

# PART I: CHINA TODAY

## Facts and statistics about China

China 中國 [*Zhongguo*] — Abbreviations: Han 漢, Hua 華, Zhong 中

MAINLAND CHINA—official name: People's Republic of China (PRC), name in Chinese: *Zhonghua renmin gongheguo* 中華人民共和國; area PRC: 9,560,000 km<sup>2</sup>; population (2005): 1.30765 billion; population density: 136 persons per km<sup>2</sup>; capital: Beijing 北京 (15.38 million inhabitants)

TAIWAN AREA—official name: Republic of China (ROC), name in Chinese: *Zhonghua minguo* 中華民國; area ROC: 36,000 km<sup>2</sup>; population (2005): 22.69 million; population density: 630 persons per km<sup>2</sup>; capital: Taipei 台北 (2.62 million inhabitants)

CHINA'S LOCATION: East Asia; latitude 18-53° N, longitude 71-135° E (South China Sea not included)

NEIGHBOURING STATES: Afghanistan, Bhutan, India, Kazakhstan, Korea, Kyrgyzstan, Laos, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Russia, Tajikistan, Vietnam (length of land border about 22,800 km)

ADJACENT SEAS: Bohai Sea (*bobai* 渤海), East China Sea (*donghai* 東海), Gulf of Tonkin (*beibuwan* 北部灣), Pacific Ocean (*taipingyang* 太平洋), South China Sea (*nanhai* 南海), Taiwan Strait (*Taiwan haixia* 台灣海峽), Yellow Sea (*huanghai* 黃海); length of coastline exceeds 22,000 km

TIME ZONE: Beijing time = UTC + 8 hours (no daylight saving time) applies to entire PRC and Taiwan

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION: 23 provinces (*sheng* 省), one province (Taiwan) not part of PRC; 5 Autonomous Regions (AR—*zizhiqu* 自治區); 4 special municipalities (*zhibixiashi* 直轄市); and 2 Special Administrative Regions (SAR—*tebie xingzhengqu* 特別行政區). Besides these, there are 5 Special Economic Zones (SEZ—*jingji tequ* 經濟特區) that are economic units but not additional provinces/ARs/special municipalities/SARs

OFFICIAL LANGUAGE: Mandarin Chinese (*Zhongguo hua* 中國話), which is the Beijing dialect (*beijingshua* 北京話), also called *Putonghua* 普通話 (“common language”) or *Guoyu* 國語 (“national language”)

VITAL STATISTICS PRC 2005—economy: 12.6 % agriculture, 47.5 % industry, 39.9 % services; GDP per capita: US\$ 1711; inflation: 1.8 %; unemployment rate: 4.2 %; urbanization: 42.9 %; annual population growth: 0.58 %; literacy rate: 88.9 %; inhabitants per physician: 658; life expectancy: 69.63 years (men), 73.33 years (women)

VITAL STATISTICS ROC 2005—economy: 1.8 % agriculture, 24.6 % industry, 73.6 % services; GNP per capita: US\$ 15,676; inflation: 2.3 %; unemployment rate: 4.1 %; urbanization: 92 %; annual population growth: 0.29 %; literacy rate: 97.3 %; inhabitants per physician: 588; life expectancy: 73.71 years (men), 79.79 years (women)

CURRENCY UNITS: PRC—Renminbi 人民幣 (RMB, 1 Yuan 元 RMB = 10 Jiao 角 / 10 Mao 毛 = 100 Fen 分); Hong Kong—Hong Kong Dollar (*gangbi* 港幣, 1 HK\$ = 100 cents); Macau—“Pataca” (*aomenbi* 澳門幣, 1 M\$ = 100 Avos); ROC—New Taiwan Dollar (*xin taibi* 新台幣, NT\$)

ELECTRICITY: PRC—220 V/50 Hz (two kinds of plugs: Australian style and US/Canada style); Hong Kong—220 V/50 Hz (plugs UK style); Macau—220 V/50 Hz (two kinds of plugs: UK style and India style); Taiwan ROC—110 V/60 Hz (plugs US/Canada style)

EMERGENCY TELEPHONE HOTLINES—PRC and ROC: fire 119, police 110; Hong Kong and Macau: emergency 999

INTERNATIONAL DIALING CODE—PRC: +86; ROC: +886; Hong Kong +852; Macau +853

INTERNET DOMAIN—PRC: .cn; ROC: .tw; Hong Kong: .hk; Macau: .mo

NATIONAL HOLIDAY OF THE PRC: October 1 (founding day of the PRC in 1949)

NATIONAL HOLIDAY OF THE ROC: October 10 (date of the Hsinhai revolution [*xinbai geming* 辛亥革命] in 1911)

TOTAL ARMED FORCES (2003): PRC 2,470,000 active troops; ROC 370,000 active troops

## China's population

### China's demographic development

China is the most populous country in the world, and limiting population growth is one of the most challenging and most pressing tasks in modern China. In the last 50 years, China's population has more than doubled. While in Imperial China rulers always favored high population growth, the dangers of overpopulation and the need for population control were recognized in the late 1950s and 1960s.

From the first census conducted in the year 2 AD until the beginning of the Ming dynasty (1368-1644), China's population was relatively stable, remaining for centuries between 50 and 100 million people. Since the Qing dynasty (1644-1911) population growth has accelerated. Growth patterns between 1950 and 1980 were not uniform—while there was a baby boom in 1950-1957 and again in 1962-1970, the population growth rate declined sharply between 1958 and 1961, the disastrous years of the Great Leap Forward (*dayuejin* 大躍進). In recent years the population of the PRC grown more slowly due to the introduction of the one-child-policy (*dusheng zini zhengce* 獨生子女政策 or *yitaihua zhengce* 一胎化政策). The population reached 1.3 billion in January 2005, and according to estimates it could rise to between 1.4 billion and 1.6 billion by 2025. In 2000 the PRC announced its intention to limit population growth to 1.5 percent annually.

Improvements in the standard of health care and medical facilities, a rising life expectancy, as well as a declining birth rate have contributed to a trend which is familiar to most industrialized countries—an ageing society. Today, around 7.5 percent of the PRC's population is over 65, but in the next quarter century that number will probably increase to 30 percent. This unprecedented demographic development will produce a boom in the number of aged people, and the social and economic consequences of the growing burden on the working population to support the retired masses in such a big country are hard to predict.

While in the past 80 percent of the people lived in the countryside, urbanization is now rapidly gaining pace. It is estimated that, by the beginning of the new millennium, China's rural population had dropped to below 65 percent of the total population, and according to CHINA DAILY (*Zhongguo ribao* 中國日報) half of the PRC's population will be living in cities by 2010. Due to natural conditions in the different parts of the country the population density varies greatly. Population density is higher southeast of the "Aihui-Tengchong line"—an imaginary line drawn between Aihui 愛輝 (Heilongjiang province) and Tengchong 騰冲 (Yunnan province)—and lower northwest of that line.

<i>Year</i>	<i>total population</i>	<i>annual growth (%)</i>	<i>male—female (%)</i>	<i>urban—rural (%)</i>
2 AD	ca. 59 million	NA	NA	NA
140	ca. 49 million	NA	NA	NA
606	ca. 46 million	NA	NA	NA
742	ca. 49 million	NA	NA	NA
1086	ca. 40 million	NA	NA	NA
1195	ca. 76 million	NA	NA	NA
1391	ca. 57 million	NA	NA	NA
1776	ca. 268 million	NA	NA	NA
1812	ca. 361 million	NA	NA	NA
1851	ca. 432 million	NA	NA	NA
1949	541.67 million	1.6	51.96—48.04	10.6—89.4
1953	582.60 million	2.285	51.82—48.18	13.3—86.7
1964	694.58 million	1.918	51.27—48.73	18.4—81.6
1969	806.71 million	2.721	51.18—48.82	17.5—82.5
1982	1.008 billion	1.468	51.52—48.48	20.8—79.2
1990	1.133 billion	1.445	51.52—48.48	26.4—73.6
2000	1.265 billion	1.07	51.63—48.37	36.1—63.9

**Note:** Numbers before 1949 refer to territory controlled by the respective governments at those times, the boundaries of which sometimes were quite different from those of today's PRC. As for the quality of the data, census data collected in China are considered reliable only since 1953. The populations of Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macau are not included in these statistics.

### The one-child-policy of the PRC

The one-child policy was formally announced by premier Hua Guofeng 華國鋒 at the Third Session of the Fifth National People's Congress, which took place between Aug. 30 and Sept. 10, 1980. The policy applies to the Han Chinese (1.176 billion people in 2002), but not to the PRC's 55 ethnic minorities (total 107.9 million people in 2002). Married couples are allowed to have one child only, but the request of rural parents for a second child may be approved if their first child is a girl or handicapped. Couples who have more children face possible sanctions like fines and must pay fees for public services such as education for the children that otherwise would be free.

Methods to get around the restrictions include the use of fertility drugs to produce twins, concealing pregnancies and not registering births, and finding ways to register as members of ethnic minorities which are exempt from the one-child-policy (e. g. the Tuchia, a minority that is very similar to the Han Chinese).

Although the population growth rate of the PRC sank from 2.285 percent in 1953 to 1.07 percent in 2000, the one-child-policy has drawn strong international criticism because its implementation has seen the use of draconian measures, such as forced abortions in the last weeks or days of pregnancy as well as involuntary sterilizations. Besides, the policy has aggravated the perennial gender imbalance, with its surplus of new born boys (PRC government statistics show

that 117 boys are born for every 100 girls in the PRC, well above the average for industrialized countries of between 104 and 107 boys for every 100 girls). Baby girls are sometimes killed shortly after birth if the parents want a boy, and the policy has also spurred the illegal practice of sex-selective abortions which are possible now due to the widespread availability of ultrasound devices. Enforcement of the one-child-policy is stricter in the cities than in rural areas.

### Demographic development in Taiwan since the early 20<sup>th</sup> century

Year	population	annual growth (%)	male—female (%)
1905	3.1 million	NA	NA
1949	7.39 million	NA	NA
1952	8.128 million	3.3	51.13—48.86
1960	10.792 million	3.5	51.19—48.8
1970	14.676 million	2.4	52.69—47.3
1980	17.805 million	1.9	52.16—47.83
1990	20.353 million	1.2	51.66—48.33
2000	22.216 million	0.8	51.13—48.86
2005	22.69 million	0.3	50.76—49.23

## Nationalities in China

The PRC is a unified, multi-national country that is home to 56 nationalities. The Han people (Han-Chinese) make up 91.02 percent of the total population, leaving 8.98 percent accounted for by the other 55 ethnic minorities recognized by the government. From an ethnological point of view it could be questioned why Chinese Muslims are listed as a separate ethnic minority, as except for their religious beliefs, there are no differences between them and the Han Chinese.

In the year 1990, there were 19 ethnic groups with more than 1 million people: Borean/Bai, Bouyei, Chinese Muslims/Hui, Chuang/Zhuang, Dai, Dong, Gerbao/Yao, Han Chinese, Hani, Hmong/Miao, Kazakh, Koreans, Li, Lolos/Yi, Manchus, Mongols, Tibetans, Tuchia, and Uighurs; 15 ethnic minorities with between 100,000 and 1 million people: Dahur/Daur, Dongxiang, Gelo, Jingpo, Kirghiz, Lahu, Lisu, Mulam, Nakhi, Qiang, She, Shui, Sibon/Xibe, Tu, and Va; and 22 ethnic minorities with less than 100,000 people: Achang, Blang, Bonan, Chino, De'ang/Benglong, Drung, Ewenki, Gaoshan, Gin, Goldi/Hezhen, Lhoba, Maonan, Moinba, Nu, Oroqen, Primi, Russians, Salar, Tajik, Tatars, Uzbek, and Yugur. The Chuang [Zhuang] minority is the largest with more than 15 million people and the Lhoba minority the smallest with less than 3000 people.

### China's 56 nationalities

Achang 阿昌族 [*achang zu*]; **population 1990:** 27,718. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Myanmar. **Characteristics:** The Achang belong to the Tibeto-Burman group, some follow Buddhism, others believe in primitive spirits and practice ancestor worship.

Blang 布朗族 [*blang zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 82,398. **Area (province):** Yunnan. **Characteristics:** The Blang belong to the Mon-Khmer group, some people also speak Thai and Va. Their culture is closely related to the inhabitants of nearby Myanmar and Laos, main traditional religions are Theravada Buddhism and polytheism.

Bonan 保安族 [*baonan zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 11,683. **Area (province):** Gansu. **Characteristics:** The Bonan are culturally close to the Hui (Chinese Muslims) because they are Muslims, but they speak a Mongolian language.

- Borean/Bai 白族 [*bai zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,598,052. **Area (provinces):** Yunnan, Guizhou. **Characteristics:** The Borean belong to the Tibeto-Burman group and were a major ethnic group in the Nanzhao kingdom 南詔 (649-902). Their religions include Shamanism, Buddhism and Taoism.
- Bouyei 布依族 [*buyi zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 2,548,294. **Area (provinces/countries):** Guizhou; Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The language of the Bouyei is closely related to those of Chuang and Dai; their way of life resembles that of the Hmong; they practice polytheism and animism.
- Chinese Muslims/Hui 回族 [*hui zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 8,612,001. **Area (provinces):** Ningxia, Gansu, Henan, Xinjiang, Qinghai, Yunnan, Hebei, Shandong, Anhui, Liaoning, Beijing, Heilongjiang, Tianjin, Jilin, and Shaanxi. **Characteristics:** Culturally and linguistically there are no major differences between the Hui and the Han Chinese except for religion. The Hui are the most scattered minority group in the PRC.
- Chino/Juno 基諾族 [*jino zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 18,022. **Area (province):** Yunnan. **Characteristics:** The Chino belong to the Tibeto-Burman group and practice nature worship; they were recognized as a nationality only in 1979.
- Chuang/Zhuang 壯族 [*zhuang zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 15,555,820. **Area (provinces):** Guangxi, Yunnan, Guangdong, and Guizhou. **Characteristics:** The origins of the Chuang go back more than 2000 years. Their language is related to Thai, but many speak Chinese. Since 1955, they have used their own script based on the Latin alphabet. Religions: Buddhism, Taoism, Christianity. Largest ethnic minority of the PRC.
- Dai 傣族 [*dai zu*] = Baiyi 擺夷 [*baiyi*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,025,402. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, and Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Dai have a close affinity to the Thais and were one of the major ethnic groups in the Nanzhao kingdom 南詔 (649-902). They practice Theravada Buddhism.
- Daur/Dahur 達斡爾族 [*dawoer zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 121,463. **Area (provinces):** Inner Mongolia, Heilongjiang, and Xinjiang. **Characteristics:** The Dahur have a strong linguistic and cultural affinity to the Mongols. Genetically they are descendants of the Khitan [*qidan* 契丹]. Main religion: Shamanism.
- De'ang 德昂族 [*de'ang zu*] = Benglong 崩龍族 [*benglong zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 15,461. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Myanmar. **Characteristics:** The De'ang speak an Austro-Asiatic language related to Va and are culturally close to the Burmese. Some De'ang practice Theravada Buddhism.
- Dong 侗族 [*dong zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 2,508,624. **Area (provinces):** Guizhou, Hunan, and Guangxi. **Characteristics:** The Dong speak a Thai language and can trace their origins back to the 3<sup>rd</sup> century BC.
- Dongxiang 東鄉族 [*dongxiang zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 373,669. **Area (provinces):** Gansu, Xinjiang. **Characteristics:** The Dongxiang are closely related to the Mongols. They speak a Mongolian language but are Muslims.
- Drung 獨龍族 [*dulong zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 5825. **Area (province):** Yunnan. **Characteristics:** The Drung belong to the Tibeto-Burman group, their language is closely related to that of the Jingpo. Religions: nature worship, animism, a belief in spirits, but some practice Christianity.
- Ewenki 鄂溫克族 [*ewenke zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 26,379. **Area (provinces/countries):** Inner Mongolia, Heilongjiang; Russia. **Characteristics:** The Ewenki are a Tungusic nationality, their members were nomads in the past but have mostly settled down in the last four decades. Religions: animal worship, Shamanism, Tibetan Buddhism.
- Gaoshan 高山族 [*gaoshan zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 2877 (Fujian only). **Area (provinces):** Fujian; Taiwan (see paragraph below). **Characteristics:** The Gaoshan consist of several tribes that belong to

- the Malay-Polynesian group, some of them were headhunters in the past. Religions: polytheism and Christianity.
- Gelo 仡佬族 [*gelao zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 438,192. **Area (provinces/countries):** Guizhou, Guangxi, and Yunnan; Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Gelo have their own language but few speak it, as they tend to communicate in Chinese, Hmong, Lolo and Bouyei. Main religion: Taoism.
- Gerbao/Yao 瑶族 [*yao zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 2,137,033. **Area (provinces/countries):** Guangxi, Hunan, Yunnan, Guangdong, Guizhou, and Sichuan; Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Gerbao have several mutually incomprehensible languages and often use Chinese or Chuang for communication. Traditional religions: nature worship, Taoism.
- Gin/Kinh 京族 [*jing zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 18,749. **Area (province/countries):** Guangxi; Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Gin are descendants from Vietnamese migrants who arrived in China beginning in the 15<sup>th</sup> century; they have their own language but Cantonese is also widely spoken. Religions: Taoism, Catholicism.
- Goldi/Hezhen 赫哲族 [*hezhe zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 4254. **Area (provinces/countries):** Heilongjiang; Russia. **Characteristics:** The Goldi speak a Manchu-Tungus language called Nanaj 那乃 [*nanai*]. Their religion is based on nature worship and Shamanism.
- Han Chinese 汉族 [*han zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,039,187,548. **Area (provinces):** The Han Chinese are the majority in all of the PRC's provinces and Taiwan with the exceptions of Tibet and Xinjiang. **Characteristics:** [described in the rest of this book]
- Hani 哈尼族 [*hani zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,254,800. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Hani belong to the Tibeto-Burman group and practice polytheism.
- Hmong/Miao 苗族 [*miao zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 7,383,622. **Area (provinces/countries):** Guizhou, Yunnan, Hunan, Guangxi, Sichuan, Guangdong, and Hubei; Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, and Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Hmong have a history of more than 4000 years, their language has three main dialects. Religions: nature worship, Christianity.
- Jingpo/Kachin 景颇族 [*jingpo zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 119,276. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Myanmar. **Characteristics:** The Jingpo live in the mountainous regions close to the border to Myanmar and belong to the Tibeto-Burman group. Their language is closely related to that of the Drung. Main traditional religion is polytheism, but some practice Christianity.
- Kazakh 哈萨克族 [*hasake zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,110,758. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang, Gansu; Kazakhstan, Russia, and Uzbekistan. **Characteristics:** The Kazakhs are mostly wandering herders of goats and sheep, their main religion is Islam, but Shamanism still survives. Kazakh languages has two scripts, one based on the Arabic alphabet, the other one based on Latin.
- Kirghiz 柯尔克孜族 [*keerkezi zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 143,537. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang, Heilongjiang; Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan. **Characteristics:** The Kirghiz are Turkic people with a Turkic language. They are pastoral wanderers and herders of goats and sheep. Religion: mostly Muslims, but some practice Tibetan Buddhism.
- Koreans 朝鲜族 [*chaosian zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,923,361. **Area (provinces/countries):** Jilin, Heilongjiang, Liaoning; Korea. **Characteristics:** The migration of Koreans into Manchuria started relatively late (during the Ming dynasty [1368-1644]), their language and culture is the same as in Korea.
- Lahu 拉祜族 [*lahu zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 411,545. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Lahu language belongs to the Lolo branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, but most Lahu speak Chinese or Thai. Religions: nature worship, Mahayana Buddhism, Christianity.

- Lhoba 珞巴族 [*luoba zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 2322. **Area (provinces/countries):** Tibet; India. **Characteristics:** The Lhoba speak a Tibetan language but don't have their own script. Main religions: nature worship, animism. Smallest of the PRC's nationalities.
- Li 黎族 [*li zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 1,112,498. **Area (province):** Hainan. **Characteristics:** The Li have a Sino-Tibetan language but mostly speak Chinese today. They are polytheistic and practice nature worship.
- Lisu 傣倮族 [*lisu zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 574,589. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan, Sichuan; India, Myanmar, Thailand. **Characteristics:** The Lisu language belongs to the Lolo branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. They have arranged, monogamous marriages but practice free love before marriage. Religions: animism, ancestor worship, some Christianity.
- Lolos/Yi 彝族 [*yi zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 6,578,524. **Area (provinces/countries):** Sichuan, Yunnan, Guizhou, Guangxi; Vietnam. **Characteristics:** The Lolos belong to the Tibeto-Burman language group and have their own script. Religions: polytheism and Buddhism, later Taoism and Christianity.
- Manchus 滿族 [*man zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 9,846,776. **Area (provinces):** Liaoning, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Hebei, Beijing, and Inner Mongolia. **Characteristics:** The Manchus can be traced back some 3000 years and were originally herders and hunters that practiced Shamanism. They were descendants of the Jurchen tatars (*ruzhen 女真*) that had been the rulers of the Jin empire 金 (1115-1234) and changed their name to Manchu in 1635. The Manchus established the Qing dynasty in 1644 and became very sinicized in the following centuries, so most of their culture was lost and their Tungusic Manchu language is spoken by only a few today. The Manchus are, next to the Hui, the second most scattered nationality in the PRC.
- Maonan 毛南族 [*maonan zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 72,370. **Area (province):** Guangxi. **Characteristics:** The Maonan language is related to the Chuang/Zhuang language, they love festivals and colourful dress.
- Moinba 門巴族 [*menba zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 7498. **Area (provinces/countries):** Tibet; Bhutan, India. **Characteristics:** The way of life, culture and language of the Moinba are similar to the Tibetans. Religion: Tibetan Buddhism.
- Mongols 蒙古族 [*menggu zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 4,802,407. **Area (provinces/countries):** Inner Mongolia, Liaoning, Xinjiang, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Qinghai, Hebei, Henan, Gansu, and Yunnan; Kazakhstan, Mongolia, Russia. **Characteristics:** The Mongol language belongs to the Altaic languages, there are many (mutually understandable) dialects, and they have their own script that is still in use. Traditionally, they followed a nomadic way of life, although some settled down. The Yuan dynasty (1279-1368) was part of the vast Mongol empire founded by Genghis Khan. Main religion: Tibetan Buddhism.
- Mulam 仡佬族 [*mulao zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 160,648. **Area (province):** Guangxi. **Characteristics:** The Mulam language is related to that of the Dong, but Chinese characters are used. Religions: Buddhism, Taoism.
- Nakhi 納西族 [*naxi zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 277,750. **Area (provinces):** Yunnan, Sichuan. **Characteristics:** The Nakhi speak a language belonging to the Lolo branch of the Tibeto-Burman group. Religions: Dongba 東巴 (an almost extinct form of Shamanism), Tibetan Buddhism, Taoism. Mostly patrilineal, but the Mosuo 摩梭 tribe (ca. 50,000 people) living at Lugu Lake 瀘沽湖 in Yunnan is matrilineal.
- Nu 怒族 [*nu zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 27,190. **Area (province):** Yunnan. **Characteristics:** The Nu belong to the Tibeto-Burman group and are closely related to the Tibetans. Religions: Tibetan Buddhism, nature worship and animism, Christianity.

- Oroqen 鄂倫春族 [*elunchun zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 7004. **Area (provinces):** Inner Mongolia, Heilongjiang. **Characteristics:** The Oroqen belong to the Tungus group and used to be semi-nomadic, living in birch and hide tents; today they are more settled.
- Primi 普米族 [*pumi zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 29,721. **Area (provinces):** Yunnan. Sichuan. **Characteristics:** The Primi language is related to Tibetan, and the Primi have a similar lifestyle to the Tibetans, but not all Primis practice Tibetan Buddhism. Other religions: polytheism, sacrifices to ancestors.
- Qiang 羌族 [*qiang zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 198,303. **Area (province):** Sichuan. **Characteristics:** The Qiang can be traced back more than 3000 years; in the past they were also called the Western Rong 西戎. Earlier tribes existing during the Qin and Han dynasties were the Guanghan 廣漢, Ruo 婁, Shaodang 燒當, Wudu 武都, Xianling 先零, and Yuexi 越巂; later tribes included the Bailan 白蘭, Dangchang 宕昌, Tanguts 党項 [*dangxiang*], and Dengzhi 鄧至. During the Sixteen Nations Period they established the Later Qin 後秦 (384-417) in Shaanxi. They are closely related to the Tibetans and speak a similar language. Religions: polytheism, nature worship, and Shamanism (no Tibetan Buddhism!).
- Russians 俄羅斯族 [*eluosi zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 13,500. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang; Russia. **Characteristics:** The Russians arrived in China after the Russian Revolution of 1917; their language and culture are the same as in Russia.
- Salar 撒拉族 [*sala zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 87,546. **Area (provinces):** Qinghai, Gansu, Xinjiang. **Characteristics:** The Salar speak a Turkic language and live as herders in a semi-desert area. Religion: Islam.
- She 畲族 [*she zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 634,700. **Area (provinces):** Fujian, Zhejiang, Jiangxi, Guangdong, and Anhui. **Characteristics:** The She language belongs to the Hmong branch of the Hmong-Gerbao family. Religions: Buddhism, polytheism.
- Shui 水族 [*shui zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 347,116. **Area (provinces):** Guizhou, Guangxi. **Characteristics:** The Shui language is close to that of the Dong. Religions: nature worship, polytheism, and Catholicism.
- Sibo/Xibe 錫伯族 [*xiibo zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 172,932. **Area (provinces):** Xinjiang, Liaoning, and Jilin. **Characteristics:** The Sibos speak a Manchu-Tungus language and are traditionally polytheistic, but some practice Tibetan Buddhism.
- Tajik 塔吉克族 [*tajike zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 33,223. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang; Afghanistan, Iran, Pakistan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan. **Characteristics:** The Tajiks speak an Iranian language and live as farmers or herders. Religion: Islam.
- Tatars 塔塔爾族 [*tataer zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 5064. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang; Kazakhstan, Russia, Turkey, and Ukraine. **Characteristics:** The Tatars belong linguistically to the Turkic family and are Muslims.
- Tibetans 藏族 [*zang zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 4,593,072. **Area (provinces/countries):** Tibet, Sichuan, Qinghai, Gansu, and Yunnan; Bhutan, India, and Nepal. **Characteristics:** The Tibetans have a highly distinctive culture, practice their own form of Buddhism and have a rich written and oral tradition. The Sherpas 夏爾巴人 [*xiaerba ren*] with ca. 900 members living in Tibet are not regarded as a separate nationality but a branch of the Tibetans. The Tibetans have the lowest literacy rate among the PRC's ethnic minorities. After a suppressed uprising in 1959, many Tibetans fled the PRC.
- Tu 土族 [*tu zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 192,568. **Area (provinces):** Qinghai, Gansu. **Characteristics:** The Tu speak a Mongolian language (two dialects) and are closely related to the Mongols. They have a rich oral tradition and mostly practice Tibetan Buddhism, although there is also some polytheism.



- Tuchia 土家族 [*tujia zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 5,725,049. **Area (provinces):** Hunan, Hubei, Sichuan. **Characteristics:** The Tuchia are renowned for their singing and dancing traditions, but in most ways, the Tuchia today are very similar to the Han Chinese. Most of them speak Mandarin, a few speak Hmong. Some Han Chinese register as Tuchia in order to avoid the restrictions of the one-child-policy.
- Uighurs 維吾爾族 [*weiwuer zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 7,207,024. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang, Hunan; Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkey, Russia, and Uzbekistan. **Characteristics:** The Uighur language belongs to the Turkic group of the Altaic family. Customs, culture and art are similar to other Turkic people. Religion: Islam.
- Uzbek 烏孜別克族 [*wuzibieke zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 14,763. **Area (provinces/countries):** Xinjiang; Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. **Characteristics:** The Uzbeks speak a Turkic language, and their clothing and cuisine is very similar to those of the Uighurs. Religion: Islam.
- Va 佤族 [*wa zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 351,980. **Area (provinces/countries):** Yunnan; Myanmar. **Characteristics:** The Va speak a Mon-Khmer Austro-Asiatic language, but had no written script until recently. Religions: mostly nature worship, but also Theravada Buddhism and Christianity.
- Yugur 裕固族 [*yugu zu*]; **pop. 1990:** 12,293. **Area (province):** Gansu. **Characteristics:** The Yugurs, also known as “Yellow Uighurs”, are descendants from the Uighurs, most of them speak a Turkic language and some a Mongolic language. They are herders, farmers and hunters. Most of them practice Tibetan Buddhism.

### The Hakkas

Another group that is an integral part of the Han Chinese are the Hakkas (*kejiaoren* 客家人). They speak their own dialect and have distinct cultural features. Their ancestors originated from the Yellow River region and gradually migrated southwards starting in around 1000 AD. Today, there are major Hakka populations in Fujian, Guangdong, Sichuan and Taiwan. Famous Hakkas include Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平, Hong Xiuquan 洪秀全, Lee Kuan Yew 李光耀, Ouyang Xiu 歐陽修, Sun Yat-sen 孫逸仙, Wang Yangming 王陽明, and Zhu Xi 朱熹.

### Taiwan's indigenous peoples

The PRC uses the term “Gaoshan nationality” (*gaoshan zu* 高山族) to categorize indigenous groups in Taiwan and Fujian. In translation the term means “high mountain people”, and using it to describe Taiwan's indigenous groups is inaccurate and misleading for two reasons: a) it causes the impression that Taiwan's indigenous peoples are one homogenous ethnic group, and b) it implies that they all dwell in high mountain areas. In fact, Taiwan's indigenous people consist of 13 distinct groups officially recognized by the ROC government. Furthermore, there are two categories of indigenous peoples in Taiwan: besides the mountain dwelling groups (*gaoshan zu* 高山族) there are also the plains dwelling groups (*pingpu zu* 平埔族). At least when used for indigenous peoples in the Taiwan area, the term “Gaoshan nationality” should therefore be replaced with a term which is now standard in Taiwan: Taiwan Indigenous Groups (*Taiwan yuanzhumin* 台灣原住民 or just *yuanzhumin* 原住民 in Chinese).

At the end of Dec. 2004 the indigenous population in Taiwan was 454,600 persons (including 29,000 people who claimed to belong to indigenous groups), accounting for 2.01 percent of Taiwan's total population of 22.615 million. The 13 groups:

- Amis (*amei zu* 阿美族), population 163,700, live in eastern Taiwan. Matrilineal society with five subgroups based on geography, language and customs. Many archaeologists believe they

are the descendants of the Chingpu culture (*jingpu wenhua* 靜浦文化) that arose in the Iron Age ca. 2000 years ago.

- Atayal (*taiya zu* 泰雅族), population 87,800, live in northern Taiwan and have an ambilineal kinship system. Their cultural features include facial tattoos and magnificent weaving traditions. A subgroup usually regarded as one of Atayal's branches is the Sediq/Seediq (*saiideke qun* 賽德克群), whose estimated 30,000 members are currently seeking official recognition from the government as a separate group.
- Bunun (*bunong zu* 布農族), population 46,300, live in the mountains of central and southern Taiwan. They have a strong musical tradition and share many cultural attributes with the Tsou.
- Kavalan/Kavarawan (*gamalan zu* 噶瑪蘭族), a plains-dwelling group, live in eastern Taiwan, population 800. Recognized as a separate group in Dec. 2002.
- Paiwan (*paiwan zu* 排灣族), population 79,000, live in southern Taiwan. The Paiwan are well-known for their woodcarving skills. Originally they had an ambilineal kinship system and observed class distinctions between nobility and commoners.
- Puyuma (*beinan zu* 卑南族), population 10,000, live in southeastern Taiwan and are sometimes called Pinuyumayan/Punuyumayan. They share cultural aspects with the Paiwan and Rukai, have an ambilineal kinship system, and their society was in the past organized according to age classes. The Puyuma can be subdivided into the Jhiben (*zhiben* 知本) and Nanwang 南王 subgroups.
- Rukai (*lukai zu* 魯凱族), population 11,200, live in south-central Taiwan, their culture is closely related to the Paiwan, although their kinship system is patrilineal only.
- Saisiyat (*saixia zu* 賽夏族), population 5400, live in northwestern Taiwan. Their culture has been strongly influenced by the Atayal.
- Sakizaya/Sakiraya (*shaqilaiya zu* 沙奇萊亞族/*saqilaiya zu* 撒奇萊雅族), population 4000, live in northern Taiwan (mainly in the Hualien area). They are culturally close to the Amis but have their own language. Before they were recognized as a separate group in Jan. 2007, they were regarded as a branch of the Amis.
- Thao/Sao (*shao zu* 邵族), population 500, live in west-central Taiwan at Sun Moon Lake 日月潭 and were influenced culturally by the neighbouring Atayal and Bunun. Before they were recognized as a separate group in Aug. 2001, they were regarded as a branch of the Tsou despite significant differences.
- Truku/Taroko (*tailuge zu* 太魯閣族), population 7100, live in eastern Taiwan. A few old Truku women still have distinctive curved facial tattoos. They are closely connected with the Sediq and were previously considered as a subgroup of the Atayal. Recognized as a separate group in Jan. 2004.
- Tsou (*zou zu* 鄒族), population 5900, live in southwestern Taiwan at the bottom of Alishan 阿里山 and have a very tight tribal organization. Their language is significantly different from those of Taiwan's other groups.
- Yami (*yamei zu* 雅美族) = Tao (*dawuren* 達悟人), population 2700, live on Orchid Island (Lanyu 蘭嶼) off Taiwan's south-east coast and are closely related to the inhabitants of the Batanes Islands (Philippines). Their oceanic culture is centered on fishing, and unlike the other Taiwanese groups they didn't practice head-hunting or production of alcoholic beverages. They are known for their canoes which bear beautiful carvings and decorations and their semi-subterranean homes that provide protection against fierce typhoons.

Each of these groups has its own language, each of which belongs to the Austronesian (Malayo-Polynesian) language group, which in Taiwan can be subdivided into the Atayalic, Tsouic

and Paiwanic branches. Based on striking similarities in cultural features like pottery and woodcarving, linguistic comparative research and DNA tests, some scientists have concluded that Taiwan's aboriginal groups and their civilization were the cradle of the Austronesian cultures from Madagascar to the Easter Island and from Hawaii to New Zealand.

The indigenous groups on Taiwan proper used to practice head-hunting and produced fermented-grain wine, and in the past facial tattoos were a cultural feature of the Atayal, Saisiyat and Truku. Other cultural characteristics typical of traditional Austronesian cultures include animism, treatment of disease by female shamans and circle-dancing. As the result of intense evangelization efforts by Western missionaries since the 19<sup>th</sup> century, many indigenous people have become Christians.

Today, Taiwan's indigenous groups are struggling to maintain their unique heritage, and Taiwan's government supports them by including indigenous languages in the curriculum of schools in indigenous communities and promoting indigenous cultural activities. However, due to economic development and the ensuing social changes, the languages, customs and lifestyles of Taiwan's indigenous groups remain under threat as many young indigenous people have left their home villages and moved to the cities in search of jobs.

Besides the 13 groups listed above, there are 16 other identified groups which are not officially recognized by the ROC government: Arikun (*alikon zu* 阿立昆族), Babuza/Poavosa (*babusa zu* 巴布薩族), Basay (*basai zu* 巴賽族), Favorlang (*feifolang zu* 費佛朗族), Hoanya (*hongya zu* 洪雅族), Ketagalan (*kaidagelan zu* 凱達格蘭族), Lloa (*luoya zu* 羅亞族), Luilang (*leilang zu* 雷朗族), Papora/Vupuran (*paipula zu* 拍瀑拉族/*babula zu* 巴布拉族), Pazeh/Pazzehe (*bazehai zu* 巴則海族/*paizaihai zu* 拍宰海族), Qauqaut (*boubou zu* 猴猴族), Sedeq/Seediq, Siraya/Siraiya (*xilaya zu* 西拉雅族) and their subgroup Makatao (*makadao zu* 馬卡道族), Taokas (*daokasi zu* 道卡斯族), and Trobiawan/Trobian (*duoluomei zu* 多囉美族/*duoluomeiyuan zu* 多囉美遠族). Most of these groups have already disappeared, mainly because of widespread intermarriage with Han Chinese immigrants.

### **Ethnic Chinese living outside the Greater China region**

Several countries in the world have a significant Chinese population. In Singapore, for example, 77 percent of the population is ethnic Chinese. Other countries with a large Chinese minority are Cambodia (3.1 percent), Indonesia (3.0 percent), Malaysia (29.7 percent), North Korea (0.2 percent), Thailand (12.1 percent), and Vietnam (1.5 percent). Ethnic Chinese living outside the Greater China region are called "overseas Chinese" (*huaqiao* 華僑).

Numbering approximately 35 million people (according to other sources 55 million people), the overseas Chinese, especially in the Asian-Pacific region, are a major economic force and account for 80 percent of foreign investment in China. Their wealth and influence have earned them admiration as well as envy and suspicion—during the Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s, overseas Chinese were the targets of violent attacks in Indonesia and Malaysia because of their commercial clout.

Cities with a major Chinese community ("Chinatown"—called *tangrenjie* 唐人街, *tangrenbu* 唐人埠, *huabu* 華埠, or *zhongguocheng* 中國城 in Chinese) can be found all around the globe. The most famous are in North America (New York, San Francisco, Vancouver), Europe (Paris, London, Amsterdam) and Australia, but also exist in many Asian countries (where the architecture appears less exotic as it is located in an oriental environment) and in other continents.

