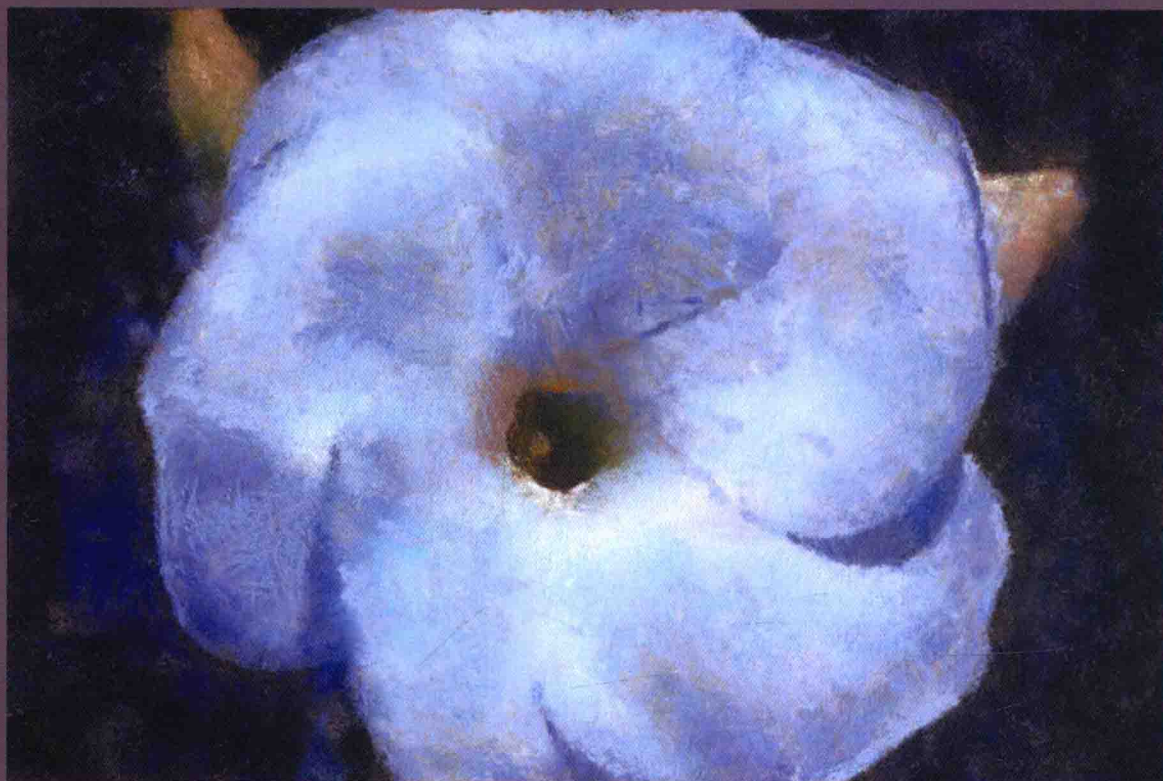


CHINESE MIGRATIONS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LABOR CONDITIONS

DA CHEN



CHINESE MIGRATIONS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LABOR CONDITIONS • DA CHEN

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BULLETIN OF THE U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

wo. Mo WASHINGTON Juiy, »m CHINESE MIGRATIONS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LABOR CONDITIONS. INTRODUCTION. The purpose of this study is twofold.

(1) Since the Chinese are now residing in a number of countries, the following

questions are of interest: Why and how have they gone there? What is the degree of their economic prosperity and social adaptation in their new environments? In what ways and to what extent have they benefited themselves, their fatherland and their adopted countries? An attempt is here made to answer these queries, at least in part.

(2) China is undergoing a stupendous social and political change which has brought to the fore, in greater and greater degree, the population problem. A high birth rate has been accompanied by a high death rate and infant mortality. Unsatisfactory socio-economic conditions have caused low wages, disease, poverty, and misery. In great numbers the needy have been forced out of the country. In this sense the outflow of the emigrants has arisen from the pressure of the home population. Wherever they have gone, clashes with other racial groups have been frequent. Inasmuch as the pressure of population is not likely to diminish in the immediate future, further conflicts are distinctly possible. The amelioration of the social and economic conditions in China are therefore desirable in order to insure social progress and promote international good will. With these views in mind, inquiry has been made into the condition of the Chinese in important countries with reference to certain specific problems. A few countries have been chosen on the following more or less arbitrary grounds. First, the countries must lie within the Eastern Hemisphere as far as the mid-Pacific. Secondly, the maximum number of the Chinese in each country must at some time have reached 50,000 or more. This does not mean, however, that all the countries within the specified region to which 50,000 or more Chinese have gone have been included. The method has been to select certain ones which are fairly representative of a regional group and of a particular period of migration. Thus, in Sumatra the number of Chinese is reported to be over 50,000, but since their government, chief occupations and social activities are quite similar to those in Singapore and Penang, and their immigra-

tion methods and labor contracts like those in force in Banka and Billiton, no separate account of the Chinese in Sumatra is here given.

Other countries lie within the specified area, but difficulties in the gathering of data and insufficient and conflicting material make their inclusion in this volume impracticable. Such countries include Korea, Japan, Siam, French Indo-China, and some British territories in Australasia and Oceania. These countries, together with the Americas and other regions to which a considerable number of Chinese have gone; may be treated in subsequent studies.

The scope of this volume therefore narrows down to an account of the Chinese in Formosa, Dutch East Indies, British Malakka, the Philippines, the Hawaiian Islands, the Transvaal, and France (during the World War).

With respect to time, this study undertakes to outline the important overseas migrations of the Chinese of which important records are now available. These migrations seem to have begun in the seventh century, been reinforced in the fifteenth century, and continued with increasing importance during and since the nineteenth century. An endeavor has been made to bring the account up to the present time, and, as far as possible, special emphasis has been laid on the modern period. Although overland migrations in and near China had occurred before the first overseas migration herein treated, no attention has been given them here, for the effort has been to ascertain the causes and consequences of the contacts between China and other nations brought about by the Chinese emigrants beyond the seas.

The main inquiries of this study resolve themselves into three major divisions: Historic, social, and economic. The historic phase includes important conflicts, and the political and civil relations between China and the particular country to which the emigrants have gone. In tracing these events, the plan has been to terminate the account with the last significant clash whereby the Chinese either gained or lost socio-economic

importance in their adopted country. In Java, for example, the failure of the Chinese revolt of 1740 led to the Dutch ascendancy in commerce and politics. Likewise, historic events in Formosa have been outlined up to the time of Koxinga's conquest of the island, and in the Philippines up to the third massacre of the Chinese by Spaniards.

Under the economic phase have been included the main occupations of the Chinese, and their activities in industry, commerce, and agriculture, in order to ascertain their economic importance in a given country. Owing to insufficient data, the accounts of the modifications of the Chinese guilds to suit the local needs and of labor organizations are deficient in part.

The discussion of the social conditions of the overseas Chinese includes population, education, government, social organizations, racial discriminations, customs and manners, and interracial marriage and fusion. An attempt is here made to show their assimilability, group solidarity, the changes in their mode of living, and social problems of various kinds. The chief inadequacies lie in the insufficient data on education and social organization, and the paucity of statistical material on racial amalgamation.

The findings of this investigation, based on a synthetic assemblage of facts, are summarized in the concluding chapter. The principal significant points disclosed are that by and large the Chinese emigrants have been forced out of China by the population pressure; that under favorable social conditions they have been successful in business and trades; that by their aid in capital and labor they have initiated and developed important industries to augment the wealth of their adopted countries; that they have been handicapped by social and legal discriminations; that they have been loyal to their mother country; that there has been evidence to show the eugenic benefits of miscegenation between the Chinese and other nationals; that by frequent contact with other nations the Chinese abroad have com-

pllicated the international relations; and that owing to their idiosyncracies and persistent indulgence in certain vices they have created vexed problems of administration for foreign governments under whose jurisdiction they live.

The main sources of material of this study are the available official documents of the Chinese and other Governments. Authentic secondary sources, such as books, magazines, and articles, have also been used. A limited amount of material has been gathered from correspondence with cultural and commercial organizations and also with individuals in the several countries under survey. Great care has been exercised in the selection of sources.

The important treaties, conventions, laws, contracts, and other documentary data on Chinese emigration and labor not fully covered in each chapter are given in appendixes to the chapters. Also, for each chapter a selected bibliography is given.

Chapter I.—A SURVEY OF CHINESE MIGRATIONS.

HISTORY AND SCOPE OF CHINESE EMIGRATION.

