous death agonies of the old society and the bloody birth throes of the new society can be shortened, simplified and concentrated, and that way is revolutionary terror.”

Lesson 56 of the Workers’ Textbook was “The Workers’ School Song”:

It is we workers who create the world,
It is we workers who change society!
We rush on the enemies,
Capture and kill them,
Open up a bright path,
Wipe out all crime and evil;
We will break this world’s cage!
Vanguards, charge! Charge!

This was the fighting call of the awakened Anyuan workers and also the marching song of the Chinese working class who, under the leadership of its own revolutionary party — the Chinese Communist Party — fought their way onto the political stage and declared war on the old world.

Answers to LANGUAGE CORNER Exercises

I. 1. 你教我中文？
2. 你什么时候回来？
3. 今天的天气怎么样？
4. 你要买什么？
5. 你去哪儿？
6. 你有几个哥哥？

II. 1. 那本书很好。
2. 大家都很高兴。
3. 你们的晚会很热闹，他们的晚会不热闹。
Outstanding Young Athletes

YEN NAI-HUA

A large number of young athletes from many countries came to the fore in the recent Seventh Asian Games in Teheran, the future generation for Asian sports. Here are three from China.

Markswoman Li Ya-min

A SOLE WOMAN stood out among the contenders on the shooting range at the Aryamehr Sports Center in Teheran last September 5—a young woman with her hair in two braids and wearing a bright red jersey with the golden national Tien An Men emblem pinned on it. She was 20-year-old Li Ya-min. When her turn came, eyes alert, she aimed her pistol at the target, and with calm determination fired 60 shots one after another into the bull’s-eye 25 meters away to score 555 points. With this she broke the women’s world record for the event. The former record of 554 points had been set by Australia’s J. Trim at Phoenix in the United States in 1970.

Li Ya-min is on the staff of an army medical research institute in Peking. A lover of sports since childhood, while still in primary school she enrolled in a gymnastics class in a spare-time sports school. After joining the army, taking to heart Chairman Mao’s advice that a person should be competent both civil and military-wise, she threw herself into her military training with great enthusiasm. She soon developed a great interest in pistol shooting. Though she had previously never had a pistol in her hand, she became a world record-breaker after only a year and a half of practice.

She used to shoot three or four hours without a break under the blazing summer sun and even in the cold of winter, warming her hands with her breath and stamping her numbed feet on the frozen ground. She would shoot at a target made unsteady by the wind, and on rainy days would stand under the eaves aiming at the indistinct outline of the bull’s-eye. At night she often practiced aiming at a small paper target she had drawn herself and put up on the wall of her room. Finding that the handle of the pistol was bruising her wrist, she taped it up. This affected her aim, so she tore the tape away and kept on in spite of the pain.

In one contest Li Ya-min won first place by scoring 193 points in 20 shots. But as the others gathered around to congratulate her she stood frowning at the target. On one imperfect shot she had lost two points. She spent the evening alone in her room thinking the matter over. Finally she concluded that she had not held the gun steady and had pulled the trigger before taking perfect aim. To overcome this shortcoming, she concentrated on strengthening her arm. Every morning and evening she did push-ups and exercised with dumbbells. She also practiced aiming with a brick tied to the handle of the pistol.

Last May at the selective trials for the Asian Games, she equaled the world record for the women’s standard pistol event. She chalked up an even better record four months later at the Asian Games.

Li Kung-cheng, the Youngest Champion

A S the swimming stadium of the Aryamehr Sports Center buzzed with the noise of a capacity crowd, an agile young swimmer in black trunks mounted the 10-meter diving platform. With a short run and a powerful spring he left the platform to perform the highly-difficult triple twist with a one-and-a-half forward somersault. Fifteen-year-old Li Kung-cheng won first place in the Asian Games men’s 10-m. platform diving competition with a score of 536.10 points.

Friends from many countries came up to congratulate the young
athlete and his coach, shaking his hand and embracing him. In the stands spectators, many mothers and children among them, stood waving their arms and shouting, "Li, Li!"

Li Kung-cheng is a student in a physical training school in the Kwangsi Chuang Autonomous Region. In 1971, while still a fifth grader, he was chosen for the Kwangsi province youth diving team. Its leaders gave particular attention to training Li and several other young members of the team. Hsu I-ming, Li's coach, had himself worked long and hard over the two and a half backward somersault pike, considered one of the most difficult movements in diving. Though Hsu is vigorous and daring, he was never able to really master it. "Even if I can't do it," decided Hsu, a member of the Chinese Communist Youth League, "that doesn't mean others can't." He proceeded to help Li all he could.

Hsu often reminded Li of revolutionary martyrs like Tung Tsun-jui and Huang Chi-huang, two army men who did not hesitate to sacrifice their lives for the revolution. Inspired by their examples, Li went at his diving training with a spirit of daring to think, daring to do and daring to create.

Summing up the lessons of his own failure, Hsu mapped out a new training routine for Li: First, master the somersaults and twists and then do them over the water. Through repeated practice, Li finally succeeded with the two-and-a-half backward somersault pike and went on to other things.