## Other nationalities in the history of China

Throughout the history of China, there was both friendly and hostile contact and interaction between the Han Chinese and other nationalities living on the periphery of the empire. Sometimes a non-Chinese nationality would become so powerful that it could threaten or even seize control of parts of the country or the whole empire like the Jurchen tatars in the Jin dynasty or the Manchus in the Qing dynasty.

Major non-Chinese nationalities in the history of China that have either disappeared, moved away, been renamed, become sinicized or been absorbed by another ethnic group were the Rong 戎 (Quanrong 犬戎, Shanrong 山戎), Xiongnu 匈奴 (sometimes associated with the Huns, their branches included Jie 羯, Lushuihu 盧水胡, and Tiefu 鐵弗/Tiefushi 鐵弗氏), the Donghu tribes 東胡 (their branches included Wuhuan 烏桓/Wuwan 烏丸 and Xianbei 鮮卑 [with tribes like Murong 慕容, Qifu 乞伏, Tabgac/Tuoba 拓跋, Tufa 秃發, and Yuwen 宇文]; the Rouran 柔然/Ruanruan 蠕蠕 had their origins in the Donghu tribes as well), Di 氐, Di 狄/Beidi 北狄 (tribes in northern China that later split into Baidi 白狄, Chidi 赤狄 and Changdi 長狄), Khitan tatars 契丹 [*qidan*], Karakhitan 喀喇契丹 [*kala qidan*], Tanguts 党項 [*dangxiang*], Tuyuhun 吐谷渾, Jurchen tatars 女真 [*ruzhen*] (origins: Tang Heishui Mohe 唐黑水靺鞨), Sogdians 康居人 [*kangjuren*] or 康國人 [*kangguoren*], and Turks 突厥人 [*tujuren*] (including Tölös 鐵勒/Gaoche 高車 and its Yuanhe 袁紇 tribe).

Other noteworthy nationalities were the Ba 巴, Dada 韃靼, Dingling 丁零, Fuyu 夫餘, Huihu 回鶻 (related to today's Uighurs), Mohe 靺鞨/Wuji 勿吉 (developed into seven tribes: Anchegu 安車骨, Baishan 白山, Boduo 伯咄, Funie 拂涅, Haoshi 號室, Heishui 黑水, Sumo 粟末), Pu 濮/Baipu 百濮, Shu 蜀, Weihe 韋紇/Huihe 回紇, Wusun 烏孫 (related to today's Kazakhs), Yuezhi 月氏/Dayuezhi 大月氏, Yue 越/Baiyue 百越/Baiyue 百粵, Zangeman 牂牁蠻, and others.

The term “Huren” 胡人 (meaning “barbarians” or “barbarian tribes”) was used to describe non-Han Chinese ethnic groups in the northern and western border regions like Mongols, Tatars and Turks; the term “Yi” 夷 to describe tribes in eastern China. “Tatars” is sometimes used as a name for all nationalities in northern China.

## Languages in China

The official language of the PRC is Mandarin Chinese, which is the Beijing dialect (*beijinghua* 北京話), also called *Putonghua* 普通話 or *Guoyu* 國語. Besides the Beijing dialect there are seven major dialects in China: Cantonese (*guangdonghua* 廣東話/*yueyu* 粵語); Shanghainese (*wu fangyan* 吳方言); Northern Fuzhou dialect (*minbeihua* 閩北語); Southern Fuzhou dialect (*minnanhua* 閩南語)—also known as the Hokkien (*fujianhua* 福建話), Holo/Hoklo (*beluoyu* 河洛語), Taiwanese (*taiyu* 台語) or Amoy dialect (“Amoy” is another name for Xiamen 廈門, a city in which the dialect is spoken); Hunanese (*xiang fangyan* 湘方言); Jiangxi dialect (*gan fangyan* 贛方言); and Hakka (*kejiahua* 客家話). Each of these eight major dialects has different subdialects, especially the Han-Chinese *Putonghua*. According to a 1991 survey, 70 percent of the PRC's population speak Northern Mandarin, 8.4 percent Shanghainese, 5 percent Cantonese, 5 percent Hunanese, 4 percent Hakka and 3 percent Southern Fuzhou dialect. A 2006 PRC Education Ministry study found that 53 percent of the PRC's 1.3 billion people speak *putonghua* standard Mandarin Chinese.

The Chinese dialects belong to the Sino-Tibetan language family and are noted for their tonality, monosyllabicity, and lack of inflection. Of the 56 ethnic groups in China, the Hui (Chinese Muslims) and Manchu use the same language as Han-Chinese people, while the rest of the ethnic groups have their own spoken and written languages like Thai, Mongolian, Turkic,

Tibeto-Burman, and Austronesian languages. “Tungusic” (*tonggusi yu* 通古斯語) is a subfamily of the Altaic languages of eastern Siberia and northern Manchuria; in today’s China, the nationalities of Ewenki, Goldi, Manchus and Oroqen speak languages belonging to that group. Altogether, about 80 languages are used in China.

One distinctive feature of the Chinese language is its use of written characters. Their origin is shrouded in mystery, yet it is assumed that the earliest characters originated as pictures of objects and were used for divination, fortunetelling and as oracles. In the nineteenth century, hundreds of thousands of oracle bones were unearthed in the area of Anyang 安陽 (Henan province), the site of one of the capitals of the Shang dynasty. After the different writing systems in ancient China were standardized by the first emperor of the Qin dynasty (221-207 BC), Chinese script gradually evolved to the form used today. One of the most comprehensive character dictionaries ever compiled was the *Kangxi Cidian* 康熙字典 containing 47,035 characters plus about 2000 variations, published in 1716. In China today, knowledge of 3000 characters is considered sufficient for daily use. These 3000 characters, published in a list compiled by the ROC Ministry of Education in 1997, enable the user to recognize 99 percent of the characters seen in mainstream Chinese media publications. While in the PRC many of the Chinese characters were simplified in the 1950s, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macau have left the traditional characters unchanged.

***Chinese dialects ..... provinces***

Cantonese.....	Guangdong, Guangxi
Gan/Jiangxi dialect.....	Jiangxi
Hakka.....	Guangdong, Taiwan, Guangxi, Jiangxi
Han-Chinese <i>Putonghua</i> .....	[provinces in central China; N, NE, E, SE, S of PRC; Taiwan]
Minbei/Northern Fuzhou dialect.....	Fujian
Minnan/Southern Fuzhou dialect.....	Fujian, Taiwan, Guangdong
Wu/Shanghainese.....	Shanghai, Zhejiang
Xiang/Hunanese.....	Hunan

***Other languages ..... provinces***

Austronesian.....	Yunnan, Taiwan
Dai.....	Yunnan
Mongolian.....	Inner Mongolia, Gansu, Qinghai
Tibeto-Burman.....	Tibet, Qinghai, Sichuan
Tungusic.....	Inner Mongolia, Heilongjiang, Liaoning, Jilin
Turkic.....	Xinjiang

## Religions in China

In China today there are numerous religions. Buddhism/Lamaism, Taoism, and Confucianism have traditionally been called “the three big religions” (*san da jiao* 三大教), although Confucianism (*rujiao* 儒教) is actually not a religion but a philosophy and ethical concept concerning moral values, social organization and family relations that played a large role in shaping China’s civilization and culture. Other major religions in today’s China are Islam, Catholicism, and Protestantism.

## The major religions

**BUDDHISM** (*fojiao* 佛教) was introduced into China in the first century AD. It flourished in China between the period of the Three Kingdoms (220-280) and the end of the Tang dynasty (906). Today there are more than 13,000 Buddhist temples and monasteries throughout the country. The branch of Buddhism most popular in China is Mahayana (*dasheng* 大乘, “Great Vehicle”). The branch of Buddhism dominant in Tibet is called LAMAISM (*zangchuan fojiao* 藏傳佛教), and is popular among the Lhoba, Moinba, Mongols, Tibetans, Tu and Yugurs. The ethnic minorities of Blang, Dai and De’ang practice Hinayana Buddhism/Theravada (*xiaosheng* 小乘, “Little Vehicle”). As the most revered Buddhist figure in China, the fat, laughing Buddha (*milefo* 彌勒佛) is more popular than the ascetic-looking Indian Buddha. Another important object of worship is Guanyin 觀音, the Goddess of Mercy.

**TAOISM** (*daojiao* 道教), also called Daoism, originally a philosophy based on texts like Laozi Dao-dejing 老子道德經 and Zhuangzi 莊子, evolved into a religion with temples where folk deities like Matsu 媽祖 [*mazu*], the Goddess of the sea, the Earth God (*tudigong* 土地公), the God of Medicine (*baosheng dadi* 保生大帝) and many others are worshipped. Many Taoists consider themselves also as Buddhists and vice versa, and the distinction between Taoism and folk religion is not always clear.

**ISLAM** (*huijiao* 回教) was introduced in China in the middle of the 7<sup>th</sup> century, and the first mosque was built in Chang’an 長安, the capital of the Tang dynasty, after the visit of Sa’ad ibn Abi Waqqas in 650. Islam prospered during the Yuan dynasty (1279-1368). In today’s PRC, 10 ethnic minorities are Islamic: Bonan, Dongxiang, Hui, Kazakh, Kirghiz, Salars, Tajiks, Tatars, Uighurs, and Uzbeks.

**CHRISTIANITY:** The first Christian division to gain a foothold in China was Nestorianism (*jingjiao* 景教). According to the Nestorian Stele that was erected in 781, the religion was introduced to Chang’an 長安 in 631. After the An Lushan uprising, it was banned in the 840s and never recovered. **CATHOLICISM** (*tianzhujiao* 天主教) came to China in the 7<sup>th</sup> century, the first missionaries became active during the Yuan dynasty—Franciscan missionary John of Montecorvino was allowed to set up a mission in Peking in 1294. **PROTESTANTISM** (*jidujiao* 基督教) arrived in China in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Among the members of the ethnic minorities Hmong, Gerbao and Lolos there are many Christians.

**FALUN GONG** (法輪功, also called Falun Dafa 法輪大法), is a traditional Chinese self-cultivation practice that contains elements of Buddhism, Taoism and other religions. It is based on the universal principles of truthfulness (*zhen* 真), compassion (*shan* 善) and forbearance (*ren* 忍). Its practitioners conduct meditation and breathing exercises (*qigong* 氣功). Falun Dafa was introduced to the general public in 1992 by Li Hongzhi 李洪志 (now residing in New York), and grew very swiftly in popularity not only in China but worldwide, and before the start of a crackdown by the PRC government in 1999 there were about 70 million practitioners.

Smaller religions, as mentioned in information material provided by the ROC government, include the following: Tantric Buddhism (*tantueluo fojiao* 坦特羅佛教/*fojiao mifa* 佛教密法) or Tibetan Buddhism (*zangchuan fojiao* 藏傳佛教); I-kuan Tao (*yiguandao* 一貫道); Judaism (*youtajiao* 猶太教); Baha’i (*bahayi jiao* 巴哈伊教); Christian denominations like the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (*yesu jidu houqi shengtu jiaobui* 耶穌基督後期聖徒教會 = Mormons), Scientology Church (*shandaji jiaobui* 山達基教會), Lord of Universe Church (*tiantijiao* 天帝教) and Holy Spirit Association for the Unification of World Christianity (*shijie jidujiao tongyi shenling xiehui* 世界基督教統一神靈協會); Liism (*lijiao* 理教); Tiandejiao 天德教; Xuanyuanjiao 軒轅教; Dayijiao 大易教; Zhonghua shengjiao 中華聖教; Xian Tianjiu Jiao 先天救教; Huang Zhong 黃中; Zhaijiao 齋教; Xiajiao 夏教; Haizidao 亥子道; Maitreya

Great Tao (*miledadao* 彌勒大道); Universe Maitreya Emperor Jiao (*yuzhou mile huangjiao* 宇宙彌勒皇教); Japanese religions like Mahikarikyo (*zhen guang jiaotuan* 真光教團) and Tenrikyo (*tianlijiao* 天理教); and several folk religions. In Taiwan during the Japanese colonial period (1895-1945), there were dozens of Shinto (*shendao* 神道) shrines on the island, but after the end of Japanese rule, Shinto disappeared from Taiwan.

Besides these, superstitious concepts like fortunetelling (*suanming* 算命) and geomancy (*fengshui* 風水) are also widespread in China.

### The religious policy of the PRC and its historic background

The differences between the PRC and the ROC are particularly evident in their respective religious policies. While worshippers and religious organizations face numerous restrictions in mainland China, people in the Taiwan area enjoy complete religious freedom.

*De jure*, the PRC guarantees freedom of religion (Article 36 of the Constitution). The fact that the human rights record of the PRC has continued to receive criticism from the world community for decades owes much to the *de facto* religious policy of the Communist regime. Five major religions may be practiced—Buddhism, Taoism, Islam, Catholicism and Protestantism, each of which has official spokespersons recognized by the PRC government.

In Western democracies, the suppression of religious activities and organizations is regarded as unacceptable. However, in China the restriction of religious freedom is not entirely unreasonable when the historic background is taken into consideration. Although this author does not intend to approve of or defend the religious policy of the PRC, it is necessary to point out the historic background for a better understanding of such policy.

In the past there was religious diversity and many religions were active. Christian missionaries worked in China for centuries, and scientific cooperation between the Chinese and Catholic missionaries like Matteo Ricci, SJ and Johann Adam Schall von Bell, SJ was particularly fruitful in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. Relations between Catholicism and the rulers of China began to deteriorate only after the Vatican condemned ancestor worship and Confucianism as evil in 1705. During the Boxer uprising foreign missionaries were targeted not for religious reasons but because they were regarded as representatives of the foreign imperialist powers that tried to destroy China.

Besides such challenges from outside, throughout Chinese history dynasties were threatened by secret religious societies that sometimes became powerful enough to seriously weaken or even overthrow the ruling house. Examples include the Red Eyebrows (*chimei* 赤眉), the Yellow Turbans (*huangjin* 黃巾), the Red Turbans (*hongjin* 紅巾), the Taiping Heavenly Kingdom (*Taiping Tianguo* 太平天國), and White Lotus (*bailianjiao* 白蓮教). The Red Turbans ended Mongol rule in China (Yuan dynasty, 1279-1368) and brought Zhu Yuanzhang 朱元璋 (first emperor of the Ming dynasty, 1368-1644) to power. The Yellow Turbans could be defeated militarily but hastened the collapse of the Han dynasty (207 BC – 220 AD). The Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864) severely weakened the Qing dynasty (1644-1911) and devastated China, claiming 20-30 million lives—the bloodiest civil war in the history of China. The Red Eyebrows, a peasant movement in the Han Dynasty, was probably the first secret society in China, and the White Lotus was a secret society active during the Yuan, Ming and Qing dynasties. Some of these secret societies are also known as “triads” (*sanbeihui* 三合會) because they advocated the unity of Heaven, Earth and People.

After the defeat of the Qing by the Western imperialist powers in the Opium Wars (*yapian zhanzheng* 鴉片戰爭) in the 1840s and 1850s Christians enjoyed preferential treatment and privileges in China. These injustices partly caused the violent anti-Christian outbursts during the Boxer Uprising (*yibetuan yundong* 義和團運動) in 1900, and the crackdown against the boxers after the failure of their uprising only served to strengthen the anti-Christian sentiments among the

Chinese. Young intellectuals, especially, developed ideas that combined anti-Christian sentiments, resentment against China's humiliation by foreign powers and nationalism which contributed to the May Fourth Movement (*wusi yundong* 五四運動) and were common in the leadership of the CCP.

During the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), many places of religious worship were attacked and damaged or destroyed by Red Guards (*hong weibing* 紅衛兵) in a frenzy of Maoist orthodoxy. Since the beginning of the reform era after the death of Mao Zedong 毛澤東 in 1976, religious organizations have been allowed to resume their activities. But, altogether, today the PRC still maintains harsh restrictions of religious freedoms.

Today, there are two Catholic Churches in the PRC, the state-sanctioned "Chinese Patriotic Catholic Association" (*Zhongguo tianzhujiao aiguoahui* 中國天主教愛國會, est. 1957) and the underground Church loyal to Rome. Catholics who refuse to abandon loyalty to the Vatican are persecuted, and incarceration is a common fate of bishops appointed by Rome. Security forces often conduct raids on underground churches and arrest worshippers. Efforts to improve relations between the PRC and the Vatican or even to establish official diplomatic ties have so far been fruitless because the PRC refuses to allow the Vatican to appoint its own bishops, regarding this as an attempt to infringe upon the PRC's sovereignty.

In Tibet there were uprisings in 1959 and 1987 against Chinese rule and the suppression of Lamaism, and Beijing also interferes in religious matters of the Tibetans—after the death of the 10<sup>th</sup> Panchen Lama in 1989, the reincarnation chosen by Tibetan clerics to be his successor was detained by Chinese authorities in 1995 (his whereabouts remain unknown), and later that year the Chinese picked their own successor. The suppression of Lamaism is politically motivated because the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) seeks to contain Tibetan separatism, and the restrictive measures against Islam are not aimed at the religion per se but against separatist tendencies among residents of Xinjiang/East Turkestan.

Falun Gong has been branded by the PRC government as an "evil cult" (*xiejiao* 邪教), and its members are persecuted. The ban on Falun Gong and the large-scale crackdown against the movement began only after Falun Gong members demonstrated in several Chinese cities protesting the arrest of fellow members. One of these demonstrations had about 10,000 participants and took place in front of Zhongnanhai 中南海, the headquarters of the CCP in Beijing, in 1999. Since then, thousands of Falun Gong practitioners have been detained by the PRC authorities and are held in labor camps, prisons or psychiatric facilities. Hundreds have died in custody.

Obviously, a crackdown against a religious organization in the PRC would usually not be caused by a question of faith but by events that challenge the authority of the PRC government or threaten the monopoly of mass mobilization of the CCP. Issues of power and control by far outweigh the significance of the CCP's atheist, Marxist ideology. Practically, individuals in today's PRC can believe what they want, but the CCP regards religious organizations as a potential source of civil and social unrest and keeps them closely monitored by state organs.

It must, however, be stressed that Chinese culture itself is not intolerant to other religions at all, because it is not based on a religion but on Confucianism. Traditionally, religious fundamentalism and fanaticism are rare in China.



# China's geography

## General features

### Location and neighbours

China is located in the east of the Asian continent and at the western rim of the Pacific Ocean. China covers an area of 9.56 million square kilometers and is the third largest country in the world, next only to Russia and Canada. The territory of the PRC spans from Mohe 漠河 on the Heilongjiang river (*beilongjiang* 黑龍江) in the north (latitude 53°30' N) to Yalongwan 牙龍灣 on Hainan Island (*hainan* 海南) in the south (latitude 18°15' N), from the confluence of the Heilongjiang and Ussuri rivers in the east (longitude 135°05' E) to the Pamir plateau in the west (longitude 73°40' E).

China's neighbouring countries include Afghanistan, Bhutan, India, Kazakhstan, Kirghizstan, Korea, Laos, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Russia, Tajikistan, and Vietnam. The length of its land border is about 22,800 km.

### Coastline and ports, islands and peninsulas

China's mainland coastline is 18,000 km and that of China's islands 14,000 km, giving China a total coastline of 32,000 km length. Adjacent seas include the Bohai Sea (*bobai* 渤海), East China Sea (*donghai* 東海), Gulf of Tonkin (*beibuman* 北部灣), Pacific Ocean (*taipingyang* 太平洋), South China Sea (*nanhai* 南海), Taiwan Strait (*Taiwan haixia* 台灣海峽), and the Yellow Sea (*huanghai* 黃海). North of the Yong River (*yongjiang* 甬江) in Zhejiang Province, China's coast is mostly sandy, south of it mostly rocky.

Most of China's harbours are ice-free all year round. China's major harbours include Amoy (*Xiamen* 廈門), Canton (*Guangzhou* 廣州), Dairen (*Dalian* 大連, formerly called "Port Arthur"), Ningbo 寧波, Qingdao 青島, Shanghai 上海, and Tianjin 天津. In Taiwan 台灣 the most important port cities are Kaohsiung (*Gaoxiong* 高雄) in the south and Keelung (*Jilong* 基隆) in the north.

Among the 5400 islands of Greater China, Taiwan Island (35,879 km<sup>2</sup>) is the largest, Hainan Island (33,920 km<sup>2</sup>) the second largest, and Chongming Island 崇明島 at the mouth of the Yangtze River the third largest (1083 km<sup>2</sup>). Most of the islands are situated along the coast of the provinces Fujian, Guangdong and Zhejiang. China's easternmost islands, the Diaoyutai Islands (*diaoyutai liedao* 釣魚台列島), are claimed not only by the PRC and the ROC, but also by Japan.

Major peninsulas include Liaodong Peninsula (*liaodong bandao* 遼東半島), Shandong Peninsula (*shandong bandao* 山東半島), Leizhou Peninsula (*leizhou bandao* 雷州半島).

### Mountain ranges, plateaus and deserts

Major mountain ranges in the greater China area include: Altun Mountains (*a'erjin shan* 阿爾金山), Bayan Har Mountains (*bayan kala shan* 巴顏喀拉山), Changbai Mountains (*changbai shan* 長白山), Daba Mountains (*daba shan* 大巴山), Dabie Mountains (*dabie shan* 大別山), Dalou Mountains (*dalou shan* 大婁山), Gangdise Mountains (*gangdisi shan* 岡底斯山), Greater Hinggan Mountain Range (*da xing'an ling* 大興安嶺), the Himalayas (*ximalaya shan* 喜馬拉雅山), Hoh Xil Mountains (*keke xili shan* 可可西里山), Karakorum Mountains (*kala kunlun shan* 喀喇崑崙山), Kunlun Mountains (*kunlun shan* 崑崙山), Lüliang Mountains (*lüliang shan* 呂梁山), Nulu Erhu Mountains (*nulu erhu shan* 努魯爾虎山), Nyainqentanghla Mountains (*nianqing tanggula shan* 念青唐古拉山), Qilian

Mountains (*qilian shan* 祁連山), Qinling Mountains (*qinling* 秦嶺), Taihang Mountain Range (*taibang shan* 太行山), Tianshan 天山, Taihang Mountain Range (*taibang* 太行山), Wushan Mountains (巫山), Wuyi Mountains (*wuyi shan* 武夷山), Xuefeng Mountain Range (*xuefeng shan* 雪峰山), and Yunkai Mountains (*yunkai shan* 雲開大山).

China's major plateaus include: Inner Mongolia Plateau (*Nei Menggu gaoyuan* 內蒙古高原), Loess Plateau (*huangtu gaoyuan* 黃土高原), Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (*Qingzang gaoyuan* 青藏高原), Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau (*Yungui gaoyuan* 雲貴高原).

Major deserts in the greater China area include: Gobi (*gebi* 戈壁)—please note that “Gobi” is the Mongolian word for desert; Ordos Desert (*e'erduosi shamo* 鄂爾多斯沙漠), the Taklamakan (*takelamagan shamo* 塔克拉瑪干沙漠) et. al.

## China's topography

China is a country with a great variety of topographical features—mountains, plateaus, rivers, lakes, wetlands and hills that boast a wealth of natural resources. China's topography is generally high in its west and low in its east. Mountainous areas make up 33.3 percent of the territory, plateaus 26 percent, basins 18.8 percent, plains 12 percent and hills 9.9 percent. Only 14 percent of China's land mass is less than 500 m above sea level. China's west and southwest is generally mountainous, and its terrain gradually descends from west to east like a staircase.

The first and highest level of that “staircase” is the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (*Qingzang gaoyuan* 青藏高原) with the Himalayas (*ximalaya shan* 喜馬拉雅山), the “roof of the world”, averaging more than 4000 meters above sea level—among the 19 mountains over 7000 meters high in the world, seven are in China.

The second step includes the gently sloping Inner Mongolia Plateau (*Nei Menggu gaoyuan* 內蒙古高原), the Loess Plateau (*huangtu gaoyuan* 黃土高原), the Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau (*Yungui gaoyuan* 雲貴高原), the Tarim Basin (*talimu pendi* 塔里木盆地), the Junggar Basin/Dzungaria (*zhungeer pendi* 准噶爾盆地) and the Red Basin (*Sichuan pendi* 四川盆地), with an average elevation of between 1000 m and 2000 m.

The third step, dropping to 500-1000 m in elevation, begins at a line drawn around the Greater Hinggan (*da xing'an ling* 大興安嶺), Taihang (*taibang shan* 太行山), Wushan (巫山) and Xuefeng mountain ranges (*xuefeng shan* 雪峰山) and extends eastward to the coast of the Pacific Ocean. Here, from north to south, are the Northeast Plain (*dongbei pingyuan* 東北平原), the largest plain in China with an area of more than 350,000 km<sup>2</sup>, the North China Plain (*huabei pingyuan* 華北平原) and the Middle-Lower Yangtze Plain (*changjiang zhongxiayou pingyuan* 長江中下游平原).

To the east, the land extends out into the ocean as a continental shelf, the fourth and lowest step of the staircase. It also includes countless offshore islands.

China is a country of topographic extremes. The highest mountain of the world (Mt. Everest, 8844 m) is situated at Tibet's border with Nepal, and the second lowest depression in the world (Turfan depression: *tulufan pendi* 吐魯番盆地, 154 m below sea level) can be found in Xinjiang Province. The Dihang Canyon (*dihangxia* 底杭峽) on the Yalu Tsangpo River (*yalu zangbu jiang* 雅魯藏布江 = Brahmaputra) in Tibet is the world's largest canyon, 504.6 km in length and 6009 meters in depth. Other interesting geographical features include the Tropic of Cancer (latitude 23.5° N) which crosses the provinces Guangdong 廣東, Guangxi 廣西, Taiwan 台灣, and Yunnan 雲南; and the Hexi Corridor (*hexi zoulang* 河西走廊), a small strip of flat land surrounded by mountains in Gansu province that was part of the famous Silk Road (major cities in the Hexi Corridor: Dunhuang 敦煌, Jiuquan 酒泉, Wuwei 武威, and Zhangye 張掖)

### China's 10 highest mountains

No.	Name(s)	Height (m)	Province/ border region
1.	Mount Everest 聖母峰 [shengmufeng]*	8844	Tibet / Nepal
2.	K2 喬戈里峰 [qiaogeli feng]*	8611	Xinjiang / Pakistan
3.	Lhotse 洛子峰 [luozǐ feng]	8516	Tibet / Nepal
4.	Makalu 馬克魯峰 [makelu feng]	8485	Tibet / Nepal
5.	Cho Oyu 卓奧友峰 [zhuo aoyou feng]	8188	Tibet / Nepal
6.	Gasherbrum I 加舒爾布魯木峰 [jiashuerbulumu feng]*	8068	Xinjiang / Pakistan
7.	Broad Peak 寬峰 [kuanfeng]*	8051	Xinjiang / Pakistan
8.	Shisha Pangma 希夏邦馬峰 [xixia bangma feng]*	8027	Tibet / Nepal
9.	Gyachung Kang 雅鍾岡峰 [yazhong gang feng]	7952	Tibet / Nepal
10.	Ngojumba Ri 恩溝珠巴峰 [engou zhuba feng]	7806	Tibet / Nepal

\* Another name for Mt. Everest is Qomolangma 珠穆朗瑪峰 [zhumulangma feng], and its precise height is controversial—according to official PRC figures, Mt. Everest's highest point of rock is 8844.43 m high, and if the 3-4 m ice and snow cap in the summit is added, the commonly used figure of 8848 m can also be regarded as correct; a 1999 measurement using GPS technology determined a rock head elevation of 8850 m. K2 is also referred to as Chogori, Qogir, Mount Godwin-Austen, Lambha Pahar, Kechu and Dapsang (the K stands for “Karakoram”), Gasherbrum I is also known as Hidden Peak, and Broad Peak (also called Faichan Kangri) is one of the five summits of the Gasherbrum Group. The Shisha Pangma is spelled “Xixabangma” in many sources, and it is also called “Gosainthan” 高僧贊峰 [gaosengzan feng]—depending on the source, its height is 8012 m, 8013 m or 8027 m.

**Note:** Since these mountains are situated in border regions that in some cases are claimed by the neighbouring country, doubts may remain about the fact whether all of those peaks are indeed on PRC soil. Also of note, the highest mountain in Taiwan is Yushan 玉山 (Jade Mountain/Mt. Morrison/Tongku Saveg 東谷沙飛 [donggu shafei]), 3952 m high.

### China's Nine Sacred Mountains

Name	Religion	Height (m)	Province	Closest city
Bei Hengshan 北恆山	Taoist	2016	Shanxi	Datong 大同
Emei Shan 峨眉山	Buddhist	3100	Sichuan	Chengdu 成都
Hua Shan 華山	Taoist	2200	Shaanxi	Xi'an 西安
Jiuhua Shan 九華山	Buddhist	1431	Anhui	Hangzhou 杭州
Nan Hengshan 南衡山	Taoist	1290	Hunan	Changsha 長沙
Putuo Shan 普陀山	Buddhist	291	Zhejiang	Ningbo 寧波
Song Shan 嵩山	Taoist	1512	Henan	Luoyang 洛陽
Tai Shan 泰山	Taoist	1524	Shandong	Tai'an 泰安
Wutai Shan 五台山	Buddhist	3058	Shanxi	Datong 大同

**Five (Taoist) sacred mountains (wuyue 五岳):** Hengshan 恆山/Bei Hengshan 北恆山 (= *Beiyue* 北嶽 [North Sacred Mountain], 2016 m, Shanxi Province); Hengshan 衡山/Nan Hengshan 南衡山 (= *Nanyue* 南嶽 [South Sacred Mountain], 1290 m, Hunan Province); Huashan 華山 (= *Xiyue* 西嶽 [West Sacred Mountain], 2200 m, Shaanxi Province); Songshan 嵩山 (= *Zhongyue* 中嶽 [Central Sacred Mountain], 1512 m, Henan Province); Taishan 泰山 (= *Dongyue* 東嶽 [East Sacred Mountain], 1545 m, Shandong Province)

**Four (buddhist) holy mountains (fojiao si damingshan 佛教四大名山):** Emeishan 峨眉山 (3100 m, Sichuan Province); Jiuhuashan 九華山 (1431 m, Anhui Province); Putuoshan 普陀

山 (291 m, Zhejiang Province); Wutaishan 五台山 (3058 m, Shanxi Province)

## Rivers and lakes

The three most important rivers in China are the Yangtze River (*changjiang* 長江), the Yellow River (*huanghe* 黃河) and the Pearl River (*zhujiang* 珠江, also called Yue 粵江). Other major rivers include the Hai 海河; Heilongjiang 黑龍江 = Amur; Huai 淮河; Lantsang 瀾滄江 = Mekong 湄公河; Liao 遼河; Nu 怒江 = Salween/Saluēn 薩爾溫江; Songhua 松花江; Xijiang 西江 (“West River”); Yalong 雅礮江; and Yalu Tsangpo River 雅魯藏布江 = Brahmaputra.

The Yangtze River, 6380 km long, is the third longest in the world after the Nile and the Amazon. It is a highly important transportation artery in China, and after the completion of the Three Gorges Dam (*sanzia shuiku* 三峽水庫) in 2009, it will be a major supplier of hydropower. The most important sources of the Yangtze River are the Tuotuo He 沱沱河 and the Chuma'er He 楚瑪爾河 (Qinghai Province). At different stretches the river is known by different names: Tongtian He 通天河 (Qinghai), Jinsha Jiang 金沙江 (Tibet, Sichuan, Yunnan), Chuan Jiang 川江 (Sichuan), Chang Jiang 長江 (Sichuan, Chongqing, Hubei, Anhui, Jiangsu), and Yangzi Jiang 揚子江 (Jiangsu).



The Yellow River is the second-longest river in China, stretching 5464 km. As the most heavily silt-laden river in the world, the Yellow River got its name from the muddiness of its water, which bears a perennial ochre-yellow color.

Excessive sediment deposits have raised the riverbed several meters over the surrounding grounds; it is as much as 10 m above the city level of the ancient capital Kaifeng 開封 (Henan province). Records indicate that the river has changed its course 26 times over the last three millennia. The river adopted its present course in 1897 after a final course change occurred in 1855. Severe floodings between July and November 1931 claimed between 850,000 and 3.7 million lives, making it the probably deadliest natural disaster in recorded history.

Besides the exterior rivers (*wailiube* 外流河) that empty into the oceans there are also interior rivers (*neiliube* 內流河) that flow into inland lakes or disappear into deserts or salt marshes. With a length of 2179 km the Tarim River (*talimu he* 塔里木河) in southern Xinjiang is China's longest interior river.

Another noteworthy waterway is the Grand Canal (*dayunbe* 大運河), the oldest such construction and, with a total length of 1801 km, the longest man-made waterway in the world. Construction for the canal began as early as the Sui Dynasty (581-618) and was completed in the Yuan Dynasty (1279-1368). It links five major rivers (Hai, Yellow River, Huai, Yangtze River, and Qiantang 錢塘江) and stretches from Beijing 北京 in the north to Hangzhou 杭州 (Zhejiang Province) in the south, hence it is also called the Beijing-Hangzhou Canal (*jinghang dayunbe* 京杭大運河).

As a result of rapid modernization and industrialization, today about 70 percent of China's rivers and surface water are polluted. The most seriously polluted river is probably the Huai, which has become a dumping ground for industrial, agricultural, and municipal waste.

### China's 10 longest exterior rivers

No.	Name	Length (km)	Provinces/countries: outlet
1.	Chang Jiang 長江 (“Long River”)	6380	Qinghai, Tibet, Sichuan, Yunnan, Chongqing, Hubei, Hunan, Jiangxi, Anhui, Jiangsu, Shanghai: East China Sea
2.	Huanghe 黃河 (“Yellow River”)	5464	Qinghai, Sichuan, Gansu, Ningxia, Inner Mongolia, Shaanxi, Shanxi, Henan, Shandong: Bohai Sea
3.	Amur 黑龍江 [ <i>beilongjiang</i> ]	4370	[Mongolia], Inner Mongolia, Heilongjiang — [Russia: Tartar Strait]
4.	Lantsang 瀾滄江 [ <i>lancang jiang</i> ] = Mekong 湄公河 [ <i>meigong he</i> ]	2513	Qinghai, Tibet, Yunnan, [Myanmar, Laos, Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam]: South China Sea
5.	Pearl River 珠江 [ <i>zhujiang</i> ] (Yue 粵江 [ <i>yuejiang</i> ])	2197	Nanpan Jiang 南盤江: Yunnan, Guizhou / Bei Jiang 北江: Hunan, Jiangxi; Guangxi, Guangdong: South China Sea
6.	Nu 怒江 [ <i>nujiang</i> ] = Salween/ Saluën 薩爾溫江 [ <i>sa'ermen jiang</i> ]	2013	Tibet, Yunnan, [Myanmar]: Gulf of Martaban/ Andaman Sea
7.	Yalong 雅礱江 [ <i>yalong jiang</i> ]	1500	Qinghai, Sichuan: Chang Jiang 長江
8.	Liao 遼河 [ <i>liaobe</i> ]	1430	Hebei/Inner Mongolia/Jilin, Liaoning: Gulf of Liaodong 遼東灣
9.	Hai 海河 [ <i>haihe</i> ]	1090	5 sources (Chaobai 潮白河, Yongding 永定河, Daqing 大清河, Ziya 子牙河, Wei 衛河) — Shanxi, Henan, Shandong, Hebei, Beijing, Tianjin: Bohai Sea
10.	Huai 淮河 [ <i>huaihe</i> ]	1000	Henan, Anhui, Jiangsu: Hongze Lake 洪澤湖

### China's 10 biggest lakes

No.	Name	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Altitude (m)	Water type	Province
1.	Qinghai Lake (Koko Nor) 青海湖 [ <i>qinghai hu</i> ]	4635	3196	saltwater	Qinghai
2.	Lake Poyang 鄱陽湖 [ <i>poyang hu</i> ]	3960	21	freshwater	Jiangxi
3.	Lopu Lake (Lob Nor) 羅布泊 [ <i>luobu bo</i> ]	3006	768	saltwater	Xinjiang
4.	Dongting Lake 洞庭湖 [ <i>dongting hu</i> ]	2740	34.5	freshwater	Hunan
5.	Fulun Lake/Hulun Nur 呼倫湖 [ <i>bulun hu</i> ]	2315	545.5	freshwater	Inner Mongolia
6.	Lake Taihu 太湖 [ <i>taihu</i> ]	2250	3.14	freshwater	Jiangsu
7.	Hongze Lake 洪澤湖 [ <i>hongze hu</i> ]	1960	14	freshwater	Jiangsu
8.	Nam-tso Lake 納木錯 [ <i>namu cuo</i> ]	1940	4718	saltwater	Tibet

9. Siling Co 色林錯 [ <i>selin cuo</i> ]	1865	4530	saltwater	Tibet
10. South Four Lake 南四湖 [ <i>nansi hu</i> ]	1375	35.5	freshwater	Shandong

## Vegetation and cultivation / Land usage

China's land resources are as diverse as its topography. Cultivated land, forests, grasslands, deserts and tidelands can be found, depending on where in the country you find yourself. Cultivated land is mainly located in east China, grasslands are mainly located in the north and west, and forests mainly in the remote northeastern and southwestern areas.