The important overseas migrations of the Chinese as sketched in this study may be roughly grouped into three periods—those of the seventh, fifteenth, and nineteenth centuries. The movements of emigration are indicated in the accompanying map (Fig. 1). The first migration began during the seventh century, when Chinese colonists settled in the Pheng-hu Archipelago (Pescadores Islands) (35) and Formosa (Taiwan). Most of the emigrants went from the seaboard cities of Foochow (27), Chuanchow (28), Amoy (29), Ningpo (21), Swatow (36), Canton (39), and Hainan (46). Port Litsitah, on the southwestern point of the Pifcheurs Islands in the west of the Pescadores, was a prosperous commercial center of the pioneer Chinese settlers. Tachi, a neighboring town, was another favorite resort of the junk tradesmen. Makung, the capital of the Archipelago, became the insular metropolis of Chinese culture. Soon the tide of an eastward movement set in. The Hakkas began to trade with the in-

habitants of Takow, Tayouan, Kiirun (32), and Tansui (31), and laid the foundations of Chinese settlements in Formosa. As time went on, the Chinese in these places, with the cooperation of their friends at home, commenced to have trade relations with the neighboring countries. Three main trade routes were opened: One leading to British Malakka, one to the Dutch East Indies, and one to the Philippines. These routes paved the way for the second great migration of China.

Beginning with the fifteenth century, when the imperial eunuch, Cheng Ho, returned from his trips to the "western ocean," a great rush for Eldorado started on the coast of Fukien and Kwangtung. Miraculous tales were told of the "strange" countries the royal envoy had visited. Much exaggerated and distorted, these fabulous stories were vividly retold in popular ballads and folk songs. In novels such as the *See Yang Chi* (a tale of the western ocean), *Dy a Buddhist's disciple*, tales of the Yuan expedition to Java in 1293 and Cheng

'Ho's visits in the fifteenth century, were woven together incorrectly but entertainingly. During this period the junk trade was most flourishing. The power of the Ming emperors was extended to the neighboring nations, and Chinese nationals went out in large numbers to southern Asia and the sea countries for trade. The colonization of the Malay Archipelago, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, the Sulu Archipelago, and the Philippines, which began in a small way after the seventh century, was much stimulated. Short accounts of the Dutch East Indies, British Malakka, and the Philippine Islands are here included to illustrate the migration of this period.

About 1860, the third overseas migration was started with the legalization of the coolie trade. Spain, Portugal, Holland, Great Britain, and other European powers were bent on developing their colonies and possessions commercially and industrially. They in Figures in parenthesis, following geographic names, correspond to the key numbers on the map.

4 looked to China as an inexhaustible

source of manual labor. Heretofore, most of the Chinese emigrants had gone to various countries independently and of their own free will. From this time onward, a new type of emigrants appeared. Frequently, these emigrants went out under either treaty provisions or labor contract. Their stay in foreign lands was usually for a limited period and their socio-economic status was minutely defined. Three examples are here given: The Chinese in Hawaii, in the Transvaal, and in France during the World War. CAUSES OF EMIGRATION.

The significant causes of these migrations are varied and intricate. What follows here is merely an outline. As regards special inducements which have attracted the Chinese emigrants to different countries, mention is made in the chapters which follow.

Driving forces.—(a) The pressure of population weighs heavily on the side of emigration. Although reliable statistical data on China's population are lacking, it seems reasonably clear that the population has been outstripping the food supply and forcing a vast number of people out of the country. The official estimates of Chinese population between 1749 and 1920 can be considered only rough indications of the actual conditions during these years. In fact, the data now available warrant nothing more than a statement of the obvious limitations of these figures and the making of very general observations based upon them. The figures referred to are given in Table 1. I

Table 1 ESTIMATED POPULATION OF CHINA, 1749 TO 1920.

(Data (or 1749 to 17E0 are taken from China (by Imperial edict), Ta Tsing Hui Tien (Constitution of the Tsing Dynasty). Those for 1812 are quoted by Zarkharov in Numerical Relations of Population of China during 4,000 Years of its Historical Existence, and originally from the same Chinese document. The figures for 1842, 1882, and 1885, supplied by the Chinese Ministry of Revenue, are quoted by W. W. Rockhill in "Inquiry into the population of China." The figures for 1910 are taken from the official estimate of the Mingcheng-

pu (Ministry of the Interior) and those for 1920 from the estimate of the Chinese Post Office; they also appear in the China Yearbook for 1921-22. The figures are here given in thousands.

Province.

1749 17G0 17S0 1812 1842 1882 1910 1920

Anhui

Chektang

Chihli

Fukien

Honan

Hunan

Hupoh

Kansu

Kiangsi

Kiangsu

Kwangsi

Kwangtung, etc.

Kweichow

Shantung

Shensi

Yunnan

Shengking

Kirin:

Hellungkiang c. 21,568 11,877

13,933 7,620 12,848 8,672 7,527 5,580

8,428 20,972 3,688 6,461 3,075 9,509

24,012 6,734 1,946 407 22, 848 15,612

16,132 8,063 16,399 8,845 8,138 7,471

11,609 23,284 3,973 6,819 3,411

10,240 25,293 7,297 2,089 675 28,456

21,035

22,263

12,399

20,553

15,676

17,155

15,159

18,512

30,361

6,034

15,635

5,111 13,037 22,013 8,259 3,294

797

142

31,165

26,257

27,991

14,779

23,037

18,653

27,370

15,355
 23,047
 37,844
 7,314 19,174 5,288 14,004 28,959
 10,207 5,561 36,597 30,438 36,890
 25,800 29,070 20,049 28, 585 19,513
 26,514 39,647 8,121 21,153 5,679
 17,057 29,530 10,310 5,824 20,597
 11,569
 17,937
 25,000
 22,116
 21,003
 33,365
 ;.. ill
 24,534
 20,905
 5,151
 29,706
 7,669
 12,211
 36,248
 8,432 11,722 20,597
 11,684
 17,937
 23,503
 22,117
 21,005
 33,600
 5,411
 24,541
 21,260
 5,151
 29,740
 7,669
 10,791
 36,546
 3,277 11,722 17,300 17,000 32,571
 13,100 25,600 23,600 24,900 5,000
 14,500 17,300 6,500 27,700 11,300
 10,000 29,500 8,800 8,500 14,917

Total 174,857 1193,210 275,891
 339,045 390,767 313,596 306,551 30S.
 1S3 19,833 22,013 34,187 13,158
 30,832 28,443 27,167 5,928 24,467
 33,786 12,158 37,108 11,216 11,081
 30,803 9,466 9,839 13,703 375,377 Fig-
 ures are for 1879.

Up to 17S0, data are for Kiangnan. c
 Now known as Manchuria, but data for
 1749 to 1885 are incomplete. Not in-
 cluding the Province of Szechwan.

A considerable number of the Chinese
 who went to Hawaii about 1860 were
 plantation laborers under contract.

Thus, respecting both the time of migra-
 tion and the character of the early pop-
 ulation, tho Chinese in the Hawaiian Is-
 lands should be classed under the mod-
 ern period.

The general apparent decrease of
 population from 1842 to 1882, shown
 in Table 1, may be partially due to the
 tremendous loss of human lives from
 wars and famines, some of which are
 shown in Table 2. It is equally possible
 that the figures themselves are at fault.
 Since 1885, however, the population is
 believed to have increased, as there
 have been fewer wars and famines than
 in former years. No adequate cause can
 be assigned for the apparent large de-
 crease of population in Kiangsi during
 the period 1885 to 1910, nor for the ap-
 parent phenomenal increase in Kiangsu
 in 1910 to 1920.'

Tabu 3.—WARS, FAMINES, AND ESTI-
 MATED LOSS OF POPULATION.

(Quoted in Smithsonian Miscellaneous
 Collections, vol. 47, p.318, "Inquiry in-
 to the population of China," by W. W.
 Rockhill. Most of the figures are taken
 from other authorities, but the basis of
 these estimates is not stated therein.)

Irrespective of the accuracy of the
 figures in Table 1, it is probable that
 the population has been and is too great
 for the arable land of the country, be-
 cause, as shown in Table 3, 49,359,589
 farmers are enumerated as cultivators of
 1,617,318,458 mow (about 269,553,076
 acres) of land. This is an average of
 about 5.5 acres per farm. Even if the av-
 erage size of the farm be increased by
 the inclusion of the uncultivated areas
 tabulated in Table 4, it will nevertheless
 be almost impossible for the farmer to
 produce enough food to sup

Sort and educate his children proper-
 ly, for if one can trust the ingchengpu
 (Ministry of the Interior) estimate of
 1910, the average size of the family in
 China proper is 5.5, and in Manchuria,
 8.3; and the farmers constitute about 75
 per cent of the nation's population.