Two weeks before the Chinese sports delegation was to leave Peking for Teheran, Li was still practicing hard to perfect the last of the six optional dives he was to perform—a triple twist with a one-and-a-half forward somersault. One day he stood at the approach to the diving platform gazing at the water. Thinking he was a bit nervous, Coach Hsu standing down below said, "If you don't feel like doing it today, you can try tomorrow." "Never mind," replied Li, and before he had finished speaking he was out on the platform. He somersaulted while making three twists. Then, with great force he extended his right arm in the direction opposite his movement to bring his revolving body to an abrupt halt, and made a neat entry into the water. His creative performance and cool resolution won applause from all who were watching.

The Teheran meet was Li's first international competition, but he performed his four required and six optional dives with precision and grace. He became the youngest champion at the Seventh Asian Games.

**Distance Runner Sung Mei-hua**

**EIGHTEEN-YEAR-OLD** Sung Mei-hua stepped onto the platform at the track-and-field ground of the Aryamehr Sports Center to receive a gold medal as winner of the women's 1,500 m. race. As the five-star flag was raised and her national anthem played, as is done for all prize-winners, she told herself she was able to win this honor only because the Chinese Communist Party and the people had enabled her to have the training for it.

Sung Mei-hua is from a poor peasant family in Yehsien county, Shantung province. As a child she liked to run and jump. She was Sung Mei-hua as she set a new national record in the 1,500-meter race at the 1974 national track-and-field championships in October.
on the track-and-field teams in primary and middle school. While in senior middle school she was taken into a spare-time sports school for special training. In the autumn of 1973 when she was 17, she was recommended by the people of her commune and the sports committee of the Yentai administrative region to enrol in the Peking Institute of Physical Culture. "The people sent me to college and I intend to study for the people," she told her classmates.

China had not been making a very good showing in middle- and long-distance running, especially in the women's events. Veteran long-distance runners encouraged Sung Mei-hua to take on the responsibility of trying to improve the situation. Though her period of training has been rather short, she has been persistent and made good use of her time. She went at it as a revolutionary task. On the course, instead of starting out at a slower pace as most middle-distance runners do, she would go as fast as she could, and would do many more rounds than the required distance. She would give others a 100-200 m. lead and still be able to catch up. She went along with the men on their 10,000-m. runs, and kept up with them. Once, though she was to take part in a competition two days later, she did the 150-m. change-of-pace run 50 times without a break.

Sung Mei-hua's high revolutionary consciousness enabled her to use her time so well that she completed the requirements for the three-year training course in one year, with striking improvement in her records. In August 1974 in a contest with a Moroccan team in Peking she set a new national women's 1,500-m. record of 4 min. 32.8 sec. At the Seventh Asian Games she was behind in the first two laps of the 1,500-m. final, but sprinted on the last 200 m. She caught up 30 m. from the finish line and was first to breast the tape. Her time of 4 min. 28.68 sec. topped her own previous record and placed the Chinese national record at 5.22 sec. less than it had stood early in August.

More Facts on Yellow River Stegodon

THE SKELETON of a stegodon, an extinct form of elephant, found in China's Kansu province has been dated by Chinese scientists, and more has been learned about the times in which it lived. The skeleton, one of the biggest and best preserved discovered in the world, has been restored by the Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and Paleoanthropology of the Chinese Academy of Sciences and is now on exhibit at the Peking Museum of Natural History. Excavated in the summer of 1973 (see China Reconstructs, March 1974) along the Malien River in Kansu province's Hoshui county in the area drained by the Yellow River, the form of elephant represented by these fossils has been named the Yellow River Stegodon.

The skeleton of the Yellow River Stegodon restored and on display at the Peking Museum of Natural History.
The skeleton is a rather complete one, including the hundred bones of its four hooves, its vertebrae and the huge skull. It measures 4 meters high and 3 meters long with tusks over 3 meters long.

To find out what period the Yellow River Stegodon existed, how it lived and what its natural surroundings were like, a team of paleontologists spent considerable time on the loess plateau of eastern Kansu. The skeleton was found in a layer of gravel and grayish marl formed over two million years ago. This layer lay directly below the loess, which was formed between 10,000 and 500,000 years ago. Below the stegodon layer is a layer of red clay formed about 10 million years ago, and below that, bedrock formed about 100 million years ago.

With the help of local commune members the team also found fossils of more than ten other forms of vertebrates in the same layer of this area. They include the three-toed horse and other extinct species of the horse, and extinct species of the elephant, mole-rat, ostrich, camel and antelope. Such studies in the locale show that this stegodon lived in the early Pleistocene period, about two million years ago.

The plant life of that period can no longer be found today, but the large amount of spore and pollen plant life in the layer of earth where the stegodon skeleton lay buried offer valuable clues to what it was like. Most abundant were cyperaceae, of which the sedge is a descendant. From the kinds of animals and plants that existed then and the nature of the soil it can be deduced that during that period the climate in this part of Kansu was much hotter and drier than today. The area was a typical grassland with few trees.