The area covered by forests is relatively small in relation to the country's size—only 158.94 million ha. China's largest natural forests can be found in the northeastern provinces and in the south of Yunnan Province. More than 400 million ha of China is grasslands, mostly in Inner Mongolia and Xinjiang. In these areas, livestock is an important sector of the economy.

The area of arable land is even smaller than that of forested land. About 130 million ha are cultivated, which means that seven percent of the world's cultivated land has to feed one-fifth of the planet's population. Cultivated land is concentrated on the Northeast Plain (*dongbei pingyuan* 東北平原), the North China Plain (*huabei pingyuan* 華北平原), the Middle-Lower Yangtze Plain (*changjiang zhongxiayou pingyuan* 長江中下游平原), the Pearl River Delta (*zhujiang sanjiaozhou* 珠江三角洲) and the Red Basin (*Sichuan pendi* 四川盆地). The Northeast Plain abounds in wheat, corn, sorghum, soybeans, flax and sugar beet, while the North China Plain is planted with wheat, corn, millet and cotton. The Middle-Lower Yangtze Plain's flat terrain and many lakes and rivers make it particularly suitable for paddy rice and freshwater fish, and on it are produced large quantities of tea and silkworms. The warm and humid Red Basin in Sichuan is green with crops, including paddy rice, rapeseed and sugarcane, during all four seasons. The Pearl River Delta abounds with paddy rice, which is harvested 2-3 times every year.

## Natural disasters

There are no active volcanoes in China, but other natural disasters like floods, typhoons, and earthquakes have been wreaking havoc throughout history. Sediment deposits in the heavy-silted Yellow River have been causing the riverbed to rise, causing floods. Floods also occur on the Yangtze River—floods in July-August 1998 killed 3656 people and destroyed 5.7 million homes.

Almost every year between April and October, the Chinese coast, Taiwan and Hainan are drenched by typhoons. Typhoons are tropical storms that bring strong winds and torrential rain, causing floods and triggering mudslides in mountainous regions. In 1996 and 2001, Taiwan was hit by strong typhoons that caused a great deal of damage.

Some areas of China are prone to earthquakes, e. g. the Northeast, the West and Taiwan. The deadliest earthquake in the history of mankind struck Shaanxi province on Jan. 23, 1556, and claimed 830,000 lives. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the Gansu-Ningxia area was hit by strong earthquakes in 1920, 1927 and 1932; tremors jolted Liaoning and Hebei in the Northeast in 1975 and 1976, respectively; and Taiwan was rattled by major quakes in 1935 and 1999.

## China's climate

China's climatic features range from tropical climate in the south (Guangdong and Hainan provinces) to climates with long, cold winters in the northeast and almost arctic conditions in the Himalayas. Most of China lies within the temperate zone with hot summers and cold winters and is well suited for human settlement. In general, South China is humid, North China is subhumid and the interior highlands are arid.

Most of China has a continental monsoon climate (*daluxing jifeng qibou* 大陸性季風氣候). From April to September, warm and humid summer monsoons blow from the seas in the east and south, resulting in overall high temperatures and plentiful rainfall, and little difference in the temperatures of the north and south. From September to April, the dry and cold winter monsoon blows in from Siberia and the Mongolian Plateau, resulting in cold and dry winters and a large disparity in the temperatures of north and south China.

In terms of temperature, the nation can be divided, north to south, into zones: equatorial, tropical, subtropical, warm-temperate, temperate, and cold-temperate. The mean annual temperature varies from 20°C to 25°C in southern China to -5°C to 0°C in northeast China. The January mean temperature varies from about 10°C in Hainan and southern Taiwan to about -30°C in Heilongjiang. The July mean temperature is much more uniform, covering a narrower range of 10°C to 30°C.

Precipitation gradually declines from the southeastern coastal regions to the northwestern inland area, and the average annual precipitation varies greatly from place to place. In southeastern areas, it reaches over 1500 mm, while in northwestern areas, it drops to below 200 mm. China's driest place is the Turfan Depression in Xinjiang with an annual precipitation of less than 10 mm, whereas parts of Taipei County in Taiwan receive more than 6000 mm of precipitation a year. In general, summer is the rainy season in China.

Taiwan and the areas of the southern coast are hit by an average of 3-4 typhoons (*taijeng* 颱風) a year. Due to changes in the world's climate, the frequency and strength of typhoons is likely to increase in the future. Another important source of precipitation is the so-called plum rain (*meiyu* 梅雨) season, which occurs annually for approximately one month somewhere between May and July.

Spring is also the season of sandstorms (*shachenbao* 沙塵暴) that frequently blow from the Gobi desert in Mongolia and affect northern China (especially the Beijing region), Korea and even Japan.

## Climatic data for select Chinese cities (2004)

### TEMPERATURE, PRECIPITATION AND HUMIDITY

#### Cities (province, elevation)

Beijing 北京 (55 m), Changchun 長春 (Jilin Prov., 238 m), Changsha 長沙 (Hunan Prov., 68 m), Chongqing 重慶 (351 m), Dalian 大連 (Liaoning Prov., 97 m), Fuzhou 福州 (Fujian Prov., 85 m), Guangzhou 廣州 (Guangdong Prov., 8 m), Guilin 桂林 (Guangxi Prov., 166 m), Guiyang 貴陽

(Guizhou Prov., 1071 m), Haikou 海口 (Hainan Prov., 15 m), Hangzhou 杭州 (Zhejiang Prov., 43 m), Harbin 哈爾濱 (Heilongjiang Prov., 143 m), Hefei 合肥 (Anhui Prov., 36 m), Hohhot 呼和浩特 (Inner Mongolia, 1064 m), Hong Kong (24 m), Ilan 宜蘭 (Taiwan ROC, 9 m), Jinan 濟南 (Shandong Prov., 58 m), Kaohsiung 高雄 (Taiwan ROC, 9 m), Kunming 昆明 (Yunnan Prov., 1891 m), Lanzhou 蘭州 (Gansu Prov., 1520 m), Lhasa 拉薩 (Tibet, 3595 m), Macau (59 m), Nanchang 南昌 (Jiangxi Prov., 50 m), Nanjing 南京 (Jiangsu Prov., 12 m), Nanning 南寧 (Guangxi Prov., 73 m), Qingdao 青島 (Shandong Prov., 77 m), Shanghai 上海 (7 m), Shenyang 沈陽 (Liaoning Prov., 43 m), Shijiazhuang 石家莊 (Hebei Prov., 81 m), Taipei 台北 (Taiwan ROC, 33 m), Taiyuan 太原 (Shanxi Prov., 779 m), Tianjin 天津 (5 m), Urumqi 烏魯木齊 (Xinjiang Prov., 918 m), Wenjiang 溫江 (Chengdu city, Sichuan Prov., ca. 530 m), Wuhan 武漢 (Hubei Prov., 23 m), Xi'an 西安 (Shaanxi Prov., 398 m), Xining 西寧 (Qinghai Prov., 2275 m), Yinchuan 銀川 (Ningxia Prov., 1111 m), Zhengzhou 鄭州 (Henan Prov., 111 m)

**Monthly mean temperature (°C)**

City	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Beijing	-2.3	2.9	7.8	16.3	20.5	24.9	26.0	24.9	21.2	14.0	6.4	-0.5	<b>13.5</b>
Changchun	-13.2	-7.6	-0.6	9.8	16.4	23.1	22.5	22.0	17.3	10.0	-0.8	-13.3	<b>7.1</b>
Changsha	5.1	11.2	12.5	20.6	22.7	25.6	29.4	27.3	24.6	18.4	14.2	7.4	<b>18.3</b>
Chongqing	8.5	10.6	14.2	21.0	22.1	24.0	28.5	28.5	23.4	16.7	13.6	9.6	<b>18.4</b>
Dalian	-3.1	1.3	5.0	12.0	16.9	22.1	24.1	23.7	21.1	15.4	7.9	-0.6	<b>12.2</b>
Fuzhou	11.0	14.0	13.6	19.4	23.9	26.6	29.5	29.7	26.1	21.7	19.3	14.5	<b>20.8</b>
Guangzhou	13.4	16.4	18.1	23.7	25.9	28.9	28.7	29.4	27.8	23.9	21.2	16.5	<b>22.8</b>
Guilin	7.9	12.7	13.3	21.0	23.3	26.8	26.7	28.0	26.3	21.6	17.0	11.0	<b>19.6</b>
Guiyang	3.1	7.9	10.0	16.8	18.8	20.7	22.2	23.1	20.0	14.3	11.7	6.9	<b>14.6</b>
Haikou	18.4	18.5	22.2	25.5	27.7	29.2	29.1	29.1	27.7	25.3	23.4	20.7	<b>24.7</b>
Hangzhou	4.7	9.5	10.4	17.5	22.1	24.8	30.2	29.1	23.3	18.6	14.4	8.4	<b>17.8</b>
Harbin	-16.0	-10.7	-2.0	7.7	15.6	23.4	22.8	21.7	16.6	8.7	-1.7	-16.0	<b>5.8</b>
Hefei	2.9	8.5	10.1	17.5	21.0	24.6	28.9	27.3	23.1	17.3	12.2	5.8	<b>16.6</b>
Hohhot	-10.2	-3.7	1.4	13.0	15.6	21.0	22.8	20.0	15.7	7.8	-1.1	-5.9	<b>8.0</b>
Hong Kong	15.8	15.9	18.5	22.2	25.9	27.8	28.8	28.4	27.6	25.2	21.4	17.6	<b>23.0</b>
Ilan	16.0	16.4	18.7	21.6	24.2	26.7	28.4	28.0	26.2	23.4	20.2	17.3	<b>22.3</b>
Jinan	-0.1	5.8	10.3	17.6	20.8	24.5	26.4	24.6	21.9	15.2	8.8	1.6	<b>14.8</b>
Kaohsiung	18.8	19.7	22.3	25.2	27.2	28.4	28.9	28.3	27.9	26.4	23.4	20.2	<b>24.7</b>
Kunming	9.2	10.9	16.3	16.0	18.9	19.6	20.4	21.0	18.8	15.6	12.2	8.7	<b>15.6</b>
Lanzhou	-3.6	1.2	6.8	14.8	16.9	21.0	23.0	22.2	16.6	10.6	2.3	-1.3	<b>10.9</b>
Lhasa	-0.9	1.3	8.4	8.0	14.1	15.7	14.4	15.9	14.3	8.6	2.6	0.4	<b>8.6</b>
Macau	14.7	15.0	17.9	21.8	25.6	27.6	28.4	28.2	27.3	24.5	20.5	16.4	<b>22.3</b>
Nanchang	5.7	11.1	11.6	19.6	23.4	25.8	29.7	28.7	25.2	20.3	15.4	8.9	<b>18.8</b>
Nanjing	3.3	8.5	10.0	17.1	21.2	24.9	29.3	28.2	23.3	17.9	12.7	6.9	<b>16.9</b>
Nanning	13.3	15.2	16.8	22.7	24.8	27.7	27.1	28.2	26.3	22.3	19.5	13.5	<b>21.5</b>
Qingdao	0.2	3.7	6.5	11.9	17.1	21.3	24.8	24.9	22.5	16.8	10.2	3.8	<b>13.6</b>
Shanghai	4.1	8.6	9.9	16.2	20.9	24.4	29.8	28.9	24.3	19.2	14.6	9.1	<b>17.5</b>
Shenyang	-9.4	-3.0	2.1	12.5	18.0	23.9	24.3	23.1	18.8	11.9	2.2	-9.2	<b>9.6</b>
Shijiazhuang	-0.5	5.3	9.4	17.0	21.5	24.8	26.3	24.3	21.4	14.7	7.8	0.1	<b>14.3</b>
Taipei	15.8	15.9	18.0	21.7	24.7	27.4	29.2	28.8	27.1	24.3	20.9	17.6	<b>22.6</b>
Taiyuan	-4.7	0.9	6.1	15.2	18.5	21.7	23.5	21.2	17.5	9.9	3.0	-2.2	<b>10.9</b>
Tianjin	-3.1	2.3	7.5	15.8	20.1	24.6	26.0	24.5	21.2	14.0	6.2	-0.9	<b>13.2</b>
Urumqi	-12.6	-6.9	0.4	13.4	18.0	22.7	24.6	22.0	16.2	7.6	-1.4	-8.3	<b>8.0</b>
Wenjiang	6.0	8.4	12.2	18.3	20.8	22.3	25.0	24.9	21.6	15.4	12.3	7.5	<b>16.2</b>
Wuhan	4.5	11.2	12.6	20.1	23.3	25.6	29.9	27.5	24.8	18.5	13.9	7.3	<b>18.3</b>



Xi'an	1.6	6.7	11.3	18.7	22.0	26.2	27.8	25.1	20.6	13.7	7.8	2.9	<b>15.4</b>
Xining	-8.4	-3.7	2.9	9.5	11.1	14.9	16.5	16.5	11.1	5.6	-1.5	-5.5	<b>5.8</b>
Yinchuan	-7.0	-0.4	5.9	15.2	18.2	22.0	24.0	21.8	17.7	9.3	0.6	-3.3	<b>10.3</b>
Zhengzhou	1.5	7.7	10.8	17.9	22.2	25.3	27.0	24.8	21.6	15.2	9.6	2.4	<b>15.5</b>

**Total monthly precipitation (mm)**

City	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Beijing	0.7	8.8	0.1	37.2	39.1	69.6	182.0	50.7	74.2	9.9	8.0	3.2	<b>483</b>
Changchun	0.8	7.7	15.2	2.7	51.4	47.7	194.7	77.2	24.5	10.7	29.0	14.6	<b>476</b>
Changsha	53.3	121.0	102.4	255.5	227.8	128.4	135.7	98.1	42.0	26.6	90.1	65.6	<b>1346</b>
Chongqing	16.3	30.6	90.3	75.2	200.1	180.1	195.0	105.0	142.3	49.7	80.1	17.4	<b>1182</b>
Dalian	0.9	8.8	4.1	33.1	43.0	67.0	150.5	215.1	46.5	18.9	15.1	11.9	<b>614</b>
Fuzhou	32.3	74.3	146.8	67.2	150.4	82.9	64.8	116.6	195.3	1.4	28.4	34.2	<b>994</b>
Guangzhou	59.9	54.1	41.1	173.6	347.5	259.3	326.0	226.5	132.7	8.1	6.4	1.3	<b>1636</b>
Guilin	74.5	43.2	111.6	107.3	303.6	301.7	473.2	97.7	5.7	0	286.1	38.3	<b>1842</b>
Guiyang	32.8	53.2	25.6	61.1	287.5	40.5	252.3	126.6	55.8	36.3	60.3	16.3	<b>1048</b>
Haikou	11.9	75.5	11.0	66.2	215.9	100.6	191.6	189.0	78.2	13.2	8.1	22.4	<b>983</b>
Hangzhou	94.0	84.7	50.7	83.5	231.7	87.0	74.9	89.8	93.5	7.0	52.0	97.7	<b>1046</b>
Harbin	2.5	0	12.4	6.1	55.1	68.2	163.0	105.8	46.1	9.6	31.2	20.7	<b>520</b>
Hefei	50.4	32.3	42.3	72.5	105.9	255.2	64.7	111.4	68.7	4.4	62.3	38.2	<b>908</b>
Hohhot	5.3	0	1.9	4.5	58.1	61.7	106.6	109.0	47.7	5.7	3.5	19.6	<b>423</b>
Hong Kong	23.4	48.0	66.9	161.5	316.7	376.0	323.5	391.4	299.7	144.8	35.1	27.3	<b>2214</b>
Ilan	155.3	175.2	132.2	134.2	222.7	186.7	145.5	243.8	441.2	442.3	360.2	188.4	<b>2827</b>
Jinan	1.9	17.7	0.1	34.8	147.4	198.6	386.6	182.4	71.6	9.7	30.9	8.3	<b>1090</b>
Kaohsiung	20.0	23.6	39.2	72.8	177.3	397.9	370.6	426.3	186.6	45.7	13.4	11.5	<b>1784</b>
Kunming	28.0	18.1	1.4	121.9	110.7	184.7	224.7	169.0	190.0	20.7	16.8	7.7	<b>1093</b>
Lanzhou	0.3	1.1	4.6	6.0	50.5	11.2	55.7	43.1	27.4	9.1	0.1	0	<b>209</b>
Lhasa	0.2	1.8	0.1	27.4	56.9	78.5	229.6	116.9	31.8	9.0	4.1	0	<b>555</b>
Macau	28.8	52.0	77.1	171.1	292.0	326.4	267.8	293.5	199.6	91.7	42.6	27.8	<b>1849</b>
Nanchang	46.3	114.3	99.3	115.8	264.5	142.5	96.9	186.3	35.0	2.2	61.2	45.8	<b>1210</b>
Nanjing	53.3	28.7	44.7	106.3	114.6	276.7	83.1	116.5	37.8	1.2	77.7	34.5	<b>975</b>
Nanning	57.7	16.8	27.8	118.2	70.4	239.3	203.0	73.5	65.6	0	21.8	12.2	<b>906</b>
Qingdao	1.2	24.6	4.3	49.0	71.0	62.6	109.4	177.6	17.9	12.6	82.1	13.9	<b>626</b>
Shanghai	92.1	71.5	48.7	118.2	109.8	145.0	94.0	76.0	141.3	5.2	72.3	86.9	<b>1061</b>
Shenyang	1.5	17.2	0.6	20.5	23.3	144.0	270.5	103.3	50.7	4.9	43.6	25.1	<b>705</b>
Shijiazhuang	2.3	13.7	0	40.6	17.6	129.2	186.1	67.7	39.4	2.5	1.3	21.8	<b>522</b>
Taipei	86.5	165.7	180.0	183.1	258.9	319.4	247.9	305.3	274.6	138.8	86.2	78.8	<b>2325</b>
Taiyuan	0.6	11.7	7.1	5.4	24.5	81.0	115.1	88.9	21.2	10.3	2.7	8.7	<b>377</b>
Tianjin	0	10.9	0	35.1	43.7	67.0	131.6	76.0	92.1	12.1	21.0	1.0	<b>490</b>
Urumqi	7.0	37.6	24.3	23.1	42.6	7.7	70.2	30.8	14.3	14.8	17.2	44.0	<b>333</b>
Wenjiang	19.8	3.4	50.1	160.1	114.6	230.9	111.0	203.7	57.0	84.2	20.3	5.3	<b>1060</b>
Wuhan	53.5	72.0	40.2	126.0	170.7	322.9	435.7	199.7	53.9	1.3	53.8	42.5	<b>1572</b>
Xi'an	0.8	29.1	33.4	18.0	29.8	120.1	59.8	33.4	102.0	25.5	39.9	20.9	<b>512</b>
Xining	2.1	5.3	6.0	19.7	69.0	64.6	61.3	70.7	99.6	22.8	1.1	7.3	<b>429</b>
Yinchuan	0	0	0	0	24.5	12.1	38.3	35.9	21.8	9.2	0	2.2	<b>144</b>
Zhengzhou	2.1	17.7	5.3	11.8	78.8	106.6	264.5	121.7	100.2	2.9	40.1	14.7	<b>767</b>

**Monthly mean relative humidity (%)**

<i>City</i>	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Beijing	36	34	32	40	44	54	67	65	60	54	48	56	<b>49</b>
Changchun	63	62	39	34	44	48	77	69	63	51	70	71	<b>58</b>
Changsha	74	68	71	69	73	76	69	77	72	67	73	74	<b>72</b>
Chongqing	76	77	79	69	75	83	68	71	80	85	86	86	<b>78</b>
Dalian	53	50	46	52	57	66	83	80	76	59	64	61	<b>62</b>
Fuzhou	67	66	72	66	73	66	66	67	73	54	62	66	<b>67</b>
Guangzhou	66	70	71	74	74	70	74	71	66	52	62	60	<b>68</b>
Guilin	68	71	74	76	79	76	84	76	66	53	65	66	<b>71</b>
Guiyang	88	73	79	68	72	77	77	78	75	76	79	74	<b>76</b>
Haikou	85	87	83	82	81	78	79	80	81	71	78	77	<b>80</b>
Hangzhou	72	64	69	66	73	74	64	71	77	62	69	75	<b>70</b>
Harbin	68	69	46	40	46	45	73	69	64	55	66	70	<b>59</b>
Hefei	75	62	69	68	75	77	76	79	74	64	73	76	<b>72</b>
Hohhot	56	39	32	27	41	50	56	64	56	51	52	56	<b>48</b>
Hong Kong	71	78	81	83	83	82	80	81	78	73	69	68	<b>77</b>
Ilan	84	85	85	85	86	85	81	82	84	86	86	84	<b>84</b>
Jinan	47	36	41	45	53	61	74	76	65	53	58	67	<b>56</b>
Kaohsiung	75	75	75	77	79	81	80	82	80	78	75	75	<b>77</b>
Kunming	60	57	50	64	62	75	73	74	73	71	68	64	<b>66</b>
Lanzhou	45	35	35	28	36	41	45	53	59	55	50	52	<b>45</b>
Lhasa	26	20	19	44	36	51	66	58	49	49	40	32	<b>41</b>
Macau	75	82	86	87	86	85	83	83	80	74	71	71	<b>80</b>
Nanchang	69	66	70	72	75	78	70	75	71	56	67	68	<b>70</b>
Nanjing	68	59	65	64	71	72	74	76	76	66	75	73	<b>70</b>
Nanning	71	77	77	76	76	79	87	83	82	71	80	79	<b>78</b>
Qingdao	61	58	63	68	70	74	85	80	69	57	66	65	<b>68</b>
Shanghai	72	68	70	67	73	77	71	75	78	67	73	77	<b>72</b>
Shenyang	51	52	38	37	45	52	77	74	67	56	67	68	<b>57</b>
Shijiazhuang	42	36	41	51	49	59	70	72	64	54	50	63	<b>54</b>
Taipei	79	82	81	79	80	79	74	76	77	77	77	77	<b>78</b>
Taiyuan	49	38	43	41	46	60	72	75	69	58	57	61	<b>56</b>
Tianjin	53	47	47	51	52	62	73	73	69	58	57	63	<b>59</b>
Urumqi	78	73	72	43	40	35	42	41	45	50	77	81	<b>56</b>
Wenjiang	81	73	76	67	68	77	76	81	79	82	80	80	<b>77</b>
Wuhan	74	60	66	66	69	74	71	78	69	65	72	70	<b>70</b>
Xi'an	50	43	52	45	50	50	60	74	74	71	71	71	<b>59</b>
Xining	53	44	43	43	56	57	63	68	73	67	55	56	<b>57</b>
Yinchuan	50	32	31	30	38	51	56	66	56	54	61	61	<b>49</b>
Zhengzhou	52	47	55	54	53	64	77	80	73	64	62	66	<b>62</b>

**Note:** All data 2004 except of Hong Kong, Ilan, Kaohsiung, Macau and Taipei. Data for Hong Kong is the average from 1961-1990, for Macau, from 1901-2000 (humidity 1952-2000), and for Ilan, Kaohsiung and Taipei, from 1971-2000.

## Government and politics

### PRC (People's Republic of China)

#### POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE PRC

The PRC (*Zhonghua renmin gongheguo* 中華人民共和國) was founded at the end of the civil war between the Nationalists/Kuomintang (KMT) and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1949. The current constitution of the PRC is its fourth and was promulgated in 1982 (major amendments in 1988, 1993, 1999 and 2004). The prior three constitutions were promulgated in 1954, 1975 and 1978, respectively.

The PRC is a socialist state with a “dictatorship of the proletariat” (*wuchan jieji zhuanyizheng* 無產階級專政). Participation of citizens in political decision-making is limited to the popular election of members of the People's Congress (*renmin daibiao dahui* 人民代表大會) at the county level. The People's Congresses at the county level send delegates to the People's Congress at the provincial level, which in turn sends delegates to the National People's Congress (*quanguo renmin daibiao dahui* 全國人民代表大會), the rubber-stamp parliament of the PRC.

The NATIONAL PEOPLE'S CONGRESS (NPC) consists of delegates elected for a 5-year-term and convenes once a year. One session lasts 1-2 weeks. When not in session, its functions are exercised by the Standing Committee of the NPC (*quanguo renmin daibiao dahui changwu weiyuanhui* 全國人民代表大會常務委員會). The NPC passes and revises laws and elects/appoints persons to the following positions and offices: the President of the PRC (*Zhonghua renmin gongheguo zhuxi* 中華人民共和國主席); the Standing Committee of the NPC; members of the State Council (*guowuyuan* 國務院), i. e. the cabinet; the Central Military Commission (*zhongyang junshi weiyuanhui* 中央軍事委員會); the Supreme People's Procuratorate (*zuigao renmin jianchayuan* 最高人民檢察院); and the Supreme People's Court (*zuigao renmin fayuan* 最高人民法院).

The PRESIDENT of the PRC assumes the powers and functions of a head of state, appoints the members of the State Council or relieves them of office and ratifies or annuls treaties signed with other countries. Besides, in accordance with decisions of the NPC, the president can enact laws.

The STATE COUNCIL is the highest executive body of the PRC. It implements the laws promulgated by the NPC and is responsible to the NPC. The State Council consists of the premier (*zongli* 總理) and his deputies, the cabinet ministers, the heads of various commissions and other top officials.

The CENTRAL MILITARY COMMISSION of the state commands the armed forces of the PRC, including the People's Liberation Army (PLA: *Zhongguo renmin jiefangjun* 中國人民解放軍) and the police. This body is often confused with the Central Military Commission of the CCP, which is far more influential—the position of chairman of the CCP's Central Military Commission is regarded as a key power position in the PRC.

Within that system, the power of the CCP is unchallenged. All major decisions are made by the CCP's POLITBURO (*zhengzhibju* 政治局) and its STANDING COMMITTEE (*zhengzhibju changwu weiyuanhui* 政治局常務委員會, the most powerful body in the PRC with less than ten members), and a policy contradicting the will of the CCP is unthinkable in the PRC. However, the CCP also listens to voices outside the party.

One major forum for political discussion is the CHINESE PEOPLE'S POLITICAL CONSULTATIVE CONFERENCE (*Zhongguo renmin zhengzhi xieshang huiyi* 中國人民政治協商會議; abbrev. CPPCC) that convenes once a year and has more than 2000 members, including representatives of the CCP, the eight "democratic parties", delegates from mass organizations, ethnic minorities, as well as representatives from Hong Kong, Macau, Taiwan and of overseas Chinese. It discusses acute problems and sends delegates to the NPC, who can only offer advice and express opinions but are not entitled to vote there. The CPPCC was abolished during the Cultural Revolution (*wenhua da geming* 文化大革命, 1966-1976) and reconvened in 1978.

### Major political parties of the PRC

The PRC is *de facto* a one-party dictatorship ruled by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP: *zhongguo gongchandang* 中國共產黨), est. July 1, 1921. Officially, eight other parties exist that are "consulted" for important political decisions:

China Association for Promoting Democracy (*Zhongguo minzhu cujinhui* 中國民主促進會), est. 12/1945; China Democratic League (*Zhongguo minzhu tongmeng* 中國民主同盟), est. 10/1941; China Democratic National Construction Association (*Zhongguo minzhu jianguohui* 中國民主建國會), est. 12/1945; Chinese Peasants' and Workers' Democratic Party (*Zhongguo nonggong minzhudang* 中國農工民主黨), est. 8/1930; China Zhi Gong Dang/China Public Interest Party (*Zhongguo zhi-gongdang* 中國致工黨), est. 10/1925; Jiusan Society/September 3<sup>rd</sup> Society (*jiusan xuehui* 九三學會), est. 12/1944; Revolutionary Committee of the Chinese Guomintang (*Zhongguo guomindang geming weiyuanhui* 中國國民黨革命委員會), est. 1/1948; Taiwan Democratic Self-Government League (*Taiwan minzhu zizhi tongmeng* 台灣民主自治同盟), est. 11/1947.

The "democratic" parties are not opposition parties but take part in a united front and accept the leadership of the CCP. Their minor role is clearly indicated by the number of party members—while the CCP alone boasts more than 66 million members, the eight democratic parties combined have less than 600,000 members. Despite the bloody crackdown in 1989 there is still a democracy movement in China and at least one illegal party—the China Democracy Party (*Zhongguo minzhudang* 中國民主黨), est. 6/1998.

## THE CHINESE COMMUNIST PARTY (CCP)

More than half a century after the establishment of the PRC, the Chinese Communist Party (*Zhongguo gongchandang* 中國共產黨) remains the decisive political force in the country, and its leadership must be followed by the government. The most important event in the operations of the CCP is the regularly held party congress (*quanguo daibiao dahui* 全國代表大會), which elects the Central Committee (*Zhongguo gongchandang zhongyang weiyuanhui* 中國共產黨中央委員會). The Central Committee, which usually consists of more than a hundred members, elects the Politburo (*zhengzhiju* 政治局), a group of about one or two dozen individuals. The innermost circle of power is the Standing Committee of the Politburo (*zhengzhiju changwu weiyuanhui* 政治局常務委員會), which since 1956 has had between five and nine members.

### Party congresses of the CCP

Party congress	Year	Date, place	Total party members
I	1921	July 23-31, in Shanghai 上海	57

II	1922	July 16-23, in Shanghai	123
III	1923	June 12-20, in Guangzhou 廣州	432
IV	1925	January 11-22, in Shanghai	950
V	1927	April 27–May 9, in Hankou 漢口	57,967
VI	1928	June 18–July 11, in Moscow (could not convene in China because of KMT’s “white terror” [ <i>baise kongbu</i> 白色恐怖])	ca. 40,000
VII	1945	April 23–June 11, in Yan’an 延安 (first congress since 1928)	ca. 1.21 million
VIII	1956	September 15-27, in Beijing 北京 (first congress since “liberation” [ <i>jiefang</i> 解放])	ca. 10.73 million
IX	1969	April 1-24, in Beijing (after Great Leap Forward [ <i>dayuejin</i> 大躍進] and during Cultural Revolution [ <i>wenhua da geming</i> 文化大革命])	ca. 22 million
X	1973	August 24-28, in Beijing	ca. 28 million
XI	1977	August 12-18, in Beijing (first congress since Mao Zedong’s death)	ca. 35 million
XII	1982	September 1-11, in Beijing	ca. 39.65 million
XIII	1987	October 25–November 1, in Beijing	over 46 million
XIV	1992	October 12-18, in Beijing	over 51 million
XV	1997	September 12-18, in Beijing	ca. 58 million
XVI	2002	November 8-14, in Beijing	ca. 66 million

### Leaders of the CCP

1921-1927	Chen Duxiu 陳獨秀 (1879-1942)
1927-1928	Qu Qiubai 瞿秋白 (1899-1935)
1928-1931	Xiang Zhongfa 向忠發 (1880-1931, died in office)
1931-1932	Wang Ming 王明 (1907-1974)
1932-1935	Bo Gu 博古 (1907-1946)
1935-1976	Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976, died in office)
1976-1981	Hua Guofeng 華國鋒 (b. 1920)
1981-1987	Hu Yaobang 胡耀邦 (1915-1989)
1987-1989	Zhao Ziyang 趙紫陽 (1919-2005)
1989-2002	Jiang Zemin 江澤民 (b. 1926)
2002—	Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 (b. 1942)

**Note:** Between 1921 and 1935, the most powerful position in the CCP was that of the general secretary (*zongshuji* 總書記). The last general secretary before the establishment of the PRC was Zhang Wentian 張聞天 (1900-1976), an ally of Mao Zedong, who held the position from 1935 to 1943. But after the Zunyi conference (*Zunyi huiyi* 遵義會議) in January 1935 on the Long March (*changzheng* 長征) Mao emerged as chairman (*zhuxi* 主席) of the CCP politburo, and as such remained No. 1 in the party hierarchy until his death in 1976. All post-Mao party leaders held the title of chairman, except for Hu Yaobang, who between 1982 and 1987 was general secretary.

### The CCP Politburo’s Standing Committees after the establishment of the PRC

When the CCP came to power in 1949, there was no Politburo Standing Committee but only the “Party Secretariat” (*zhonggong zhongyang shujichu shuji* 中共中央書記處書記) which since 1945 had consisted of five members—Liu Shaoqi 劉少奇 (1898-1969), Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976), Ren Bishi 任弼時 (1904-1950), Zhou Enlai 周恩來 (1898-1976), and Zhu De

- 朱德 (1885-1976). After his death, Ren Bishi was replaced by Chen Yun 陳雲 (1905-1995).  
*Elected by the 8<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1956:* Six members—Chen Yun 陳雲 (1905-1995), Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平 (1904-1997), Liu Shaoqi 劉少奇 (1898-1969), Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976), Zhou Enlai 周恩來 (1898-1976), and Zhu De 朱德 (1885-1976)  
*Elected by the 9<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1969:* Five members—Chen Boda 陳伯達 (1904-1989), Kang Sheng 康生 (1898-1975), Lin Biao 林彪 (1907-1971), Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976), and Zhou Enlai 周恩來 (1898-1976)  
*Elected by the 10<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1973:* Nine members—Dong Biwu 董必武 (1886-1975), Kang Sheng 康生 (1898-1975), Li Desheng 李德生 (b. 1916), Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976), Wang Hongwen 王洪文 (1935-1992), Ye Jianying 葉劍英 (1897-1986), Zhang Chunqiao 張春橋 (1917-2005), Zhou Enlai 周恩來 (1898-1976), and Zhu De 朱德 (1885-1976). [Five of the members died in office: Dong Biwu, Kang Sheng, Mao Zedong, Zhou Enlai and Zhu De]  
*Elected by the 11<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1977:* Five members—Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平 (1904-1997), Hua Guofeng 華國鋒 (b. 1920), Li Xiannian 李先念 (1909-1992), Wang Dongxing 汪東興 (b. 1916), and Ye Jianying 葉劍英 (1897-1986)  
*Elected by the 12<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1982:* Six members—Chen Yun 陳雲 (1905-1995), Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平 (1904-1997), Hu Yaobang 胡耀邦 (1915-1989), Li Xiannian 李先念 (1909-1992), Ye Jianying 葉劍英 (1897-1986), and Zhao Ziyang 趙紫陽 (1919-2005)  
*Elected by the 13<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1987:* Five/six members—Hu Qili 胡啟立 (b. 1929), Li Peng 李鵬 (b. 1928), Qiao Shi 喬石 (b. 1924), Yao Yilin 姚依林 (1917-1994), and Zhao Ziyang 趙紫陽 (1919-2005). [Hu Qili and Zhao Ziyang were dismissed in 6/1989 and replaced by Jiang Zemin 江澤民 (b. 1926), Li Ruihuan 李瑞環 (b. 1934) and Song Ping 宋平 (b. 1917)]  
*Elected by the 14<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1992:* Seven members—Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 (b. 1942), Jiang Zemin 江澤民 (b. 1926), Li Peng 李鵬 (b. 1928), Li Ruihuan 李瑞環 (b. 1934), Liu Huaqing 劉華清 (b. 1916), Qiao Shi 喬石 (b. 1924), and Zhu Rongji 朱鎔基 (b. 1928)  
*Elected by the 15<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 1997:* Seven members—Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 (b. 1942), Jiang Zemin 江澤民 (b. 1926), Li Lanqing 李嵐清 (b. 1932), Li Peng 李鵬 (b. 1928), Qiao Shi 喬石 (b. 1924), Wei Jianxing 尉健行 (b. 1931), and Zhu Rongji 朱鎔基 (b. 1928)  
*Elected by the 16<sup>th</sup> Central Committee in 2002:* Nine members—Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 (b. 1942), Huang Ju 黃菊 (1938-2007), Jia Qinglin 賈慶林 (b. 1940), Li Changchun 李長春 (b. 1944), Luo Gan 羅幹 (b. 1935), Wen Jiabao 溫家寶 (b. 1942), Wu Bangguo 吳邦國 (b. 1941), Wu Guanzheng 吳官正 (b. 1938), and Zeng Qinghong 曾慶紅 (b. 1939)

### Chairmen of the CCP's central military commission

- 1935-1976 Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976, died in office)  
 1976-1981 Hua Guofeng 華國鋒 (b. 1920)  
 1981-1989 Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平 (1904-1997)  
 1989-2004 Jiang Zemin 江澤民 (b. 1926)  
 2004— Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 (b. 1942)

**Note:** Besides the powerful central military commission of the CCP there is also a central military commission of the state, but its chairmanship is widely seen as mainly symbolic.

## PRESIDENTS AND PREMIERS OF THE PRC

### Chairmen/Presidents of the PRC (head of state)

1949-1959	Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976)
1959-1968	Liu Shaoqi 劉少奇 (1898-1969)
1968-1972	Song Qingling 宋慶齡 (1893-1981)
1968-1975	Dong Biwu 董必武 (1886-1975, died in office)
1975-1976	Zhu De 朱德 (1885-1976, died in office)
1978-1983	Ye Jianying 葉劍英 (1897-1986)
1983-1988	Li Xiannian 李先念 (1909-1992)
1988-1993	Yang Shangkun 楊尚昆 (1907-1998)
1993-2003	Jiang Zemin 江澤民 (b. 1926)
2003—	Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 (b. 1942)

**Note:** Liu Shaoqi was removed from office in 1968 and not replaced, at which time vice chairpersons Dong Biwu and Song Qingling both served as acting PRC chairpersons. The post of PRC chairman was abolished in 1975, after which the functions of the head of state were transferred to the chairman of the NPC Standing Committee. After Zhu De's death, that post remained vacant until 1978. Song was named Honorary President of the PRC (*Zhonghua renmin gongheguo mingyu zhubu* 中華人民共和國名譽主席) in 1981. Since 1983, the PRC's head of state holds the title "president".