'In fact, the estimates for Szechwan
 for these years are so confusing that it
 was thought best to exclude them alto-
 gether. See Smithsonian Miscellaneous
 Collections, vol. 47, p. 321, "Inquiry in-

to the population of China," by W. W.
 Kocihill; and China Yearbook for 1921-
 22, p. 3, footnote.

Tabls 4 UNCULTIVATED LAND IN CHI-
 NA, BY PROVINCES AND DISTRICTS,
 1917.

Source: China. Ministry of Agriculture
 and Commerce. Sixth annual report.
 Peking, 1920. Government land in-
 cludes unclaimed lands, lands originally
 belonging to the State, and waste lands:
 public land includes undeveloped prop-
 erties of public institutions. 1 mow
 equals one-sixth acre.) i Data for 1916.
 1 Date for 1915. 1 Not reported. Data
 for 1914.

'Not including 1 Province, character of
 ownership not reported.

(6) In addition to the general conditions
 as above outlined, it appears desirable
 to survey briefly the situation in the four
 Provinces from which most of the em-
 igrants included in this study were
 drawn. Between the fourteenth and sev-
 enteenth centuries, when the outflow of
 emigrants from the Provinces was con-
 tinuous and active, the operation of the
 positive checks to population, such as
 droughts and famines, were frequent.
 The extent of these checks may be indi-
 cated by a few examples of drought and
 famine in the four Provinces as shown
 in Table 5. Tjili «-DROUGHTS AND
 FAMINES IN CHIHLI, SHANTUNG, FO-
 TOWN. AND KWANGTUNO. vmiM, UK
 Source: China (by imperial edict). T'u
 Shu Tsl Cheng (Encyclopedia!, section
 on various manifestations, book 91,
 chapter on droughts, and books 110,
 111, chapter on plenty and dearth.)
 DROUGHTS. 8

Remarks.

Government granaries opened for re-
 lief.

Sufferers migrated southward.

Plague of locusts also.

Government treasury sent relief fund.

Severe.

Famine: cannibalism.

Government granaries
 opened for relief.

Cannibalism.

Severe famine.

Want of ram from first
 to ninth moon.

Want of rain in seventh moon.

Severe.

Do.

Every sufferer given 3 tow of rice by Government.

Severe; emigration of sufferers.

Severe.

1369 1470 1498 1.712 1538

General

Kwangchow

Remarks.

No wheat crop in spring, no rice crop in autumn.

No rice crop.

Severe.

Famine.

Every sufferer given 3 tow of rice by Government.

Severe; starvation.

Do.

In autumn and winter late crops of rice all failed.

Severe.

Do.

Do.

Severe; no rice crop.

Do.

Severe.

Do.

No rain from first to eighth moon.

Severe.

Ten per cent of land tax exempted.

Severe.

Do.

Do.

1573 1615 1640 1360 1387 1451 1465 1476 1485 *FvMm*.

Generaldodododo

Severe-, cannibalism.

Cannibalism; robbery and thefts frequent.

In spring, summer, end autumn: no harvest;

great emigration.

1543 1560 15%

Hingnine (') Kwangchow, Shao king, Nanklung, Shaochow.

Ilincing

General...

Luichow..

Severe.

No rain from eighth moon in 1543 to fifth moon in 1544.

Severe.

1 District not reported. 1 About 3.5 pecks. TABU *If*—DROUGHTS AND FAMINES IN CHIH LI, SHANTUNG, FUKIEN, AND KWANGTUNG—Concluded. FAMINES. 1 District not reported.

The data given in Table 5 may be summarized as follows: In Chihli there were 11 droughts in 259 years, or one in every 23.5 years; in Shantung there were 14 in 271 years, or one in every 19.4 years; in Fukien there were 29 in 246 years, or one in every 8.5 years; and in Kwantung there were 8 in 227 years, or one in every 28.4 years.

As to famines, in Chihli there were 11 in 225 years, or one in every 20.5 years; in Shantung there were 21 in 229 years, or one in every 10.9 years; in Fukien there were 20 in 219 years, or one in every 11 years; and in Kwantung there were 18 in 236 years, or one in every 13.1 years.

It was natural, therefore, that the young and adventurous people in these Provinces should leave their poverty-stricken homes to seek better opportunities in countries beyond the seas.

Environmental forces.—All of the four Provinces have easy access to the sea and have excellent seaports, as Tientsin and Chinwangtao in Chihli; Chefoo, Tsingtau, and Weihaiwei in Shantung; Amoy and Foochow in Fukien; and Swatow, Canton, Hainan, and Hongkong in Kwantung. Therefore geographical conditions are conducive to emigration. People living near these ports naturally have better opportunities of going abroad than their compatriots in the interior. *Psychic forces*.—As will be shown in Chapter II, these emigrants, *Vxt*, *..f*: have generally been energetic men, with a romantic craving for adventure. Robust and healthy, the "raw material" of the farms and CtJ-'!uA" fishing boats welcome change of habitation, so that they may see! new things and live new lives. Vitality and perseverance push them on.

In addition, their business acumen, coupled with grit and gumption, contributes to make their wanderings successful.

The heritage of Chinese society, so far as they are able to appreciate, evaluate, and assimilate it, has made them helpful members in new communities as tradesmen and in other positions.,, (

Then too, it should not be overlooked that the Chinese as colonizers are unusually successful in acclimatization. They generally thrive in Tropical as well as temperate climates.

Controlling forces.—Besides the biological and social traits of the Chinese, which are here called psychic forces, and the environmental influences which induce them to emigrate, the attractions which control the direction taken by the movement of emigration should be considered. The most obvious of these is the question of wages. The Chinese abroad invariably receive higher wages than their brethren in the same occupations at home, although the fact should be borne in mind that the Chinese at home have a comparatively lower cost of living and are able to get along with lower wages. Adequate statistical data for earlier periods are lacking, but information for comparatively recent times is shown in Table 6. Since the currencies of the various countries fluctuate in exchange value, no attempt is here made to convert them into a unified system of currency of any one country. 41986—23 2

Table 6.—WAGES OF CHINESE LABORERS AT HOME AND ABROAD.

Data for China are from China, Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, sixth annual report, Peking, 1920; for Dutch East Indies, from China, Emigration Bureau, Report on Conditions of Chinese Laborers in Banka, 1920, and on Conditions of Chinese Laborers in Billiton, 1919; for France, from China, Emigration Bureau, Conditions of Chinese Laborers in France, Report No. 2, pp. 18, 19; for Hawaiian Islands, from Labor conditions in Hawaii, S. Doc. No. 432, 64th Cong., 1st sess.; for Philippine Islands, from Boletín Trimestral de la Oficina del Trabajo, Manila, 1919; for the Straits Settlements, from Blue Book for Straits Settlements, 1919; for Transvaal, from Transvaal, Lieutenant Governor's oilier. Handbook of 'r-di-

nances Connected with the Importation of Foreign Labor into the Transvaal, pp. 53-54. Data are for the following years: China, 1917; Dutch East Indies and France, 1918-19; Hawaiian Islands, 1915; Philippine Islands and Straits Settlements, 1918; Transvaal, 1904 to 1909.

The earliest known means of ocean transportation by which the Chinese were taken to various countries were the junks. As early as the thirteenth century, junks were built for defense against the raids of pirates along the seacoast. When ocean trade was gradually developed, the junks were adapted to more specific uses and were differentiated into fruit junks, rice junks, tea junks, fishing junks, and passenger junks. Small junks were engaged in river or coast trade, while larger ones were built for commerce overseas. Although the "junk" (meaning, in the Cantonese dialect, a large vessel) was used in the early days for the overseas trade. The same vessel was called by the Portuguese "soma," and by the Indian Islanders "wangkang." Many junks for the Malay Archipelago were built by the Chinese in Bankok. See John Crawford: History of the Indian Archipelago, Vol. III, pp. 173-180.

Regarding the origin of the junks, Chinese authorities are not explicit. It is claimed by some that the first junks were built in 139 B. C. See Western Origins of the Chinese Civilization from 1300 B. C. to 200 A. D., by Albert Terrien de Lacouperie, London, 1894, and Ships as Evidence of the Migrations of Early Culture, by U. Elliot Smith, Manchester University Press, 19X7. passenger junks took most of the emigrants to various countries, other ocean-going junks occasionally carried passengers as well as cargo.

Before the invention of steamers ocean-going junks carried on considerable commerce between China and the neighboring countries. Not infrequently wealthy proprietors owned one hundred or more junks. To-day most of these vessels are used for coastwise commerce in the Eastern and Yellow Seas, and also in the Formosan Channel. Formosa

has four large junk companies, and Chinese merchants in the Province of Fukien have 10.