The fact that the soft spot on the stegodon skull had grown together showed that it was an adult, but it was the teeth that gave final evidence of its age—over 100. Unlike most mammals, elephants grow a new set of molars when the first set is worn down by usage. A third set appears when the second wears down. Present-day Asian elephants are about 15 years old at the appearance of the first molars, 25 for the second set and 45 for the third set. The third set is the biggest and takes longest to wear down. It is usually good for several dozen years. The molars of the stegodon fossil were those of the third set and they had been ground down a great deal, indicating that this stegodon had already lived more than a hundred years. The size of its tusks and shape of its skull and pelvic bones show that it was a male.

The earliest ancestors of the elephant probably appeared in northern Africa about 50 million years ago. When the continents of Europe, Asia and the Americas were connected their descendents, the mastodons, gradually spread out to all continents except Australia. In China mastodon fossils have been found in Sinkiang, Chinghai, Shansi, Shensi, Szechuan, Yunnan, the Inner Mongolian and Kwangsi Chuang autonomous regions and other places. Some of the mastodons evolved into true elephants. The Yellow River Stegodon was one kind of true elephant, but it became extinct long, long ago.

Today herds of elephants roam the subtropical forests of Hsi-shuangpanna in China’s Yunnan province. The discovery of the stegodon fossils on the Kansu loess plateau provides valuable material for studying not only the evolution of the elephant but also the geography and climate of ancient times.

The Yellow River Stegodon was found during the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. Stegodon fossils—mainly cranial bones and teeth—have been found in China for more than a century, but most unearthed before liberation were monopolized by institutions serving the imperialists. Since liberation China’s own scientific research has made rapid progress under the leadership of the Communist Party and Chairman Mao.
ACROSS THE LAND

Striking Changes in Hainan Island Commune

From the primitive slash-and-burn method of farming the Li people of the Red Flag People's Commune on Hainan Island have moved to modern, scientific farming. The commune, located in the Wuchih Mountains of the Li-Miao Autonomous Chou on Kwangtung province's Hainan Island, has through the members' own hard work carried out extensive capital construction on the land. In this they followed the lead of the model Tachai brigade in Shansi province, as Chairman Mao has urged. No longer dependent on the whims of nature, with water control projects they get good harvests regardless of drought or flood. Grain production has topped 7.5 tons per hectare every year since 1967.

The commune members have opened up over 300 hilltops for growing tropical crops, which thrive in the area's mild climate — pineapples, tea-oil, rubber and pepper. As production develops the lives of the people also improve. Medical, cultural and educational facilities have expanded greatly.

Another bumper rice harvest.
Collecting rubber, one of the new cash crops being developed.

Primary school education is universal throughout the commune.

Eighty-six hectares opened on the hilltops yield 600 tons of pineapples and other fruit a year.
Lesson 1

新 年
Xinnián
New Year

With this issue, we begin a new series of lessons intended to suit the needs of both beginners and those with some knowledge of Chinese. As an aid to study we are including in this issue a supplement containing a key to Chinese phonetic symbols, aids to pronunciation and an introduction to the writing of Chinese characters.

— Editor

张：（敲门）
Zhang: (Knocks door.)

李：（开门）啊！老张，请进！
Li: (Opens door.) Ah! Old Zhang, please (come) in!

张：新年好！
Zhang: Xinnián hǎo!

李：新年好！请坐！要不要喝点儿茶？
Li: Xinnián hǎo! Qǐng zuò! Yào bù yào hē diànér chá?

张：不客气，我坐一会儿就要走了。
Zhang: Bù kēqì, wǒ zuò yī huìr jiù yào zǒu de.

李：今天你们工厂有什么活动？
Li: Jīntiān nǐmen gōngchǎng yǒu shénme huódòng le?

张：今天我们工厂开出了一个晚会，表演了很多节目。
Zhang: Jīntiān wǒmen gōngchǎng kāi chú le yī ge wànhuí, biǎo xiǎn le hěn duō jùmào.

李：很热闹吧？
Li: Hěn rènuò ba?

张：热闹极了。有唱歌，还有舞蹈，还有很多别的节目。
Zhang: Rènào jí le. Yǒu chàng ge, yǒu táo wǔ, hái yǒu hěn duō bié de jùmào, dancem, also had very many other numbers.

李：我们工厂放映了一部新电影。
Li: Wǒmen gōngchǎng fāngyìng yì bù xīn diànyǐng.

张：今天的天气很好。下午我们一起去，有时间吗？
Zhang: Jīntiān de tiānrì hěn hǎo. Xìwù wǒmen yī qù, yǒu shíjiān ma?

李：有时间。我们一起。下午时间。
Li: Yǒu shíjiān. Wǒmen yī qǐ. Xìwù shíjiān.

— CHINA RECONSTRUCTS
Transcription

Zhang: Hǎo, wǒ zǒu le. Zài jiàn! (Chū mén)
Zhang: Good, I am going. Again see! (Goes out door.)

Li: (Sòng dào mén kǒu) Zài jiàn!
Li: (Takes to doorway.) Again see!

