

munitions have already exceeded the losses in the Russo-Japanese War, and that Japan's losses in spiritual and moral values have been particularly great? And do you know that your expeditionary army has become the most barbarous and cruel force of destruction in the world?"

General Chiang proceeded to detail the particularly inhuman actions of Japanese troops in occupied areas and the aerial bombing of numerous defenceless Chinese cities far away from the scene of hostilities. Then he added dramatically:—"You should know that Chinese planes have also visited your big cities. What did they present you with? Warm sympathy and not merciless bombs! Now think of the consequences if Chinese planes should send you the same amount of bombs which your planes had released in Canton, and drop them on cities like Tokyo, Osaka and Kobe and on various universities. I sincerely assure you that it is only the humaneness of the Chinese Air Force that stops them from retaliating."

To date, General Chiang stated, the Japanese army has lost more than half a million men, many of whom died ignominious deaths at the hands of outraged girls and women in China. However, right-minded men are not unknown in the Japanese army, and this is proved by the fact that many Japanese soldiers chose self-destruction to end their enforced part in such barbaric warfare. They killed one another, General Chiang added, or hanged themselves, or disembowelled themselves, and in their pockets were often found letters containing their "death counsel" to the Japanese military.

For all these things, the Chinese leader stated, the Japanese people cannot be held responsible. On the other

hand, they should lose no time in denouncing militarism and curbing aggressions in China; otherwise the future of Japan would be unimaginably sorrowful.

"Before it is too late," General Chiang admonished, "you should force your militarists to examine their policy of aggression in China. Ask them: What is the meaning of this aggression? What could be its objective? How much has Japan gained and how much has she lost since the war began? Can the war result in the conquest of China and the stabilization of East Asia? Can Japan drive the White people out of Asia and become the mistress of the Pacific herself? And who are the ones making all these sacrifices? Please give your deepest thoughts to these questions!"

Finally, Generalissimo Chiang stressed the fact that in taking up arms against the Japanese militarists the Chinese people naturally aimed at self-preservation, but in so doing they were also aiding the people of Japan. There have been numerous instances in history when the Chinese people successfully resisted foreign foes despite tremendous difficulties and handicaps. Today the whole of China is united with a national consciousness, and as the Three People's Principles have taken a deep root in all hearts the tenaciousness of this strength to resist is without precedent.

"China," General Chiang concluded, "will carry on the war until the Japanese militarists cease their aggression. The mutual destruction of our two nations will continue until your militarists are brought to their senses. The duty of stopping this bloodshed rests exclusively on the shoulders of the Japanese people."

Nanking's Population in War Time

By PROFESSOR LEWIS S. C. SMYTHE

(THIS is the first instalment of a comprehensive survey conducted by Professor Smythe and his assistants on behalf of the Nanking International Relief Committee. It represents the first scientific attempt at assessing the damage in human life and property in the urban and rural areas of Nanking before and after the withdrawal of the Chinese defence forces. The survey presented in this instalment extended from March 9 to April 2 for the family and from April 19 to 23 for supplementary work.—Editor).

POPULATION.—The city of Nanking had before the war a population of just 1,000,000 which was considerably reduced by repeated bombings and latterly by approaching attack and the removal of all Chinese governmental organs. At the time the city fell (December 12-13), its population was between 200,000 and 250,000. The persons reported in our sampling survey in March, multiplied by 50, give 221,150 as the population directly represented by the City Survey. This number was probably 80 to 90 per cent of the total residents at that time, some of whom lived in places not accessible to investigators.