The junk is usually 5 to 9 chang (about 75 to 106 feet) long, and 1½ to 3 chang (about 17 to 35 feet) wide, with a depth of from one-half to 1 chang (about 6 to 12 feet) below the water line; the displacement varies from 350 to 750 tons. The boat is usually painted black.

When a junk enters a port it pays a tax, the rate increasing with its tonnage; one having a length of 40 feet and a width of 20 feet has to pay a tax of about \$100 (Chinese currency).

EMIGRATION BROKERS AND EMIGRATION COMPANIES.

As the number of Chinese going abroad increased year by year, the junk traders found it difficult to accommodate them, and emigration companies soon came into existence. They have brokers or agents stationed in important cities, who undertake to recruit emigrants, to provide food, lodging, and steamship accommodation for them, and to send them to their destination.

When labor is needed in a certain foreign country, it has been customary for that country to send a labor contractor, representing the Government or an important firm, to sign a contract with the Chinese broker, specifying the number of persons needed, conditions of employment, and the length of the term of service. The broker then advertises the labor terms at the various emigrant communities. Emigrants willing to accept the terms are then brought to the port of embarkation for a medical examination. In some cases this examination is given after the emigrant arrives in the employing country. In the latter case the broker assumes the task of repatriating those who are rejected for physical infirmities or other defects. For the services rendered between the recruiting and the signing of the contract by the employer and the emigrant, the broker is paid a certain commission at varying rates.

At the port of embarkation, such as Amoy and Hongkong (41), emigrant hotels are provided. At Amoy, the ho-

tels fall naturally into two groups, according to the class of emigrants taken, the Manila (67) group and the Singapore (52) group. The Manila hotels cater to migrants to and from Manila and other cities in the Philippines. The Singapore hotels are patronized by those who come from and go to British colonies, Dutch East Indies and other islands in the Indian Ocean, and also Oceania.

The hotel charges 20 cents per day per person for lodging. It serves no food, and many of the lodgers cook their food themselves. Emigrants returning from the Philippines usually get better rooms at about 30 cents a day per person, exclusive of meals. The Chinese customs service charges \$1 per trunk when an emigrant brings one to the port of entry. J. Banks at Amoy loan money to the brokers at rates varying from 4 to 5 per cent per month. If the credit of the broker is good he can get it at about 3 per cent per month. At the second month the interest is reduced to 2 per cent, and during the subsequent months further reductions are made. The broker then loans the money to emigrants at rates from 10 per cent to 30 per cent higher than he pays the bank.

Not infrequently the broker takes a group of 10 or 20 men to the Philippines under his personal direction at an expense of about \$80 (Chinese currency) per man.

The broker at the port of embarkation cooperates with emigration companies in other cities to facilitate emigration. At Fooching, Fukien Province, an emigration company has recently contracted to carry farmers to Singapore under the following terms: (1) The company is to pay the traveling expenses of the emigrants; (2) at the time of recruiting each emigrant is to be entitled to a sum of \$10; (3) after reaching his destination, each emigrant is to receive an annual amount of \$10; (4) when an emigrant has cultivated the land allotted in Singapore for a certain designated number of years, one-half of the value of the land is to go to him.

At the Minching district in Fukien, another contract was recently signed be-

tween an emigration company and the Government of Sumatra for farm laborers under these terms: (1) The company is to advance traveling and other necessary expenses to the emigrant; (2) these sums are to be deducted from his wages after he has arrived at his destination and a sufficient time has elapsed so that he is able to pay; (3) the land allotted to the emigrant for cultivation is to belong to him; (4) 20 per cent of the value of this land is to be given to the emigration company as a commission.

Emigrants who go to foreign countries without the assistance of emigration companies secure necessary help from their relatives and friends abroad. Tradition, attractions of climate, relationship, and kinship between new emigrants and those who are already in foreign countries have influenced the selection of certain places for colonization. For example, people of Kwangtung have a strong tendency to go to the Malay Archipelago, Dutch East Indies, and countries of the American Continent, because at these places emigrants from that Province predominate. Likewise, the Fukienese have colonized Formosa, the Philippine Islands, the Sulu Archipelago, and Borneo. The Chinese laborers in the Transvaal have been recruited mainly from Shantung, Chihli, and Manchuria, and those in France during the Great War, from Shantung, Chihli, and a relatively small number from Manchuria. The emigrants sailing from the port of Amoy in recent years are shown in Table 7:

Table 7.-CHINESE EMIGRANTS SAILING FROM AMOY, 1888 TO 1917.

Source: China. Inspectorate general of customs. Annual reports, statistical series. Data for certain years are not available.

The total number of Chinese emigrants resident abroad in 1922 has been estimated to be 8,179,582, distributed geographically as follows:

Java 1,825,700
Anam 197,300
Australia 35,000
Brazil 20,000
Burma 134,600
Canada 12,000

Cuba 90,000
East Indies 1,023,500
Europe 1,760
Formosa 2,258,650
Hawaii 23,507
Hongkong 314,390
Japan 17,700
Korea 11,300
Macao 74,560
Mexico 3,000
Peru 45,000
Philippines 65,212
Siam 1,500,000
Siberia 37,000
Straits Settlements 432,764
South Africa 5,000
Continental United States 61,639

Certain communities send their sons and daughters to foreign countries in much larger numbers than do other localities. In Fukien, for instance, it is said that every year the majority of the able-bodied men in the Yungching district emigrate to seek better opportunities overseas. In recent years, the district of Fooching has sent out about 20,000 people, or about one thirty-third of its total population. The district of Changluh has sent out 10,000, or one-thirtieth of its total population. Those living in mountain districts do not as a rule emigrate so readily as those who live near the trading ports on the seacoast.

CONTRACT LABOR UNDER GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION.

A third method of emigration, which is here illustrated in the chapters on the Chinese in the Transvaal and in France, is that of contract labor under a certain degree of government supervision. / In these cases contracts are signed between representatives of the contracting Governments, which specify the period of engagement of laborers as well as the terms of employment. During the first stages of recruiting, the services of the emigrant broker are relied upon to a certain extent, particularly in making known the terms of contract to emigrant communities as well as in bringing the emigrants to the recruiting agencies at the port of embarkation.

'Data are from China Yearbook for 1921-22, p. 91. But the Chinese esti-

mate is discarded wherever census figures are available, such as Hawaii, the Philippines, Straits Settlements, and Continental United States. Although the Chinese estimate is inaccurate in some places, it is the only source showing a large number of countries where the Chinese population is considerable.

From that point, the recruiting machinery and the control of the labor during the period of employment is that of the employing country; a certain degree of supervision during that period and the dispersion of the returning emigrants fall upon the Chinese Government.

SOME LEGAL ASPECTS OF CHINESE EMIGRATION AND LABOR. / In the periods when the emigration companies were most active and when the contract labor system was most efficient, as during the European War, a large number of treaties, conventions, and laws have been formulated which have defined the status and restricted the activities of the Chinese emigrants in foreign countries. Some of the salient points of these should be mentioned here. Before doing so, however, it may be well to indicate the folk psychology of the Chinese people, which unconsciously reflects itself in popular sentiment and exerts its influence on the formation of early emigration laws. POPULAR VIEWS ON EMIGRATION.

A great majority of the Chinese people are engaged in agriculture and their love of the soil is proverbial. They are generally satisfied to stay at home, and, except for urgent needs, do not love travel. The population is manifestly immobile. Rarely have there been interprovincial migrations of magnitude and importance. The Emperor Yuan-ti voiced the feeling of the people precisely when he said: "It is instinctive for our subjects to be content with the soil and be cautious of migrations."⁸ Likewise, Laotse, a contemporary of Confucius, remarked: "The good people are those who live in countries so near to each other that they can hear each other's cock crow and dog bark, yet they never have had intercourse with each other during their lifetime." ⁷

The Chinese are bound to the home by a strong family tie which creates an intimate relationship among the members. There is a multitude of duties which tradition decrees that members of the family should perform, and any evasion of these provokes disapproval and adverse comment from neighbors, friends, and relatives. For the dead members, too, ceremonies and other religious rituals in conformity with ancestor worship are periodically observed. These constitute another source of hindrance to members leaving the home.

A common view of the inconvenience and discomfort of leaving one's home is expressed in these words: "To be away 1 li about 0.4 mile from the home is not so good as home." In time, this tradition becomes embodied in the laws of the hind, and State ways and folk ways both discredit emigration. In 1712, during the reign of Yungching, when considerable numbers of Chinese were residing abroad, an edict was issued which prohibited them from returning home, and inflicted a death sentence for those who violated this law. Two points may be advanced for the explanation of this edict: In the first place since the mass of people did not like to emigrate, those who had sailed beyond the seas were presumably the socially undesirable, such as Koxinga's followers, exiles of wars, and criminals who were banished from the country. In the second place, China's traditional policy of the closed door has led her to shut out all strangers, of whom she has been very suspicious. Because some Chinese had been abroad for a long time, the State entertained a fear that they might, upon their return home, act as spies for foreign countries.