Translation

Zhang: (Knocks on door.)
Li: (Opens door.) Oh, Old Zhang, please come in!
Zhang: Happy New Year!
Li: Happy New Year! Please sit down. Would you like some tea?
Zhang: Don't bother. I'm only going to stay a little while.
Li: How have you been spending the New Year? Did you go to any activities?
Zhang: Our factory had a program last night. Many numbers were performed.
Li: Was it lively?
Zhang: Very lively. There was singing, dancing, and many other numbers. Little Wang, the young worker you saw at my house last time, also took part in the performance. Did your factory have any activities?
Li: Our factory showed a new film. My wife and child went too. We all had a good time.
Zhang: The weather is fine today. Our whole family plans to go to Chunsshan Park this afternoon. We'd like to ask you to come with us. Have you time?
Li: I have time. We can all go together. We'll come to your house at 2 o'clock. Is that all right?
Zhang: All right. I'll go now. Good-bye! (Goes out of door.)
Li: (Goes with Zhang to the doorway.) Good-bye!

Notes

Questions

1. The simplest way to ask a question in Chinese is to add ma 吗 at the end of a declarative sentence. There is no change in word order. Wǒ yǒu shíjiān, nǐ yǒu shíjiān ma? I have time, do you have time?

2. Interrogative words are another way of forming questions. They are: shuí 谁 (who), shénme 什么 (what), shénme shìhou 什么时候 (when), nǎr 哪儿 (where), jǐ hǎi (how many), and zhènmeyàng 怎么样 (how). They are not all placed at the beginning of the sentence, but where the answer should be. Word order is the same as in a declarative sentence. Shuí lái le? Who came? Answer: Lǎo Zhāng lái le. Old Zhang has come. Tā shì shuí? He is who? Answer: Tā shì wǒ de péngyou, he is my friend. (He is my friend).

Arabic

2. Adjective as predicate. Generally speaking, verbs are the main element in the predicates of most Chinese sentences. However, in some cases, an adjective (with its modifiers) forms the predicate. Then the verb “to be” is not used between the subject and predicate. Jīntiān de tiānqì hěn hǎo Today's weather is very fine.

3. Lǎo 老 and xiǎo 小. These are often placed before family names (here, Zhang 张 and Wang 王 as in old Zhang, 小王). This form of address is used between friends and comrades to show familiarity. Old usually refers to an older person and 小 to a younger person.

4. Bú kěqì 不客气 is often used in daily life to show politeness. 客气 means literally “guest air”. When one says 不客气 (or bié kěqì 别客气), he means “Don't regard me as a guest”.

5. Àiren 爱人 means husband or wife. The word itself does not designate which.

Exercises

I. Change the following sentences into questions with the proper word in the parentheses in place of the underlined parts:

(谁, 什么, 什么时候, 怎么样, 哪儿, 几)

1. 张老师教我中文。
2. 我下午两点钟回来。
3. 今天的天气很好。
4. 我要买大衣和帽子。
5. 我去工厂。
6. 我有两个哥哥。

II. Translate the following sentences into Chinese:

1. That book is very good.
2. Everybody is very happy.
3. Your program (evening meeting) was very lively, but their's was not.

(Answers on p. 35)
First Tea Crop on a Northern Mountain

ALL China drinks tea, but not all China grows it. For centuries tea-drinkers in the cold, dry north imported it from the warm moist provinces of the south. Peasants in temperate Shantung province are changing this. If you stand on the Yishan Mountains in Linchu county today, below the forests on the southern slope you will see terraced tea gardens of nearby people’s communes.

Members of the Walnut Garden brigade first thought of trying to cultivate tea in 1965. Not all of them agreed. Objections came out in a meeting organized by their Party branch to discuss it. Conservative people shook their heads. "Too cold and dry here," they said. "Less than 30 inches of rain a year and only six months without frost. Hard winters. We’re not the south, you know."

Most of the members wanted to try. One of them pointed out, "Chairman Mao says that in developing our agriculture we should 'take grain as the key link and ensure an all-round development.' All-round development means a diversified economy, and growing tea is a good way to help. And supplying tea for the mountain people in this area is a good way to support socialist construction." Others tackled the doubters: "Chairman Mao says to acquire knowledge you have to take part in the actual struggle to change reality. If we don’t try, how do we know that tea won’t grow here?"

Failure

The brigade chose a ravine as close to the tea-growing environment of the south as possible. It was protected by woods, the soil was slightly acid and a year-round spring could supply water.

In the slack winter season of 1965, the brigade members headed by the Party secretary began the work, building up terraced fields and digging storage ponds. The earth was strewn with boulders, frozen solid and covered with snow. But the idea of being able to grow tea for the country made them enthusiastic. They removed the snow, used picks on the hard ground and star drills on the boulders. By spring they had over a hectare of terraced fields, which they sowed with tea seeds brought from the south. Three weeks later, to their great satisfaction, the shoots came up.

Half a month later the young plants began to turn yellow and the peasants watched 95 percent of them die.

Now the conservative members complained, "It’s foolish to expect southern tea plants to settle down in the north!" Again most of the members answered the doubters. One of them said, "You emphasize the 95 out of a hundred that died, but you forget the five that survived. Those five show there is a possibility for success."

Wang Hsin-yuan, in charge of the experiment, supported this. An old peasant, he knew every hardship the old society could give and since liberation has been highly active in revolutionary work. To prepare for the tea-growing experiment he had studied many reference books. Now he brought his bed roll to the tea garden in the mountains, ate his food and slept there. Day and night he kept a close watch on the shoots. Finally he analyzed the problem.