### Premiers (Heads of the State Council)

1949-1976	Zhou Enlai 周恩來 (1898-1976, died in office)
1976-1980	Hua Guofeng 華國鋒 (b. 1920)
1980-1987	Zhao Ziyang 趙紫陽 (1919-2005)
1987-1998	Li Peng 李鵬 (b. 1928)
1998-2003	Zhu Rongji 朱鎔基 (b. 1928)
2003—	Wen Jiabao 溫家寶 (b. 1942)

## THE PARLIAMENT AND THE JUDICIARY OF THE PRC

### The National People's Congress (NPC) of the PRC

<i>No.</i>	<i>Time of first plenary session</i>	<i>Chairman</i>
First NPC	1954 September 15-28	Liu Shaoqi 劉少奇 (1898-1969)
Second NPC	1959 April 17-28	Zhu De 朱德 (1885-1976)
Third NPC	1964 December 21–January 4, 1965	Zhu De
Fourth NPC	1975 January 13-17	Zhu De (died in office)
Fifth NPC	1978 February 26–March 5	Ye Jianying 葉劍英 (1897-1986)
Sixth NPC	1983 June 6-21	Peng Zhen 彭真 (1902-1997)
Seventh NPC	1988 March 25–April 13	Wan Li 萬里 (b. 1916)
Eighth NPC	1993 March 15-31	Qiao Shi 喬石 (b. 1924)
Ninth NPC	1998 March 5-19	Li Peng 李鵬 (b. 1928)
Tenth NPC	2003 March 5-18	Wu Bangguo 吳邦國 (b. 1941)

### Sessions of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (CPPCC)

No.	Duration	Chairperson(s)
1	9/1949—12/1954	Mao Zedong 毛澤東 (1893-1976)
2	12/1954—4/1959	Zhou Enlai 周恩來 (1898-1976) / Mao Zedong*
3	4/1959—1/1965	Zhou Enlai / Mao Zedong*
4	1/1965—3/1978	Zhou Enlai / Mao Zedong*
5	3/1978—6/1983	Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平 (1904-1997)
6	6/1983—4/1988	Deng Yingchao 鄧穎超 (1904-1992)
7	4/1988—3/1993	Li Xiannian 李先念 (1909-1992)
8	3/1993—3/1998	Li Ruihuan 李瑞環 (b. 1934)
9	3/1998—3/2003	Li Ruihuan
10	3/2003—	Jia Qinglin 賈慶林 (b. 1940)

\*The chairman of the CPPCC's 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> session was Zhou Enlai, but Mao Zedong was named honorary chairman (*mingyu zhubuxi* 名譽主席).

### Presidents of the PRC's Supreme People's Court

No.	Name	Tenure	Born/ died
1	Shen Junru 沈鈞儒	1949-1954	1875-1963
2	Dong Biwu 董必武	1954-1959	1886-1975
3	Xie Juezai 謝覺哉	1959-1965	1884-1971
4	Yang Xiufeng 楊秀峰	1965-1975	1897-1983
5	Jiang Hua 江華	1975-1983	1907-1999
6	Zheng Tianxiang 鄭天翔	1983-1988	b. 1914
7	Ren Jianxin 任建新	1988-1998	b. 1925
8	Xiao Yang 肖揚	1998—	b. 1938

### Heads of the PRC's Supreme People's Procuratorate

Name	Tenure	Born/ died
Luo Ronghuan 羅榮桓	1949-1954	1902-1963
Zhang Dingcheng 張鼎丞	1954-1975	1898-1981
Huang Huoqing 黃火青	1978-1983	1900-1999
Yang Yichen 楊易辰	1983-1988	1914-1997
Liu Fuzhi 劉復之	1988-1993	b. 1917
Zhang Siqing 張思卿	1993-1998	b. 1932
Han Zhubin 韓杼濱	1998-2003	b. 1932
Jia Chunwang 賈春旺	2003—	b. 1938

## MINISTRIES AND AGENCIES UNDER THE PRC STATE COUNCIL

### Ministries and commissions of the State Council

Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA): *wajjiaobu* 外交部

Ministry of National Defense: *guofangbu* 國防部

National Development and Reform Commission (NDRC): *guojia fazhan ban gaige weiyuanhui* 國家發展和改革委員會

Ministry of Education (MOE): *jiaoyubu* 教育部



Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST): *kexue jishubu* 科學技術部, abbrev. *kejibu* 科技部  
Commission of Science, Technology and Industry for National Defense (COSTIND): *guofang kexue jishu gongye weiyuanhui* 國防科學技術工業委員會  
State Ethnic Affairs Commission (SEAC): *guojia minzu shiwu weiyuanhui* 國家民族事務委員會  
Ministry of Public Security (MPS): *gong'anbu* 公安部  
Ministry of State Security: *guojia anquanbu* 國家安全部  
Ministry of Supervision: *jianchabu* 監察部  
Ministry of Civil Affairs (MCA): *minzhengbu* 民政部  
Ministry of Justice (MOJ): *sifabu* 司法部  
Ministry of Finance (MOF): *caizhengbu* 財政部  
Ministry of Personnel (MOP): *renshibu* 人事部  
Ministry of Labor and Social Security (MOLSS): *laodong ban shehui baozhangbu* 勞動和社會保障部  
Ministry of Land and Resources (MLR): *guotu ziyuanbu* 國土資源部  
Ministry of Construction: *jianshebu* 建設部  
Ministry of Railways (MOR): *tiedaobu* 鐵道部  
Ministry of Communications (MOC): *jiaotongbu* 交通部  
Ministry of Information Industry (MII): *xinxi chanye bu* 信息產業部  
Ministry of Water Resources (MWR): *shuilibu* 水利部  
Ministry of Agriculture (MOA): *nongyebu* 農業部  
Ministry of Commerce (MofCom): *shangwubu* 商務部  
Ministry of Culture (CCNT): *wenhuabu* 文化部  
Ministry of Health (MOH): *weishengbu* 衛生部  
National Population and Family Planning Commission (SCFPF): *guojia renkou ban jibua shengyu weiyuanhui* 國家人口和計劃生育委員會  
People's Bank of China (PBoC): *Zhongguo renmin yinhang* 中國人民銀行  
National Audit Office: *guojia shenjisbu* 國家審計署

### Special commission directly under the State Council

State-owned Assets Supervision and Administration Commission (SASAC): *guoyou zichan jiandu guanli weiyuanhui* 國有資產監督管理委員會

### Organizations directly under the State Council

General Administration of Customs (GAC): *haiguan zongshu* 海關總署  
State Administration of Taxation (SAT): *guojia shuinnu zongju* 國家稅務總局  
State Administration for Industry and Commerce (SAIC): *guojia gongshang xingzheng guanli zongju* 國家工商行政管理總局  
General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine (GAQSIQ): *guojia zhibiliang jiandu jianyan jianyi zongju* 國家質量監督檢驗檢疫總局  
State Environmental Protection Administration (SEPA): *guojia huanjing baohu zongju* 國家環境保護總局  
General Administration of Civil Aviation of China (CAAC): *Zhongguo minyong hangkong zongju* 中國民用航空總局  
State Administration of Radio, Film and Television (SARFT): *guojia guangbo dianying dianshi zongju* 國家廣播電影電視總局  
General Administration of Press and Publication: *guojia xinwen chubun zongshu* 國家新聞出版總署  
National Copyright Administration (NCAC): *guojia banquanju* 國家版權局  
State General Administration of Sports (SGAS): *guojia tiyu zongju* 國家體育總局

National Bureau of Statistics (NBS): *guojia tongjiju* 國家統計局  
State Forestry Administration (SFA): *guojia linyeju* 國家林業局  
State Food and Drug Administration (SFDA): *guojia shipin yaopin jiandu guanliju* 國家食品藥品監督管理局  
State Administration of Work Safety: *guojia anquan shengchan jiandu guanli zongju* 國家安全生產監督管理總局  
State Administration of Coal Mine Safety: *guojia meikuang anquan jianchaju* 國家煤礦安全監察局  
State Intellectual Property Office (SIPO): *guojia zhibishi chanquanju* 國家知識產權局  
National Tourism Administration (NTA): *guojia liyongju* 國家旅遊局  
State Administration for Religious Affairs (SARA): *guojia zongjiao shiwuju* 國家宗教事務局  
Counselors' Office of the State Council: *guowuyuan canshishi* 國務院參事室  
Government Offices Administration of the State Council: *guowuyuan jiguan shiwu guanliju* 國務院機關事務管理局

### Administrative offices under the State Council

Overseas Chinese Affairs Office of the State Council: *guowuyuan qiaowu bangongshi* 國務院僑務辦公室  
Hong Kong and Macao Affairs Office of the State Council: *guowuyuan gang'ao shiwu bangongshi* 國務院港澳事務辦公室  
Legislative Affairs Office of the State Council: *guowuyuan fazhi bangongshi* 國務院法制辦公室  
Research Office of the State Council: *guowuyuan yanjiushi* 國務院研究室  
Taiwan Affairs Office of the State Council (TAO): *guowuyuan Taiwan shiwu bangongshi* 國務院臺灣事務辦公室  
Information Office of the State Council: *guowuyuan xinwen bangongshi* 國務院新聞辦公室

### Institutions directly under the State Council

Xinhua News Agency: *xinhua tongxunshe* 新華通訊社  
Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS): *Zhongguo kexueyuan* 中國科學院  
Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (CASS): *Zhongguo shehui kexueyuan* 中國社會科學院  
Chinese Academy of Engineering (CAE): *Zhongguo gongchengyuan* 中國工程院  
Development Research Center of the State Council (DRC): *guowuyuan fazhan yanjiu zhongxin* 國務院發展研究中心  
National School of Administration (NSA): *guojia xingzheng xueyuan* 國家行政學院  
China Seismological Bureau (CSB): *Zhongguo dizhenju* 中國地震局  
China Meteorological Administration (CMA): *Zhongguo qixiangju* 中國氣象局  
China Banking Regulatory Commission (CBRC): *Zhongguo yinhangye jiandu guanli weiyuanhui* 中國銀行業監督管理委員會  
China Securities Regulatory Commission (CSRC): *Zhongguo zhengquan jiandu guanli weiyuanhui* 中國證券監督管理委員會  
China Insurance Regulatory Commission (CIRC): *Zhongguo baoxian jiandu guanli weiyuanhui* 中國保險監督管理委員會  
State Electricity Regulatory Commission (SERC): *guojia dianli jianguan weiyuanhui* 國家電力監管委員會  
National Council for Social Security Fund: *quanguo shehui baozhang jijin lishihui* 全國社會保障基金理事會  
National Natural Science Foundation (NSFC): *guojia ziran kexue jijin weiyuanhui* 國家自然科學基金委員會

### State bureaus under the jurisdiction of ministries and commissions

- State Bureau for Letters and Calls: *guojia xinfangju* 國家信訪局  
 State Administration of Grain: *guojia liangshiju* 國家糧食局  
 State Tobacco Monopoly Administration: *guojia yancao zhuannaiju* 國家煙草專賣局  
 State Administration of Foreign Experts Affairs: *guojia waiguo zhuannaiju* 國家外國專家局  
 State Oceanic Administration: *guojia haiyangju* 國家海洋局  
 State Bureau of Surveying and Mapping: *guojia cehuiju* 國家測繪局  
 State Post Bureau: *guojia youzhengju* 國家郵政局  
 State Administration of Cultural Heritage: *guojia wenwuju* 國家文物局  
 State Administration of Traditional Chinese Medicine: *guojia zhongyiyao guanliju* 國家中醫藥管理局  
 State Administration of Foreign Exchange (SAFE): *Zhongguo waihui guanliju* 中國外匯管理局  
 State Archives Administration (SAAC): *guojia dang'anju* 國家檔案局  
 National Administration for the Protection of State Secrets: *guojia baomiju* 國家保密局

### GOVERNORS OF HONG KONG AND MACAU

Unknown to many, the colonial history of Macau (*Aomen* 澳門) began much earlier than that of Hong Kong (*Xianggang* 香港). In 1557, Macau was rented by Portugal from the Chinese as a port and trade hub. Trade and missionary activity flourished for several decades, but domestic problems in Portugal (occupation by Spain in 1580) and increasing competition arising from Dutch activity in Asia (as well as loss of Malacca to the Dutch in 1640) left Macau on its own, and it deteriorated to an impoverished settlement. Macau regained some of its importance from the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, and in a treaty the Qing recognized Portugal's sovereignty over Macau in 1887. Governor Isidoro Francisco Guimaraes (ruled 1851-1863) tried to solve Macau's financial problems by introducing licensed gambling. Following the British example, Portugal and the PRC signed an agreement about Macau's handover to China in 1987. As planned, Portuguese rule over Macau ended in December 1999.

During the Qing dynasty (1644-1911), China became prey to modern imperialist powers—the British Empire, France, Portugal, Russia, Germany and Japan forced the military weak Qing court to make territorial concessions and open the country for trade. After the First Opium War (*yapian zhanzheng* 鴉片戰爭), Hong Kong Island (*xianggang dao* 香港島) was ceded to Britain in 1842 (“Unequal Treaties”, *bu pingdeng tiaoyue* 不平等條約), and Kowloon (*jiulong* 九龍) was ceded after the Second Opium War in 1859. In 1898 the UK received the New Territories (*xinjie* 新界) on a 99-year-lease. During WWII, Hong Kong was occupied by Japanese troops in December 1941 and remained under Japanese control throughout the war. Facing the end of the New Territories' lease in 1997, Britain negotiated the conditions for a return of the entire colony to China, and an agreement was signed in 1984.

The PRC promised to retain the social, economic and legal systems in place in both Hong Kong and Macau for 50 years under the formula “one country, two systems” (*yiguo liangzhi* 一國兩制). Today, Hong Kong and Macau are ruled by the PRC as “Special Administrative Regions” (SAR: *tebie xingzhengqu* 特別行政區) run by a Chief Executive (*xingzheng zhangguan* 行政長官) handpicked by a committee loyal to Beijing. Hong Kong's legal foundation is the “Basic Law” (*ji-benfa* 基本法), its legislature—only half of it popularly elected—is called the “Legislative Council” (abbrev. Legco: *lifahui* 立法會). Hong Kong's pro-democracy camp continues to demand that Beijing come forth with a timetable for the introduction of universal suffrage.

### Governors/Chief Executives of Hong Kong since 1843

1843-1844	Sir Henry Pottinger	1919-1925	Sir Reginald Edward Stubbs
1844-1848	Sir John Francis Davis	1925-1930	Sir Cecil Clementi
1848-1854	Sir Samuel George Bonham	1930-1935	Sir William Peel
1854-1859	Sir John Bowring	1935-1937	Sir Andrew Caldecott
1859-1866	Lord Rosmead	1937-1941	Sir Geoffry Alexander Stafford Northcote
1866-1872	Sir Richard Graves Macdonell	1941-1947	Sir Mark Aitchison Young
1872-1877	Sir Arthur Edward Kennedy	1947-1958	Sir Alexander William George Herder Grantham
1877-1883	Sir John Pope Hennessy	1958-1964	Sir Robert Brown Black
1883-1887	Sir George Ferguson Bowen	1964-1971	Sir David Clive Crosbie Trench
1887-1891	Sir George William Des Voeux	1971-1982	Lord MacLehose of Beoch
1891-1898	Sir William Robinson	1982-1987	Sir Edward Youde
1898-1904	Sir Henry Arthur Blake	1987-1992	Lord Wilson of Tillyorn
1904-1907	Sir Matthew Nathan	1992-1997	Christopher Francis Patten
1907-1912	Lord Lugard		
1912-1919	Sir Francis Henry May		

#### Chief Executive SAR Hong Kong 香港特別行政區行政長官

1997-2005	Tung Chee-hwa 董建華 [Dong Jianhua] (b. 1937)
since 2005	Donald Tsang 曾蔭權 [Zeng Yinquan] (b. 1944)

### Governors/Chief Executives of Macau since 1623

#### *Date of Assumption/Name of the Governor*

[1616 Francisco Lopes]	23 November 1693 Antonio da Silva e Melho
7 July 1623 D. Francisco Mascarenhas	21 July 1694 Gil Vaz Lobo Freire
19 July 1626 D. Filipe Lobo, D. Jeronimo da Silveira	17 August 1697 Cosme Rodrigues de Carvalho e Sousa
1 December 1631 Manuel da Camara da Noronha	28 September 1697 Leal Senado da Camara (The Senate of the Settlement)
August 1636 Domingis da Camara da Noronha	9 August 1698 Pedro Vaz de Siqueira
August 1638 D. Sebastiao Lobo da Silveira	5 August 1700 Diogo de Melo Sampaio
August 1645 Luis de Carvalho e Sousa	22 July 1702 Pedro Vaz de Sequeira
August 1647 D. Joao Pereira	15 August 1703 Jose da Gama Machado
August 1650 Joao de Sousa Pereira	5 August 1706 Diogo do Pinho Teixeira
August 1654 Manuel Tavares Bocarro	28 July 1710 Francisco de Melo e Castro
22 July 1664 Manuel Borges da Silva	11 June 1711 Antonio de Sequeira de Noronha
31 August 1667 D. Alvaro da Silva	18 July 1714 D. Francisco de Alarcao Sotto-Maior
20 July 1670 Manuel Borges da Silva	30 May 1718 Antonio de Albuquerque Coelho
20 July 1672 Antonio Barbosa Lobo	9 September 1719 Antonio da Silva Telo e Meneses
10 December 1678 Antonio de Castro Sande	19 August 1722 D. Cristovao de Severim Manuel
10 December 1679 Luis de Melo Sampaio	6 September 1724 Antonio Carneiro de Alcacova
10 December 1682 Bechior do Amaral de Meneses	11 August 1727 Antonio Moniz Barreto
5 July 1685 Antonio de Mesquita Pimentel	
31 July 1688 Andre Coelho Vieira	
21 July 1691 D. Francisco da Costa	

18 August 1732 Antonio de Amaral Meneses	19 August 1822 Major Paulino da Silva Barbosa
15 January 1735 D. Joao do Casal	23 September 1823 Conselho de Governo (Government Council)
4 August 1735 Cosme Damiao Pinto Pereira	28 July 1825 Joaquim Mourao Garces Palha
25 August 1738 D. Diogo Pereira	15 November 1827 Conselho de Governo (Government Council)
25 August 1743 Antonio de Mendonca Corte-Real	7 July 1830 Joao Cabral de Estefique
30 August 1747 Jose Placido de Matos Saraiva	3 July 1833 Bernardo Jose de Sousa Soares Andrea
2 August 1749 Diogo Fernandes Salema e Saldanha	22 February 1837 Adriaio Acacio da Silveira Pinto
29 July 1752 D. Rodrigo de Castro	3 October 1843 Jose Gregorio Pegado
14 July 1755 Francisco Antonio Pereira Coutinho	21 April 1846 Joao Ferreira do Amaral
1 July 1758 D. Diogo Pereira	22 August 1849 Conselho de Governo (Government Council)
4 July 1761 Antonio de Mendonca Corte-Real	30 May 1850 Pedro Alexandrino da Cunha
14 July 1764 Jose Placido de Matos Saraiva	7 July 1850 Conselho de Governo (Govern- ment Council)
19 August 1767 Diogo Fernandes Salema e Saldanha	3 February 1851 Francisco Antonio Goncalves Cardoso
29 July 1770 D. Rodrigo de Castro	19 November 1851 Isidoro Francisco Guimaraes
26 July 1771 Diogo Fernandes Salema e Saldanha	22 June 1863 Jose Rodrigues Coelho do Amaral
27 January 1777 D. Alexdra da Silva Pedrosa Guimares	26 October 1866 Jose Maria da Ponte e Horta
1 August 1778 Jose Vicente da Silveira Meneses	3 August 1868 Antonio Sergio de Sousa
5 January 1780 Antonio Jose da Costa	23 March 1872 Januario Correia de Almeida
28 August 1781 D. Francisco de Castro	7 December 1874 Jose Maria Lobo de Avila
18 August 1783 Bernardo Aleixo de Lemos e Faria	31 December 1876 Carlos Eugenio Correia da Silva
21 July 1788 Francisco Xavier de Mendonca Corte-Real	28 November 1879 Joaquim Jose da Graca
18 July 1789 Lazaro da Silva Ferreira and Manuel Antonio Costa Ferreira, military commander	23 April 1883 Tomas de Sousa Rosa
29 July 1790 D. Vasco Luis Carneiro de Sousa e Faro	7 August 1886 Firmino Jose da Costa
27 July 1793 Jose Manuel Pinto	5 February 1889 Francisco Teixeira da Silva
8 August 1797 D. Cristovao Pereira de Castro	16 October 1890 Custodio Miguel de Borja
8 August 1800 Jose Manuel Pinto	24 March 1894 Jose Maria de Sousa Horta e Costa
8 August 1803 Caetano de Sousa Pereira	12 May 1897 Eduardo Augusto Rodrigues Galhardo
8 August 1806 Bernardo Aleixo de Lemos e Faria	12 August 1900 Jose Maria de Sousa Horta e Costa
26 December 1808 Lucas Jose de Alvarenga	5 April 1904 Martinho Pinto de Queiros Montenegro
19 July 1810 Bernardo Aleixo de Lemos e Faria	6 April 1907 Pedro de Azevedo Coutinho
19 July 1814 Lucas Jose de Alvarenga	18 August 1908 Jose Augusto Alves Rocardas
19 July 1817 Jose Osorio de Castro de Albuquerque	22 September 1909 Eduardo Augusto Marques

17 December 1910 Alvaro de Melo Machado	29 October 1940 Gabriel Mauricio Teixeira
14 July 1912 Anibal Augusto Sanches de Miranda	1 September 1947 Albano Rodrigues de Oliveira
10 June 1914 Jose Carlos da Maia	23 November 1951 Joaquim Marques Esparteiro
5 September 1916 Manuel Ferreira da Rocha, Augusto Vieira de Matos	8 March 1957 Pedro Correia de Barros
12 October 1918 Artur Tamagnini de Sousa Barbosa	18 September 1959 Jaime Silverio Maarques
23 August 1919 Henrique Monteiro Correia da Silva	17 April 1962 Antonio Adriano Faria Lopes dos Santos
5 January 1923 Rodrigo Jose Rodrigues	25 November 1966 Jose Manuel de Sousa e Faro Nobre de Carvalho
18 October 1925 Manuel Firmino de Almeida Maia Magalhaes	19 November 1974 Jose Eduardo Martinho Garcia Leandro
8 December 1926 Artur Tamagnini de Sousa Barbosa	28 November 1979 Gen. Nuno Viriato Tavares de Melo Egidio
30 March 1931 Joaquim Anselmo de Mata Oliveira	16 June 1981 Vasco Leotte de Almeida Costa
21 June 1932 Antonio Jose Bernardes de Miranda	15 May 1986 Joaquim Germano Pinto Machado Correia da Silva
11 April 1937 Artur Tamagnini de Sousa Barbosa	9 July 1987 Carlos Montez Melancia
	23 April 1991 Vasco Joaquim Rocha Vieira

Chief Executive SAR Macau 澳門特別行政區行政長官  
 since December 1999 Edmund Ho Hau-wah 何厚鏹 [*He Houhua*] (b. 1955)

## ROC (Republic of China)

### POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE ROC

The ROC (*Zhonghua minguo* 中華民國) was founded in 1912 and has been an independent, sovereign state ever since. The ROC's first four decades were marred by division (warlord period 1916-1928), war (Japanese aggression 1931-1945) and civil war (1945-1949), so the first constitution of the ROC was promulgated only in 1947. In 1945 after the end of WWII Taiwan was added to the territory of the ROC, and at the end of the civil war the ROC government was forced to leave the mainland and retreat to that island. Since 1949 the territory controlled by the ROC has been limited to Taiwan 台灣, Penghu 澎湖 (Pescadores), Kinmen 金門 (Quemoy) and Matsu 馬祖.

After the end of the martial law period (1947-1987) a series of comprehensive democratic reforms was implemented. Since the 1990s the ROC constitution has been amended six times (1991, 1992, 1994, 1997, 1999, and 2000), resulting in substantial changes of the political system. On the central level, the ROC today consists of the president (*zongtong* 總統); and the the Five Yuans—Executive Yuan (*xingzheng yuan* 行政院), Legislative Yuan (*lifa yuan* 立法院), Judicial Yuan (*sifa yuan* 司法院), Control Yuan (*jiancha yuan* 監察院) and Examination Yuan (*kaoshi yuan* 考試院). Before 2005, there also was a National Assembly (*guomin dabui* 國民大會).

The PRESIDENT of the ROC is popularly elected for a 4-year-term and may serve a maximum of two consecutive terms. His powers and functions include supreme command of the armed forces, representation of the country in all foreign relations and at state functions, convening the National Assembly, and appointing the premier and other officials at the highest level. The president's appointments of the members of the Grand Justices (*da faguan* 大法官), the Control Yuan and the Examination Yuan require the consent of the parliament.

The EXECUTIVE YUAN (= cabinet), founded in October 1928, is headed by the premier (*xingzheng yuan yuanzhang* 行政院院長/*xingzheng yuanzhang* 行政院長) and comprises various subordinate organizations, including eight ministries.

The LEGISLATIVE YUAN (= parliament) is the ROC's legislature. Most of its members are popularly elected to office for a 3-year-term, others (like the representatives for Taiwan's indigenous people and overseas Chinese) are chosen via proportional party representation. The Legislative Yuan passes laws, examines budgetary bills and oversees the operation of the Executive Yuan.

The JUDICIAL YUAN operates the national court system; its main body is the Council of Grand Justices (*dafaguan huiyi* 大法官會議), which is composed of 15 Grand Justices.

The CONTROL YUAN exercises the powers of impeachment, censure, correction, and audit.

The EXAMINATION YUAN is responsible for the examination, employment and management of all civil service personnel.

The latter two Yuans have little significance in today's in Taiwan and are regarded by some as obsolete relics of institutional structures existent in Imperial China.

The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY's (NA) power was limited to impeaching the president following a petition by the Legislative Yuan, amending the constitution and altering the national territory after a public announcement by the Legislative Yuan. Before the constitutional reforms in the 1990s, the NA had the function of electing the president, who is now popularly elected. Most of the NA's other powers were transferred to the Legislative Yuan. The members of the NA were selected proportionally based on the number of seats held by each party in the

Legislative Yuan. The last NA convened in 2005 and voted in favor of constitutional changes that abolished it.

**Note:** After Taiwan was returned to China from Japan at the end of WWII, the Taiwanese initially welcomed the ROC government because it marked the end of foreign rule. But since Taiwanese had served as soldiers in the Imperial Japanese army, the Nationalist ROC government regarded the Taiwanese as “enemy overseas Chinese” (*diquiao* 敵僑) and decided to exclude them from key government positions, a policy that was gradually abandoned starting in the 1970s. After the 2-28 incident in 1947 (*ererba shijian* 二二八事件) and the following period of “white terror” (*baise kongbu* 白色恐怖) that lasted over a decade and claimed the lives of thousands of Taiwanese, sentiments of hate and distrust against the more than one million people who had come to Taiwan from Mainland China when the ROC government relocated to the island after the lost civil war against the communists have been widespread among the Taiwanese. Despite democratic reform and efforts to reconcile on the part of the KMT in the 1980s and 1990s, the strife between old-established Taiwanese (*benshengren* 本省人) and mainlanders (*waishengren* 外省人) continues to dominate politics in Taiwan. For this reason, it makes sense to mention the home provinces of top politicians in the ROC on Taiwan for informational purposes.

## MAJOR POLITICAL PARTIES OF THE ROC

After the end of the Chinese civil war, when the Nationalists (KMT) were defeated by the Communists, Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 and the Nationalists retreated to Taiwan in 1949. The island was a one-party dictatorship until martial law was lifted in 1987. The first opposition party, the Democratic Progressive Party (DPP), was founded shortly before the end of martial law, and since then many other parties have been established.

In today's Taiwan, there are more than 100 registered political parties, but most of them are insignificant. Six parties have seats in the Sixth Legislative Yuan (elected in Dec. 2004): the Kuomintang or Chinese Nationalist Party (KMT: *Zhongguo guomindang* 中國國民黨), est. 1894 under the name “Revive China society” (*xingzhonghui* 興中會) and renamed/reorganized in 1905, 1912, 1914 and 1919; Democratic Progressive Party (DPP: *minzhu jinbudang* 民主進步黨/*minjindang* 民進黨), est. 9/1986; People First Party (PFP: *qinmindang* 親民黨), est. 3/2000; New Party (NP: *xindang* 新黨), est. 8/1993; Taiwan Solidarity Union (TSU: *Taiwan tuanjie lianmeng* 台灣團結聯盟), est. 8/2001; and Non-Partisan Solidarity Union (NPSU: *wudang tuanjie lianmeng* 無黨團結聯盟), est. 6/2004.

The NP and the PFP were founded by former KMT members, and the “spiritual leader” of the TSU is former president Lee Teng-hui 李登輝. Since the presidential elections in 2000, Taiwan's political landscape has been divided in two camps—the “blue camp” (*lanying* 藍營), consisting of the KMT, NP and PFP, and the “green camp” (*liyinying* 綠營), composed of the DPP and TSU. Blue is the colour of the KMT party flag, and green is the colour of the DPP party flag. The Non-Partisan Solidarity Union does not belong to either of the two camps.

Another party that gained some importance in the late 1990s was the Taiwan Independence Party (TAIP: *jianguodang* 建國黨), established in 12/1996 by radical DPP members who strongly advocated Taiwan independence. Since 2000, the TAIP has never received more than one percent of the vote in popular elections, and as a staunch pro-independence party it has been replaced by the more successful TSU.



### Party congresses (“national congresses”) of the KMT

I..... January 1924	VII..... October 1952	XIII..... July 1990
II..... January 1926	VIII..... October 1957	XIV..... August 1993
III..... March 1929	IX..... November 1963	XV..... August 1997
IV..... November 1931	X..... March 1969	XVI..... July/August 2001
V..... November 1935	XI..... November 1976	XVII..... August 2005
VI..... May 1945	XII..... March/April 1981	

### KMT chairmen

<i>Term</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Born/ died</i>	<i>Native province</i>
1905-1925	Sun Yat-sen 孫逸仙 [ <i>Sun Yixian</i> ]	1866-1925*	Guangdong
1949-1975	Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 [ <i>Jiang Jieshi</i> ]	1887-1975*	Zhejiang
1975-1988	Chiang Ching-kuo 蔣經國 [ <i>Jiang Jingguo</i> ]	1910-1988*	Zhejiang
1988-2000	Lee Teng-hui 李登輝 [ <i>Li Denghui</i> ]	b. 1923	Taiwan
2000-2005	Lien Chan 連戰 [ <i>Lian Zhan</i> ]	b. 1936	Shaanxi/Taiwan
2005-2007	Ma Ying-jeou 馬英九 [ <i>Ma Yingjiu</i> ]	b. 1950	Hong Kong/Hunan
2007—	Wu Po-hsiung 吳伯雄 [ <i>Wu Boxiong</i> ]	b. 1939	Taiwan

\* died in office

### Party congresses/national conventions of the DPP

I..... November 1986	V..... October 1991	IX..... July 2000
II..... December 1987	VI..... April/May 1994	X..... July 2002
III..... October 1988	VII..... June 1996	XI..... July 2004
IV..... October 1989	VIII..... July 1998	XII..... July 2006

### DPP chairpersons

<i>No.</i>	<i>Start of term</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>B./d.</i>	<i>Native province</i>
1	Nov. 1986	Chiang Peng-chien 江鵬堅 [ <i>Jiang Pengjian</i> ]	b. 1940	Taiwan
2	Dec. 1987	Yao Chia-wen 姚嘉文 [ <i>Yao Jianwen</i> ]	b. 1938	Taiwan
3	Oct. 1988	Huang Hsin-chieh 黃信介 [ <i>Huang Xinjie</i> ]	1917-1999	Taiwan
4	Oct. 1989	Huang Hsin-chieh	”	”
5	Nov. 1991	Hsu Hsin-liang 許信良 [ <i>Xu Xinliang</i> ]	b. 1941	Taiwan
6	May 1994	Shih Ming-teh 施明德 [ <i>Shi Mingde</i> ]	b. 1941	Taiwan
	March 1996 (acting)	Chang Chun-hung 張俊宏 [ <i>Zhang Junhong</i> ]	b. 1938	Taiwan
7	June 1996	Hsu Hsin-liang 許信良 [ <i>Xu Xinliang</i> ]	b. 1941	Taiwan
8	June 1998	Lin I-hsiung 林義雄 [ <i>Lin Yixiong</i> ]	b. 1941	Taiwan
9	June 2000	Frank Hsieh 謝長廷 [ <i>Xie Changting</i> ]	b. 1946	Taiwan
10	July 2002	Chen Shui-bian 陳水扁 [ <i>Chen Shuibian</i> ]	b. 1950	Taiwan
11	July 2004	Chen Shui-bian	”	”
12	Feb. 2005	Su Tseng-chang 蘇貞昌 [ <i>Su Zhenchang</i> ]	b. 1947	Taiwan
	Dec. 2005 (acting)	Annette Lu 呂秀蓮 [ <i>Liu Xiulian</i> ]	b. 1944	Taiwan
13	Jan. 2006	Yu Shyi-kun 游錫堃 [ <i>You Xikun</i> ]	b. 1948	Taiwan

### DPP factions

For many years, factions (*paixi* 派系) played a major role in DPP politics. The most important factions and their better-known members are listed below. During its national convention in July 2006 the DPP decided to dissolve all factions.

- Formosa faction (*Meilidao xi* 美麗島系)—Hsu Hsin-liang 許信良, Shih Ming-teh 施明德
- New Tide faction (*xin chaoliu paixi* 新潮流派系), abbrev. *xinxi* 新系—Chiou I-jen 邱義仁, Lin Cho-shui 林濁水, Tuan Yi-kang 段宜康
- Justice Alliance faction (*zhengyi lianxian* 正義連線)—Chen Shui-bian 陳水扁, Yeh Chu-lan 葉菊蘭, Yu Cheng-hsien 余政憲, Alice Chiu 邱議瑩
- Welfare State Alliance faction (*fuliguo lianxian* 福利國連線)—Yao Chia-wen 姚嘉文, Frank Hsieh 謝長廷, Ker Chien-ming 柯建銘
- Mainstream Alliance faction (*zhuliu lianmeng* 主流聯盟)—Chai Trong-rong 蔡同榮
- Green Alliance faction (*luse youyi lianxian* 綠色友誼連線)—Chen Sheng-hung 陳勝宏, Huang Ching-lin 黃慶林

## PRESIDENTS OF THE ROC 1912-1948

### Early Republic 1912-1916

<i>Name</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>Born/died</i>
Sun Yat-sen 孫逸仙 [ <i>Sun Yixian</i> ]	1912	1866-1925
Yuan Shikai 袁世凱	1912-1916	1859-1916

### Period of the Warlords 1916-1928—Northern China

Li Yuan-hung 黎元洪 [ <i>Li Yuanhong</i> ]	1916-1917	1864-1928
Feng Kuo-chang 馮國璋 [ <i>Feng Guozhang</i> ]	1917-1918	1859-1919
Hsu Shih-chang 徐世昌 [ <i>Xu Shichang</i> ]	1918-1922	1855-1939
Li Yuan-hung 黎元洪 [ <i>Li Yuanhong</i> ]	1922-1923	1864-1928
Tsao Kun 曹錕 [ <i>Cao Kun</i> ]	1923	1862-1938
Tuan Chi-ju 段祺瑞 [ <i>Duan Qirui</i> ]	1924-1926	1865-1936
Yen Hui-ch'ing 顏惠慶 [ <i>Yan Huiqing</i> ]	1926-1927	1877-1950
Chang Tso-lin 張作霖 [ <i>Zhang Zuolin</i> ]	1927-1928	1873-1928

### Period of the Warlords 1916-1928—Southern China

Sun Yat-sen 孫逸仙 [ <i>Sun Yixian</i> ]	1921-1925	1866-1925
Wang Ching-wei 汪精衛 [ <i>Wang Jingwei</i> ]	1925-1926/1927	1883-1944
Tan Yen-kai 譚延闓 [ <i>Tan Yankai</i> ]	1926/1927-1928	1880-1930
Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 [ <i>Jiang Jieshi</i> ]	1925-1928	1887-1975

### Nationalist Government, 1928-1948

Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 [ <i>Jiang Jieshi</i> ]	1928-1948	1887-1975
Wang Ching-wei 汪精衛 [ <i>Wang Jingwei</i> ]*	1940-1944	1883-1944

\*(Head of Japanese puppet regime)

## PRESIDENTS / VICE PRESIDENTS OF THE ROC SINCE 1948

<i>No.</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Vice president</i>
1	1948-1954	Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 [ <i>Jiang Jieshi</i> ] (1887-1975, Zhejiang)	Li Tsung-jen 李宗仁 [ <i>Li Zongren</i> ] (1891-1969, Guangxi)
	1949-1950	Li Tsung-jen (acting)	

2	1954-1960	Chiang Kai-shek	Chen Cheng 陳誠 (1898-1965, Zhejiang)
3	1960-1966	Chiang Kai-shek	Chen Cheng (died in office)
4	1966-1972	Chiang Kai-shek	Yen Chia-kan 嚴家淦 [ <i>Yan Jiagan</i> ] (1905-1993, Jiangsu)
5	1972-1978 1975-1978	Chiang Kai-shek (died in office) Yen Chia-kan (served out late president Chiang Kai-shek's last term)	Yen Chia-kan
6	1978-1984	Chiang Ching-kuo 蔣經國 [ <i>Jiang Jingguo</i> ] (1910-1988, Zhejiang)	Shieh Tung-min 謝東閔 [ <i>Xie Dongmin</i> ] (1907-2001, Taiwan)
7	1984-1990 1988-1990	Chiang Ching-kuo (died in office) Lee Teng-hui (served out late president Chiang Ching-kuo's last term)	Lee Teng-hui 李登輝 [ <i>Li Denghui</i> ] (b. 1923, Taiwan)
8	1990-1996	Lee Teng-hui	Li Yuan-zu 李元簇 (b. 1923, Hunan)
9	1996-2000	Lee Teng-hui	Lien Chan 連戰 [ <i>Lian Zhan</i> ] (b. 1936, Shaanxi/Taiwan)
10	2000-2004	Chen Shui-bian 陳水扁 (b. 1950, Taiwan)	Annette Lu 呂秀蓮 [ <i>Lü Xiulian</i> ] (b. 1944, Taiwan)
11	2004-2008	Chen Shui-bian	Annette Lu

**Note:** Before 1996, the president was elected by the ROC National Assembly; since 1996 the president has been elected directly by the citizens of the ROC.