China. Bureau of the National History. The Han Records, Book IX, p. 7a.

'Quoted in the International Development of China by Sun Yat Sen. New York, 1922, p. 218.

Not only did the Government punish the returning emigrants, but the emigrants themselves were afraid to return to their fatherland:

We are afraid of the so-called inspection of mandarins, the oppression of

their subofficials, and the ill-treatment of our own clansmen and neighbors. At our return to China, we would be falsely accused as robbers and pirates, as spies of the barbarians (foreigners), as purchasers and abductors of slaves. Many who have savings of long years would be robbed, others would have their homes torn down and would be prohibited from building new ones; still others would be compelled to be responsible for forged documents of debts and liabilities. Alone and helpless, we are considered strangers by our relations. Upon whom shall we rely for help in a country where we are surrounded on all sides by thieves? EMIGRATION RELATIONS BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE AND CHINA.

Of late years the gradual diffusion of eastern and western cultures has forced China to abandon her time-honored policy of isolation. Diplomatic and commercial intercourse between China and the West has, in a large measure, changed China's stand on the question of emigration. European nations planning the industrial exploitation of their colonies and dependencies have turned to China for manual labor. By treaties and covenants they have induced and persuaded (or coerced) China to yield to their demands.

In 1859, the coolie trade was first legalized by Peh-kwei, governor of Kwangtuns, who had consented to let British and French authorities recruit Chinese laborers from the Province under indenture. During the following year the legality of this traffic was rendered national by Article V of the convention of that year, which provides—

As soon as the ratification of the treaty of 1858 shall have been exchanged, His Majesty the Emperor of China will, by decree, command the high authorities of every Province to proclaim throughout their jurisdictions, that Chinese, choosing to take service in the British colonies or other parts beyond the sea, are at perfect liberty to enter engagements with British subjects for that purpose, and to ship themselves and their families on board any British vessel at any of the open ports of China.

Also that the high authorities aforesaid, shall, in concert with Her Britannic Majesty's representatives in China, frame such regulations for the protection of Chinese emigrants as above, as the circumstances of different open ports demand.»

Six years later, the convention to regulate the engagement of Chinese emigrants by British and French subjects was signed in Peking (on March 5, 1866) by France, Great Britain, and China. This convention contains the rudiments of later treaties or contracts of emigrant labor specifying (1) the place of destination and the length of employment, (2) a free passage for the emigrant and family (if any) to and from the port of embarkation, (3) working hours per k-Translated from H. Gottwaldt: Die Oberwache Auswanderung der Chinesen und ihre Einwirkung auf die Preise und die wissc Ross. Bremen, 1903, p. 7.

China, Inspectorate General of Customs. Treaties between China and foreign states. Shanghai, 1917, Vol. I, p. 432.

day and working-days in the year, (4) wages, food, lodging, and medical attendance, and (5) monthly remittance to the family at the desire of the emigrant.

By the declarations appended to this convention, China has reiterated her old position on the question of emigration in language more explicit than her former edicts:

First, the Chinese Government throws no obstacle in the way of free emigration, that is to say, to the departure of Chinese subjects embarking of their own free will and at their own expense for foreign countries: out that all attempts to bring Chinese under an engagement to emigrate otherwise than as the present regulations provide, are formally forbidden, and will be prosecuted with the extreme rigor of the law. Secondly, a law of the Empire punishes by death those who by fraud or by force may kidnap Chinese subjects for the purpose of sending them abroad against their will. Thirdly, whereas the operations of the emigration agents, with a view to supply coolie labor abroad, are

authorized at all the open ports when conducted in conformity with these regulations, and under the joint supervision of the consuls and the Chinese authorities, it follows that where this joint supervision can not be exercised such operations are formally forbidden.¹⁰

France and Great Britain refused to ratify this convention as it permitted Chinese emigration only under Government supervision and imposed the death penalty for unauthorized and illegal emigration. The development of the colonies of these countries made necessary a large supply of Chinese labor, and private recruiting agencies were doing a considerable portion of this work. Quite a number of these companies would have been liable to punishment under this law. Towards the end of 1867, the French and British Governments drafted 23 articles of "Projet de Reglement International d'Emigration" and presented them to Peking as a substitute for the convention. Owing to several features objectionable to China, this document was buried in the Government archives of the Chinese capital. Meanwhile, the convention of March 1, 1866, was proclaimed by the Chinese Government as the law of the land regarding emigration.

Up to this time, China persisted in punishing those emigrants who planned to return home. However, Chinese statesmen soon saw the folly of this policy and urged the nullification of the old emigration laws. His Excellency, Hsueh Fu-Ching, minister to England, memorialized the throne in these words:

To drive fish into others' nets, or birds into others' snares (says Mencius), is not clever policy, but it is what we have been doing for England, Holland, and other countries. These get Chinese labor and great towns spring into being on desert islands. Foreign countries thus make us into instruments for their aggrandizement. We, the while, drive away Chinese skill and the profits of it into their arms."

Diplomatic representatives of Great Britain, France, Italy, and Belgium, in Peking, jointly petitioned the Chinese

Emperor for the annulment of the edict of 1712 "to end all suspicion and misunderstanding among the several nations." This was granted by an edict of September 13, 1893, whereby Chinese emigrants in foreign countries were permitted to return home at will. This marked a great step toward liberalizing emigration policies of China.

Shortly, the Governor of Fulien, memorialized the throne for the establishment of a chamber of commerce to look after the welfare of returning emigrants, which was granted by an imperial edict of May 24, 1899."

' Appendix to Chapter I, A, pp. 1M to 187.

"Chu Shiu-p'un: Tung Hua I.uli (Supplement for the Reign of Kuang Hsu), Shanghai, 1909, vol. 35. book lit, pp. 13a-14b: and Shun Pao, Shanghai. Nov. 14, 1893 (published in Chinese). See also The China Review, Vol. XXI, pp. 138-141, "Chinese emigrants abroad," by Sieh Hsueh Fu-Ching.

Henceforth, the Government of China took a more sympathetic interest in her subjects overseas and ordered high authorities to grant them protection wherever possible. An edict of October 12, 1899, reads:

Since the opening of the treaty ports many of our subjects have been drawn into foreign countries to engage in trade. In the foreign land, they retain their unshakable loyalty, their memory of the fatherland. They can not treasure their native country too highly and this is most commendable. In a former message we requested the governors of the Provinces to take all returning emigrants under their special protection so that they might enjoy in peace in their homes the money earned in the foreign countries. In our anxiety for the welfare of our subjects, and especially those sojourning in foreign countries, we, herewith, command our ambassadors and consuls as far as in their power, to extend help and protection to the Chinese in their districts.¹

In 1904, when labor was urgently needed in the development of the Witwatersrand gold mines in the Transvaal, the Transvaal Government succeeded in

persuading the British Government to sign a convention with China "respecting the employment of Chinese labor in British colonies and protectorates," which purported to be detailed regulations in pursuance of Article V of the convention of 1860 above referred to. Besides definite stipulations of conditions of work, including wages, food, lodging, and medical care, the term of engagement and a free passage to and from the port of embarkation, the convention contained several special features. Article VI provided that "for the better protection of the emigrant, and of any other Chinese subject that may happen to reside in the colony or protectorate in which the emigration is to take place, it shall be competent to the Emperor of China to appoint a consul or a vice consul to watch over the interests and well-being, and such consul or vice consul shall have all the rights and privileges accorded to the consuls of other nations." However, the Chinese officials to whom, in pursuance of the agreement, were intrusted the duties of "watching the interests and well-being" of their fellow countrymen in the Transvaal fell far short of executing their duties efficiently. This is shown elsewhere in this study. Articles II, III, and VIII of the convention provided for joint supervision of recruiting Chinese labor by British diplomatic and consular authorities and the Chinese inspector and his representatives." This was clearly a step away from private recruiting toward Government supervision of emigration questions between Great Britain and China.

The World War brought the British and French Governments face to face with a great shortage of labor in these countries and compelled them to recruit laborers in China. As a result of deliberations and conferences between the French and British diplomatic representatives in Peking and the Chinese Government, a set of new regulations was promulgated by the Chinese Emigration Bureau, upon which terms of employment of Chinese laborers by the French and British Governments were based. As these regulations were drawn

before China entered the war on the side of the Allies, it was

"For Important regulations of the Chamber of Commerce, see H. Gottwaldt: *Die Überseeische Auswanderung der Chinesen und ihre Einwirkung auf die gelbe und weisse Rosse*, Bremen, 1903, pp. 9-12. "Payne, E. George: *An Experiment in Alien Labor*. Chicago, 1917, p. 5, footnote 2.