In the south, tea seeds are sown in rainy weather. When they come up, the peasants shelter them well. The shoots need moist air and soil. But in these mountains there is practically no rain in the spring. They had watered the fields before they planted, but in the dry atmosphere the moisture soon evaporated. Moreover they had not sown the seeds deep enough or sheltered the shoots well.

Wang and his comrades improved their cultivating method. The next winter they deep-plowed their tea fields — now two hectares — and prepared the soil carefully. In the spring they irrigated thoroughly and planted the seeds deeper. Then they watched the moisture and sprayed water when it was needed. When shoots came up, they sheltered them with twigs. This time their careful work reversed things — 95 percent survived.

The tea plants grew well through the summer and autumn. Now they faced another test — the cold northern winter. In the Yishan Mountains, winters often hit 19°C below zero (seldom below zero in the south). Protecting the tea plants would take great effort.

The Party branch invited some old experienced peasants to the fields to discuss what could be done. "Garlic plants get through the winter well if you cover them with bean leaves," one of them suggested. "Why not try it on the tea plants?" Others suggested building windbreaks with branches and grass. The suggestions were carried out.
When it turned warm again the next spring they pulled down the windbreaks and removed the bean leaves — only to see almost half of their plants frozen!

**Success**

Neither the leaders nor the brigade members would give up. The desire to grow tea for the mountain region and so help in the country's construction drove them to persist. In a discussion on ways to solve the problem everybody contributed his ideas. Someone said, "Garlic has been grown a long time in the north, so it's probably cold-resistant. We applied the method to tea plants too automatically." Another went further: "We only thought of giving the plants shelter but we didn't give them all they could eat and drink before winter came. So they were weak and couldn't stand the cold."

That winter before the first frost, they soaked the soil thoroughly and applied 60 tons of fertilizer on their two hectares of tea fields. Food and water during the winter raised the plants' resistance. They piled up a mound of earth around each plant, producing a "hothouse" effect. Then they built windbreaks around the fields.

One day that winter a heavy snow toppled the windbreaks and the thermometer dropped to 19°C below zero. Ignoring the bitter cold, Wang Hsin-yuan and others repaired the breaks and stayed long in the fields, testing the temperature of the soil. At night they couldn't sleep and went back several times to check.

Under this kind of careful management the plants survived and in 1971 the brigade picked its first tea leaves. Soon a second-generation tea plant, more adaptable to the cold, dry north, was raised. Other brigades in communes around the Yishan Mountains have followed the Walnut Garden brigade and built tea gardens. Today the mountain people have their own tea.
Glaciers

Most of China's present glaciers are of the Alpine type, formed by layers of fresh snow on the mountains gradually compacted into granular snow and then into solid glacial ice. When a large amount of glacial ice collects, it begins to creep slowly down the mountain slope, like a frozen river.

Having a great many mountains, China also has quite a number of Alpine glaciers, concentrated in her western regions. In the Altai, Tienshan, Chillien, Kunlun and Himalaya mountains are thousands of glaciers of different shapes. They cover a total area of 44,000 square kilometers and contain an estimated 2,300,000 million cubic meters of water.

Acting like solid reservoirs, these glaciers are the sources of the famous rivers of Asia — the Yellow River, the Yangtze, Lantsang, Nurkiang, Ganges and Indus. Melted snow and ice are the main sources of water for irrigating farmland in the arid inland areas of northwest China. For generations the people in the deserts of Sinkiang's Dzungarian, Tarim and Turfan basins have channeled this water to innumerable oases.

Glaciers are extremely sensitive to variations in climate. When the temperature drops and precipitation increases, they grow. When the weather turns warm they retreat. These "natural thermometers" are of great significance for the study of variations in climate in ancient and modern times.

Although glaciers are important in the life of the people and in national construction, in old China research in glaciology was almost a blank. A research institute for
this purpose was set up after the People's Republic was established in 1949. Now extensive investigations have been made of the present-day glaciers in China's major mountain ranges.

In the Chilien and Tien Shan mountains are many small valley glaciers under ten kilometers long. There are also quite a few cirque glaciers in the hollows of the mountain slopes. Branch-like valley glaciers measuring from 20 to 30 km in length are found only in the Himalayas and in the Mt. Khan Tengri area in the western Tien Shan. The 36-km-long Kalaguryu glacier below Mt. Khan Tengri is the longest known in China.

The main feature of China's glaciers is their pronounced continental nature, the scientists' investigations, observations and studies have concluded. They are located in areas of little precipitation, a thin layer of snow, low air temperature, and glacial temperatures usually below zero. Most of the mountains and plateaus in western China are far from the sea. The precipitation in the Altai, Tien Shan and the western section of the Chilien Mountains gradually decreases from northwest to southeast. In the western section of the Tien Shan, it is 800 to 1,000 millimeters annually, while in the eastern section, 500-700 mm. Precipitation in the western section of the Chilien Mountains is only about 300 mm. a year.

Glaciers in China are much colder than those of the same latitude in other countries. Their temperatures are similar to those of the northern and southern polar regions.