In refugee camps maintained by the International Committee 27,500 persons were living, 12 per cent of the surveyed population.¹ Outside the camps, but within the Safety Zone were an additional 68,000 persons, 31 per cent of the total. Some idea of the crowding, the price willingly paid for partial secur-

ity, is indicated by the fact that 43 per cent of the population, 14 weeks after the fall of the city, was living in an area which had only 4 per cent of the total number of buildings noted in the Survey, and which comprised roughly one-eighth of the total area within the walls. The fact that practically no burning occurred within the Zone was a further advantage, and suggests the generally preferential treatment given to the Zone area as compared with the destruction and violence outside, even though the Zone was not officially recognized by the Japanese authorities.²

¹At its maximum in the second half of December and in January, this number was 70,000. The reduction was irregularly due to the following causes: crowding and discomforts of the camps, though they were generally preferred to the greater dangers and difficulties outside; the need to care for homes and remains of property, when ever there was sufficient security to make the effort worth while; encouragement by the International Committee for return to other parts of the city in every possible case; threats of forcible eviction from the camps as of February 4, fortunately not realized in action.

The average size of a family for all sections was 4.7. Outside the wall, the average was 4.0, suggesting the presence of more men without families, or of more broken families. Compare the 1932 figures for 2,027 families in the same portions of Nanking from which many of the present population are derived. They show an average family of 4.34.³ It is probable that in normal times there are more persons detached from their families for reasons of employment.

Distribution By Sex and Age:—The March population of Nanking showed clearly the characteristics of a war time population. The present survey reports for all ages, in all sections of the city, a sex ratio of 103.4 (males to 100 females)⁴ while the 1932 study showed for all ages 114.5; and in the entire population before the war, there was a very high ratio of males to females, at one time 150. The drop of 9 points in the sex ratio since 1932 is accounted for in part by the withdrawal of males not native to Nanking but formerly working there, and in part by the killings of males in the critical period. Most serious is the acute fall in the ratio for the age-group 15 to 49 years, which roughly represents the productive life of the population; here the decline was from 124 to 111, or 11 per cent. This change presents the fact that a large number of women and children are deprived of men who were the support of the family. If the comparison is carried into narrower age-groups, fluctuations are found because of the fewer cases forming the base for each figure; but the results for the 25 years of young maturity are sufficiently consistent to be startling: 15-19 years, 108 now as against 123 in 1932; 20-24 years, 106/124; 25-29 years, 100/128; 30-34 years, 89/123; 35-39 years, 105/123. The decline in the males of productive age is shown in another manner. Of all males in 1932, those 15 to 49 years old were 57 per cent; in the present survey, they were only 49 per cent, a decrease at the rate of 14 per cent, which constitute a serious economic and social problem. Correspondingly, of all males those over 50 years of age gained from 13 per cent in 1932 to 18 per cent now, an advance of some 30 per cent.

The variations in sex ratios by sections of the city are of some importance. Although the ratio for all sections was 103, for the refugee camps it was only 80, since they were overcrowded with women seeking security; on the

other hand, in the less secure areas the men were relatively much more numerous, as is shown by the ratios for Cheng Pei, 121, the garden group, 150, outside the wall, 144. If we consider the ages for which security was a most acute problem, 15 to 39 years, we find in the refugee camps sex ratios running very low, from 40 to 67 in different five-year units; for the Safety Zone Area, roughly 90; for Cheng Hsi over 150, for outside the wall, well over 200. Thus men were returning first to the more dangerous localities, with old women and children following along more or less closely; but many of the young women remained in places of relative safety.

Family Composition:—The families remaining in Nanking were classified as "Normal," that is, either husband and wife with children living together; "Broken," man or woman with children; and "Non-family," man alone or woman alone. Then each of these three types was repeated "with relatives."

The "Normal" families were much fewer in proportion to all families than in an earlier study made among Nanking people in more settled times, 1932; now only 4.4 per cent with husband and wife as compared with 9.5; now only 26.2 per cent with husband, wife and children instead of 33.1 per cent. This represents a reduction of these types by one-fourth. A slight increase in "Normal with Relatives" occurred: 32.3 per cent as compared with 29.8 per cent in 1932. In other words there is a net loss of normal families amounting to 9.5 per cent of the total families, or one-seventh reduction of normal families.