"See Appendix to Chapter 1, 1), pp. 168 to 171.

stipulated that no Chinese laborer so recruited was to be engaged in, "military operations of any sort." After August 14, 1917, when China declared war upon Germany, no insistence upon the strict observance of this condition appeared necessary, and both the French and British armies employed Chinese workers in the danger zone as well as in other kinds of work in connection with the war.

Several features of the laws of the Chinese Emigration Bureau deserve consideration: (1) Hereafter, emigrant laborers shall be limited to (a) those selected and sent abroad by the Government; (b) those directly recruited by agencies; and (c) those recruited by contractors. Foreign Governments which establish agencies in China to recruit laborers must obtain licenses from the Chinese Emigration Bureau and must, under a heavy penalty, conform to the labor recruiting agency regulations promulgated by the bureau. (2) Recruiting by contractors is conditional upon securing permits from the emigration bureau and upon securing its approval of the essential parts of labor contracts that the contractors may secure for the emigrants from their employers." (3) With special reference to the Chinese laborers in France the bureau has promulgated a law, entitled, "Principal Contents of the Agreement on the Employment of Chinese Laborers," with many clauses embodied in the Hui Min contract and the British contract under whose terms the Chinese laborers worked.¹⁷

These laws clearly show the attitude of the Chinese Government on the question of emigrant labor. On the one hand, it seeks to regulate and prohibit emi-

gration under private companies, for a number of them have up to the present ruthlessly exploited Chinese emigrants. On the other hand, the Government of China is more and more inclined to supervise and administer matters concerning emigration. The experiment in Chinese labor in France during the European War, which was to a large extent under Government supervision, has in a large measure justified this attitude.

EMIGRATION RELATIONS BETWEEN UNITED STATES AND CHINA. / The first legal document relating to the American-Chinese emigration situation seems to have dated back to 1862, when an act was passed by the American Congress to prohibit the "coolie trade by American citizens in American vessels." Although it prohibited American ships from shipping or transporting Chinese from China to any other country, it did not prevent "voluntary emigrants" from boarding American vessels, providing they secured permits or certificates from the United States consulate at the port (or ports) whence such vessels departed.¹⁸ / The treaty of 1880, signed between the United States and China to regulate, limit, or suspend the coming of Chinese laborers to, and, their residence in, the United States was followed, in 1894, by a convention which absolutely prohibited the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, except under special conditions mentioned in that convention.¹⁹ The recent legal status of Chinese immigration in American dependencies as treated in this monograph is defined by the Chinese exclusion act and allied legislation. A good illustration which brings out this phase of the subject is the Hawaiian sugar planters' attempt to import Chinese labor into the Territory in 1921.²⁰

"See Appendix to Chapter I, F, pp. 174 and 175.

See Appendix to Chapter 1, F, especially article 0. ¹ See Appendix to Chapter 1, 11, pp. 177 to 179, and Appendix to Chapter IX, A, pp. 207 to 210. ¹⁸ See Appendix to Chapter 1, E, pp. 171 and 174. ¹⁹ See Appendix to Chapter I, C and D, pp. 171 to 172. EMIGRATION RELATIONS BETWEEN THE NETHER-

LANDS AND CHINA.

There seems to have been no special treaty or convention between the Netherlands and China treating of Chinese emigrants in the Dutch colonies and possessions. Private emigration companies have been the chief agencies upon which Chinese emigrants have relied for information and assistance. Their friends and relatives who are familiar with socio-economic conditions in the Dutch colonies contribute a certain amount of information, by way of correspondence and other means of communication, regarding opportunities and attractions in those colonies.

Most of the contracts signed between Dutch employers and Chinese emigrants now residing in the Dutch East Indies have been drawn up by emigration companies and have not the sanction of the Chinese Government. The emigration situation there is in certain respects more unsatisfactory than in British possessions or in American dependencies.

» S» Chapter VII, pp. 119 to 121, and Appendix to Chapter VII, A and C, pp. 192 and 191.

Chapter II.—HOME ENVIRONMENT OF THE CHINESE EMIGRANTS.

The scope and history of Chinese migrations having been outlined with special reference to causes, methods, and legal limitations, attention is now directed to the home environment of the emigrants, especially those of the Provinces of Kwangtung, Fukien, Shantung, and Chihli. A short account of the topography, products, customs,¹ and industrial conditions will serve as a useful background for the measurement of the adaptation of the emigrants and their assimilation in foreign lands. Effort is made to emphasize recent conditions. ¹ In certain portions of Chapters I and II data are introduced to answer two questions: First, what geographical influences in these regions have induced the Chinese to emigrate? Second, what manner of men are these emigrants?

PHYSIOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS. KWANGTUNG.

AREA AND POPULATION.

Kwangtung has an area of 100,000 square miles and a population of 37,167,701 people or 372 persons per square mile. In other words, the Province has a territory a little larger than that of Wyoming and supports about 138 times as many inhabitants. It is bounded on the east by the South China Sea, on the south by the Gulf of Tonkin and the South China Sea, on the west by Kwangsi and Tonkin, and on the north by Hunan, Kiangsi, and Fukien.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The Province may conveniently be subdivided into three sections: (1) The lower part of the basin of the Si River covers an area of about 200 miles from west to east, and 150 miles from north to south. This territory is washed by the Si River and the Pe River. The upper course of the Si River is obstructed by the Chungking-Ichang gorges and makes a very rapid descent from the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau. Consequently, floods are common in this district, in spite of numerous dikes along the river banks.

At the Boca Tigris in Samshui, the Pe River joins the Si River. Below this junction lies Hongkong, one of the world's finest harbors.

Fairly large steamers can ply up to Shao-chow and shallow draft vessels can navigate up to the Kiangsi-Hunan borders.

(2) The coast plain which lies east of the Tung River is about 100 miles square and contains cities like Swatow and Whampoa (40), which are important for commerce and emigration. There are no high mountains in this region. The whole area is easily accessible to steamships and other means of transportation. (3) The coast area south of the Si River, including the island of Hainan, comprises about 10,000 square miles. From this region many emigrants have gone to the Malay Archipelago and the East Indies. The plain has a network of small rivers and no large mountains.

Aside from the Si River described above, the Tung River, which connects the Boca Tigris with a canal, is also

of commercial importance. It rises in Kiangsi and makes several bends westward until it reaches Hwei-chow. Then it flows through a small delta into the large delta of the Si River. With its several tributaries it forms an excellent network of navigable streams.

The Han River, though not important from the standpoint of navigation, possesses a good harbor, Swatow, which is about 5 miles from the sea.

SOIL, CLIMATE, AND PRODUCTS.

Most of the soil of the Province is fertile and produces three crops annually. The climate is very changeable, being affected by the dry northeast wind and the moisture-laden southwest wind. From October to April the former prevails, and in the neighborhood of Canton the temperature seldom falls below 32 F., but the high ridges in the Province are occasionally covered with snow.

The leading agricultural products are silk, tobacco, rice, vegetables, fruit, tea, sugar, groundnuts, hemp, indigo, cassia, camphor, and sesamum. The chief minerals of the Province are coal, iron, antimony, zinc, graphite, quicksilver, silver, gold, tin, lead, and copper.

Recently in Tsing Yun and Szewui on the Pe River bamboo plantations have been developed, the bamboo being raised for export to Hongkong and the Straits Settlements. At Kongmoon mulberry cultivation is greatly increasing. Usually there are two yields a year, in June and October, which are sold to caterpillar raisers. About one-fifth of the fields formerly devoted to rice culture have been converted into orchards or palm-leaf plantations.

FUDEN. AREA AND POPULATION.

Fukien has an area of 46,332 square miles and a population of 13,157,791 people, averaging 284 persons per square mile. In other words, within an area no greater than that of the State of Mississippi live seven times as many inhabitants. The Province is bounded on the northeast by the watershed summit of the Min basin, on the southeast by a much indented seacoast, on the southwest by Kwangtung Province, and on the northwest by the Tayuling Ranges, which lie between it and Kiangsi

Province.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The Tayuling Ranges run in the general direction of southwest to northeast and make the whole Province mountainous. Many ridges are 3,000 feet high and several peaks along the northern boundary are as high as 9,000 feet. Indeed, the Province is so rocky that almost every important river bears the name "ch'ee," which means a "mountain stream." The surface rises generally from east to west; thus Yen-ping (26), about 90 miles west of Foochow, is from 400 to 600 feet higher than Foochow.