## PREMIERS / HEADS OF ROC'S EXECUTIVE YUAN

### Pre-constitutional period [1928-1948]

Premier	Vice Premier
Oct. 28, 1928—Sept. 22, 1930 Tan Yen-kai 譚延闓 [ <i>Tan Yankai</i> ] (1880-1930)	Oct. 28, 1928—Sept. 22, 1930 Feng Yu-hsiang 馮玉祥 [ <i>Feng Yuxiang</i> ] (1882-1948)
Oct. 1, 1930—Dec. 16, 1931 Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 [ <i>Jiang Jieshi</i> ] (1887-1975)	Oct. 1, 1930—Dec. 16, 1931 T. V. Soong 宋子文 [ <i>Song Ziwen</i> ] (1894-1971)
Dec. 16, 1931—Jan. 1, 1932 Chen Ming-shu 陳銘樞 (1888-1965)	—
Jan. 1, 1932—Jan. 29, 1932 Sun Fo 孫科 [ <i>Sun Ke</i> ] (1891-1973)	Jan. 1, 1932—Jan. 29, 1932 Chen Ming-shu
Jan. 29, 1932—Dec. 11, 1935 Wang Ching-wei 汪精衛 [ <i>Wang Jingwei</i> ] (1883-1944)	Jan. 29, 1932—Nov. 4, 1933 T. V. Soong
Dec. 11, 1935—Jan. 1, 1938 Chiang Kai-shek	Nov. 4, 1933—Jan. 1, 1938 H. H. Kung 孔祥熙 [ <i>Kong Xiangxi</i> ] (1881-1967)
Jan. 1, 1938—Dec. 11, 1939 H. H. Kung	Jan. 1, 1938—Dec. 11, 1939 Chang Chun 張群 [ <i>Zhang Qun</i> ] (1889-1990)

Dec. 11, 1939—June 4, 1945 Chiang Kai-shek	Dec. 11, 1939—June 4, 1945 H. H. Kung
June 4, 1945—March 3, 1947 T. V. Soong	June 4, 1945—April 18, 1947 Wang Wen-ho 翁文灝 [ <i>Weng Wenbao</i> ] (1889-1971)
March 3, 1947—April 18, 1947 Chiang Kai-shek	
April 23, 1947—May 24, 1948 Chang Chun	April 23, 1947—May 24, 1948 Wang Yün-wu 王雲五 [ <i>Wang Yunwu</i> ] (1888-1979)

**Constitutional period [since 1948]**

<i>Premier</i>	<i>Vice Premier</i>
May 25, 1948—Nov. 26, 1948 Wang Wen-ho 翁文灝 [ <i>Weng Wenbao</i> ] (1889-1971, Zhejiang)	May 31, 1948—June 22, 1948 Ku Meng-yu 顧孟餘 [ <i>Gu Mengyu</i> ] (1888-1972, Zhejiang) June 22, 1948—Dec. 12, 1948
Nov. 26, 1948—March 12, 1949 Sun Fo 孫科 [ <i>Sun Ke</i> ] (1891-1973, Guangdong)	Chang Li-sheng 張厲生 [ <i>Zhang Lisheng</i> ] (1901-1971, Hebei) Dec. 12, 1948—March 21, 1949 Wu Te-chen 吳鐵城 [ <i>Wu Tiecheng</i> ] (1888-1953, Guangdong)
March 12, 1949—June 6, 1949 Ho Ying-chin 何應欽 [ <i>He Yingqin</i> ] (1890-1987, Guizhou)	March 21, 1949—June 12, 1949 Chia Ching-teh 賈景德 [ <i>Jia Jingde</i> ] (1880-1960, Shanxi)
June 6, 1949—March 10, 1950 Yen Hsi-shan 閻錫山 [ <i>Yan Xishan</i> ] (1883-1960, Shanxi)	June 12, 1949—March 10, 1950 Chu Chia-hwa 朱家驊 [ <i>Zhu Jiahua</i> ] (1893-1963, Zhejiang)
March 10, 1950—June 1, 1954 Chen Cheng 陳誠 (1898-1965, Zhejiang)	March 12, 1950—June 1, 1954 Chang Li-sheng
June 1, 1954—July 15, 1958 O. K. Yui 俞鴻鈞 [ <i>Yu Hongjun</i> ] (1897-1960, Guangdong)	June 1, 1954—July 15, 1958 Huang Shao-ku 黃少谷 [ <i>Huang Shaogu</i> ] (1901-1996, Hunan)
July 15, 1958—Dec. 16, 1963 Chen Cheng	July 15, 1958—Dec. 16, 1963 Wang Yün-wu 王雲五 [ <i>Wang Yunwu</i> ] (1888-1979, Guangdong/Shanghai)
Dec. 16, 1963—June 1, 1972 Yen Chia-kan 嚴家淦 [ <i>Yan Jiagan</i> ] (1905-1993, Jiangsu)	Dec. 16, 1963—June 1, 1966 Yu Ching-tang 余井塘 [ <i>Yu Jingtang</i> ] (1896-1985, Jiangsu) June 1, 1966—July 1, 1969 Huang Shao-ku July 1, 1969—June 1, 1972 Chiang Ching-kuo 蔣經國 [ <i>Jiang Jingguo</i> ] (1910-1988, Zhejiang)

June 1, 1972—May 20, 1977 Chiang Ching-kuo	June 1, 1972—Dec. 1, 1981 Hsu Ching-chung 徐慶鐘 [ <i>Xu Qingzhong</i> ] (1907-1996, Taiwan)
June 1, 1978—June 1, 1984 Sun Yun-suan 孫運璿 [ <i>Sun Yunxuan</i> ] (1913-2006, Shandong)	Dec. 1, 1981—June 1, 1984 Chiu Chuang-huan 邱創煥 [ <i>Qiu Chuanghuan</i> ] (b. 1925, Taiwan)
June 1, 1984—June 1, 1989 Yu Kuo-hwa 俞國華 [ <i>Yu Guohua</i> ] (1914-2000, Zhejiang)	June 1, 1984—May 1, 1987 Lin Yang-kang 林洋港 [ <i>Lin Yanggang</i> ] (b. 1927, Taiwan)
	May 1, 1987—July 22, 1988 Lien Chan 連戰 [ <i>Lian Zhan</i> ] (b. 1936, Shaanxi/Taiwan)
	July 22, 1988—Feb. 27, 1993
June 1, 1989—June 1, 1990 Lee Huan 李煥 [ <i>Li Huan</i> ] (b. 1917, Hankow)	Shih Chi-yang 施啟揚 [ <i>Shi Qiyang</i> ] (b. 1935, Taiwan)
June 1, 1990—Feb. 27, 1993 Hao Pei-tsun 郝柏村 [ <i>Hao Bocun</i> ] (b. 1919, Jiangsu)	
Feb. 27, 1993—Sept. 1, 1997 Lien Chan	Feb. 27, 1993—Sept. 1, 1997 Hsu Li-teh 徐立德 [ <i>Xu Lide</i> ] (b. 1931, Henan)
Sept. 1, 1997—May 20, 2000 Vincent Siew 蕭萬長 [ <i>Xiao Wanhang</i> ] (b. 1939, Taiwan)	Sept. 1, 1997—Dec. 11, 1997 John Chang 章孝嚴 [ <i>Zhang Xiaoyan</i> ] (b. 1941, Jiangxi)
	Dec. 11, 1997—May 20, 2000 Liu Chao-shiuan 劉兆玄 [ <i>Liu Zhaoxuan</i> ] (b. 1943, Sichuan)
May 20, 2000—Oct. 6, 2000 Frank Tang 唐飛 [ <i>Tang Fei</i> ] (b. 1932, Jiangsu)	May 20, 2000—July 27, 2000 Yu Shyi-kun 游錫堃 [ <i>You Xikun</i> ] (b. 1948, Taiwan)
	Aug. 1, 2000—Oct. 6, 2000 Chang Chun-hsiung 張俊雄 [ <i>Zhang Junxiong</i> ] (b. 1938, Taiwan)
Oct. 6, 2000—Feb. 1, 2002 Chang Chun-hsiung	Oct. 6, 2000—Feb. 1, 2002 Lai In-jaw 賴英照 [ <i>Lai Yingzhao</i> ] (b. 1946, Taiwan)
Feb. 1, 2002—Jan. 31, 2005 Yu Shyi-kun	Feb. 1, 2002—May 20, 2004 Lin Hsin-yi 林信義 [ <i>Lin Xinyi</i> ] (b. 1946, Taiwan)
	May 20, 2004—Jan. 31, 2005 Yeh Chu-lan 葉菊蘭 [ <i>Ye Julan</i> ] (b. 1949, Taiwan)
Feb. 1, 2005—Jan. 23, 2006 Frank Hsieh 謝長廷 [ <i>Xie Changting</i> ] (b. 1946, Taiwan)	Feb. 18, 2005—Jan. 23, 2006 Wu Rong-i 吳榮義 [ <i>Wu Rongyi</i> ] (b. 1939, Taiwan)

Jan. 25, 2006—May 12, 2007 Su Tseng-chang 蘇貞昌 [ <i>Su Zhenchang</i> ] (b. 1947, Taiwan)	Jan. 25, 2006—May 16, 2007 Tsai Ying-wen 蔡英文 [ <i>Cai Yingwen</i> ] (b. 1956, Taiwan)
May 21, 2007— Chang Chun-hsiung	May 21, 2007— Chiou I-jen 邱義仁 [ <i>Qiu Yiren</i> ] (b. 1950), Taiwan

## THE HEADS OF THE ROC'S FOUR OTHER YUANS SINCE 1928

### Presidents of the ROC Legislative Yuan

<i>Tenure</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Born/died</i>	<i>Native province</i>
10/1928—12/1931	Hu Han-min 胡漢民	1879-1936	Guangdong
1/1932	Chang Chi 張繼 [ <i>Zhang Ji</i> ]	1882-1947	Hebei
1/1932—12/1948	Sun Fo 孫科 [ <i>Sun Ke</i> ]	1891-1973	Guangdong
12/1948—10/1949	Tung Kuan-hsien 童冠賢 [ <i>Tong Guanxian</i> ]	1894-1981	Chahar
10/1949—10/1951	Liu Chien-chun 劉健群 [ <i>Liu Jianqun</i> ] (acting 10/1949—12/1950)	1902-1972	Guizhou
3/1952—2/1961	Chang Tao-fen 張道藩 [ <i>Zhang Daofan</i> ]	1897-1968	Guizhou
2/1961—2/1972	Huang Kuo-shu 黃國書 [ <i>Huang Guoshu</i> ] (acting 10/1951—3/1961)	1905-1987	Taiwan
5/1972—2/1989	Nieh Wen-ya 倪文亞 [ <i>Ni Wenya</i> ] (acting 2/1972—4/1972)	1904-2006	Zhejiang
2/1989—2/1990	Liu Kuo-tsai 劉闊才 [ <i>Liu Kuocai</i> ]	1911-1993	Taiwan
2/1990—1/1992	Liang Su-yung 梁肅戎 [ <i>Liang Surong</i> ]	b. 1920	Liaopeh
1/1992—2/1999	Liu Sung-pan 劉鬆藩 [ <i>Liu Songfan</i> ]	b. 1931	Taiwan
2/1999—	Wang Jin-pyng 王金平 [ <i>Wang Jinping</i> ]	b. 1941	Taiwan

### Presidents of the ROC Judicial Yuan

<i>Tenure</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Born/died</i>	<i>Native province</i>
11/1928—6/1931	Wang Chung-hui 王寵惠 [ <i>Wang Chonghui</i> ]	1881-1958	Guangdong
6/1931—1/1932	Wu Chao-shu 伍朝樞	1887-1934	Tianjin
1/1932—6/1948	Chu Cheng 居正 [ <i>Ju Zheng</i> ]	1876-1951	Hubei
6/1948—6/1958	Wang Chung-hui 王寵惠 [ <i>Wang Chonghui</i> ]	1881-1958	Guangdong
6/1958—12/1971	Hsieh Kuan-sheng 謝冠生 [ <i>Xie Guansheng</i> ]	1897-1971	Zhejiang
12/1971—3/1977	Tien Chung-chin 田炯錦 [ <i>Tian Jiongjin</i> ]	1899-1977	Gansu
4/1977—7/1979	Tai Yen-hui 戴炎輝 [ <i>Dai Yanhui</i> ]	1908-1992	Taiwan
7/1979—5/1987	Huang Shao-ku 黃少谷 [ <i>Huang Shaogu</i> ]	1901-1996	Hunan
4/1987—9/1994	Lin Yang-kang 林洋港 [ <i>Lin Yanggang</i> ]	b. 1927	Taiwan
9/1994—2/1999	Shih Chi-yang 施啟揚 [ <i>Shi Qiyang</i> ]	b. 1935	Taiwan
2/1999—	Weng Yueh-sheng 翁岳生 [ <i>Weng Yuesheng</i> ]	b. 1932	Taiwan

### Presidents of the ROC Control Yuan

<i>Tenure</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Born/died</i>	<i>Native province</i>
10/1928—8/1929	Tsai Yuan-pei 蔡元培 [ <i>Cai Yuanpei</i> ]	1868-1940	Zhejiang
8/1929—11/1930	Chao Tai-wen 趙戴文 [ <i>Zhao Daiwen</i> ]	1867-1943	Shanxi
11/1930—11/1964	Yu Yu-jen 于右任 [ <i>Yu Youren</i> ]	1879-1964	Shaanxi

8/1965—3/1972	Li Shih-tsung 李嗣璫 [ <i>Li Sicong</i> ]	1898-1972	Hebei
3/1972—5/1973	Chang Wei-han 張維翰 [ <i>Zhang Weihan</i> ] (acting)	1886-1979	Yunnan
5/1973—3/1987	Yu Chun-hsien 余俊賢 [ <i>Yu Junxian</i> ]	1902-1994	Guangdong
3/1987—2/1993	Hwang Tzuen-chiou 黃尊秋 [ <i>Huang Zunqiu</i> ]	b. 1923	Taiwan
2/1993—9/1995	Chen Li-an 陳履安 [ <i>Chen Lian</i> ]	b. 1937	Zhejiang
9/1995—9/1996	Cheng Shui-chih 鄭水枝 [ <i>Zheng Shuizhi</i> ] (acting)	b. 1926	Taiwan
9/1996—2/1999	Wang Tso-yung 王作榮 [ <i>Wang Zuorong</i> ]	b. 1919	Hebei
2/1999—2/2005	Fredrick Chien 錢復 [ <i>Qian Fu</i> ]	b. 1935	Beijing
2/2005—	[vacant]		

### Presidents of the ROC Examination Yuan

<i>Tenure</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Born/died</i>	<i>Native province</i>
10/1928—6/1948	Tai Chi-tao 戴季陶 [ <i>Dai Jitao</i> ]	1890-1949	Sichuan
6/1948—11/1949	Chang Po-ling 張伯苓 [ <i>Zhang Boling</i> ]	1876-1951	Tianjin
11/1949—4/1952	Niu Yung-chien 鈕永建 [ <i>Niu Yongjian</i> ]	1870-1965	Jiangsu
4/1952—8/1954	Chia Ching-teh 賈景德 [ <i>Jia Jingde</i> ]	1880-1960	Shanxi
8/1954—6/1966	Mo Teh-hui 莫德惠 [ <i>Mo Dehui</i> ]	1883-1968	Kirin
6/1966—10/1973	Sun Fo 孫科 [ <i>Sun Ke</i> ]	1891-1973	Guangdong
10/1973—8/1978	Yang Liang-kung 楊亮功 [ <i>Yang Lianggong</i> ]	1895-1992	Anhui
8/1978—8/1984	Liu Chi-hung 劉季洪 [ <i>Liu Jihong</i> ]	1904-1989	Jiangsu
8/1984—4/1993	Kung Teh-cheng 孔德成 [ <i>Kong Decheng</i> ]	b. 1920	Shandong
4/1993—9/1996	Chiu Chuang-huan 邱創煥 [ <i>Qiu Chuanghuan</i> ]	b. 1925	Taiwan
9/1996—9/2002	Hsu Shui-teh 許水德 [ <i>Xu Shuide</i> ]	b. 1931	Taiwan
9/2002—	Yao Chia-wen 姚嘉文 [ <i>Yao Jiawen</i> ]	b. 1938	Taiwan

## MINISTRIES AND AGENCIES UNDER THE ROC EXECUTIVE YUAN

### Eight ministries

- Ministry of the Interior (MOI): *neizhengbu* 內政部
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA): *waijiaobu* 外交部
- Ministry of Economic Affairs (MOEA): *jingjibu* 經濟部
- Ministry of Finance (MOF): *caizhengbu* 財政部
- Ministry of Justice (MOJ): *fa'wubu* 法務部
- Ministry of Education (MOE): *jiaoyubu* 教育部
- Ministry of National Defense (MND): *guofangbu* 國防部
- Ministry of Transportation and Communications (MOTC): *jiaotongbu* 交通部

### Twenty-five councils and commissions

- Mainland Affairs Council (MAC): *xingzhengyuan dalu weiyuanhui* 行政院大陸委員會, abbrev. *luweihui* 陸委會
- Central Election Commission (CEC): *xingzhengyuan zhongyang xuanju weiyuanhui* 行政院中央選舉委員會, abbrev. *zhongxuanhui* 中選會
- Consumer Protection Commission (CPC): *xingzhengyuan xiaofeizhe baohu weiyuanhui* 行政院消費者保護委員會, abbrev. *xiaobaohui* 消保會
- Council for Economic Planning and Development (CEPD): *xingzhengyuan jingji jianshe weiyuanhui* 行政院經濟建設委員會, abbrev. *jingjianhui* 經建會

- Council for Cultural Affairs (CCA): *xingzhengyuan wenhua jianshe weiyuanhui* 行政院文化建設委員會, abbrev. *wenjianhui* 文建會
- Council for Hakka Affairs (CHA): *xingzhengyuan kejia weiyuanhui* 行政院客家委員會, abbrev. *ke-weihui* 客委會
- Council for International Economic Cooperation and Development (CIECD): *xingzhengyuan guoji jingji hezuo fazhan weiyuanhui* 行政院國際經濟合作發展委員會
- Council of Agriculture (COA): *xingzhengyuan nongye weiyuanhui* 行政院農業委員會, abbrev. *nong-weihui* 農委會
- Council of Labor Affairs (CLA): *xingzhengyuan laogong weiyuanhui* 行政院勞工委員會, abbrev. *laoweihui* 勞委會
- Council of Indigenous Peoples (CIP), also called Council of Aboriginal Affairs (CAA): *xingzhengyuan yuanzhumin weiyuanhui* 行政院原住民委員會
- Fair Trade Commission (FTC): *xingzhengyuan gongping jiaoyi weiyuanhui* 行政院公平交易委員會, abbrev. *gongpinghui* 公平會 or *gongjiaohui* 公交會
- Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission (MTAC): *mengzang weiyuanhui* 蒙藏委員會
- National Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (NCPFS): *xingzhengyuan tiyu weiyuanhui* 行政院體育委員會, abbrev. *tiweihui* 體委會
- National Science Council (NSC): *xingzhengyuan guojia kexue weiyuanhui* 行政院國家科學委員會, abbrev. *guokehui* 國科會
- Overseas Compatriot Affairs Commission (OCAC), formerly “Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission”: *qiaowu weiyuanhui* 僑務委員會, abbrev. *qiaoweihui* 僑委會
- Veterans Affairs Commission (VAC): *guojun tuichu yiguanbing judao weiyuanhui* 國軍退除役官兵輔導委員會, abbrev. *tuijubui* 退輔會
- Public Construction Commission: *gonggong gongcheng weiyuanhui* 公共工程委員會
- National Youth Commission: *xingzhengyuan qingnian judao weiyuanhui* 行政院青年輔導委員會, abbrev. *qingjubui* 青輔會
- Atomic Energy Council: *xingzhengyuan yuanzineng weiyuanhui* 行政院原子能委員會, abbrev. *yuannenghui* 原能會
- Research, Development and Evaluation Commission (RDEC): *yanjiu fazhan kaohe weiyuanhui* 研究發展考核委員會
- Coordination Council for North American Affairs: *beimei shiwu xietiao weiyuanhui* 北美事務協調委員會
- Financial Supervisory Commission (FSC): *xingzhengyuan jinrong jiandu weiyuanhui* 行政院金融監督委員會
- National Communications Commission (NCC): *guojia tongxun chuanbo weiyuanhui* 國家通訊傳播委員會
- Council for Aviation Safety: *xingzhengyuan feibang anquan weiyuanhui* 行政院飛航安全委員會, abbrev. *feianhui* 飛安會
- 921 Earthquake Post-Disaster Recover Commission: *xingzhengyuan jiueryi zhenzai zaihou chongjian tuidong weiyuanhui* 行政院九二一震災災後重建推動委員會

### Ten other agencies

- Government Information Office (GIO): *xingzhengyuan xinwenju* 行政院新聞局
- Central Personnel Administration (CPA): *xingzhengyuan renshi xingzhengju* 行政院人事行政局
- Department of Health (DOH): *xingzhengyuan weishengshu* 行政院衛生署
- Coast Guard Administration (CGA): *xingzhengyuan haian xunfangshu* 行政院海岸巡防署, abbrev. *haixunshu* 海巡署



Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics (DGBAS): *xingzhengyuan zhujichu* 行政院主計處  
 Environmental Protection Administration (EPA): *xingzhengyuan huanjing baohushu* 行政院環境保護署, abbrev. *huanbaoshu* 環保署  
 Science and Technology Advisory Group (STAG): *xingzhengyuan keji guwenzu* 行政院科技顧問組  
 National Security Bureau (NSB): *guojia anquanju* 國家安全局, abbrev. *guoanju* 國安局  
 Central Bank of China (CBC): *zhongyang yinhang* 中央銀行  
 National Palace Museum (NPM): *guoli gugong bowuyuan* 國立故宮博物院, abbrev. *gugong* 故宮

## COMPLETE ROC ELECTION RESULTS SINCE 1989

(Percentage won by each political party and turnout; \* = seats)

	KMT	DPP	NP	TAIP	PFP	TSU	Other	Turnout
<b>1989 (Dec. 2)</b>								
First Legislative Yuan	71.28	20.08	-	-	-	-	7.92	75.17
*Provincial parliament (77)	54	16	-	-	-	-	7	75.89
County magistrates	52.67	38.34	-	-	-	-	8.99	NA
*Taipei city council (51)	36	14	-	-	-	-	1	69.28
*Kaohsiung city council (43)	29	8	-	-	-	-	6	79.36
<b>1991 (Dec. 21)</b>								
National Assembly	71.17	23.94	-	-	-	-	4.89	68.32
<b>1992 (Dec. 19)</b>								
Second Legislative Yuan	53.02	31.03	-	-	-	-	15.95	72.07
<b>1993 (Nov. 27)</b>								
County magistrates	47.47	41.03	3.07	-	-	-	8.41	70.68
<b>1994 (Dec. 3)</b>								
Provincial governor	56.22	38.72	4.31	-	-	-	0.75	76.15
Provincial parliament	51.03	32.54	3.74	-	-	-	12.69	76.32
Taipei mayor	25.89	43.67	30.17	-	-	-	-	78.53
Kaohsiung mayor	54.46	39.29	3.45	-	-	-	-	80.58
Taipei city council	39.06	30.12	21.72	-	-	-	9.1	78.54
Kaohsiung city council	46.22	24.91	4.83	-	-	-	23.83	80.65
<b>1995 (Dec. 3)</b>								
Third Legislative Yuan	46.06	33.17	12.95	-	-	-	7.82	67.65
<b>1996 (March 23)</b>								
National Assembly	49.68	29.85	13.67	-	-	-	6.8	76
9 <sup>th</sup> President ROC	54.0	21.13	14.9	-	-	-	9.98	76.04
<b>1997 (Nov. 29)</b>								
County magistrates	42.12	43.32	1.42	0.19	-	-	13.14	65.92
<b>1998 (Dec. 5)</b>								
Fourth Legislative Yuan	46.43	29.56	7.06	1.45	-	-	15.5	68.09
Taipei mayor	51.12	45.91	2.97	-	-	-	-	80.2
Kaohsiung mayor	48.13	48.71	0.81	-	-	-	2.35	79.23
Taipei city council	40.08	30.96	18.56	-	-	-	10.4	80.2
Kaohsiung city council	45.18	26.81	3.85	-	-	-	24.16	79.23
<b>2000 (March 18)</b>								
10 <sup>th</sup> President ROC	23.1	39.3	0.13	-	36.83	-	0.62	82.69
<b>2001 (Dec. 1)</b>								
Fifth Legislative Yuan	28.55	33.38	2.61	0.013	18.57	7.76	9.1	66.16
County magistrates	44.92	45.27	0.17	-	2.36	-	7.28	66.45

<b>2002 (Jan. 26)</b>									
County / community councils	35.95	18.19	0.44	-	7.01	1.47	36.94	55.62	
Township heads	45.4	19.92	0.49	-	2.16	0.11	31.92	57.07	
<b>2002 (Dec. 7)</b>									
Taipei mayor	64.10	35.89	-	-	-	-	-	70.61	
Kaohsiung mayor	46.82	50.04	-	-	-	-	3.14	71.38	
Taipei city council	32.08	28.51	9.01	-	17.56	3.71	9.1	70.63	
Kaohsiung city council	25.75	25.02	0.62	-	11.98	6.71	29.88	71.40	
<b>2004 (March 20)</b>									
11 <sup>th</sup> President ROC	49.89	50.11	-	-	-	-	-	80.28	
<b>2004 (Dec. 11)</b>									
Sixth Legislative Yuan	32.83	35.72	0.12	0.02	13.90	7.79	9.62	59.16	
<b>2005 (May 14)</b>									
National Assembly	38.92	42.51	0.88	0.29	6.10	7.04	4.26	23.35	
<b>2005 (Dec. 3)</b>									
County magistrates	50.96	41.95	0.2	-	1.11	1.13	4.65	66.22	
City and county councils	40.21	22.25	0.45	-	3.97	2.34	30.77	66.25	
Township heads	46.46	23.69	-	-	1.08	0.72	28.05	67.04	
<b>2006 (Dec. 9)</b>									
Taipei mayor	53.81	40.89	-	-	-	-	5.3	64.25	
Kaohsiung mayor	49.27	49.41	-	-	-	0.86	0.46	67.93	
Taipei city council	43.65	30.77	5.87	-	6.98	5.12	7.61	64.54	
Kaohsiung city council	35.95	30.49	0.03	-	6.78	5.74	21.01	67.97	
	KMT	DPP	NP	TAIP	PFP	TSU	Other	Turnout	

## RULERS AND GOVERNORS OF TAIWAN SINCE 1624

Taiwan, though inhabited by Austronesian peoples for thousands of years, only became known to the West when Portuguese sailors sighted the island in the 16<sup>th</sup> century and named it *Ilha Formosa* ("beautiful island"). There was no significant Chinese population at that time, but the island was used as a base by Chinese and Japanese pirates.

In the 17<sup>th</sup> century, the Dutch and Spanish established settlements, the Protestant Dutch in southwestern Taiwan in 1624, the Catholic Spanish in northern Taiwan in 1626. In 1646 the Dutch forcibly seized the Spanish settlements but were themselves expelled in 1662 by the Ming naval commander Cheng Ch'eng-kung 鄭成功 (Koxinga 國姓爺). Koxinga tried to use Taiwan as a base to restore the Ming 明 dynasty on the mainland that had fallen after a Manchu invasion in 1644. After the defeat of the Koxinga clan in 1683, Taiwan was made a part of the Manchu empire under the Qing 清 dynasty (1644-1911). It only became a province in its own right two centuries later in 1885, prior to which it was a prefecture (*fu* 府) of Fujian 福建 province.

In 1894, the First Sino-Japanese War broke out, and after China's defeat the Qing government was forced to cede Taiwan and the Pescadores 澎湖 (among other territory) to Japan in the 1895 treaty of Shimonoseki. The last Qing governor declared Taiwan an independent republic. This republic was very short-lived as this declaration was merely a tactical move to fend off the Japanese takeover and not backed by a broad independence movement. Taiwan remained a Japanese colony for half a century, within that period 17 years (1919-1936) were a relatively liberal time with civilian governors (*sotoku* 總督 [*zongdu*]).

After WWII, Taiwan was given back to China according to agreements made by the Allies in Cairo (1943) and Yalta (1945). Since 1945, Taiwan has been a province of the Republic of China (ROC). During the martial law period (1947-1987), Taiwan's governor (*shengzhang* 省長) was

appointed by the ROC premier, but in 1994 the provincial governor was popularly elected. At the end of the 1990s constitutional amendments aimed at structural adjustments and greater government efficiency resulted in the downsizing of the Taiwan provincial government. Since then, many of the units of the provincial government have been recategorized as units of the central government, and the popular elections of the governor and members of the Taiwan Provincial Assembly (*Taiwan sheng yihui* 台灣省議會) were suspended.

## Rulers of Taiwan 1624-1895

### *Dutch Governors of Taiwan 1624-1662*

1624-1625	Maarten Sonck
1625-1627	Gerard Frederiksz de With
1627-1629	Pieter Nuyts
1629-1636	Hans Putmans
1636-1640	Johan van de Burgh
1640-1643	Paulus Traudenius
1643-1644	Maximiliaan Lemaire
1644-1646	François Caron
1646-1649	Pieter Anthonisz Overwater
1649-1653	Nikolaas Verburch
1653-1656	Cornelis Caesar
1656-1661	Frederik Coyett (1 <sup>st</sup> time)
1661	Hermanus Clenk
1661—2/1662	Frederik Coyett (2 <sup>nd</sup> time)

### *Spanish Governors of Taiwan 1626-1642*

1626-1629	Antonio Carreño Valdés
1629-1632	Juan de Alcarazo
1632-1634	Bartolomé Díaz Barrera
1634-1635	Alonso García Romero
1635-1637	Francisco Hernández
1637-1639	Pedro Palomino
1639-1640	Cristóbal Márquez
1640-1642	Gonzalo Portillo

### *Koxinga era 1662-1683*

2/1662—5/1662	Cheng Ch'eng-kung 鄭成功 [ <i>Zheng Chenggong</i> ] = Koxinga 國姓爺 [ <i>Guoxingye</i> ] (from 4/1662: king)—first Chinese ruler of Taiwan, succumbed to disease on Taiwan
5/1662—1662	Cheng Shih-hsi 鄭世襲 [ <i>Zheng Shixi</i> ] = Cheng Hsi 鄭襲 [ <i>Zheng Xi</i> ], backed as Koxinga's heir by generals on Taiwan
1662—2/1681	Cheng Ching 鄭經 [ <i>Zheng Jing</i> ], Koxinga's son, defeated Cheng Hsi's faction
1681	Cheng K'o-tsang 鄭克臧 [ <i>Zheng Kezang</i> ] (acting), eldest son of Cheng Ching
1681—9/1683	Cheng Ko-shuang 鄭克塽 [ <i>Zheng Keshuang</i> ]
1682—1683	Feng Hsi-fan 馮錫範 [ <i>Feng Xifan</i> ] (Regent)

### *Governors (Qing dynasty) 1885-1895*

12/1885—6/1891	Liu Ming-chuan 劉銘傳
1891—1894	Shao Youlian 邵友濂
10/1894—5/1895	T'ang Ching-sung 唐景崧 [ <i>Tang Jingsong</i> ] (acting)

### *Presidents ("Republic of Taiwan") 1895*

5/1895—6/1895	T'ang Ching-sung 唐景崧 [ <i>Tang Jingsong</i> ]
6/1895—10/1895	Liu Yung-fu 劉永福 [ <i>Liu Yongfu</i> ]

## Japanese governors of Taiwan 1895-1945

### *1895-1919: Period of pacification with military governors*

5/1895—6/1896	Admiral Kabayama Sukenori 樺山資紀 [ <i>Huashan Ziji</i> ] (1837-1922)
6/1896—10/1896	Lieutenant General Katsura Taro 桂太郎 [ <i>Gui Tailang</i> ] (1848-1913)
10/1896—2/1898	Lieutenant General Nogi Maresuke 乃木希典 [ <i>Naimu Xidian</i> ] (1849-1912)
2/1898—4/1906	Lieut. Gen. Kodama Gentaro 兒玉源太郎 [ <i>Eryu Yuantailang</i> ] (1852-1906)
4/1906—4/1915	General Sakuma Samata 佐久間左馬太 [ <i>Zuojujian Zuomatai</i> ] (1844-1915)
4/1915—6/1918	General Ando Sadami 安東貞美 [ <i>Andong Zhenmei</i> ] (1853-1932)
6/1918—10/1919	Lieut. Gen. Akashi Motojiro 明石元二郎 [ <i>Mingshi Yuan'erlang</i> ] (1864-1919)

### *1919-1936: Period of assimilation with civilian governors*

10/1919—9/1923	Den Kenjiro 田健治郎 [ <i>Tian Jianzhibilang</i> ] (1853-1930)
9/1923—9/1924	Uchida Kakichi 內田嘉吉 [ <i>Neitian Jiagi</i> ] (1866-1933)
9/1924—7/1926	Izawa Takio 伊澤多喜男 [ <i>Yizheduo Xinan</i> ] (1869-1949)
7/1926—6/1928	Kamiyama Mitsunoshin 上山滿之進 [ <i>Shangshan Manzhujin</i> ] (1869-1938)
6/1928—7/1929	Kawamura Takeji 川村竹治 [ <i>Chuancun Zhubzhi</i> ] (1871-1955)
7/1929—6/1931	Ishizuka Eizo 石塚英藏 [ <i>Shizhong Yingzang</i> ] (1866-1942)
6/1931—3/1932	Ota Masahiro 太田政弘 [ <i>Taitian Zhenghong</i> ] (1870-1951)
3/1932—5/1932	Minami Hiroshi 南弘 [ <i>Nan Hong</i> ] (1869-1946)
5/1932—9/1936	Nakagawa Kenzo 中川健藏 [ <i>Zhongchuan Jianzang</i> ] (1875-1944)

### *1936-1945: Period of subjugation with military governors*

9/1936—11/1940	Admiral Kobayashi Seizo 小林躋造 [ <i>Xiaolin Jizao</i> ] (1877-1962)
11/1940—12/1944	Admiral Hasegawa Kiyoshi 長谷川清 [ <i>Changgu Chuanqing</i> ] (1883-1970)
12/1944—10/1945	General Ando Rikichi 安藤利吉 [ <i>Anteng Liji</i> ] (1884-1946)

## Taiwan provincial governors (ROC) since 1945

<i>Tenure</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Born/died</i>	<i>Native province</i>
9/1945—5/1947	Chen Yi 陳儀	1883-1950	Zhejiang
5/1947—1/1949	Wei Tao-ming 魏道明 [ <i>Wei Daoming</i> ]	1900-1978	Jiangxi
1/1949—12/1949	Chen Cheng 陳誠	1898-1965	Zhejiang
12/1949—4/1953	Wu Kuo-chen 吳國禎 [ <i>Wu Guozhen</i> ]	1903-1984	Hubei
4/1953—6/1954	O. K. Yui 俞鴻鈞 [ <i>Yu Hongjun</i> ]	1897-1960	Guangdong
6/1954—8/1957	Yen Chia-kan 嚴家淦 [ <i>Yan Jiagan</i> ]	1905-1993	Jiangsu
8/1957—12/1962	Chow Chih-jou 周至柔 [ <i>Zhou Zhirou</i> ]	1899-1986	Zhejiang
12/1962—7/1969	Huang Chieh 黃杰 [ <i>Huang Jie</i> ]	1902-1994	Hunan
7/1969—6/1972	Chen Ta-ching 陳大慶 [ <i>Chen Daqing</i> ]	1905-1973	Jiangxi
6/1972—5/1978	Shieh Tung-min 謝東閔 [ <i>Xie Dongmin</i> ]	1907-2001	Taiwan
6/1978—12/1981	Lin Yang-kang 林洋港 [ <i>Lin Yanggang</i> ]	b. 1927	Taiwan
12/1981—5/1984	Lee Teng-hui 李登輝 [ <i>Li Denghui</i> ]	b. 1923	Taiwan
6/1984—6/1990	Chiu Chuang-huan 邱創煥 [ <i>Qiu Chuanghuan</i> ]	b. 1925	Taiwan
6/1990—2/1993	Lien Chan 連戰 [ <i>Lian Zhan</i> ]	b. 1936	Shaanxi/Taiwan
3/1993—12/1994	James Soong 宋楚瑜 [ <i>Song Chuyu</i> ]	b. 1942	Hunan
12/1994—12/1998	James Soong (popularly elected)	”	”

12/1998—5/2000	Chao Shou-po 趙守博 [ <i>Zhao Shoubo</i> ]	b. 1941	Taiwan
5/2000—2/2002	Chang Po-ya 張博雅 [ <i>Zhang Boya</i> ]	b. 1942	Taiwan
2/2002—10/2003	K. C. Fan 范光群 [ <i>Fan Guangqun</i> ]	b. 1939	Taiwan
10/2003—	Lin Kwang-hua 林光華 [ <i>Lin Guanghua</i> ]	b. 1945	Taiwan

## Human rights in China

### PRC (China mainland)

One of the main criticisms of the PRC internationally is that nation's human rights record, some examples of which are as follows:

- use of cruel and inhumane methods to enforce the “one child policy” (see p. 28-29),
- violation of the right to religious freedom (see p. 39-41),
- suppression of political dissent,
- control and censorship of the media and the internet (in its 2006 world press freedom index, the organization “Reporters Without Borders” ranked China 163<sup>rd</sup> out of 168 countries listed, while Taiwan ranked 43<sup>rd</sup>, Hong Kong 58<sup>th</sup>, and Singapore 146<sup>th</sup>),
- forced confessions and torture of prisoners (especially of monks and nuns in Tibet) as well as unfair trials,
- the excessive use of the death penalty.