Another feature of China's glaciers is their slow movement. In general, her glaciers under 10 km long do not move over 30 meters a year. This is much slower than those of Europe's Alps, which move 150 meters a year. This reflects the fact that China's glaciers are not thick, the ice measuring only 100 to 200 meters in depth. Their advance and retreat are not obvious.

At high altitudes and low temperatures there is little melting, and what does occur takes place in summer. This is another feature of continental glaciers. The maximum depth of melting at the leading edge of China's glaciers ranges from 1,500 to 2,500 mm. a year and this is caused mainly by heat from the sun. Differences in degree of surface melting often lead to the formation of ice dunes. Splendid forests of variform ice towers 30 to 50 meters high lie at the leading edge of some of the huge glaciers in the Himalayas. Ice water turns glacial hollows into rippling blue lakes and carves tunnels like crystal palaces to create a fascinating natural scene.

Glaciers have been utilized in solving the problem of water for agriculture in China's arid northwest since the founding of the People's Republic. Between 1958 and 1960, 14 teams made large-scale investigations of glaciers in the Chilien, Tien Shan and Muztagh Ata-Kungur Mountains. They set up glacial monitoring stations, experimented with inducing the ice to melt and carried on education about methods of doing it. They have gained considerable experience in exploiting

Scientists climbing an ice peak to make an investigation. Glacial cave.
and utilizing the high mountain snow and ice as sources of water. Glaciers on Mt. Sisha Pangma and Mt. Jolmo Lungma on the northern slope of the Himalayas have been investigated in the past decade. Researchers in glacial geology, geomorphology, meteorology and hydrology, surveyors and mountain explorers have obtained a lot of valuable data. Using land photography surveying, they produced highly accurate, well-tinted topographic maps of glaciers in the Mt. Jolmo Lungma area. A 1973 survey of the Atsha glacier in the Sanggachos area in the southeastern Himalayas found it to be a glacier of the oceanic type. So far this is the only data about a Chinese oceanic glacier.

Such surveys provide important material for further understanding the regional characteristics of China's glaciers. In southeastern Tibet, for instance, mud flows—caused by water from the melting ice—pouring down the steep slopes frequently block rivers, cover highways, wreck bridges, damage forests and result in loss of livestock and human life. Studies on the formation of such flows and measures worked out to prevent and control them have brought good results.

TWO "red banners" leading the country forward, the Taching oil field, whose example the country is urged to follow in building industry, and Tachal, the commune brigade which is the national model for agriculture, are featured on two special sets of five stamps each. They were issued on September 30, 1974, the eve of new China's 25th anniversary, by the Chinese Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications. The opening of the Autumn 1974 Chinese Export Commodities Fair on October 15 was the occasion for the issue of a special stamp on the fair. All stamps are of 8 fen denomination.

T HE TACHING set, entitled "The Red Banner of Taching", bears serial numbers T4 (5-1 to 5-5).

Stamp 1. Portrait of the late worker "Iron Man" Wang Chin-hsi, a giant in the battle to build the oil field, against a background of flag-decked derricks. Vermilion, cobalt, reddish purple, salmon.

Stamp 2. Oil workers studying Chairman Mao's works by the light of a bonfire. Red-orange, lemon, yellow-olive, black.

Stamp 3. Drilling in a blizzard. Cobalt, deep blue, salmon, white.

Stamp 4. Taching technicians, two men and a woman, against a background of refinery towers. Cobalt, deep blue, orange-red, salmon, white.

Stamp 5. View of the Taching new-type oil field which carries on agriculture between the derricks. Emerald, yellow-green, grey-blue, vermilion, brown.

T HE TACHAI set, entitled "The Red Banner of Tachai", bears the serial numbers T5 (3-1 to 5-5).

Stamp 1. Two members of the Tachai production brigade confidently facing the future. In the background are terraced fields built with their own hard work. Vermilion, rose, salmon, apple-green, grey-blue.

Stamp 2. Tachai men and women removing boulders in the driving snow to build new fields. Lavender, cobalt, salmon, brown.

Stamp 3. Tachai peasants experiment with scientific farming. Yellow-orange, orange-brown, salmon, vermilion, yellow-green, cobalt.

Stamp 4. A convoy of trucks taking a big harvest of grain to the state purchasing station. Orange-red, vermilion, yellow-green, light blue, yellow.

Stamp 5. Young members of the Tachai brigade, shouldering the picks and shovels of their elders, marching forward to carry on the brigade's revolutionary tradition. Salmon, vermilion, greenish yellow, light blue, reddish purple.

All the above stamps measure 27 X 60 mm. Perf. 11. Photogravure.
BASICS OF THE CHINESE LANGUAGE
BASICS OF THE CHINESE LANGUAGE

INTRODUCTION

What is usually referred to as "Chinese" is really the language of the Han nationality, which makes up over 90 percent of China's population. It has many different dialects. The Chinese being popularized throughout China today is called *putonghua* (common speech). It is based on the northern dialect with Peking pronunciation as the standard. The lessons given here are in *putonghua*.