The Min, the principal river, has a length of about 350 miles. Its main tributaries—the Chien ch'ee, Shaowu ch'ee, and Ninghua ch'ee—unite at the city of Yen-ping, about 100 miles from the sea. Near Yen-ping shoals, rocks, and rapids render the river dangerous for navigation. Large junks make voyages from Shuikow down the river. Fair-sized steamers can ply freely between the bay and Pagoda Anchorage, 9 miles below Foochow and 35 miles from the mouth of the river.

The tide off the coast of Fukien is considerable, because the tidal wave is divided by the island of Formosa and runs into the channel from both the southwest and the northeast.

Other rivers in the Province are relatively unimportant. On the Chang River is situated the city of Amoy, a center of commerce and emigration.

SOIL, CLIMATE, AND PRODUCTS.

The eastern part of the Province is semitropical, the temperature rarely falling below the freezing point in winter. In the western part the climate is more temperate and is occasionally severe in winter.

The leading agricultural products are camphor, black and green tea, tobacco, sugar, oranges, wheat, and ginger, and the principal mineral products are coal, iron, galena, zinc, kaolin, gold, copper, and lead.

Owing to the mountainous nature of the country, rice growing has never been a prosperous industry and the inhabitants rely upon imports, chiefly from Formosa, for their daily needs.

The tea trade, for which the city of Foochow was once noted, has declined ever since English traders encouraged the cultivation of tea in Ceylon, and thus displaced the market for Foochow tea. The tea trade investigation bureau at Fu An has been active in reviving this trade. Logging and lumbering is the principal industry in the interior parts of the Province. Chiefly through the efforts of local agricultural societies, the growing of American cotton has lately been introduced here with considerable success.

SHANTUNG. AREA AND POPULATION.

Within an area of 55,980 square miles, Shantung supports a population of 30,803,245, or 550 persons per square mile. Although not quite so large as Illinois, the Province contains about six times as many inhabitants.

It is bounded on the east by the Yellow Sea, on the south by Honan, Kiangsu, and the Yellow Sea, on the west by Chihli and Honan, and on the north by the Strait of Chihli, the Gulf of Chihli, and the Province of Chihli.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The ranges of Taishan, a sacred mountain of China, run generally from west to east, the Shantung promontory being particularly mountainous. This rocky region is the highlands of the Province and is triangular in shape, 120 miles broad at the base and 300 miles on the sides.

In addition, there is a great plain, irregular in shape, about 100 miles long and over 50 miles wide, which is washed by the Hwang River. This forms the commercial and industrial center of the Province. Among the important towns are Tsi-nan (17), Wuting, Tungtsing, Yen-chow (18), and Tsao-chow.

The Hwang River is navigable only a few miles from the Yellow Sea, and, owing to its frequent change of outlets and course, it has caused immeasurable distress and suffering; hence it is popularly known as "The Sorrow of China."

The Grand Canal runs north and south in the Province and affords a great avenue of water communication, being an indispensable commercial route con-

necting Hangchow in the south with Peking in the north.

BOIL, CLIMATE, AND PRODUCTS.

The soil in the western part of the Province is principally alluvium combined with loess and is very fertile. The soil in the central part is mostly composed of gneiss mixed with limestone and clay. Gneiss mingled with granite, sandstone, and limestone is also found in the eastern part.

The northern coast receives the northwest monsoon and the southern coast the southeast monsoon. There is an abundant snowfall and during the month of July much fog on the coast. The rainfall at Chefoo (12) is about 24 inches and at Tsingtau (16) about 16 inches.

The agricultural products of the Province are cotton, cereals, silk, hemp, tobacco, groundnuts, and fruit. The chief minerals are coal, iron, gold, gypsum, galena, lead, and marble.

In the western part of the Province cereals grow in abundance. In the northern part the cotton industry is growing rapidly. The Shantung cabbage is as famous as the Pongee silk and both are important articles of export. Cultivation of fruit, including apples, pears, and grapes of foreign origin, is extensively carried on in the neighborhood of Chefoo. As a measure of afforestation the sea pine is grown in large numbers on the sandy wastes of the eastern coast of the Province.

CHIHLI. AREA AND POPULATION.

Chihli has an area of 115,000 square miles and a population of 34,186,711, or 294 persons to the square mile. In other words, in a territory a little smaller than the State of New Mexico, there are about 90 times as many inhabitants.

The Province is bounded on the east by Manchuria and the Gulf of Chihli, on the south by Honan and Shantung, on the west by Shansi, and on the north by Mongolia.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The Yin-shan Mountains traverse the whole Province and give rise to several rivers of importance. At its source, the Pei runs parallel to the Great Wall and enters the plains to the north of Peking.

It is navigable when it reaches Tungchow. Flowing southeastward, it reaches the city of Tientsin and serves as a great commercial gateway. It finally empties into the Gulf of Chihli.

The Lwan River comes from Dolon-nor and traverses from northwest to southeast the whole mountainous region of northeastern Chihli. It passes to the south of Jehol and flows into the Gulf of Chihli at a point a few miles from Yungping (7).

The San Kang Ho, the third river of commercial importance, affords the principal water route to Kalgan and Suanhua, two cities on the main road to Mongolia.

The Tse Ho, separated from the San Kang Ho by the Siao Wu Tai Ranges, is famous for its city Pao-ting (8), a rival of Tientsin (5) in trade and industry.

The Hu To Ho passes through Chenting (10) and Hu Lu, which are entrepôts for the Shansi trade. Shunteh, another trading center, is on a tributary.

Taming is the most important commercial center situated on the Wei-ho, which flows from the boundaries of Honan.

The Grand Canal is joined by the Hu To Ho and the Wei-ho, and passes through the city of Tientsin, the principal commercial center of the Province. Its northern terminus is Peking.

From the above-mentioned river system, two well-marked areas may be described: Area 1 is a triangle of about 250 miles from west to east and about 250 miles from north to south. It consists chiefly of the basin of the Lwan River. This area has little commercial activity. The important towns are Jehol, Yungping, and Shanhaikwan (6).

Area 2 is a somewhat irregular triangle, about 350 miles by 150 miles, drained by the Pei River at Tientsin. It is surrounded on the north and west by ranges of comparatively low mountains. There are large coal deposits, principally at Kai-ping and Tangshan.

SOIL, CLIMATE, AND PRODUCTS.

The climate is intensely dry and cold in winter and uncomfortably hot in summer. Dust storms in winter make the weather unpleasant as well as unhealth-

ful. Rainfall in this Province is often insufficient in summer. The plains are mostly alluvium.

The important agricultural products are kaoliang, millet, wheat, maize, beans, groundnuts, cotton, hemp, fruit, and vegetables. The minerals found in this Province include coal, kaolin, sandstone, and gold—i

This Province has the best modern agricultural experiment stations and nurseries in China. Since 1904, the year of introduction of scientific farming, the general bureau of agriculture and the agricultural and forestry schools, have been very active in improving farming conditions in the Province.

ETHNOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS: TRAITS AND CUSTOMS.

In describing the home environment of the Chinese emigrants, it appears desirable to ascertain their temperament, traits, traditions, aspirations, and occupational inclinations so as to show the degree of adaptation after settlement in new countries. Those who follow the old trades or professions in which they have shown proficiency. For more extended accounts see *Descriptive Sociology*, by E. T. C. Werner, No. IX—Section on Chinese habits and customs, pp. 178-189; and *Folk-lore of Chinese* modems, by L. Wieger.

In their home towns are usually successful abroad. Most of the emigrants show a strong tendency to adhere to their home customs and beliefs. KWANGTUNG.

The following selections show the prevailing traits of emigrants from each locality; these selections are translated and condensed from the Chinese text, *Kwangtung Tung Chih* (General Gazetteer of Kwangtung), giving in each case the number of the volume, book (chuan), and page, and the original work from which the selection is taken. Thus, the selection under the topic "General," is from the *Kwangtung T'ung Chih*, volume 37, book 92, p. 4a, and appeared originally in the *Huang Chih*.