As for the death penalty, no exact, reliable figures are available, but Amnesty International estimates that 3000 prisoners or more are put to death each year in the PRC (at least 1770 in 2005), adding that the actual number could approach 10,000 (8000 in 2005)—the PRC executes more people than all other states in the world combined. Organs of executed criminals are often harvested for transplantation. Most executions are carried out by gunshot, and a bill for the bullet is sent to the relatives of the delinquent (“bullet fee” [*zidanfei* 子彈費]). Lethal injection has become another option that is used for executions. Sometimes the death penalty is imposed without due process. Crimes punishable by death include non-violent offenses like tax fraud or embezzlement of state property. Hong Kong and Macau have separate judiciaries and local laws and do not have capital punishment.

Besides these issues, there are no independent labor unions, and many workers involved in protests against mass lay-offs, low wages, corrupt management and other issues are detained or imprisoned. The authorities are also taking an increasingly hard line against people protesting against expropriations, evictions and house demolitions, particularly in large cities such as Shanghai and Beijing, where demolitions of old homes have been accelerated by Beijing's preparations for hosting the Olympic Games in 2008, or in the countryside where the authorities confiscate land for infrastructure projects without providing adequate compensation to the people living and working on that land.

### ROC (Taiwan)

Since the death of Chiang Kai-shek 蔣介石 in 1975, the subsequent end of the era of “white terror” (*baise kongbu* 白色恐怖) and the lifting of martial law in 1987, Taiwan has evolved into a fully democratic and pluralistic society. In “Global Press Freedom 2007”, a report published by the New York-based NGO “Freedom House”, Taiwan's press was listed as the freest in Asia. Today, the only significant dark spot on an otherwise clean human rights record is the use of the death penalty, usually carried out by gunshot in the back of the head, although the use of lethal

injection has also been legislated. However, the number of executions has gradually decreased from 32 in 1998 to 0 in 2006 (1999: 24; 2000: 17; 2001: 10; 2002: 9; 2003: 7; 2004: 3; 2005: 3), and in 2005 President Chen Shui-bian 陳水扁 vowed to abolish the death penalty. According to Taiwan's Ministry of Justice, the ROC seeks to further reduce the number of executions and eventually phase out capital punishment in stages. Despite these commitments, there were still more than 20 persons on death row in early 2007.

## Cross-strait relations

### 1949-1987: Hot and cold war

After WWII, Taiwan was returned to China after half a century of Japanese colonial rule. The ROC established a provincial government on the island in 1945, and the central government fled there in 1949 after being defeated in the civil war against the communists. By the early 1950s, the communists had already unsuccessfully attacked Kinmen 金門 and were preparing to invade Taiwan, but the Korean war diverted the military forces of the PRC necessary for an invasion, and Taiwan as well as the offshore islands Kinmen and Matsu 馬祖 were subsequently developed to an anti-communist fortress with substantial help from the US.

Between 1949 and 1987 cross-strait relations were outright hostile. In 1958, the PRC attacked Kinmen and Matsu but failed to conquer them. The PLA continued to shell the islands for many years until it finally stopped the bombardment of Kinmen in 1978. For decades mainland Chinese pilots who defected to Taiwan or hijackers that forced mainland Chinese planes to change course to Taiwan were welcomed as heroes and received cash rewards. China's seat in the UN was occupied by the ROC until 1971 when it was transferred to the PRC. Although the US switched diplomatic recognition to the PRC in 1979, it committed itself to protecting Taiwan with the Taiwan Relations Act. When China launched a united front campaign in 1979, Taipei responded with the "three no's policy" (*sanbu zhenge* 三不政策)—no contacts, no negotiations, no compromise (*bu jiechu, bu tanpan, bu tuoxie* 不接觸，不談判，不妥協).

### 1987-1995: Gradual progress

Things began to change when the ROC lifted martial law in 1987 and allowed its citizens to travel to China for family visits. Since then both sides have developed intensive private, cultural and academic exchanges, and Taiwanese businesspeople have invested billions of US\$ on the mainland. In 1990 the ROC established the National Unification Council (*guojia tongyi weiyuanhui* 國家統一委員會, abbrev. NUC), and in 1991 it lifted the "Temporary Provisions Effective During the Period of the Communist Rebellion" (*dongyuan kanluan shiqi linshi tiaokuan* 動員戡亂時期臨時條款). The latter measure was equivalent to a recognition of the fact that both sides of the Taiwan Strait were under separate rule and were also a statement that the ROC no longer sought to recover the mainland by force.

The respective government agencies responsible for dealing with cross-strait issues are the Taiwan Affairs Office of the State Council (*guowuyuan Taiwan shiwu bangongshi* 國務院台灣事務辦公室) in the PRC and the Mainland Affairs Council under the Executive Yuan (*xingzhengyuan dalu weiyuanhui* 行政院大陸委員會) of the ROC. Since there are still no official contacts, both sides established semi-official organizations to handle cross-strait issues. In 1990, Taiwan founded the "Straits Exchange Foundation" (*haixia jiaoliu jijinhui* 海峽交流基金會 or *haijihui* 海基會, abbrev. SEF); in 1991, the PRC followed suit with the "Association for Relations Across the Taiwan

Straits” (*haixia liang'an guanxi xiehui* 海峽兩岸關係協會 or *haixiehui* 海協會, abbrev. ARATS). Representatives of the two organizations first met in March 1992 in Beijing, a second meeting in October 1992 in Hong Kong ended without agreement, but the Koo-Wang talks in Singapore—named after Koo Chen-fu 辜振甫 (SEF) and Wang Daohan 汪道涵 (ARATS)—made history when three agreements and a joint accord were signed there in 1993.

### Since 1995: Setbacks, intimidation, dashed hopes and deadlock

A series of setbacks began in 1995. Beijing sharply protested the US' decision to grant Taiwan's president Lee Teng-hui 李登輝 a visa to visit Cornell University, his alma mater. Before Taiwan's first direct presidential election in 1996, China held military drills and test-fired guided missiles off Taiwan's coast, prompting the US to dispatch aircraft carriers to the region. A meeting of Koo Chen-fu and Wang Daohan in Shanghai in 1998 failed to ease the tensions significantly, which reached a new climax when Lee Teng-hui introduced the “two-states theory” (*liangguo lun* 兩國論) defining the cross-strait relations as “special state-to-state relations” (*teshude guo yu guo guanxi* 特殊的國與國關係). In 2000, the pro-unification KMT was defeated in the presidential election after having ruled Taiwan for half a century, and power was transferred to Chen Shui-bian 陳水扁 of the DPP.

President Chen Shui-bian's first inauguration speech in 2000 contained his “four no's and one continuity” pledge (*sibu yimeiyou* 四不一沒有), also called “five no's” (*wubu zhengce* 五不政策): Chen vowed that as long as the PRC's authorities did not use military force against Taiwan, during his term of office he would not declare independence, change the national title, push for the inclusion of the two-states theory in the constitution or promote a referendum on the question of independence or unification, and there also was no question of abolishing the NUC and the National Unification Guidelines (*guojia tongyi wangling* 國家統一綱領). Nevertheless, the operations of the NUC were suspended soon after Chen assumed office. The PRC authorities—deeply suspicious about the strongly pro-independence background of the DPP—refused to resume cross-strait dialogue unless the ROC government accepted the “one China principle” (*yige Zhongguo yuanze* 一個中國原則) and on numerous occasions reiterated their resolve to attack Taiwan in case it formally declared independence.

Although the PRC's new leadership centered around Hu Jintao 胡錦濤 and Wen Jiabao 溫家寶, softened its rhetoric towards Taiwan, and President Chen vowed not to declare independence unless Taiwan was attacked by China, cross-strait relations remained in a deadlock. Expectations that the establishment of the “three mini links” (*xiao santong* 小三通) in 2001 with direct trade, transport and postal links between China and the ROC's offshore islands Kinmen and Matsu would be followed by the full three links between the two sides (*santong* 三通) were not met. The three mini links operate under tight restrictions—only residents of Kinmen, Matsu and Penghu, Taiwanese businesspeople with investments on the mainland approved by the ROC's MOE and their employees, veterans hailing from Fujian province, and ROC citizen's spouses from Fujian are entitled to direct travel, as are their next of kin. Hopes were high again after direct charter flights during the Chinese New Year holidays in 2005, but the PRC's “anti-secession law” (*fan fenlie guojia fa* 反分裂國家法) adopted by the National People's Congress soon afterwards has been counter-productive to efforts for an improvement of cross-strait relations.

The visits of outgoing KMT chairman Lien Chan 連戰 and PFP chairman James Soong 宋楚瑜 to the PRC in 2005 that also included high-profile talks with Hu Jintao did not only fail to have a lasting positive effect on cross-strait relations but once again revealed the yawning chasm that exists within Taiwan's society—while the visits were welcomed by many Taiwanese, some of their compatriots were worried about Taiwan being sold out to China. Currently, Chen Shui-bian's

formula “one country on each side” (*yibian yiguo* 一邊一國) seems irreconcilable with James Soong’s notion of “two sides, one country” (*liangbian yiguo* 兩邊一國).

An older Taiwanese formula was “one country, two governments” (*yiguo liangfu* 一國兩府), first mentioned in 1989 as a reaction to that of “one country, two systems” (*yiguo liangzhi* 一國兩制), created by the PRC before the handover of Hong Kong and Macau in 1997 and 1999, respectively. The PRC government has incessantly been promoting the application of “one country, two systems” to Taiwan as well, but that formula has never gained much support in Taiwan.

In 2006, Su Chi 蘇起 admitted that he made up the “1992 consensus” (*jiuer gongshi* 九二共識) in 2000 in order to break the cross-strait deadlock and alleviate tensions. According to the fabricated consensus, the PRC and the ROC had agreed on “one China, with each side having its own interpretation” (*yige Zhongguo, ge zi biao shu* 一個中國, 各自表述, abbrev. *yizhong gebiao* 一中各表) at the end of the 1992 SEF-ARATS meeting in Hong Kong. Before Su’s confession, the consensus was highly controversial in Taiwan—while politicians of the KMT and other parties of the blue camp valued it (as did the CCP), the DPP denied its existence.

Despite his pledge in his first inauguration speech as president in May 2000, Chen Shui-bian in 2006 announced that the NUC would “cease to function” (*zhongzhi yunzuo* 終止運作) and the National Unification Guidelines would “cease to apply” (*zhongzhi shiyong* 終止適用), claiming the PRC’s newly passed anti-secession law had already altered the status quo.

The 2007 controversy surrounding the route of the Olympic torch relay shows that the question of sovereignty remains the central issue in cross-strait relations. While the PRC seems determined not to back down, the demand of the ROC government to have ROC sovereignty recognized is justifiable, reasonable, and appropriate, especially when considering the German example where unification was achieved with prior mutual recognition and both sides having representation in international bodies like the UN and the WHO.

## Outlook

Despite intensive exchanges in recent years the governments of the two sides still harbour a deep mutual distrust. While the unabating independence movement with advocates even in the ROC government causes considerable concern in Beijing, the Taiwanese cannot ignore the military buildup and threats of the Chinese against them nor the suppression of the democracy movement and human rights abuses in China. The PRC government’s tight control of internet content is particularly evident with regard to cross-strait relations: Taiwanese websites are blocked by filters for mainland Chinese users. The lack of credible goodwill gestures by the PRC government towards Taiwan and efforts by the ROC government to promote a separate Taiwanese identity (the DPP even advocates the creation of a “Taiwanese nation”) aren’t helpful either.

Today, prospects of an improvement in relations between China and Taiwan remain dim. To resume negotiations, Taiwan demands that China abolishes its anti-secession law, drops its threat of force against the country, dismantles the hundreds of missiles deployed against Taiwan, ends the diplomatic isolation of the ROC by allowing it into the UN, the WHO and other international bodies, and accepts the ROC as an equal partner at the negotiating table. The PRC, for its part, insists on the one-China principle and rejects the ROC’s statehood. A unification under Beijing’s formula “one country, two systems” seems unlikely as it is highly unpopular in Taiwan, and no major political party in Taiwan would agree to terms for unification that would label Taiwan’s budding democracy with an expiration date.

A remark about “Taiwan independence”: In the discussion about Taiwan’s future the used terminology sometimes is not entirely correct, leading to contradictions. The name of the state



ruling Taiwan is “Republic of China” (*Zhonghua minguo* 中華民國). Although the ROC government correctly states that the ROC is an independent and sovereign country, leading politicians in Taiwan vow not to proclaim independence. Since the ROC has been independent since 1912 and Taiwan belongs to the ROC since 1945, no further independence needs to be declared, so the meaning of Taiwan independence is actually changing the name of the state from “Republic of China” to “Republic of Taiwan” (*Taiwan gongheguo* 台灣共和國).

### Heads of the PRC State Council’s Taiwan Affairs Office (TAO)

1988-1990	Ding Guan’gen 丁關根	b. 1929, Jiangsu
1990-1996	Wang Zhaoguo 王兆國	b. 1941, Hebei
1996—	Chen Yunlin 陳雲林	b. 1941, Liaoning

### Heads of ARATS

1991-2005	Wang Daohan 汪道涵	1915-2005, Anhui (died in office)
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At press time, ARATS had not named a successor for the late Wang Daohan. In April 2006, An Min 安民 (b. 1945, from Shaanxi) replaced Sun Yafu 孫亞夫 (b. 1952, from Shandong) as ARATS deputy chairman.

### Heads of the ROC Executive Yuan’s Mainland Affairs Council (MAC)

1990-1991	Shih Chi-yang 施啟揚 [ <i>Shi Qiyang</i> ]	b. 1935, Taiwan
1991-1994	Huang Kun-huei 黃昆輝 [ <i>Huang Kunhui</i> ]	b. 1936, Taiwan
1994-1996	Vincent Siew 蕭萬長 [ <i>Xiao Wanchang</i> ]	b. 1939, Taiwan
1996-1999	Chang King-yuh 張京育 [ <i>Zhang Jingyu</i> ]	b. 1937, Hunan
1999-2000	Su Chi 蘇起 [ <i>Su Qi</i> ]	b. 1949, Taiwan
2000-2004	Tsai Ying-wen 蔡英文 [ <i>Cai Yingwen</i> ]	b. 1956, Taiwan
2004-2007	Joseph Wu/Wu Jau-hsieh 吳釗燮 [ <i>Wu Zhaoxie</i> ]	b. 1956, Taiwan
2007—	Chen Ming-tong 陳明通	b. 1955, Taiwan

### Heads of SEF

1990-2005	Koo Chen-fu 辜振甫 [ <i>Gu Zhenfu</i> ]	1917-2005, Taiwan (died in office)
2005-2007	Chang Chun-hsiung 張俊雄 [ <i>Zhang Junxiong</i> ]	b. 1938, Taiwan
2007 (acting)	Michael Y. You 游盈隆 [ <i>You Yinglong</i> ]	b. 1956, Taiwan
2007—	Hong Chi-chang 洪奇昌 [ <i>Hong Qichang</i> ]	b. 1951, Taiwan

### Diplomatic competition between the PRC and the ROC

Since the establishment of the PRC in October 1949, the PRC and the ROC have been competing for diplomatic recognition by other nations. In the years after the ROC lost its seat in the United Nations (UN) in October 1971, the remaining of the more significant countries still maintaining ties with the ROC—including the US and Japan—switched diplomatic recognition to the PRC.

Unlike Germany where both of the two German states tolerated the other’s maintaining of official relations with the same states it did (at least in the period between West Germany’s abandonment of the Hallstein Doctrine in the 1960s and German unification in 1990), the PRC immediately severs diplomatic ties with states recognizing the ROC, with the ROC doing likewise

for those recognizing the PRC.

As of June 2007, the ROC had formal diplomatic relations with 24 states: Belize, Burkina Faso, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Gambia, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Kiribati, Malawi, Marshall Islands, Nauru, Nicaragua, Palau, Panama, Paraguay, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, São Tomé and Príncipe, Solomon Islands, Swaziland, Tuvalu, and Vatican/Holy See.

*State; date of establishment of diplomatic relations*

Afghanistan. PRC 1-1955	Burkina Faso. ROC 12-1961—9-1973, PRC 9-1973—2-1994, <b>ROC</b> 2-1994
Albania. PRC 11-1949	Burundi. PRC 12-1963—1-1965, 10-1971
Algeria. PRC 12-1958	Cambodia. PRC 7-1958
Andorra. PRC 6-1994	Cameroon. ROC 2-1960—3-1971, PRC 3-1971
Angola. PRC 1-1983	Canada. ROC 1942—10-1970, PRC 10-1970
Antigua and Barbuda. PRC 1-1983	Cape Verde. PRC 4-1976
Argentina. ROC 6-1945—2-1972, PRC 2-1972	Central African Republic. ROC 4-1962—9-1964, PRC 9-1964—1-1966, ROC 5-1968—8-1976, PRC 8-1976—7-1991, ROC 7-1991—1-1998, PRC 1-1998
Armenia. PRC 4-1992	Chad. ROC 1-1962—11-1972, PRC 11-1972—8-1997, ROC 8-1997—8-2006, PRC 8-2006
Australia. ROC <i>NA</i> —12-1972, PRC 12-1972	Chile. PRC 12-1970
Austria. ROC 10-1913—1917 and 1948—5-1971, PRC 5-1971. (Austria-Hungary had already established ties with Qing China)	Colombia. ROC <i>NA</i> —2-1980, PRC 2-1980
Azerbaijan. PRC 4-1992	Comoros. PRC 11-1975
Bahamas. ROC 1-1989—5-1997, PRC 5-1997	Congo (former Zaire). ROC 10-1960—2-1961, PRC 2-1961
Bahrain. PRC 4-1989	Congo (Brazzaville). ROC 9-1960—4-1964, PRC 2-1964
Bangladesh. PRC 10-1975	Costa Rica. ROC 1944—6-2007, PRC 6-2007
Barbados. ROC 9-1967—5-1977, PRC 5-1977	Cote d'Ivoire. ROC 7-1963—3-1983, PRC 3-1983
Belarus. PRC 1-1992	Croatia. PRC 5-1992
Belgium. ROC 1959—10-1971, PRC 10-1971	Cuba. ROC <i>NA</i> —9-1960, PRC 9-1960. (Cuba had already established ties with Qing China)
Belize. PRC 2-1987—10-1989, <b>ROC</b> 10-1989	Cyprus. ROC 9-1960—12-1971, PRC 12-1971
Benin. ROC 1-1962—4-1965, PRC 11-1964—1-1966, ROC 4-1966—12-1972, PRC 12-1972	Czech Republic. PRC 10-1949 (Czechoslovakia)
Bhutan. —	Denmark. PRC 5-1950
Bolivia. ROC <i>NA</i> —7-1985, PRC 7-1985	Djibouti. PRC 1-1979
Bosnia-Herzegovina. PRC 4-1995	Dominica. ROC 5-1983—3-2004, PRC 3-2004
Botswana. ROC 12-1966—1-1975, PRC 1-1975	
Brazil. ROC <i>NA</i> —8-1974, PRC 8-1974. (Brazil had already established ties with Qing China)	
Brunei. PRC 9-1991	
Bulgaria. PRC 10-1949	

- Dominican Republic. **ROC** 2-1944
- East Timor. PRC 5-2002
- Ecuador. ROC *NA*—11-1971, PRC 1-1980
- Egypt. ROC 1942—5-1956, PRC 5-1956
- El Salvador. **ROC** 1933
- Equatorial Guinea. PRC 10-1970
- Eritrea. PRC 5-1993
- Estonia. PRC 9-1991
- Ethiopia. PRC 11-1970
- Fiji. PRC 11-1975
- Finland. PRC 10-1950
- France. ROC *NA*—1-1964, PRC 1-1964.  
(France had already established ties with Qing China)
- Gabon. ROC 12-1960—4-1974, PRC 4-1974
- Gambia. ROC 11-1969—12-1974, PRC 12-1974—7-1995, **ROC** 7-1995
- Georgia. PRC 6-1992
- Germany. PRC 10-1972 (East Germany: PRC 10-1949)
- Ghana. PRC 7-1960
- Greece. ROC *NA*—6-1972, PRC 6-1972
- Grenada. ROC 7-1989—1-2005, PRC 1-2005
- Guatemala. **ROC** 1960
- Guinea. PRC 10-1959
- Guinea-Bissau. PRC 3-1974—5-1990, ROC 4-1990—4-1998, PRC 4-1998
- Guyana. PRC 6-1972
- Haiti. **ROC** 4-1956
- Honduras. **ROC** 1941
- Hungary. PRC 10-1949
- Iceland. PRC 12-1971
- India. PRC 4-1950
- Indonesia. PRC 4-1950—10-1967, 7-1990
- Iran. ROC 1942—8-1971, PRC 8-1971
- Iraq. PRC 8-1958
- Ireland. PRC 6-1979
- Israel. PRC 1-1992
- Italy. ROC 11-1947—11-1970, PRC 11-1970
- Jamaica. ROC 8-1962—11-1972, PRC 11-1972
- Japan. ROC 4-1952—9-1972, PRC 9-1972
- Jordan. ROC 8-1957—4-1977, PRC 4-1977
- Kazakhstan. PRC 1-1992
- Kenya. PRC 12-1963
- Kiribati. PRC 6-1980—11-2003, **ROC** 11-2003
- Korea (North). PRC 10-1949
- Korea (South). ROC 1949—8-1992, PRC 8-1992
- Kuwait. ROC 11-1963—3-1971, PRC 3-1971
- Kyrgyzstan. PRC 1-1992
- Laos. PRC 4-1961
- Latvia. PRC 9-1991
- Lebanon. PRC 11-1971
- Lesotho. ROC 1966—4-1983, PRC 4-1983—4-1990, ROC 4-1990—1-1994, PRC 1-1994
- Liberia. ROC 8-1957—2-1977, PRC 2-1977—10-1989, ROC 10-1989—10-2003, PRC 10-2003
- Libya. ROC 5-1959—8-1979, PRC 8-1978
- Liechtenstein. PRC 9-1950
- Lithuania. PRC 9-1991
- Luxembourg. PRC 11-1972
- Macedonia. PRC 10-1993—1-1999, ROC 1-1999—6-2001, PRC 6-2001
- Madagascar. ROC 6-1960—11-1972, PRC 11-1972
- Malawi. **ROC** 7-1966
- Malaysia. ROC *NA*—5-1974, PRC 5-1974
- Maldives. ROC 7-1966—10-1972, PRC 10-1972
- Mali. ROC *NA*—10-1960, PRC 10-1960
- Malta. ROC 7-1967—1-1972, PRC 1-1972
- Marshall Islands. PRC 11-1990—11-1998, **ROC** 11-1998
- Mauritania. ROC 11-1960—9-1965, PRC 7-1965
- Mauritius. PRC 4-1972
- Mexico. ROC *NA*—2-1972, PRC 2-1972.  
(Mexico had already established ties with Qing China)
- Micronesia. PRC 9-1989
- Moldova. PRC 1-1992
- Monaco. PRC 1-1995
- Mongolia. PRC 10-1949
- Montenegro. PRC 7-2006
- Morocco. PRC 11-1958
- Mozambique. PRC 6-1975
- Myanmar (Burma). PRC 6-1950
- Namibia. PRC 3-1990
- Nauru. ROC 5-1980—7-2002, PRC

- 7-2002—5-2005, **ROC** 5-2005
- Nepal. PRC 8-1955
- Netherlands. PRC 11-1954 chargé d'affaires, 5-1972 ambassadorial level (suspended 1-1981—2-1984)
- New Zealand. PRC 12-1972
- Nicaragua. ROC 1930—12-1985, PRC 12-1985—11-1990, **ROC** 11-1990
- Niger. ROC 7-1963—7-1974, PRC 7-1974—6-1992, ROC 6-1992—8-1996, PRC 8-1996
- Nigeria. ROC 1960—2-1971, PRC 2-1971
- Norway. PRC 10-1954
- Oman. PRC 5-1978
- Pakistan. PRC 5-1951
- Palau. **ROC** 12-1999
- Palestine. PRC 11-1988
- Panama. **ROC** 1-1912. (Panama had already established ties with Qing China)
- Papua New Guinea. PRC 10-1976
- Paraguay. **ROC** 8-1957
- Peru. ROC *NA*—11-1971, PRC 11-1971. (Peru had already established ties with Qing China)
- Philippines. ROC 1948—6-1975, PRC 6-1975
- Poland. PRC 10-1949
- Portugal. ROC *NA*—1975, PRC 2-1979
- Qatar. PRC 7-1988
- Romania. PRC 10-1949
- Russia. PRC 10-1949 (Soviet Union)
- Rwanda. ROC 7-1962—11-1971, PRC 11-1971
- Saint Kitts and Nevis. **ROC** 8-1984
- Saint Lucia. ROC 5-1984—9-1997, PRC 8-1997—4-2007, **ROC** 4-2007
- Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. **ROC** 8-1981
- Samoa. ROC 5-1972—11-1975, PRC 11-1975
- San Marino. PRC 5-1971
- São Tomé and Príncipe. PRC 7-1975—5-1997, **ROC** 5-1997
- Saudi Arabia. ROC 1946—7-1990, PRC 7-1990
- Senegal. ROC 9-1960—10-1964, PRC 10-1964—7-1968, ROC 7-1968—12-1971, PRC 12-1971—1-1996, ROC 1-1996—10-2005, PRC 10-2005
- Serbia. PRC 1-1955 (Yugoslavia)
- Seychelles. PRC 6-1976
- Sierra Leone. ROC 9-1963—7-1971, PRC 7-1971
- Singapore. PRC 10-1990
- Slovakia. PRC 1-1993 (Czechoslovakia PRC 10-1949)
- Slovenia. PRC 5-1992
- Solomon Islands. **ROC** 3-1983
- Somalia. PRC 12-1960
- South Africa. ROC 5-1976—12-1997, PRC 1-1998
- Spain. ROC 6-1952—3-1973, PRC 3-1973
- Sri Lanka. PRC 2-1957
- Sudan. PRC 2-1959
- Suriname. PRC 5-1976
- Swaziland. **ROC** 9-1968
- Sweden. PRC 5-1950
- Switzerland. PRC 9-1950
- Syria. PRC 8-1956
- Tajikistan. PRC 1-1992
- Tanzania. PRC 12-1961
- Thailand. ROC *NA*—7-1975, PRC 7-1975
- Togo. ROC 4-1960—10-1972, PRC 9-1972
- Tonga. ROC 4-1972—11-1998, PRC 11-1998
- Trinidad and Tobago. PRC 7-1974
- Tunisia. PRC 1-1964
- Turkey. ROC 4-1934—8-1971, PRC 8-1971
- Turkmenistan. PRC 1-1992
- Tuvalu. **ROC** 9-1979
- Uganda. PRC 10-1962
- Ukraine. PRC 1-1992
- United Arab Emirates. PRC 11-1984
- United Kingdom. ROC *NA*—1-1950 (maintained a consulate in Taiwan until 3-1972), PRC 6-1954 chargé d'affaires, 3-1972 ambassadorial level. (The UK had already established ties with Qing China)
- United States of America. ROC 1912—12-1978, PRC 1-1979
- Uruguay. ROC 1966—2-1988, PRC 2-1988
- Uzbekistan. PRC 1-1992
- Vanuatu. PRC 3-1982 (ROC 11-2004—3-2005)

Vatican/Holy See. <b>ROC</b> 1942	Republic of Y. / PRC 1-1968 (South
Venezuela. ROC 8-1944—6-1974, PRC 6-1974	Yemen: Democratic People's Republic of Y.)
Vietnam. PRC 1-1950 (South Vietnam: ROC 12-1955—4-1975)	Zambia. PRC 10-1964
Yemen. PRC 9-1956 (North Yemen: Arabic	Zimbabwe. PRC 4-1980

## Territorial issues

The PRC comprises of 30 Chinese provinces on the east Asian continent, the autonomous regions Tibet 西藏 and Xinjiang 新疆 (which culturally do not belong to China), and the island of Hainan 海南 in the South China Sea 南海. The territory of the PRC does not include Taiwan 台灣, Penghu 澎湖 (Pescadores), Kinmen 金門 (Quemoy) or Matsu 馬祖 (also called Lien-chiang County 連江縣)—these are under the jurisdiction of the ROC.

The PRC regards Taiwan as a “renegade province” (*panlide yi sheng* 叛離的一省) and part of its territory under the “one China” principle (*yige Zhongguo yuanze* 一個中國原則), and the PRC alleges the ROC government seeks to “split the motherland” (*fenlie zuguo* 分裂祖國). This claim is based on the PRC’s statement that with the founding of the PRC in 1949 the ROC ceased to exist. In fact, the institutional integrity of the ROC was not compromised by the KMT’s defeat in the civil war. The ROC—a sovereign, independent state since 1912—still exists today, though the territory it controls is limited to Taiwan Province and two counties of Fujian Province, but the PRC has not exercised control over the areas governed by the ROC for a single day.

China has a land borderline of 22,800 km length, several sections of it disputed. Due to these disputes, the PRC had military conflicts with India and the Soviet Union in the 1960s. China’s relations with India and the USSR/Russia have improved since the late 1980s, and an agreement about the Chinese-Russian borderline was reached in October 2004, but the territorial dispute with India has yet to be settled. The PRC’s brief war with Vietnam in 1979 was a disciplinary measure and not based on substantial territorial claims.

On China’s maritime borders, besides the Taiwan issue the thorniest problem remains the dispute about the Spratly Islands 南沙群島 in the South China Sea 南海, which are claimed in full by the PRC, the ROC, and Vietnam, and claimed in part by Brunei, Malaysia and the Philippines. The dispute about the Diaoyutai islands 釣魚台 in the East China Sea 東海 continues to hurt the relations between China/Taiwan and Japan.

The PRC covers a land area of roughly 9.56 million square kilometers. It is an interesting fact that 2.8 million km<sup>2</sup>—almost 30 percent of the PRC’s total area—is composed of the two autonomous regions Xinjiang (1.6 mio km<sup>2</sup>) and Tibet (1.22 mio km<sup>2</sup>) where *Han*-Chinese are a minority.

## DISPUTED LAND BORDERS OF THE PRC

### India

The Sino-Indian border in the Himalayas has been disputed since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The McMahon Line (*maikemahong xian* 麥克馬洪線) which is almost identical with the Line of Actual Control (*shiji kongzhixian* 實際控制線, abbrev. LoAC) is rejected by the PRC but

regarded as a permanent national border by India. While the PRC and India maintained good relations throughout the 1950s, relations deteriorated after India granted the Dalai Lama asylum in 1959, and the Sino-Soviet split around 1960 further fuelled tensions between the PRC and India because India was a Soviet ally.

In 1962, the PRC and India fought a brief war in the Himalaya region (Jammu Kashmir/Ladakh range) with a favourable result for the PRC. India says the PRC still holds more than 38,000 km<sup>2</sup> of its territory in the Kashmir region (Aksai Chin 阿克賽欽), while Beijing lays claim to a wide swath of territory in India's northeastern state of Arunachal Pradesh, which shares a 1000-km border with Tibet.

Sikkim (*xijin* 錫金, capital: Gangtok 干托 [*gantuo*]), located between Nepal and Bhutan, was an independent principality before being incorporated into India in 1975. The PRC refused to recognize Sikkim as an Indian possession and claimed part of the territory as its own. But in 2003, the PRC removed Sikkim from a government website that showed it to be a part of China, a sign it was moving toward officially recognizing the area as part of India. A visit of PRC's premier Wen Jiabao 溫家寶 in India in April 2005 was aimed at settling border disputes.

### Russia

In 1969 fiery clashes erupted between Soviet forces and the PLA in the area of the Damansky Island (*Zhenbao Dao* 珍寶島) in the Ussuri River (Heilongjiang Province 黑龍江省), and the islets Heixiazi 黑瞎子島 (called "Bolshoi Ussurisky Island" [*da wusuli dao* 大烏蘇里島] in Russian) and Yinlong 銀龍島 (called "Tarabarov Island" [*talabaluofu dao* 塔拉巴羅夫島] in Russian) at the confluence of Amur and Ussuri (also called "Fuyuan triangle" [*fuyuan sanjiaozhou* 撫遠三角洲]) close to Khabarovsk were also contested. The disputes were officially settled at a visit of Russia's President Putin in Beijing in October 2004, with no details about the status of Heixiazi Island being revealed.

During the Qing dynasty (1644-1911) a part of Russia in the Far East belonged to the Chinese empire. Some cities in that region had Chinese names at that time, e. g. Khabarovsk = *Boli* 伯力, Ussurisk = *Shuangchengzi* 雙城子, and Vladivostok = *Haicanwei* 海參崴.

### Mongolia

On ROC maps printed in Taiwan before 2000, Outer Mongolia 外蒙古 is shown as a province of the ROC. In fact, the Mongolian People's Republic was founded in 1924 and became a full member of the UN in 1961. While the PRC and Mongolia signed an agreement about the borders between the two countries in 1962, the ROC government dropped its claim that Outer Mongolia was Chinese territory only in 2002. Before the establishment of the PRC, Mongolia's capital Ulan Bator 烏蘭巴托 [*Wulan Batuo*] was called Kulun 庫倫 in Chinese.

## ISLANDS WITH SOVEREIGNTY CLAIMED BY BOTH THE PRC AND ROC

### South China Sea

The PRATAS ISLANDS 東沙群島 [*dongsba qundao*] are situated in the northern part of the South China Sea halfway between Taiwan's southern tip and Hainan (latitude 20°35' to 20°47' N, longitude 116°40' to 116°55' E). The archipelago's main islets—North Vereker Bank 北衛灘 [*beiweitan*], Pratas Island/Dongsha Atoll 東沙島 [*dongsba dao*], and South Vereker Bank 南衛灘 [*nanweitan*—are claimed by both the PRC and ROC. At high tide, North and South Vereker Bank are completely submerged. The ROC has an outpost on the Dongsha Atoll.

The PARACEL ISLANDS 西沙群島 [*xisha qundao*] (called “Hoang Sa Islands” in Vietnamese) southeast of Hainan (latitude 16°30’ to 16°50’ N, longitude 111°36’ to 112°20’ E) comprise of Bei Jiao 北礁, Dong Dao 東島, Ganquan Dao 甘泉島, Langhua Jiao 浪花礁, Yongxing Dao 永興島 and Zhongjian Dao 中建島, among others, and are claimed by the PRC, ROC, and Vietnam. A South Vietnamese presence there was ousted by a PRC military operation in January 1974, and the Paracel Islands have been controlled entirely by the PRC ever since.

The MACCLESFIELD BANK 中沙群島 [*zhongsha qundao*] (around latitude 15°83’ N and longitude 114°33’ E) lies not far to the southeast of the Paracel Islands. Its islets are Bofu Ansha 波狀暗沙, Haijiu Ansha 海鳩暗沙, Huangyan Dao 黃岩島, Huaxia Ansha 華夏暗沙 and Yinjitān 隱磯灘. They are claimed by both the PRC and the ROC.

The SPRATLY ISLANDS 南沙群島 [*nansha qundao*] (part of the archipelago also called “Mischief Reef” in English and “Kalayaan Islands” in the Philippines) are an archipelago with 104 islets and reefs scattered over a wide area between latitude 7°23’ to 11°27’ N and longitude 109°43’ to 116°43’ E, covering a sea area of about 250,000 km<sup>2</sup>.