The Chinese language, with a written history of over 3,000 years, has developed greatly in the last several decades. Especially since the founding of the People's Republic of China, the vigorous development of the socialist revolution and socialist construction has created many new terms like 大跃进 (big leap forward), 人民公社 (people's commune), 试验田 (experimental plot), 上山下乡 (move to the countryside), etc. These have enlarged and enriched the Chinese vocabulary and strengthened the power of expression of the language.

Using the phonetic alphabet to write Chinese is the fundamental orientation for the reform of the Chinese written language, but this cannot be realized in a short time. Much work on the reform of the written language has been done since the founding of the People's Republic of China, including simplification of characters. Since 1956 over 2,000 commonly used characters have been simplified. For example, 亻 simplified is 原, 竹 simplified is 木. The simplification of characters reduces difficulty in learning them and makes them much more convenient to write.

Organizations responsible for the reform of the written language are continuing to collect and study simplified characters created by the people in their everyday practice. More simplifications will be officially recognized and popularized. Our language lessons use the simplified forms.

CHINESE PRONUNCIATION

Before we get into pronunciation, a few words about the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet. This alphabet uses letters from the internationally-accepted Latin alphabet to indicate the pronunciation of the Chinese characters. As the characters themselves do not represent sounds, the phonetic alphabet is a convenient tool which helps overcome difficulties in reading, writing and remembering the characters.

The key to pronunciation of the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet below uses as a guide the International Phonetic Alphabet and similar sounds in English.

I. Key to Chinese Phonetic Alphabet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C.P.A.¹</th>
<th>I.P.A.²</th>
<th>Key Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b (o)</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>bay (de-voiced²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p (o)</td>
<td>p'</td>
<td>pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m (o)</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>may</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

²Chinese Phonetic Alphabet
³International Phonetic Alphabet
⁴"De-voiced" means the vocal cords do not vibrate
⁵"Palatal" means the tip of the tongue touches the hard palate.
⁶"Retroflex" means the tip of the tongue is slightly curled.
II. Tones

In Chinese the pitch and change in pitch of a syllable makes for a difference in meaning. This distinguishing pitch is called the "tone". There are four tones in Peking dialect, represented by the following marks:

- 1st tone, high and level
- 2nd tone, rising
- 3rd tone, falling-rising
- 4th tone, falling

The tone mark is placed above the main final, and when the main final is "i", the dot is omitted.

Each character has its own definite tone. For example, 買 (to buy) is 3rd tone, 賣 (to sell) is 4th tone. Both syllables have the same initial and final, but because their tones are different, their meanings are also different. Here are a few more examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1st tone</th>
<th>2nd tone</th>
<th>3rd tone</th>
<th>4th tone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>yí</td>
<td>yí</td>
<td>yí</td>
<td>yí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>wú</td>
<td>wú</td>
<td>wú</td>
<td>wú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>(house)</td>
<td>(none)</td>
<td>(five)</td>
<td>(fog)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>居</td>
<td>局</td>
<td>举</td>
<td>句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>(dwell)</td>
<td>(bureau)</td>
<td>(raise)</td>
<td>(sentence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ao</td>
<td>通</td>
<td>(bronze)</td>
<td>(barrel)</td>
<td>(ache)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ou</td>
<td>织</td>
<td>直</td>
<td>纸</td>
<td>治</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an</td>
<td>(weave)</td>
<td>(straight)</td>
<td>(paper)</td>
<td>(rule, cure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>穿</td>
<td>船</td>
<td>喋</td>
<td>串</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ang</td>
<td>chuān</td>
<td>chuān</td>
<td>chuān</td>
<td>chuàn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eng</td>
<td>(wear)</td>
<td>(boat)</td>
<td>(pant)</td>
<td>(string)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ong</td>
<td>枪</td>
<td>枪</td>
<td>枪</td>
<td>枪</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ia</td>
<td>云</td>
<td>允</td>
<td>允</td>
<td>允</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ia</td>
<td>(gun)</td>
<td>(wall)</td>
<td>(rob)</td>
<td>(irritate the throat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ia</td>
<td>(dizzy)</td>
<td>(cloud)</td>
<td>(permit)</td>
<td>(transport)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
III. Light Tone, Change of Tones and the Retroflex Ending -r

1. Light tone

When a syllable is unstressed, it loses its original tone and becomes weak and short. No tone mark is written above syllables of the light tone. For example:

- tāmen 他们 (they)
- míngzi 名字 (name)
- xǐhuan 喜欢 (fond of)
- kèqì 客气 (polite)

2. Change of tones

Half-third tone: A syllable of the 3rd tone followed by a syllable of the 1st, 2nd, 4th or light tone is pronounced with only the falling part of the tone without its final rise. We call this the half-third tone. For example:

- Běijīng 北京 (Peking)
- zhěngqí 整齐 (orderly)
- fāngwén 访问 (visit)
- nuǎnhuó 暖和 (warm)

When a third tone is followed by another third tone, the first third tone is read as a second tone. For example:

- yǒuhǎo (yóu hǎo) 友好 (friendly)
- lìxiǎng (lǐ xiǎng) 理想 (ideal)
- yǒnggān (yǒng gān) 勇敢 (brave)
- Nǐ hǎo! (Nǐ hǎo!) 你好! (How are you!)
- Nǐ zǎo! (Nǐ zǎo!) 你早! (Good morning!)