General.—From the period of Chien An during the Han Dynasty to that of Yung Chia of the Tsin Dynasty, people from

central China went beyond the Ling the Tayuling Ranges and their descendants have since made their permanent homes there. Therefore, their customs are similar to those of the Chinese in the interior. (37: 92: 4a. The *Huang Chih*.) *Chaochow* (37).—On the plain, farms and gardens are about evenly divided. People work the year around. When they do not till the soil, they work in the gardens. Near the sea, fishing and the salt industry flourish. Copper-smiths and bronzesmiths sell their products to other parts of the country. Women devote their time to sewing. (37:93:8. Gazetteer of Chac-Young.) *Ch'ungchow*.—The place is foggy and damp. The people are fond of the bow and arrow. The women do not like to raise silkworms or pick mulberry leaves. They weave chipch cotton and wear embroidered clothes. They raise three crops during the year. The people cling to ancient customs. The district produces curious products. (37: 93: 23b. Ta Tsing Yih T'ung Chih.) *Huichow*.—The people of Lungchuan weave clothes out of bamboo. The women go to the market and the men stay at home. (37: 93: 1a. Tai Ping Huan Yu Chih.) The people of Hopien are cultivators. Of late, some have become interested in higher education. Even inhabitants of the outlying districts are literate. Quite a number of people have emigrated abroad to be traders. (37:93: 4a. Gazetteer of Ho-ping.) *Rao-chow* (44).—About 19 per cent of the people are engaged in the pawnshop business. Emigrants from Fukien, even though they have been very poor, usually become rich. (37:93: 11a. Notes on Geography.)

The customs are similar to those of Shaoching. Food and shelter are simple. In the north, the Yao make their homes and they speak the Cantonese dialect. The Tunglids, who live in the northwest of this district, have a different culture from the pure Chinese. (37:93: 15b. The *Huang Chih*.) *Kwangchow*.—Nan Hai is a metropolis of Kwangtung. Ocean-going junks bring home foreign goods in exchange for pearls and rhinoceros horns. The people worship

Buddha. (37:92:15b. Chao Son-an's Essays.)

The country of Kwangtung is surrounded with water and many people make their living on boats. Middle-aged women sell fish or row boats for a livelihood. (37:92:19b. The *Yueh-tung Diary*.)

Shuntch district is near the sea. The farms are wide and fertile. Fishing and rice culture are more prosperous here than in other districts. Scholars study literature and archeology. A few of them have become eminent. The rich people in the villages have magnificent homes. (37:92: 22. The *Chin Chih*.) *Lienchow*.—As the soil is not fertile and there are no farms, most of the inhabitants search for pearls, which they market on appointed days. Young and mature people of the Lis and the Dai-hu wrap up their food in lotus leaves (water lilies) in order to go to the market. There is little medicine for the sick. Four kinds of people live in the district: (1) The Hakkas live in the city and are acquainted with the Chinese language. They are mostly merchants. (2) The Tung-jen, or eastern men, are farmers. They live in villages and speak the Fukien dialect. (3) The Lis are mostly cultivators and live in the outlying districts. They do not know the Chinese language. (4) The Dai-hu are boatmen and speak the Chinese dialect. Many of them are fishermen and pearl hunters. They are simple and thrifty and do not indulge in litigation. (37:93: 17b, 18a. Ta Tsing Yih T'ung Chih.) 41986—23 3 *Looting*.—Tunan district has been recently incorporated. The inhabitants live together with the Yao, many of whom are now naturalized. On the plain, people live in groups of three or five families and make their living by farming or cutting timber. The men till the soil and the women spin. Some are fishermen. The people are generally industrious and frugal. (37:93:27a. Gazetteer of Looting.) *Luichow* (45).—The inhabitants have adopted the customs of the Lis. Among their dialects are the common dialect, the Hakka dialect, and the dialect of the Lis. The people are honest and studiously inclined. (37:93: 20a. Ta

Tsing Yin T'ong Chih.) *Shaoching*.—The territory is quite isolated. The inhabitants are easily excitable and have little self-control. (37:93:10b. Works of Pao Hsiao-sub.) *Shao-chow*.—The inhabitants of Yachang are stubborn and straightforward. The population density is low and the farms are large. Farmers and foresters live comfortably on their earnings. In sickness they take medicine and do not believe in witchcraft. (37:92:26b. Gazetteer of Luh-chang.) FUKIEN.

The selections below are translated from the Fukien T'ung Chih (General Gazetteer of Fukien) and in each case the number of the volume, book, and page, and the original work in which the passage appears are given.

Chang-chow (30).—Among the districts of the Min, Chang-chow has produced many men of stubborn and courageous character. Outwardly they seem to be unruly, but in fact, they are afraid of the law. Wealthy people usually go beyond the seas. Refined scholars strive to render immortal service to their fellow men. (38: 56: 21b, 22a. The Min Records.)

The people love litigation and have the bad habit of persuading others to indulge in it. Some are quarrelsome. On small provocation they gather friends and relatives to engage in feuds. (38:56:22b. Gazetteer of Chang-chow (Chia Ching ed.))

Haiten has many junks. Some people borrow money and go beyond the seas. Sometimes these people bring up children of poor families, or even abandoned children in order to let them trade with barbarians overseas. (38: 56: 25a. The Min Records.) *Chuanchow*.—Chuanchow of the Seven Min is noted for its homogeneous people and infrequent litigation. It is easily administered and governed. (38: 56: 1a. Essay on Abolition of Litigation by Wong Shih-pun.)

Chuanchow faces the sea and is bordered by mountains. It produces lychees and lungnan fruits. Near the sea, fish, shrimps, and clams are more abundant than vegetables and rice. Those living on islands are very skillful fishermen; those near the mountains cultivate

mountain terraces to raise sugar cane. The high population density in this narrow strip of territory makes it necessary to import rice to meet the demands of the local population. Skilled workers imitate the styles of northern embroideries, and of rugs made by western barbarians. Women wear sandals and work side by side with men. (38:56: 2b, 3a. The Min Records.) *Chiennien*.—Chien-nien has many mountains but little arable land. The mountain streams have rapid currents. Its inhabitants are high-tempered, but love righteousness; they have a fighting spirit and regard life lightly. The city people are extravagant and frivolous in character. The village and farm dwellers are industrious and content with their occupations. (39: 57: 10a. Gazetteer of Chiennien.) *Foochow*.—The soil of Fukien is not suited to mulberry cultivation or the silkworm industry. Its textile industry is not prosperous either. Most of the people engage in agriculture.

The arable lands in this Province are cultivated, even the mountain terraces. Salt merchants are usually wealthy. Some traders go beyond the seas, others migrate to other Provinces. (38:55:6a. Gazetteer of Foochow.)

The country is covered with ranges of mountains. There is only one crop during the year. The people are simple, thrifty, and industrious. Some like litigation; they are easily excitable, and are therefore not easily governed by the authorities. (38: 55: 10a. Gazetteer of Foochow, speaking of Kootien district.)

Changlu's soil is infertile and its population density is high. The men either become diligent students or industrious cultivators. The women devote their time to spinning. The inhabitants living near the sea are fishermen and those near the mountains become mechanics or merchants. (38: 55: 8a. General Gazetteer of the Eight Min.) *Funing* (25).—The people are honest and straightforward and respect old men. The rich do not encroach upon the poor and the poor are contented. The inhabitants dislike to be sedan-chair bearers or servants. The scholars strive to be of service to their community. The vil-

lagers plant mulberry trees and hemp and the mountaineers till the mountain terraces. The people who live near the sea become fishermen and salt producers. Those who become officials often resign their positions because their love for straightforwardness brings them disadvantages in political circles. (39:58:3b, 4a. Gazetteer of Fu An district, old edition.) *Hinghwa*.—Within this narrow territory beautiful mountains and rivers abound. Many of the inhabitants regard their occupations lightly. Bright young men study classics or go abroad to achieve fame. The people are generally thrifty; even aristocratic families prefer to wear linen and other inexpensive clothes rather than indulge in extravagance. (38:55:31a. The Min Ta Chih.)

The mountains are steep and river currents rapid. The proximity of the farms gives cause to litigation among landlords. The lack of communication in the mountains makes the people unsociable. Their traditions have taught them to neglect medical treatment in case of sickness and to believe in ghosts and deities. (38: 55: 33b. The Hsieh Yu Tu Chin.) *Shao-wu*.—Traditionally speaking, the men are responsible for affairs outside of the household and are therefore busy; the women for affairs inside the household and are relatively more at leisure. The women take care of the kitchen and do not work in the fields with the men. Wives spin and weave their husbands' clothes. (39: 57: 18b, 19a. Gazetteer of Shaowu, Chien Lung edition.) *Formosa*.—Few inhabitants of Taiwan Formosa are native born. Many have emigrated there from Fukien, Chekiang, Kwangtung, and Kwangsi. They are extensively engaged in ocean trade. Industrial prosperity has resulted in a high degree of extravagance. Even servants and apprentices go beyond their proper limits. Gambling is prevalent there. When they lose money they first make loans at pawnshops, then they commit theft. Unlawful organizations are sometimes formed under the leadership of forceful persons who persuade young people of mean character to join. This gives rise to recent social