They comprise Andutan 安渡灘, Bai Jiao 柏礁, Changsha Dao 長沙島 (called “Truong Sa Lon” in Vietnamese), Danwan Jiao 彈丸礁 (“Swallow Reef”), Haimatan 海馬灘, Huanglu Jiao 皇路礁, Huayang Jiao 華陽礁 (“Cuateron Reef”), Jindun Ansha 金盾暗沙, Liyuetan 禮樂灘, Mahuan Dao 馬歡島, Meiji Jiao 美濟礁 (“Mischief Reef”), Nan’an Jiao 南安礁, Nanhai Jiao 南海礁 (“Mariveles Reef”), Nantong Jiao 南通礁 (“Louisa Reef”), Nanwei Dao 南威島, Shuangzi Qunjiao 雙子群礁 (Beizi Dao 北子島, Nanzi Dao 南子島), Taiping Dao 太平島 (the largest island, also called “Itu Aba” 伊圖阿巴 [Malay for “what’s that?”] or Thai Binh Island), Wan’antan 萬安灘 (“Vanguard Bank”), Xingguangzai Jiao 星光仔礁 (“Ardasier Bank”), Yongshu Jiao 永暑礁 (“Fiery Cross Reef”), Yuya Ansha 榆亞暗沙, Zhongye Dao 中業島 (“Thi Tu Island”), and Zhubi Jiao 渚碧礁 (“Subi Reef”), among many others.

The Spratly Islands have no indigenous inhabitants, amount to less than 5 km<sup>2</sup> of land and lie 460 km east of Vietnam’s central province Khanh Hoa (*qinghe* 慶和). They straddle vital shipping lanes and are believed to sit among vast oil and gas reserves. The Spratly Islands are claimed in total by the PRC, ROC, and Vietnam, and are claimed in part by Brunei, Malaysia and the Philippines. The dispute continues to strain relations between the PRC and Vietnam especially; in March 1988, the PRC took six islands of the group by armed force from Vietnam, and Vietnam built a runway on Changsha Dao in 2004. Malaysia occupies Danwan Jiao and built an airstrip there in September 1991. Brunei claims Nantong Jiao. The ROC has had a garrison on Itu Aba since 1955.

The JAMES SHOAL 曾母暗沙 [*zengmu ansha*] lies southwest of the Spratly Islands off the Malaysian coast (around latitude 4°15’ N, longitude ca. 112° E) and marks the southernmost point of what is claimed by the PRC. The islet is also claimed by Malaysia.

### East China Sea

The DIAOYUTAI ISLANDS 釣魚台群島 [*diaoyutai qundao*] (in Japanese: “Senkaku Islands”/Senkaku shoto 尖閣諸島 [*jian’ge zhudao*] or Senkaku gunto 尖閣群島 [*jian’ge qundao*], also called “Pinnacle Islands” in English) cover an area between latitude 25°44’25” and 25°56’21” N, and longitude 123°30’27” and 124°34’09” E. Since the 1970s their ownership has been strongly contested for by Japan, the PRC, and the ROC and they are believed to lie amid rich oil deposits.

The uninhabited archipelago (listed as part of Okinawa Prefecture 沖繩縣 [*chongsheng xian*] by Japan’s authorities and as part of Tahsi village 大溪里 [*daxi li*], Toucheng township

頭城鎮 [*toucheng zhen*], Ilan county 宜蘭縣 [*yilan xian*] by the ROC authorities) comprises the following eight islands: Beixiao Dao 北小島 (Jap. Kitakojima), Chiwei 赤尾嶼 (Jap. Akao-sho/Taisho-jima 大正島 [*dazheng dao*]), Chongbeiyang 冲北岩, Chongnanyan 冲南岩, Diaoyutai 釣魚台 (Jap. Uotsuri-jima 魚釣島 [*yudiao dao*]), Feilai 飛瀨, Huangwei 黃尾嶼 (Jap. Kobi-sho 久場島 [*jiuchang dao*]), Nanxiao Dao 南小島 (Jap. Minamiko-jima). The westernmost island of the archipelago is Diaoyutai, the easternmost island is Chiwei.

**Distances:** Diaoyutai—Chiwei ca. 100 km, Diaoyutai—Taiwan proper ca. 170-180 km, Diaoyutai—Pengchia 彭佳嶼 [*pengjia yu*]/Mienhua 棉花嶼 [*mianhua yu*] ca. 145 km; Chiwei—Irabu-jima 伊良部島 [*yilangbu dao*]/Tarama-jima 多良間島 [*duolangjian dao*] (Miyako retto 宮古列島 [*gonggu liedao*]) ca. 140 km, Yonakuni-jima 與那國島 [*yunaguo dao*]—Taiwan ca. 110 km.

Other trouble spots in the East China Sea between China's east coast and Japan's southern island chain of Okinawa 沖繩群島 [*chongsheng qundao*] include gas and oil fields like the CHUNXIAO OIL-FIELD 春曉油氣田 [*chunxiao youqitian*], the TIANWAITIAN OILFIELD 天外天油氣田 [*tianwaitian youqitian*] or the PINGHU GAS FIELD 平湖油氣田 [*pinghu youqitian*] close to the maritime border with Japan—Japan claims the PRC also appropriates oil from its territory. Furthermore, the PRC considers OKINOTORISHIMA 衝鳥島 [*chongniao dao*] (“Douglas Reef”, latitude 20°25' N, longitude 136°5' E), which Japan says it is its southernmost point and within the Japanese Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), not an island but simply rocks in the ocean, and keeps surveying the area despite Japan's protests.

Soon after the start of the new millennium, relations between the PRC and Japan gradually began to deteriorate, but the reasons for these growing tensions cannot be reduced to the conflicting territorial claims in the East China Sea. One major factor is the burden of history—the two countries have not yet resolved their disagreement about how to deal with Japan's aggression against China between 1931 and 1945. In particular, Japanese textbooks that downplay or deny Japanese war atrocities as well as visits of Japanese top politicians to Tokyo's controversial Yasukuni shrine (Yasukuni Jinja 靖國神社 [*jingguo shenshe*])—a site that honors Japan's war dead that also, since 1978, has included 14 Class A war criminals who were executed for war crimes committed in China and elsewhere—have prevented an improvement in Sino-Japanese relations. Today both countries have strong nationalistic tendencies and are striving for a dominant political position in the Asia-Pacific region. In this context the Japanese regard the PRC's ongoing military buildup as an increasing threat. What is more, both countries need to secure the supply of energy resources for their energy-hungry economies. While in the 1980s the PRC was a net oil exporter, its rapid economic development resulted in a growing demand for imported oil and gas. For these reasons the overlapping territorial claims and disputed energy resources in the East China Sea might become a focal point of conflict between the PRC and Japan in the decades ahead.

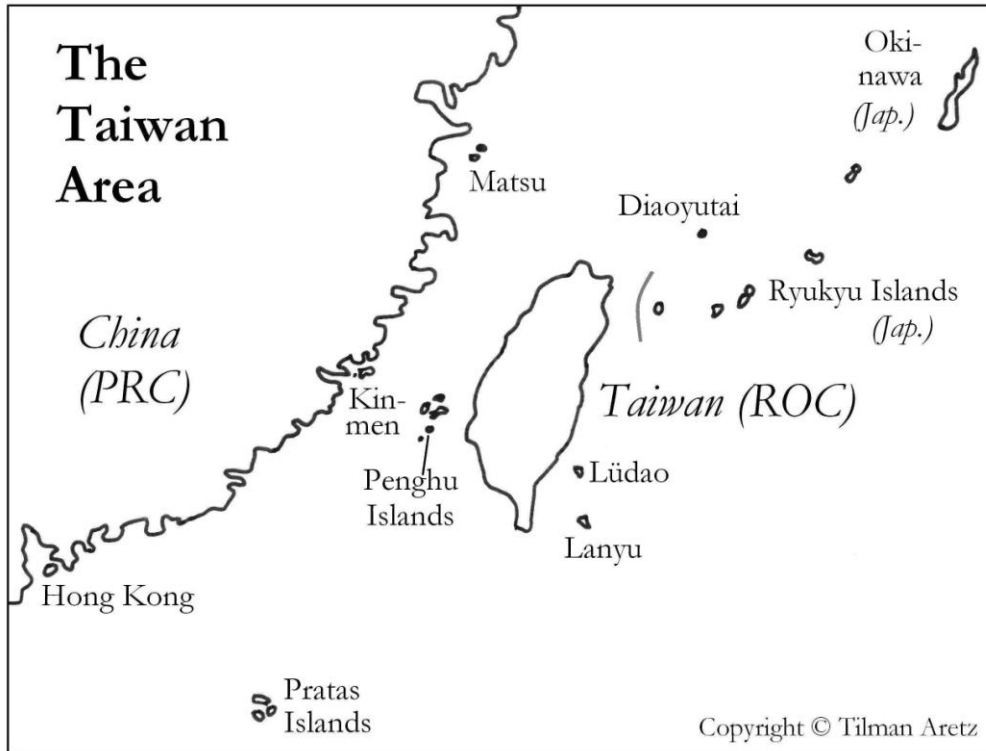
## ISLANDS UNDER THE EFFECTIVE CONTROL OF THE ROC

- Taiwan 台灣 [*taiwan*] <35,879 km<sup>2</sup>>
- Pescadores/Penghu 澎湖群島 [*penghu qundao*] <total 141 km<sup>2</sup>> (including Makung 馬公 [*magong*] <64.24 km<sup>2</sup>>, Hsiyu 西嶼 [*xiyu*] = Yuweng 漁翁島 [*yuweng dao*] <18.2 km<sup>2</sup>>, Paisha 白沙島 [*baisha*] <14.11 km<sup>2</sup>>, Chimei 七美 [*qimei*] <6.99 km<sup>2</sup>>, as well as Mao Yu 貓嶼 [*maoyu*], Pachao Yu 八罩嶼 [*bazhao yu*], Wang'an 望安 [*wang'an*], et al.)
- Other islands close to Taiwan proper: Green Island/Lüdao 綠島 [*liudao*] <15.1 km<sup>2</sup>>, Huaping Yu 花瓶嶼 <3.08 ha>, Turtle Mountain Island/Kuishan Island 龜山島 [*guishan dao*]



<2.841 km<sup>2</sup>>, Liuchiu Island 琉球嶼 [*liuqiu yu*] <6.8 km<sup>2</sup>>, Mienhua Yu 棉花嶼 [*mianhua yu*] <0.13 km<sup>2</sup>>, Orchid Island/Lanyu 蘭嶼 [*lanyu*] <48.38 km<sup>2</sup>>, and Pengchia Yu 彭佳嶼 [*pengjia yu*] <114 ha>

- Kinmen/Quemoy 金門 [*jinmen*] <total 150.34 km<sup>2</sup>> (including Kinmen Island 金門島 [*jinmen dao*] <134.25 km<sup>2</sup>>, Little Kinmen 小金門 [*xiao jinmen*] <14.85 km<sup>2</sup>>, as well as Ertan Island 二擔島 [*ertan dao*], Menghuyu 猛虎嶼 [*menghuyu*], Shihyu 獅嶼 [*shiyu*], Ta-tan Island 大擔島 [*dadan dao*], et al.)
- Matsu 馬祖 [*mazu*] <total 29.52 km<sup>2</sup>> (including Nankan 南竿 [*nangan*] <10.43 km<sup>2</sup>>, Peikan 北竿 [*beigan*] <8.86 km<sup>2</sup>>, Tungyin Island 東引島 [*dongyin dao*] <4.35 km<sup>2</sup>>, Dongjyu 東莒 [*dongzhu*] <2.63 km<sup>2</sup>>, Sijyu 西莒 [*xizhu*] <2.36 km<sup>2</sup>>, et al.)
- Other (mostly uninhabited) islets in the Taiwan Straits: Paichuan 白犬列島 [*baiquan liedao*], Peiting Island 北碇島 [*beiding dao*], Tungting Island 東碇島 [*dongding dao*], and Wuchiu 烏坵 [*wuqiu*] = Wu-chiu Yu 烏丘嶼 [*wuqiu yu*]



# China's economy

Since 1949, Mainland China and Taiwan have taken different paths to economic development. The PRC adopted a socialist system with a planned economy, while the ROC maintained a capitalist market economy.

## Important abbreviations

CPI = Consumer Price Index (*xiaofeizhe wujia zhibu* 消費者物價指數)

GDP = Gross Domestic Product (*guonei shengchan zongzhi* 國內生產總值)

GNI = Gross National Income (*guomin zongshouru* 國民總收入)

GNP = Gross National Product (*guomin shengchan zongzhi* 國民生產總值)

GRP = Gross Regional Product (*diqu shengchan zongzhi* 地區生產總值)

## China (PRC)

### Economic development

During the first decade after the establishment of the PRC, its focus was on collectivization of agriculture and development of heavy industry in a Soviet-style system of planned economy. After economic experiments like the Great Leap Forward (*dayuejin* 大躍進) failed with disastrous consequences, production declined dramatically causing widespread famine that claimed millions of lives, especially during the “three bitter years” (*sannian kunnan shiqi* 三年困難時期) between 1959 and 1961. The state of the PRC's economy remained dire during the Cultural Revolution (*wenhua dageming* 文化大革命), and it was not before the death of Mao Zedong 毛澤東, the arrest of the Gang of Four (*sirenbang* 四人幫), and the adoption of a more pragmatic approach by Deng Xiaoping 鄧小平 that the situation started to improve. While some of the state monopolies were eliminated, the state-owned enterprises (SOEs) maintained a dominant position, and the Five-Year Plans (*wunian jihua* 五年計劃) are still an important part of the PRC's economic policy. However, after the Communists began to encourage the development of the private sector, the PRC's economy transformed to a *de facto* capitalist system under supervision of the state. The Chinese Communists call this unique form of socialism “Socialism with Chinese characteristics” (*juyou Zhongguo tese de shehui zhuyi* 具有中國特色的社會主義).

Since the late 1980s, China's rigid economic system has been liberalized significantly and attracted huge amounts of foreign investment, especially from Taiwan. In October 1992, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party declared the PRC's economy to be a “socialist market economy” (*shehui zhuyi shichang jingji* 社會主義市場經濟). The rapid economic growth the nation experienced beginning in the 1990s allowed for comprehensive improvements to be made regarding China's infrastructure. The PRC has benefited immensely from the free trade brought about by its admission to the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002 and became “the factory and workshop” of the world, which occurred also thanks to the nation's proactive entrepreneurial spirit and vast cheap human resources available. Today, the world is being flooded with goods “Made in China”, especially textiles, sneakers and other shoes, toys, and household electronics, but the PRC is also striving to become a global player in the areas of automobile and commercial passenger airplane production.

The breathtaking pace of the PRC's economic development prompted the government to take steps against an overheating of the economy. While the PRC government seeks to curb or at least control growth, it also pushes for economic expansion to overseas markets and promotes the takeover of foreign companies by Chinese enterprises, especially in the areas of raw materials and resources, logistics, electronics, telecommunications, and finance. The nation's growing foreign exchange reserves give the Communist government not only economic power but also increasing political influence.

To some degree China's export-led growth is causing international concern since it is generating a huge trade surplus, and the trade imbalance is stirring up protectionist pressures in the US and the EU, which in 2005 both were negotiating deals to curb China's textile exports. Another result of the PRC's success as an exporter to the world are its massive foreign exchange reserves, which exceeded US\$ 1 trillion in late 2006. As the PRC has mainly invested its foreign currency reserves in long-term US Treasury bonds and other US government securities, it is gaining some degree of influence over the US economy. The low prices of the PRC's exports have also led to growing international pressure on the PRC government to appreciate the RMB which had been pegged to the US\$ since 1995—according to international finance experts the RMB is undervalued, making Chinese exports artificially cheap, which damages other countries' trade balances. In July 2005, the PRC changed its fixed exchange rate policy with a 2 percent revaluation of the RMB, allowing a daily fluctuation of 0.3 percent against a basket of other currencies, including the Japanese Yen and the British Pound. Although Western economies continue to urge the PRC to make further moves to raise the value of the RMB, the Chinese authorities have been reluctant to make further currency moves, fearing that it might destabilize foreign investment or diminish exports and economic growth.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) said in 2005 that more emphasis needs to be placed on consumption rather than investment. Investment makes up 45 percent of China's entire economic output with only 55 percent going on consumption, double or triple the pattern in large industrialised countries. The bulk of Chinese investment is financed internally—over half of investment is reinvestment by state-owned firms, which do not distribute any of their profits to investors, while another 20 percent comes from bank loans. According to the IMF, only 4 percent of investment is foreign capital.

A major problem is that due to the high speed of development the supply of energy, resources, and infrastructure can hardly keep up with the demand. Power shortages and disruptions are frequent nuisances that plague consumers and manufacturers alike, so construction of new power plants is a top priority of the PRC government. Although the PRC is also pushing for the development of renewable energy sources like hydropower (e. g. the controversial Three Gorges dam [*sanxia daba* 三峡大坝]), solar energy, wind power and biomass, the emphasis of development is still on nuclear power and fossil fuels like oil, natural gas, and coal as well as on raising energy efficiency. To secure a sufficient supply of oil and gas, Beijing is intensifying its cooperation with resource-rich Third World countries, some of them ruled by authoritarian regimes. By 2005, the PRC had turned from a non oil-importing country to the world's number two oil importer, a change that took less than 15 years. Coal has long been the most important energy source on the Chinese mainland (in 2003, coal comprised more than 60 percent of primary energy consumption), but the PRC is now striving to use coal more efficiently. The biggest supplier of coal to the PRC are its domestic mines, many of which are operated under low safety standards to keep costs low, resulting in frequent accidents that kill thousands of miners each year (for instance, 6027 deaths in 2004). The economy's huge demand for resources and raw materials also started to have an effect on world markets by pushing up prices for crude oil, steel, copper,

and other goods.

Rapid economic development has also taken its toll in the environment, with pollution of air and rivers having already triggered local protests. About 70 percent of China's rivers and surface water are considered polluted. According to the World Bank, 16 of the 20 cities with the worst air pollution worldwide are located in the PRC. Although the PRC's per capita emissions are just one-sixth of those of the US, in terms of absolute greenhouse gas emissions the PRC is closing in rapidly on the US as the world's biggest polluter and according to estimates might overtake the US as early as the end of 2007. The PRC's livestock facilities with their low sanitary standards are regarded as a hotbed for diseases like bird flu and SARS. Other important issues that need to be addressed by the PRC's government are the protection of intellectual property against piracy, the cracking down on counterfeits of brand name products, and the upgrading of poor food safety standards.

Furthermore, the remarkable success story of the PRC's economy has come with a hefty social price, because transforming the huge, inefficient SOEs into profitable and competitive companies could not be achieved without laying off obsolete workers on a large scale. Though the average standard of living has been rising, China is now facing the problem of mounting unemployment. Those stripped of their "iron rice bowls" (*tie fanwan* 鐵飯碗) make up the bulk of some 120 million migrant workers (*nongmingong* 農民工) wandering through the country in search of a job. These migrant workers have been deprived of social benefits and have no rights. Another consequence of the PRC's economic development is the growing income gap—according to a Xinhua News Agency report in 2005, one-fifth of the population earned 50 percent of the total income, while the bottom one-fifth received only 4.7 percent. Both the plight of the migrant workers and the income gap carry with them the danger of social unrest. It is also clear that the PRC government needs to do more to distribute the wealth from rich to poor, and from the cities to the countryside: in 2005, urban annual income averaged US\$ 1000, while rural annual income averages only US\$ 300. The PRC government is well aware of the increasing dangers of such stark economic disparities in the country and addressed the issue during the 4<sup>th</sup> plenary session of the Tenth National People's Congress in 2006, vowing to help the poor, narrow the wealth gap, reduce taxes for peasants, and boost rural education. Despite its remarkable progress in the past two decades China must still be categorized as a developing country.

### Natural resources

Mainland China is a country with abundant natural resources. It has the world's largest resources of antimony, molybdenum, rare earth, titanium, tungsten, vanadium, and coal, it also possesses large reserves of asbestos, copper, iron, lead-zinc, mercury, nickel, phosphorus, sulphur, silver, and tin.

Coal—total reserve of more than 1.36 billion metric tons, the largest in the world. The deposits in the provinces Shaanxi, Henan, Shandong, Inner Mongolia, and Hebei account for a large proportion, but most other Chinese provinces have coal deposits as well. The mining industry of the PRC with its 24,000 mines supplies 70 percent of the country's energy resource needs but is regarded as the deadliest in the world.

Oil—China abounds in crude oil, natural gas, and oil shale. With a total of 159.5 million metric tons, China's oil reserves are the 8<sup>th</sup> largest in the world. Oil deposits are mainly found in the northwest, northeast, and north parts of the country, as well as in the continental shelves of east China.

Iron—a total of about 45.7 billion metric tons are deposited mostly in the northeast, the north, and the southwest. However, most of China’s iron ore (total 246 million metric tons) contains only an average of 33 percent of iron, which is considered low.

Non-ferrous metals—tungsten, tin, antimony, and manganese are the major non-ferrous metals found in China, and are deposited mainly in the southeast. Other non-ferrous metals found in China include copper, aluminium, stibium, molybdenum, lead, zinc, and mercury.

### Main agricultural products

Rice, wheat, potatoes, corn; peanuts, tea, millet, barley, apples, cotton, silk cocoons, oilseed; pork, poultry, fish.

### Main industries

Mining and ore processing, iron, steel, aluminum, and other metals; coal; machine building; armaments; textiles and apparel; petroleum; cement; chemicals; fertilizers; consumer products, including footwear, toys, and electronics; food processing; transportation equipment, including automobiles, rail cars and locomotives, ships, and aircraft; telecommunications equipment, commercial space launch vehicles and satellites.

### List of Five-Year Plans

I 1953–1957	II .....1958–1962	III .....1966–1970	IV ..... 1971–1975
V 1976–1980	VI .....1981–1985	VII .....1986–1990	VIII .....1991–1995
IX 1996–2000	X .....2001–2005	XI .....2006–2010	

### China’s economic indicators

Year	GNI (billion Yuan RMB)	GDP (billion Yuan RMB)	Per capita GDP (Yuan RMB)	GDP by industry (%)		
				1 <sup>ST</sup> SECTOR	2 <sup>ND</sup> SECTOR	3 <sup>RD</sup> SECTOR
1980	454.56	454.56	463	29.9	48.2	21.9
1981	488.95	489.16	492	31.6	46.1	22.3
1982	533.05	532.34	528	33.1	44.8	22.1
1983	598.56	596.27	583	32.9	44.4	22.7
1984	724.38	720.81	695	31.8	43.1	25.1
1985	904.07	901.60	858	28.2	42.9	28.9
1986	1027.44	1027.52	963	26.9	43.7	29.4
1987	1205.06	1205.86	1112	26.6	43.5	29.9
1988	1503.68	1504.28	1366	25.5	43.8	30.7
1989	1700.09	1699.23	1519	24.9	42.9	32.2
1990	1871.83	1866.78	1644	26.9	41.3	31.8
1991	2182.62	2178.15	1893	24.3	41.8	33.9
1992	2693.73	2692.35	2311	21.5	43.5	35.0
1993	3526.00	3533.39	2998	19.5	46.6	33.9
1994	4810.85	4819.79	4044	19.6	46.6	33.8
1995	5981.05	6079.37	5046	19.8	47.2	33.0
1996	7014.25	7117.66	5846	19.5	47.5	33.0
1997	7765.31	7897.30	6420	18.1	47.5	34.4
1998	8302.43	8440.23	6796	17.3	46.2	36.5
1999	8818.90	8967.71	7159	16.2	45.8	38.0
2000	9800.05	9921.46	7858	14.8	45.9	39.3
2001	10,806.82	10,965.52	8622	14.1	45.2	40.7
2002	11,909.57	12,033.27	9398	13.5	44.8	41.7

2003	13,517.40	13,582.28	10,542	12.6	46.0	41.4
2004	15,958.67	15,987.83	12,336	13.1	46.2	40.7
2005	18,395.61	18,308.48	14,040	12.6	47.5	39.9

Year	GDP real annual growth (%)	Change CPI (%)	Foreign exchange reserves (minus gold, billion US\$)	Imports (billion US\$)	Exports (billion US\$)	Unemployment rate (%)
1980	7.8	[6.0]	2.5	20.02	18.12	4.9
1981	5.2	[2.4]	5.1	22.02	22.01	3.8
1982	9.1	[1.9]	11.3	19.29	22.32	3.2
1983	10.9	[1.5]	15.0	21.39	22.23	2.3
1984	15.2	[2.8]	17.4	27.41	26.14	1.9
1985	13.5	9.3	12.7	42.25	27.35	1.8
1986	8.8	6.5	11.5	42.91	30.94	2.0
1987	11.6	7.3	16.3	43.21	39.44	2.0
1988	11.3	18.8	18.5	55.27	47.52	2.0
1989	4.1	18.0	18.0	59.14	52.54	2.6
1990	3.8	3.1	29.6	53.35	62.09	2.5
1991	9.2	3.4	43.7	63.79	71.91	2.3
1992	14.2	6.4	20.6*	80.59	84.94	2.3
1993	13.5	14.7	22.4	103.96	91.74	2.6
1994	12.6	24.1	52.9	115.61	121.01	2.8
1995	10.5	17.1	75.4	132.08	148.78	2.9
1996	9.6	8.3	107.0	138.83	151.05	3.0
1997	8.8	2.8	142.8	142.37	182.79	3.0
1998	7.8	-0.8	149.2	140.24	183.71	3.1
1999	7.1	-1.4	146.2	165.70	194.93	3.1
2000	8.0	0.4	165.6	225.09	249.20	3.1
2001	8.3	0.7	212.2	243.55	266.10	3.6
2002	9.1	-0.8	286.4	295.17	325.60	4.0
2003	10.0	1.2	403.3	412.76	438.23	4.3
2004	10.1	3.9	609.9	561.23	593.32	4.2
2005	9.9	1.8	818.9	659.95	761.95	4.2

\* The 1992 foreign exchange reserves figure is lower than the 1991 figure because reserves were redefined in 1992 to exclude foreign-exchange deposits of state-owned entities as well as those of the Bank of China. (Chinability.com)

**Note:** All editions of the China Statistical Yearbook since 1994 have listed CPI figures from the year 1985 only, while the editions from 1992 and before have listed a National Retail Price Index (*quanguo lingshou wujia zong zhisu* 全國零售物價總指數) instead of CPI. Figures in the National Retail Price Index 1985-1991 vary slightly from their respective CPI figures, so the 1980-1984 figures in this table are Overall Price Indices, 1985-2004 figures are CPI. The unemployment rate statistics are as per those of the International Labor Organization (ILO), the real unemployment rate could be much higher, but there are no official or reliable figures available (i. e. figures that can be verified).

**Sources:** China Statistical Yearbook 2006 (2005, 1998, 1994, 1992, 1949-1989); GDP growth and foreign exchange reserves: Chinability.com; unemployment rate: ILO

## Energy statistics

Year	Power generation				Power consumption (%)	
	Total (mil. kWb)	Hydropower (%)	Thermal Power (%)	Nuclear Power (%)	Industry	Residential/ Commercial
1980	300,630	19.36	80.63	—	92.77	7.22
1985	410,690	22.49	77.5	—	89.17	10.82
1990	621,200	20.39	79.6	—	86.11	13.88
1995	1,007,730	18.91	79.81	1.27	83.82	16.17
2000	1,355,600	16.4	82.19	1.23	77.8	22.19
2005	2,500,260	15.88	81.88	2.12	78.55	21.44

**Note:** The two figures under “power consumption” include the following sectors—industry: farming, forestry, animal husbandry, fishery and water conservancy; industry; construction; residential/commercial: transport, storage and post; wholesale, retail trade and hotel, restaurants; others; residential consumption. [Sources: China Statistical Yearbooks 1998, 2005, 2006]

## Taiwan (ROC)

### Economic development

After WWII, Taiwan received economic aid from the US. A successful land reform program entitled “land to the tiller” (*gengzhe you qi tian* 耕者有其田) contributed to the development of agriculture in the 1950s. Despite maintaining a capitalist economy, in the early post-war decades the ROC government played a significant role in the country’s economy with monopolies and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in areas like agriculture, industry, transportation, telecommunications and postal services, energy, banking and others, often in industries that required more capital than the private sector could provide.

As a small island, Taiwan soon discovered its reliance on foreign trade and exports for economic growth. In the 1960s Taiwan started to export processed foods like canned mushrooms, asparagus, and pineapples, as well as fresh bananas. The following industrialization of the island focused first on textiles and cheap low-tech products, and then moving to OEM manufacturing for overseas companies. Small and medium enterprises (SME) have long been the engine of Taiwan’s economic growth. In the last two decades, Taiwan’s economic mainstay shifted from heavy to light industries, from labor-intensive manufacturing to capital- and technology-intensive product development, and from OEM to ODM and OBM.

In 1980, Taiwan’s first science-based industrial park was founded in Hsinchu. Today, Taiwan is a leading producer of semiconductors, information technology (IT) products, telecommunications technology, and optoelectronics. The country invests heavily in R&D, high-tech, biotechnology, nanotechnology, and other promising areas, although a substantial part of R&D is government-funded—in 2006, government funding accounted for about 34 percent of Taiwan’s total R&D expenditures. Private initiative in R&D is still a rather minor factor in the big picture.

Agriculture has been moving to high-end production as well, because after Taiwan’s admission to the WTO in 2002 import restrictions had to be liberalized. This as a result caused many Taiwanese food crops to lose their competitive edge on the domestic market. Since then, Taiwan’s farmers have resorted to the production of cash crops like tea, fruits, and exotic flowers (especially orchids).

Having shifted from an agricultural society to an industrialized society in the 1960s and 1970s, Taiwan’s economy is now in another transitional period, striving to change itself from an

industrial manufacturing base to a high-tech and service economy and a R&D center for future technologies. Another important goal on Taiwan's agenda is economic liberalization and further development of the financial sector. For better progress on both issues, the government in 1989 started an ongoing campaign for the privatization of SOEs, also deemed necessary in order to prepare Taiwan for admission to the WTO. Since the 1990s, many former SOEs have been transformed into viable private enterprises.

Economic development in Taiwan led to rising average incomes and growing labor costs, threatening Taiwan's competitiveness as a manufacturing base. Since the 1990s, many Taiwanese manufacturers have been relocating their factories to countries with lower production costs, mostly to mainland China but also to countries in Southeast Asia. In 1992, the ROC government legalized investment in the mainland by Taiwan businesses but banned single-investment projects with capital of over US\$ 50 million. After the transfer of power from the KMT to the DPP, the ROC government lifted the ban on single-investment projects with capital of over US\$ 50 million and imposed an investment ceiling on mainland Chinese investments from Taiwanese companies of 40 percent of their net worth instead. Nevertheless, cross-strait economic ties have become very close (according to the Taiwan Statistical Data Book 2005, in that year more than 67 percent of Taiwan's overseas investments have been in China), and Taiwan today is economically dependent on its political arch-rival.

The ROC government has been trying to shift the focus of investment away from mainland China, first with the "no haste, be patient" policy (*jiē jī yǒng rěn, xíng wēn zhì yuǎn* 戒急用忍, 行穩致遠) introduced by president Lee Teng-hui 李登輝 in 1996. That policy was replaced by "active opening, effective management" (*jī jī kāi fàng, yǒu xiào guǎn lǐ* 積極開放、有效管理), introduced after the multi-partisan Economic Development Advisory Conference (*jīng jī fā zhǎn zī xún wēi yuán huì* 經濟發展諮詢委員會 = *jīng fā huì* 經發會, abbrev. EDAC) in 2001, but in 2006 president Chen Shui-bian 陳水扁 announced that cross-strait economic and trade policies would be tightened with "active management, effective opening" (*jī jī guǎn lǐ, yǒu xiào kāi fàng* 積極管理、有效開放) being the order of the day.

### Natural resources

Most of the few mineral resources of the island (coal, natural gas, gold, silver) were depleted decades ago, other minerals and metals: marble, limestone, dolomite, copper, asbestos.

### Main agricultural products

Vegetables, corn, fruits, flowers, tea, rice, sugarcane, and betel nuts; pigs, poultry, and dairy cattle; fish and other aquatic products.

### Main industries

Information technology (IT), computer hardware and semiconductors, telecommunications technology, optoelectronics, electrical machinery, mechanical appliances, textiles, plastics, transportation equipment, iron and steel, precision instruments, and chemicals.

### Taiwan's economic indicators

Year	GNP (billion US\$)	Per capita GNP (US\$)	GDP (billion US\$)	GDP by industry (%)		
				AGRICULTURE	INDUSTRY	SERVICES
1980	42.227	2394	42.285	7.5	43.5	49.0
1981	49.025	2728	49.288	7.1	42.9	50.0
1982	49.588	2710	49.606	7.5	41.8	50.6
1983	53.561	2880	53.479	7.1	42.8	50.1



1984	61.025	3233	60.384	6.2	43.8	50.0
1985	64.444	3368	63.409	5.6	43.8	50.6
1986	78.794	4071	76.929	5.4	44.8	49.8
1987	105.59	5397	103.52	5.2	44.5	50.3
1988	128.877	6513	125.789	4.9	42.3	52.8
1989	156.148	7805	152.724	4.8	39.6	55.7
1990	168.416	8325	164.513	4.0	38.4	57.6
1991	188.633	9222	184.267	3.7	38.0	58.3
1992	223.516	10,822	218.712	3.5	36.9	59.7
1993	235.239	11,283	230.926	3.5	35.9	60.6
1994	256.287	12,184	252.227	3.4	34.2	62.4
1995	277.99	13,103	273.792	3.3	32.8	63.9
1996	293.303	13,714	289.315	3.1	32.4	64.5
1997	303.127	14,048	300.005	2.4	31.9	65.7
1998	278.154	12,773	276.105	2.4	31.2	66.4
1999	301.562	13,737	298.757	2.4	29.9	67.7
2000	325.698	14,721	321.23	2.0	29.1	68.9
2001	297.374	13,348	291.694	1.9	27.6	70.5
2002	301.816	13,476	294.803	1.8	27.6	70.7
2003	309.34	13,752	299.785	1.7	26.6	71.8
2004	333.422	14,770	322.179	1.7	25.6	72.7
2005	355.009	15,676	345.862	1.8	24.6	73.6

<i>Year</i>	<b>Economic growth rate (%)</b>	<b>Change CPI (%)</b>	<b>Foreign exchange reserves (billion US\$)</b>	<b>Imports (billion US\$)</b>	<b>Exports (billion US\$)</b>	<b>Unemployment rate (%)</b>
1980	7.4	19.0	2.205	19.733	19.811	1.23
1981	6.2	16.3	7.235	21.2	22.611	1.36
1982	3.5	3.0	8.532	18.888	22.204	2.14
1983	8.3	1.4	11.859	20.287	25.123	2.71
1984	10.7	-0.04	15.664	21.959	30.456	2.45
1985	5.0	-0.2	22.556	20.102	30.726	2.91
1986	11.5	0.7	46.31	24.181	39.862	2.66
1987	12.7	0.5	76.748	34.983	53.679	1.97
1988	8.0	1.3	73.897	49.673	60.667	1.69
1989	8.5	4.4	73.224	52.265	66.304	1.57
1990	5.7	4.1	72.441	54.716	67.214	1.67
1991	7.6	3.6	82.405	62.861	76.178	1.51
1992	7.9	4.5	82.306	72.007	81.47	1.51
1993	6.9	2.9	83.573	77.061	85.091	1.45
1994	7.4	4.1	92.454	85.349	93.049	1.56
1995	6.5	3.7	90.31	103.55	111.659	1.79
1996	6.3	3.1	88.038	102.37	115.942	2.6
1997	6.6	0.9	83.502	114.425	122.081	2.72
1998	4.6	1.7	90.341	104.665	110.582	2.69
1999	5.8	0.2	106.2	110.69	121.591	2.92
2000	5.8	1.3	106.742	140.011	148.321	2.99
2001	-2.2	-0.01	122.211	107.237	122.866	4.57
2002	4.3	-0.2	161.656	112.53	130.597	5.17
2003	3.4	-0.3	206.632	127.249	144.18	4.99
2004	6.1	1.6	241.738	167.89	174.014	4.44

<b>2005</b>	4.1	2.3	253.29	181.606	189.394	4.13
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*Note:* Source of these figures is the Taiwan Statistical Data Book 2006. GDP and GNP are listed “at current prices”, the economic growth rate “at 2001 prices”.

### Energy statistics

Year	Power generation				Power consumption (%)	
	Total (mil. kWb)	Hydropower (%)	Thermal Power (%)	Nuclear Power (%)	Industry	Residential/ Commercial
1980	40,813	7.1	73.7	19.2	75.9	24.1
1985	52,556	13.1	34.5	52.4	72.9	27.1
1990	82,350	9.9	51.8	38.3	69.7	30.3
1995	117,859	7.5	63.7	28.8	65.4	34.6
2000	156,511	5.7	70.7	23.6	66.5	33.5
2005	189,663	4.2	75.6	20.2	67.1	32.9

## Quantification of the economies in Greater China and Singapore

In 2005, according to the CIA World Factbook 2006, among the 193 economies of the world, the ranking in terms of GDP size in US\$ was as follows: China 2<sup>nd</sup>, Taiwan 17<sup>th</sup>, Singapore 54<sup>th</sup>. In the 2005 fifth annual A. T. Kearney/FOREIGN POLICY Globalization Index, Singapore ranked 1<sup>st</sup>, Taiwan 36<sup>th</sup> and China 54<sup>th</sup> among 62 graded countries.