3. Retroflex ending -r In Chinese, there are many words which are pronounced with a retroflex -r at the end. The retroflex -r is not an independent syllable itself, but combines with the preceding final to change its sound.

- huār 花儿 (flower)
- gēr 歌儿 (song)
- wánr 玩儿 (play)
- xiǎoháir 小孩儿 (child)
- yíhuì 一会儿 (a moment)
- yídìanr 一点儿 (a little)
It is possible to draw a picture of a concrete object but abstract concepts were represented by symbols.

Aside from these, there are also characters made up of two or more other characters. For example, 日 and 月 combine to give 明 (bright); 人 leaning against 木 gives 休 (rest).

Characters of this type which contain phonetic components account for only a small proportion of all Chinese characters, but many of them are in common use.

The overwhelming majority of Chinese characters contain a phonetic component. In addition to this phonetic, they contain a signific, which indicates the meaning. For instance, in the character 草 (grass), the signific 草 (originally a picture of grass) carries the meaning while the phonetic 草 provides an approximate guide to the sound.

Learning to recognize phonetics and significs is a help to learning characters. Knowing the pronunciation of one character, by analogy it is possible to infer the pronunciation of many others containing the same phonetic.

For example:

方 fāng:
芳 fāng 芳 fāng 房 fāng 扳 fāng

巴 bā:
巴 bā 巴 bā 巴 bā 巴 bā 把 bā

Because pronunciation has changed over the centuries, many phonetics now indicate only the approximate sound, like 草 zāo in 草 cáo. Others no longer indicate the sound at all. Owing to changes in the form of characters, some significs no longer have their original shape. Therefore significs and phonetics are only a limited aid in learning characters.

II. Structure of Characters and Rules for Writing

Some characters are quite complex, and to remember them one must analyze them. Characters are generally composed of several basic structural parts called “character components”. Some character components can stand by themselves; for instance, 人 is itself a character. Most characters, however, are made up of two or more components. Some are made up of upper and lower parts, like 心 (think) and 草 (grass); others of right and left sides, like 母 (tap) and 红 (red); still others of inside and outside parts, like 国 (country) and 健 (healthy). Although the number of characters is quite large, there are only a limited number of character components. Once one learns some of the character components, it becomes easy to recognize and write many characters.

All character components are written with the following eight basic strokes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stroke</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>点 diǎn</td>
<td>dot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>横 héng</td>
<td>horizontal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>垂 shù</td>
<td>vertical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>撷 piě</td>
<td>left-falling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>捺 nà</td>
<td>right-falling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>提 tí</td>
<td>rising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>钩 gōu</td>
<td>hook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>折 zhé</td>
<td>turning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These strokes are basically straight lines and should not be written in curves like Latin letters. From top to bottom and from left to right are the main directions.
Following are the rules for order of strokes when writing character components and characters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Stroke Order</th>
<th>Rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>十 一 十</td>
<td>First horizontal, then vertical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人 人</td>
<td>First left-falling, then right-falling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>三 = 三</td>
<td>From top to bottom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>州 之 州</td>
<td>From left to right</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>月 月 月 月</td>
<td>First outside, then inside</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>四 四 四 四</td>
<td>Finish inside, then close</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>小 小 小 小</td>
<td>Middle, then the two sides</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of some sample characters:

| 坐 | 住 |
| 语 | 口
| 团 | 月
| 间 | 门
| 想 | 心|
| 进 | 之
| 越 | 走
| 流 | 之
| 把 | 才

As explained before, most characters are made up of two or more components. Those components used most frequently are called radicals and are sometimes themselves characters. Chinese dictionaries are generally arranged according to radicals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radicals Examples</th>
<th>Radicals Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>口 口 口 口</td>
<td>口 口 口 口</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>刮 别 到 刚</td>
<td>河 游 游 海</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人 个 今 会 全</td>
<td>口 呼 叫 听 喝</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人 信 体 使 他</td>
<td>口 因 因 因 国</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人 很 往 待</td>
<td>口 木 木 木 木</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i 认 谊 设</td>
<td>口 柿 柿 柿 柿</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>山 出 口 莘</td>
<td>口 来 来 来 来</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>心 容 家 家 客</td>
<td>口 热 热 热 热</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>心 心 心 心</td>
<td>口 方 方 方 方</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>心 息 息 息</td>
<td>口 错 错 错 错</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>心 怎 思 感 意</td>
<td>口 社 社 社 社</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>心 菜 茉 花 花</td>
<td>口 福 福 福 福</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>心 等 等 等 等</td>
<td>口 初 初 初 初</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>女 女 女 女</td>
<td>口 地 地 地 地</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>女 女 女 女</td>
<td>口 场 场 场 场</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>女 女 女 女</td>
<td>口 玩 玩 玩 玩</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 招 招 招 打</td>
<td>口 现 现 现 现</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 球 球 球 球</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 路 路 路 路</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 难 难 难 难</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 引 引 引 引</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 张 张 张 张</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 原 原 原 原</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 庄 庄 庄 庄</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>进 进 进 进</td>
<td>口 痛 痛 痛 痛</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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