In the 2006 Bribe Payers Index (BPI) of 30 exporting nations, published by Transparency International (TI), Singapore ranked 12<sup>th</sup> (6.78), Hong Kong 18<sup>th</sup> (6.01), Taiwan 26<sup>th</sup> (5.41) and China 29<sup>th</sup> (4.94); a score of 10 indicates a perception of no corruption. The ranking in TI's Corruption Perception Index (CPI) 2006 with 163 listed countries was as follows: Singapore 5<sup>th</sup>, (9.4), Hong Kong 15<sup>th</sup> (8.3), Taiwan 34<sup>th</sup> (5.9), and China 70<sup>th</sup> (3.3).

In the 2006 Index of Economic Freedom (IEF), published by the Heritage Foundation, Hong Kong was ranked first among 157 graded countries with a score of 1.28, Singapore ranked second (1.56), Taiwan 37<sup>th</sup> (2.38), and China 111<sup>th</sup> (3.34). The IEF has four categories—free (score 1–1.99), mostly free (score 2–2.99), mostly unfree (score 3–3.99), and repressed (score 4–5).

### IEF—past scores

Year	China	Taiwan	Hong Kong	Singapore
1995	3.78	2.21	1.51	1.68
1996	3.78	2.18	1.50	1.63
1997	3.73	2.16	1.54	1.68
1998	3.69	2.29	1.40	1.54
1999	3.56	2.14	1.51	1.54
2000	3.49	2.03	1.40	1.59

Year	China	Taiwan	Hong Kong	Singapore
2001	3.55	2.23	1.29	1.66
2002	3.56	2.38	1.39	1.69
2003	3.49	2.34	1.44	1.61
2004	3.59	2.48	1.34	1.61
2005	3.51	2.34	1.35	1.60
2006	3.34	2.38	1.28	1.56

**Ranking of total GRP/GDP and per capita GRP/GDP in Greater China's provinces and Singapore (2005)**

Rank	Province/country	Total GDP/GRP (billion US\$)	Province/country	Per capita GDP/GRP (US\$)
1	Taiwan 台灣	345.862	Singapore	26,892
2	Guangdong 廣東	272.653	Hong Kong 香港	25,622
3	Shandong 山東	225.724	Macau 澳門	24,274
4	Jiangsu 江蘇	223.150	Taiwan 台灣	15,676
5	Hong Kong 香港	177.7	Shanghai 上海	6276.20
6	Zhejiang 浙江	163.810	Beijing 北京	5458.06
7	Henan 河南	129.063	Tianjin 天津	4321.57
8	Hebei 河北	123.073	Zhejiang 浙江	3344.42
9	Singapore	116.760	Jiangsu 江蘇	2985.28
10	Shanghai 上海	111.591	Guangdong 廣東	2965.55
11	Liaoning 遼寧	97.631	Shandong 山東	2440.78
12	Sichuan 四川	90.026	Liaoning 遼寧	2312.98
13	Beijing 北京	83.945	Fujian 福建	2265.23
14	Fujian 福建	80.076	Inner Mongolia 內蒙古	1990.23
15	Hubei 湖北	79.482	Hebei 河北	1796.42
16	Hunan 湖南	79.374	Heilongjiang 黑龍江	1758.79
17	Heilongjiang 黑龍江	67.186	Jilin 吉林	1624.85
18	Anhui 安徽	65.523	Xinjiang 新疆	1579.35
19	Shanxi 山西	50.949	Shanxi 山西	1518.59
20	Guangxi 廣西	49.684	Hubei 湖北	1391.97
21	Jiangxi 江西	49.452	Henan 河南	1375.93
22	Inner Mongolia 內蒙古	47.487	Chongqing 重慶	1337.70
23	Tianjin 天津	45.074	Hainan 海南	1317.02
24	Shaanxi 陝西	44.807	Hunan 湖南	1254.72
25	Jilin 吉林	44.131	Ningxia 寧夏	1239.59
26	Yunnan 雲南	42.335	Qinghai 青海	1219.70
27	Chongqing 重慶	37.429	Shaanxi 陝西	1204.48
28	Xinjiang 新疆	31.745	Jiangxi 江西	1147.11
29	Guizhou 貴州	24.125	Tibet 西藏	1105.41
30	Gansu 甘肅	23.575	Sichuan 四川	1096.27
31	Macau 澳門	11.56	Anhui 安徽	1070.63
32	Hainan 海南	10.905	Guangxi 廣西	1066.18
33	Ningxia 寧夏	7.388	Yunnan 雲南	951.34
34	Qinghai 青海	6.623	Gansu 甘肅	908.82
35	Tibet 西藏	3.062	Guizhou 貴州	646.78

**Note:** The figures for Hong Kong, Macau and Singapore are GDP/per capita GDP, for Taiwan GDP/per capita GNP, all others GRP/per capita GRP.

## Banking and finance

### CHINA (PRC)

#### 1949-1979: Monobank system

After the establishment of the PRC, the Communist government nationalized the banking system in the 1950s, making it a monobank system with the People's Bank of China (*Zhongguo renmin yinhang* 中國人民銀行, abbrev. PBoC, est. 1948) at its core. Private banks and monetary institutes were closed or merged with PBoC. The PBoC operated *de facto* as a central bank, but its main purpose was to finance the PRC's production plans, and although it was also responsible for commercial banking operations, it was not a commercial entity conforming to the laws of a market economy. It issued currency and extended loans, but it had no authority to decide on loans, as that was done by the planning authority.

In other financial areas, after 1949 the trade in stocks and securities in Shanghai was terminated by the Communists. The smaller stock exchanges in Beijing and Tianjin were closed in 1952, and any kind of transaction in stocks and securities in the PRC ended in 1959. The People's Insurance Company of China (*Zhongguo renmin baoxian gongsi* 中國人民保險公司, abbrev. PICC) was established in 1949 and was in charge of all insurance business, both domestically and abroad. Domestic business was stopped in 1959 because the Communists believed that in a socialist society insurance was no longer necessary.

#### Since 1979: On the modernization path

After the death of Mao Zedong in 1976 and Deng Xiaoping's subsequent rise to power, China witnessed a major policy shift that also brought radical changes in the banking and financial sectors. China's banking reform has been part of the institutional reform aimed at transforming the PRC's planned economy into a market economy. In 1984, the PBoC was officially transformed into a central bank and stopped handling credit and savings business. Although the PBoC has been modelled after the US' Federal Reserve Bank, it lacks the independent authority exercised by the Federal Reserve Bank, and it's part of the executive branch of the PRC government. Today, the PBoC's objectives are: formulate and carry out monetary policy, improve macroeconomic regulation, and exercise control over financial enterprises and markets. The PBoC determines the money supply, interest rates, and exchange rates in order to maintain price stability and promote economic growth.

The PBoC's commercial functions were split into four independent but state-owned banks, the so-called "specialized banks" (*zhuanyeye yinhang* 專業銀行): Bank of China (*Zhongguo yinhang* 中國銀行, est. 1912, the oldest bank in China), Construction Bank of China (*Zhongguo jianshe yinhang* 中國建設銀行, est. 1954), Agricultural Bank of China (*Zhongguo nongye yinhang* 中國農業銀行, est. 1955/1964), and Industrial and Commercial Bank of China (*Zhongguo gongshang yinhang* 中國工商銀行, abbrev. ICBC, est. 1984). The three older banks operated like departments of the PBoC or of the Ministry of Finance before the reform process started. Credit by the four specialized banks was extended often as a result of political pressure, mostly to state-owned enterprises (SOEs), leading to an increase in the money supply and sometimes inflation (1985, 1988, 1993). At the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the four banks had a high rate of non-performing loans (NPL), most of which had gone to SOEs. It is comparatively difficult for private businesses to receive loans in the PRC.

After the PRC government became aware of the problem, it reacted with the establishment of three so-called “policy banks” (*zhengcexing yinhang* 政策性銀行) in 1994: Agricultural Development Bank of China (*Zhongguo nongye fazhan yinhang* 中國農業發展銀行), State Development Bank (*guojia kaifa yinhang* 國家開發銀行), and China Import and Export Bank (*Zhongguo jinchukou yinhang* 中國進出口銀行). These banks are tasked with financing special industrial development projects, providing loans to state enterprises for the purpose of carrying out particular economic development policies, and relieving the four state-owned banks of political pressure to extend credit. To deal with the NPL problem, four asset management companies (AMC) were founded, one for each of the specialized banks, and the three policy banks are trying to force receivers of subsidies to become economically viable.

Two important laws were enacted in 1995: the Law on the PBoC (*Zhongguo renmin yinhangfa* 中國人民銀行法) on March 18, and the Commercial Bank Law (*shangye yinhangfa* 商業銀行法) on May 10, both of which were aimed at changing China’s banks into modern banks, responsible for their own profits and losses. The PRC government set up several organizations for supervision and regulation of the banking and financial sectors, most notably the China Banking Regulatory Commission (*Zhongguo yinhangye jian du guan li wei yuan hui* 中國銀行業監督管理委員會, abbrev. CBRC), China Securities Regulatory Commission (*Zhongguo zhengquan jian du guan li wei yuan hui* 中國證券監督管理委員會, abbrev. CSRC), and China Insurance Regulatory Commission (*Zhongguo baoxian jian du guan li wei yuan hui* 中國保險監督管理委員會, abbrev. CIRC).

Today the PRC has basically formed a financial system under the regulation, control, and supervision of the central bank. The PRC government is bolstering its efforts to bring the banking system up to the requirements of the globalized market economy, but progress is still too slow due to bureaucratic resistance—the big four specialized banks are still state-owned and its managers, many of whom received their posts thanks to good connections rather than expertise, often think and act more like bureaucrats than like businessmen. The PRC’s banking system remains burdened by excessive lending to SOEs, lack of attention to credit risk, and weak internal controls. The government uses control mechanisms like credit quotas and changes of interest rates, and the PBoC monitors the commercial banks to prevent them from being commercially irresponsible. To improve human resources, the PRC government made efforts to invite outside experts to come to China and train staff of the PBoC and commercial banks. Another sign that Chinese banks seem to be serious about commercialization is the step of issuing shares on the Hong Kong Stock Exchange—since 2005 the Construction Bank of China, the Bank of China, the China Merchants Bank (*zhaoshang yinhang* 招商銀行, abbrev. CMB), the ICBC and the China CITIC Bank (*Zhongguo guoji xintuo touzi yinhang* 中國國際信託投資銀行) have raised billions of dollars through Initial Public Offerings (IPO).

An example of the PRC government’s determination to commercialize the finance sector was the Guangdong International Trust and Investment Corporation (*Guangdong guoji xintuo touzi gongsi* 廣東國際信託投資公司, abbrev. GITIC), an independent investment company. When GITIC ran into serious financial trouble during the Asian financial crisis in 1998, the central government and the Guangdong provincial government let GITIC go bankrupt in order to show that GITIC was an independent company responsible for its own business and the government would not bail it out during a crisis.

When the PRC joined the WTO in 2002, Beijing promised to deregulate its banking sector to the extent that—at least in principle—foreign lenders could do RMB business with any client anywhere in China. In late 2006, the PRC announced new rules allowing foreign banks into its long-protected retail banking market. According to these rules, investments by individual foreign banks in its lenders are limited to 20 percent of total equity, with the total for all foreign invest-

ments in any single bank capped at 25 percent. Foreign competitors are required to incorporate locally with capitalization as high as RMB 1 billion if they want to provide local-currency and retail banking services to individual Chinese customers. Banks that fail to incorporate locally cannot take deposits of less than RMB 1 million.

The financial reforms in the PRC were not limited to the banking sector but also included other areas like stock market, insurance companies, securities trade, etc. In 1990, the Shanghai Stock Exchange (*Shanghai zhengquan jiaoyisuo* 上海證券交易所) was reopened, and in 1991 the Shenzhen Stock Exchange (*Shenzhen zhengquan jiaoyisuo* 深圳證券交易所) was established. Two kinds of shares are traded there—A shares, which are exclusively sold to Chinese nationals, and B shares, which are denominated in RMB but traded and purchased in foreign currency exclusively by foreigners. Besides, there exist “H shares” which are foreign shares issued by enterprises incorporated in the PRC, primarily listed in Hong Kong and traded in HK\$. In 2001 the PRC government allowed Chinese citizens to use foreign currencies to buy B shares in Shanghai and Shenzhen. The Chinese stock market plays an important role in the reform of state-owned enterprises’ ownership and corporate governance structure. Today the stock markets of the PRC have gained significant international influence which became evident in February/March 2007 when major world markets tumbled after the Shanghai Composite Index (*Shanghai zonghe zhibshu* 上海綜合指數) fell nearly 9 percent in one day (Feb. 27).

In the insurance business the PICC was revived as an administrative unit in 1981, in 1996 it was transformed into a holding company with three specialized companies under it. The holding company was disbanded in 1998, and the three companies of the group were renamed as independent companies—China Life Insurance (*Zhongguo rensbou baoxian gongsi* 中國人壽保險公司), China Property Insurance (*Zhongguo caixian youxian gongsi* 中國財險有限公司), and China Re-insurance (*Zhongguo zaibaoxian gongsi* 中國再保險公司). The PRC Insurance Law (*Zhonghua renmin gongheguo baoxianfa* 中華人民共和國保險法) was adopted in 1995. The insurance business in mainland China is experiencing rapid growth, and the market has been opened to foreign enterprises as well, a development that received a boost with the PRC’s accession to the WTO in 2002.

## HONG KONG SAR

Thanks to its modern banking sector, Hong Kong (HK) today is one of the most important financial centers in Asia. The finance business has a long tradition in HK and started when the territory was still under British rule. The first major banks in HK, the Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation (*Xianggang Shanghai huifeng yinhang youxian gongsi* 香港上海匯豐銀行有限公司, est. 1865) and Standard Chartered Bank (*chada yinhang* 渣打銀行, est. 1853 in London under the name “Chartered Bank”), were established to finance trade between Asia and Europe. These two banks also printed HK\$ banknotes since the 19<sup>th</sup> century, in 1994 being joined in this by the Bank of China, Hong Kong branch (*Zhongguo yinhang [Xianggang]* 中國銀行[香港]). During the 1970s, HK’s banking sector started its rise to regional significance. The international orientation of HK’s banks was intensified by the PRC’s economic reforms and opening. At the turn of the millenium HK had the highest concentration of banks in the world. Major foreign players are the Bank of China (*Zhongguo yinhang* 中國銀行) and several Japanese banks.

HK’s banking system is characterized by its 3-tier system, which is formed by three types of banking institutions, namely licensed banks, restricted licensed banks, and deposit-taking companies, which are authorised to take deposits from the general public. A non-discriminatory low tax regime has greatly contributed to the success of HK’s banking and financial services

economy. HK's central bank is the Hong Kong Monetary Authority (*Xianggang jinrong guanliju* 香港金融管理局, abbrev. HKMA), established in 1993. It is independent from the PBoC, and although the two monetary systems will remain separate, there will also be close cooperation between the HKMA and the PBoC.

Since the handover in 1997 when HK became a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of the PRC, HK's financial sector has been able to keep its autonomy as promised in the agreement between the UK and the PRC in 1984. Nevertheless, moves towards greater banking integration between the SAR and the mainland are obvious, part of the ongoing initiative to deepen economic ties between the two sides. The mainland is a major export market for HK's banking services. In 2004, a Closer Economic Partnership Arrangement (CEPA) between the PRC and HK went into effect, according to which HK banks were allowed to open a branch on the mainland if they have total assets of US\$ 6 billion or more, significantly lower than the entrance requirement under WTO commitments. This effectively allowed nearly all eight medium-size HK banks to enter the PRC market, and for those who already had branches, to expand their network nationwide. Furthermore, first steps have been taken towards HK becoming an offshore RMB trading center, although tight restrictions will remain on the PRC's currency in HK, and interest rates on RMB deposits will be higher than those on the HK\$, reflecting the rate of interest on the mainland.

Another important segment of HK's financial sector is the Hong Kong Stock Exchange (*Xianggang jiaoyisuo* 香港交易所), founded in 1891 under the name "Association of Stockbrokers" (*Xianggang jingji xiehui* 香港經紀協會) and renamed in 1914. Its Hang Seng Index (*hengsheng zhibu* 恆生指數, abbrev. HSI) is one of the most important stock market indices in Asia. The rapid growth of HK's economy led to the establishment of three new exchanges: Far East Exchange (*yuandong jiaoyisuo* 遠東交易所, est. 1969), Kam Ngan Stock Exchange (*jinyin zhengquan jiaoyisuo* 金銀證券交易所, est. 1971), and Kowloon Stock Exchange (*Jiulong zhengquan jiaoyisuo* 九龍證券交易所, est. 1972). The four stock exchanges were combined to create a unified stock exchange in 1986. HK's stock exchange is important for many mainland Chinese enterprises as well. In general, HK serves the PRC as a model for market regulation. Compared with China and Taiwan, HK has an edge especially in areas like investment and insurance.

## TAIWAN (ROC)

Many of the local banks operating in Taiwan today were founded on the mainland before the civil war between the Nationalists and the Communists (1945-1949), but some banks were founded by the Japanese when the island was a Japanese colony (1895-1945). The Chinese banks moved to Taiwan with the defeated Nationalists when they fled the mainland at the end of the war. Several state-controlled specialized banks like Chiao Tung Bank (*jiaotong yinhang* 交通銀行), Farmers Bank of China (*nongye yinhang* 農民銀行), and others were established during the 1950s and 1960s. The Central Bank of China (*zhongyang yinhang* 中央銀行, abbrev. CBC, est. in 1924 in Guangzhou), replaced the Bank of Taiwan (*Taiwan yinhang* 台灣銀行, abbrev. BOT, est. in 1946) as the central bank in 1961, but NT\$ banknotes were issued by the BOT until 2000 when the CBC took over.

Before the liberalization of Taiwan's banking system it was kept under tight government control as a state monopoly. Restructuring of the ROC's financial system finally began in 1987, and after the Banking Law (*yinhangfa* 銀行法) was revised in 1989, an impressive series of new laws and regulations as well as a revision of existing laws followed.

The task of financial supervision was formerly split among three agencies of the Ministry of Finance (*caizhengbu* 財政部, abbrev. MOF), namely the Bureau of Monetary Affairs (*jinrongju* 金融局, abbrev. BOMA), Securities and Futures Commission (*zhengquan ji qibuo guanli weiyuanhui* 證券暨期貨管理委員會, abbrev. SFC), and the Department of Insurance (*baoxiansi* 保險司). In 2004, the Financial Supervisory Commission (*jinrong jiandu guanli weiyuanhui* 金融監督管理委員會, abbrev. FSC) under the Executive Yuan (*xingzhengyuan* 行政院) was formally established and tasked with the continual promotion of domestic financial reform. As a cabinet-level agency, the commission undertakes the supervision and examination of the banking, securities, futures, financial holdings, and insurance industries.

The Taiwan Stock Exchange (*Taiwan zhengquan jiaoyisuo* 台灣證券交易所, abbrev. TSE) was formally established in 1961 and started business several months later in 1962. Its significance was however limited, because registration of foreign companies was allowed only in 1997. The TSE experienced a major crash in 1990 when its index fell from an all-time high of 12,495 points in February to 2560 points in October, a drop of 79.5 percent. Taiwan's insurance business had an earlier start—in the first decades after 1945, it developed under the initiative and control of the government, and in the 1960s incentives for the establishment of private insurance companies were given. In 1987, the first US insurance company received a license to operate in Taiwan, and the financial liberalization of the 1990s also included the insurance business.

In the initial phase of financial reform, numerous regulations that were intended to make the sector sound actually prevented banks from reaching a globally competitive scale. In the overcrowded market, fierce competition seriously impaired the banks' ability to increase profits, leading to a soaring non-performing loan (NPL) rate, especially among the grassroots credit cooperatives and the credit departments of the farmers' and fishermen's associations. Hence, regulating some areas while deregulating others has been the most important task of financial restructuring in Taiwan.

To deal with the NPL problem, the ROC government reduced taxes and encouraged banks to use savings to write off bad loans. It also set up a Financial Restructuring Fund (*jinrong chongjian jijin* 金融重建基金) aimed at cleaning up grassroots financial organizations with high levels of NPL, and the FSC has ordered banks to publicly identify customers who have defaulted on loans exceeding NT\$ 100 million. As a result, some of Taiwan's banks have been able to improve their NPL ratio, and although the credit departments of farmers' and fishermen's associations were able to significantly lower their average overdue loan ratio from their peak of 19.33 percent at the end of 2001 to under 8 percent in early 2007, their ratio was still much higher than the bad debt ratio of 41 local banks which was below 2.5 percent in early 2007. Another factor often overlooked for the bad debt problem of some banks is the growing number of individuals unable to pay their credit and cash card debts. The FSC estimated that there were about half a million indebted cardholders with an average indebtedness of about NT\$ 500,000 at the end of 2005, which suggests that the bad consumer debt issue is still some way from being resolved.

Since 2000, several new important laws like the Financial Institutions Merger Act (*jinrong jigou hebingfa* 金融機構合併法), the Resolution Trust Corporation (RTC) Act (*jinrong chongjian jijin tiaoli* 金融重建基金條例), and the Financial Holding Company Act (*jinrong konggu gongsifa* 金融控股公司法) have been enacted to restructure the financial market and strengthen the competitiveness of enterprises. These developments indicated that the government was determined and committed to solving the NPL problem and modernizing Taiwan's financial sector to match those of more advanced countries. Despite undeniable progress a lot has still to be done to raise the global competitiveness of Taiwan's financial sector and reach the goal of transforming Taiwan into an Asia-Pacific investment, financial management, and service center.



The government keeps encouraging financial institutions to merge, and several financial holding companies have been founded, but since regulations on foreign capital have been gradually relaxed as well, competition increased after international enterprises entered the market. Many Taiwanese holding companies are not yet competitive enough because they are too small. As the financial sectors in HK and Singapore demonstrate, size does matter in this sector, so the ROC government recommends that the number of companies should be further reduced through mergers and acquisitions. Taiwan also encourages foreign financial companies to invest in local banks or acquire them.

Since the start of banking reform, many new private commercial banks and other financial businesses have been established, and the market has been opened to foreign banks as well. According to a poll conducted by the Washington-based Heritage Foundation at the end of 2005, Taiwan's market share held by foreign banks remained small (below 3 percent). There are still several state-controlled banks in Taiwan, and privatization has become a big issue on the government's financial policies agenda.

Another important issue is the deadlock in the area of financial integration between the PRC and the ROC. While the economic relations between Taiwan and China have become very close, the political tensions between the two sides have been detrimental to progress in cross-strait banking. As the two sides lack a memorandum of understanding on financial supervision, Taiwanese banks so far are only allowed to establish representative offices in the PRC, and mainland Chinese banks still may not open branches in Taiwan.

## MAJOR CURRENCIES IN GREATER CHINA AND ASIA

People's Republic of China—Renminbi/RMB (*renminbi* 人民幣), 1 Yuan 元 RMB = 10 Jiao 角 or 10 Mao 毛 = 100 Fen 分

Hong Kong—Hong Kong Dollar/HK\$ (*gangbi* 港幣), 1 HK\$ = 100 cents

Macau—Pataca/M\$ (*aomenbi* 澳門幣), 1 M\$ = 100 Avos

Republic of China (Taiwan)—New Taiwan Dollar/NT\$ (*xin tai bi* 新台幣)

Singapore—Singapore Dollar/S\$ (*xinjiapo yuan* 新加坡元), 1 S\$ = 100 Cents

Japan—Yen/¥ (*riyuan* 日圓)

South Korea—Won (*yuan* 圓), 1 Won = 100 Jeon (*qian* 錢)

Vietnam—Dong (*dun* 盾), 1 Dong = 10 Hao (*jiao* 角) = 100 Xu (*fen* 分)

### Exchange rates—Asian currencies against the US\$ since 1993

Year	1 US\$ = RMB			1 US\$ = HK\$		
	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1993	5.80125	5.7668	5.8100	7.73608	7.7190	7.7795
1994	8.57533	5.7855	8.7100	7.72929	7.7165	7.7530
1995	8.35051	8.2716	8.4462	7.73630	7.7200	7.7720
1996	8.31416	8.2966	8.3355	7.73485	7.7280	7.7447
1997	8.28978	8.2700	8.2983	7.74319	7.6100	7.7570
1998	8.27894	8.2740	8.2801	7.74691	7.7250	7.7503
1999	8.27609	8.2371	8.2803	7.75944	7.7420	7.7751
2000	8.27921	8.2768	8.2803	7.79230	7.7720	7.8002
2001	8.28041	8.2369	8.2870	7.79971	7.7930	7.8039
2002	8.28691	8.2569	8.2873	7.79979	7.6794	7.8272
2003	8.28715	8.2570	8.2876	7.78853	7.6886	7.8931

2004	<b>8.28723</b>	8.2365	8.2874
2005	<b>8.20329</b>	8.0566	8.2865
2006	<b>7.98189</b>	7.7845	8.0715

<b>7.78925</b>	7.7511	7.8063
<b>7.77788</b>	7.7431	7.8116
<b>7.76895</b>	7.7502	7.7946

<b>1 US\$ = Pataca (M\$)</b>			
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1993	NA	NA	NA
1994	NA	NA	NA
1995	<b>7.98822</b>	7.9872	7.9900
1996	<b>7.98997</b>	7.9863	8.0055
1997	<b>7.99394</b>	7.9000	8.0073
1998	<b>8.00170</b>	7.9500	8.0062
1999	<b>7.99172</b>	7.9128	8.0305
2000	<b>8.01045</b>	7.9705	8.0451
2001	<b>8.11188</b>	7.3931	8.3723
2002	<b>8.33476</b>	8.0988	8.4037
2003	<b>8.28369</b>	8.2051	8.3303
2004	<b>8.24521</b>	8.1406	8.2891
2005	<b>8.32710</b>	7.5759	8.3571
2006	<b>8.32397</b>	8.24430	8.41480

<b>1 US\$ = NT\$</b>		
<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
<b>26.80743</b>	25.820	26.930
<b>26.46244</b>	25.920	27.150
<b>26.49397</b>	25.010	27.497
<b>27.46026</b>	27.060	27.960
<b>28.71918</b>	26.550	33.481
<b>33.49656</b>	31.750	35.200
<b>32.31913</b>	30.000	33.290
<b>31.26272</b>	30.200	33.188
<b>33.98527</b>	32.070	36.188
<b>34.58156</b>	31.332	36.710
<b>34.48082</b>	33.460	35.010
<b>33.46888</b>	31.532	35.311
<b>32.19914</b>	30.720	33.780
<b>32.55646</b>	31.250	33.350

<b>1 US\$ = S\$</b>			
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1993	<b>1.61620</b>	1.5540	1.6630
1994	<b>1.52770</b>	1.4542	1.6148
1995	<b>1.41767</b>	1.3830	1.4685
1996	<b>1.41027</b>	1.3880	1.4312
1997	<b>1.48606</b>	1.3978	1.7150
1998	<b>1.67345</b>	1.5718	1.8150
1999	<b>1.69526</b>	1.6480	1.7390
2000	<b>1.72453</b>	1.6450	1.7620
2001	<b>1.79232</b>	1.7260	1.8563
2002	<b>1.79079</b>	1.6385	1.8534
2003	<b>1.74277</b>	1.6989	1.7855
2004	<b>1.69080</b>	1.6282	1.7305
2005	<b>1.66462</b>	1.6156	1.7067
2006	<b>1.58942</b>	1.5319	1.6668

<b>1 US\$ = ¥</b>		
<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
<b>111.17768</b>	100.25	126.20
<b>102.24399</b>	96.05	113.58
<b>94.07659</b>	79.75	104.70
<b>108.82624</b>	103.07	116.40
<b>121.04493</b>	110.52	131.56
<b>130.88462</b>	111.53	147.63
<b>113.80969</b>	101.22	124.79
<b>107.86045</b>	101.31	114.90
<b>121.55551</b>	113.52	132.06
<b>125.21937</b>	115.43	135.18
<b>115.97995</b>	106.72	121.87
<b>108.17451</b>	101.81	114.88
<b>110.12445</b>	101.66	121.375
<b>116.33664</b>	108.98	119.865

<b>1 US\$ = Won</b>			
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1993	<b>808.36286</b>	805.00	812.30
1994	<b>803.76589</b>	788.10	814.50
1995	<b>771.36667</b>	755.50	795.20
1996	<b>804.83238</b>	774.00	845.30
1997	<b>953.99904</b>	840.00	1995.00
1998	<b>1402.11164</b>	1179.00	1840.00
1999	<b>1190.12959</b>	1125.00	1248.00
2000	<b>1131.15811</b>	1103.70	1272.50
2001	<b>1291.49918</b>	1232.00	1367.00
2002	<b>1249.79397</b>	1149.30	1332.60
2003	<b>1194.54247</b>	1129.80	1261.20

<b>1 US\$ = Dong</b>		
<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
N/A	N/A	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A
<b>11,040.64050</b>	11,004.0	11,041.0
<b>11,036.32104</b>	11,000.0	11,150.0
<b>11,704.87808</b>	11,141.0	12,296.0
<b>13,266.66712</b>	12,280.0	13,907.0
<b>13,945.07123</b>	13,867.0	14,030.0
<b>14,176.85792</b>	14,027.0	14,515.0
<b>15,031.15890</b>	14,169.0	15,770.0
<b>15,934.26575</b>	15,670.0	16,038.0
<b>16,067.76438</b>	15,956.0	16,208.0

2004	<b>1150.90628</b>	1024.20	1208.50	<b>16,174.58197</b>	15,002.0	16,314.0
2005	<b>1027.59332</b>	959.07	1061.40	<b>15,967.53534</b>	15,755.0	16,700.0
2006	<b>969.90155</b>	872.524	1007.96	<b>16,435.76356</b>	15,901.4	16,834.0

**Exchange rates—Asian currencies against the Euro since 1999**

<b>1 € = RMB</b>				<b>1 € = HK\$</b>		
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1999	<b>8.82877</b>	8.25270	9.77620	<b>8.27759</b>	7.77170	9.19410
2000	<b>7.65764</b>	6.85880	8.55780	<b>7.20030</b>	6.41120	8.09730
2001	<b>7.42405</b>	6.93470	7.93310	<b>6.98746</b>	6.51640	7.47660
2002	<b>7.83858</b>	7.11440	8.68740	<b>7.37806</b>	6.67400	8.17870
2003	<b>9.38170</b>	8.58710	10.40560	<b>8.81594</b>	8.05870	9.75460
2004	<b>10.30811</b>	9.79710	11.30610	<b>9.68822</b>	9.17140	10.62800
2005	<b>10.21971</b>	9.43610	11.24400	<b>9.68706</b>	9.02370	10.62000
2006	<b>10.02488</b>	9.53810	10.46190	<b>9.76273</b>	9.12200	10.38810

<b>1 € = Pataca (M\$)</b>				<b>1 € = NT\$</b>		
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1999	<b>8.52524</b>	7.98060	9.44830	<b>34.48378</b>	31.65060	38.08080
2000	<b>7.40862</b>	6.65730	8.27990	<b>28.89330</b>	26.55820	32.24970
2001	<b>7.27296</b>	6.73070	7.85890	<b>30.46173</b>	28.66330	33.60500
2002	<b>7.88283</b>	7.19220	8.67510	<b>32.69697</b>	30.04320	36.64860
2003	<b>9.37651</b>	8.57970	10.31630	<b>39.02491</b>	36.10880	42.83190
2004	<b>10.25550</b>	9.76110	11.22850	<b>41.61540</b>	39.06000	43.71380
2005	<b>10.36967</b>	9.73130	11.18880	<b>40.06741</b>	37.80180	43.39370
2006	<b>10.45636</b>	9.86700	11.06520	<b>40.90074</b>	38.44800	43.18220

<b>1 € = S\$</b>				<b>1 € = ¥</b>		
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1999	<b>1.80847</b>	1.67600	1.97160	<b>121.47367</b>	102.030	135.330
2000	<b>1.59413</b>	1.45360	1.72530	<b>99.68216</b>	88.920	111.960
2001	<b>1.60623</b>	1.52940	1.66220	<b>108.92056</b>	100.100	116.680
2002	<b>1.69221</b>	1.57970	1.81890	<b>118.16436</b>	111.250	125.650
2003	<b>1.97235</b>	1.80780	2.13950	<b>131.09877</b>	123.930	140.880
2004	<b>2.10225</b>	1.99550	2.23430	<b>134.43740</b>	125.810	141.590
2005	<b>2.07203</b>	1.97300	2.21570	<b>136.90129</b>	130.600	143.605
2006	<b>1.99563</b>	1.92530	2.05940	<b>146.09592</b>	137.090	157.190

<b>1 € = Won</b>				<b>1 € = Dong</b>		
Year	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>High</i>
1999	<b>1269.93567</b>	1139.54	1414.28	<b>14,874.81151</b>	14,042.6	16,403.7
2000	<b>1045.90634</b>	941.67	1193.64	<b>13,106.73743</b>	11,924.7	14,510.5
2001	<b>1157.71329</b>	1084.91	1234.48	<b>13,475.66959</b>	12,451.1	14,554.8
2002	<b>1179.52751</b>	1125.90	1257.65	<b>15,074.90192</b>	13,602.9	16,767.6
2003	<b>1352.03321</b>	1233.29	1510.80	<b>18,191.65288</b>	16,585.4	20,287.1
2004	<b>1430.33620</b>	1365.18	1526.28	<b>20,113.00464</b>	19,217.7	21,581.3
2005	<b>1279.37386</b>	1208.99	1463.23	<b>19,886.14027</b>	18,579.2	22,140.2
2006	<b>1217.85493</b>	1164.740	1288.60	<b>20,653.28685</b>	18,832.9	22,208.9

**Notes:**

Chinese translations—US\$: *meijin* 美金, Euro: *ouyuan* 欧元

All figures above are listed as interbank rates, source: <http://www.oanda.com/convert/fxhistory>

The currency unit of the PRC is the Renminbi (RMB: *renminbi* 人民幣, literally “people’s currency”), first issued in March 1955. Today the RMB’s exchange rate is pegged to a basket of currencies (including the Japanese Yen and the British Pound) and is allowed a daily fluctuation of 0.5 percent (0.3 percent before May 2007). Between 1995 and 2005 the exchange rate was fixed at 1 US\$ = 8.28 Yuan RMB. In July 2005 the PRC appreciated the RMB 2 percent, since which time the exchange rate has been more flexible, and from July 1, 2005 to June 1, 2007 the RMB appreciated 7.59 percent against the US\$ (see table below).

**1 US\$—RMB since July 2005**

July 1, '05	8.2865	Jan. 1, '06	8.0755	July 1, '06	8.0028	Jan. 1, '07	7.8175
Aug. 1, '05	8.1156	Feb. 1, '06	8.0626	Aug. 1, '06	7.9800	Feb. 1, '07	7.7849
Sept. 1, '05	8.1098	March 1, '06	8.0437	Sept. 1, '06	7.9651	March 1, '07	7.7482
Oct. 1, '05	8.1076	April 1, '06	8.0275	Oct. 1, '06	7.9173	April 1, '07	7.7409
Nov. 1, '05	8.0949	May 1, '06	8.0239	Nov. 1, '06	7.8890	May 1, '07	7.7154
Dec. 1, '05	8.0817	June 1, '06	8.0344	Dec. 1, '06	7.8444	June 1, '07	7.6573

Between 1980 and 1994, a surrogate currency for foreign exchange called the “Foreign Exchange Certificate” (*waihuiquan* 外匯券, abbrev. FEC) was in circulation—visitors changing foreign currency received FEC instead of RMB, but since some higher quality goods could only be purchased with FEC, the system spurred the rise of a black market, the main reason for the eventual abolishment of the FEC.

The HK\$ has been pegged to the US\$ since 1983 at HK\$ 7.80 per U.S. dollar through the currency board system. In 2005, in addition to setting a lower guaranteed limit (7.85 from the previous 7.80), a new upper guaranteed limit was set for the HK\$ : 7.75 to the US\$.

Although the 1997-1998 financial crisis did not hit Taiwan as hard as other Asian nations, the NT\$ significantly lost value in comparison with the greenback—while on 1997 April 1 one US\$ was worth NT\$ 27.53, on 1998 Sept. 1 no less than NT\$ 34.8 had to be paid for one US\$.

Macau’s currency, the “Pataca” (M\$), is pegged to the Hong Kong Dollar (HK\$) at an exchange rate of M\$ 103.20 to HK\$ 100.

The Euro (€) was launched at the beginning of 1999, while the currencies of nations participating in the Euro system were abolished at the beginning of 2002. Though exchange rates for the Euro have existed since 1999, they are really relevant only since 2002 when the Euro became the sole legal tender in the 12 Euro states (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, and Spain). On January 1, 1999, the exchange rates between the Euro and the participating currencies were fixed. Denmark, Sweden, and the UK refused to give up their currencies in favor of the Euro. In 2004, 10 more countries were admitted into the EU—Cyprus (Greek part), Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia; but among these Slovenia was the only country that switched over to the Euro on Jan. 1, 2007, becoming the 13<sup>th</sup> country of the Euro zone. Please note that Switzerland is not a member of the EU.