This decline in normal families is largely due to an increase in the broken families, 21.4 per cent as compared with only 12.9 in 1932 or an increase of 8.5 per cent for the four types of broken families. Of that increase 6.9 per cent was in families without a man for support, that is, families consisting of only women with children. This means that the number of broken families was almost doubled. This increase in broken families is more clearly understood when we realize that 14.3 per cent of the members of the families remaining in Nanking had migrated, but of these family members only 2.2 per cent were husbands whose wives were left behind. In addition to these there were 4400 wives, or 8.9 per cent of the wives, whose husbands had either been killed, injured or taken away. Two-thirds of these were killed or taken

but bringing about much unnecessary suffering and many regrettable incidents.

²We must here trace the divisions of the city as used for the purpose of the Survey. The Safety Zone Area was bounded by Han Chung Road on the South; by North Chung-Shan Road from Hsin Chieh K'ou past the Drum Tower to Shansi Road, on the east and northeast; by Shansi Road on the north, continued to Sikiang Road, which formed the westerly boundary. Within the Safety Zone Area were the Refugee Camps, reported separately. South of the Safety Zone Area lay Cheng-Hsi, reaching to Shengchow Road, and bounded on the east by Chungcheng and Chunghua Roads. The remaining southwest corner of the city was called Men Hsi. The south-eastern corner, north to Pei-hsia Road and east to Tangchimen, was considered as Men Tung. The region from Chungcheng Road eastward to the wall was named Cheng Tung. All the remaining northwestern, northern and northeastern (as far south as East Chungshan Road) sections were considered Cheng Pei. For purposes of the building investigation, Cheng Pei Tung was split off from Cheng Pei; this eastern section of the north city ran from North Chungshan Road to the wall bounded on the north by the Drum Tower and Peichiko. The four sections outside the wall are

easily recognized by their names; the Shuihsi-men Area extended northward past Hanchungmen. See City Survey map of Nanking). (The family investigators found the area outside Tungchimen deserted. Consequently, it does not occur in the family investigation but is included in the building investigation).

The normally crowded sections in the southerly portions of the city (Cheng Hsi, Men Hsi, Men Tung), were the first to show a fair degree of recovery from the practically complete depopulation of the critical period. Together they had 81,000 residents, 37 per cent of the total. (By June this number of residents had doubled, according to the city Government records of registration).

The sections thus far named had practically 80 per cent of the total of the city. There were only 8,550 persons in the districts studied outside the wall, which suffered so terribly from the burning by the Chinese army and from violence, and in March were still more dangerous on the whole than the inner city.

³Smythe, "The Composition of the Chinese Family," *Nanking Journal*, University of Nanking, November, 1935, v.5, No. 2, p.371-393.

⁴The May 31 registration figures of the Municipal Government, patently incomplete for females, show 109.4.

away, 6.5 per cent. Or more poignantly, 3250 children (5 per cent of all children) had their fathers killed, injured or taken away. These broken families could only to a small extent be due to families being divided within the city because only 3 per cent were so reported. The three factors of migration, persons killed or taken away, and divided families combined broke 11.7 per cent of the families remaining in Nanking, or 5500 families.

Within the city the refugee camps showed a very high figure for broken families, especially in the case of women with children, 13.2 per cent as compared with 6.6 per cent for all sections and with 3.4 per cent in the more normal times of 1932. Fourteen per cent of the families in the refugee camps were women, children and relatives (the latter usually dependent). Altogether, 27.2 per cent of the families in the refugee camps were women with children and in some cases with dependent relatives. In the camps 35 per cent of the families had a woman as head, while in the remainder of the population only 17 per cent of the families had a woman head.

A man or woman alone constituted the family in 14 per cent of the families living outside of the wall, as compared with general figure of 8.7 in 1932. In another 16.3 per cent of the families outside the wall, the family was a man with relatives.

Deaths and Injuries due to Hostilities.—The figures here reported are for civilians, with the very slight possibility of the inclusion of a few scattered soldiers. The reports made in the Survey indicate that 3,250 were killed by military action under known circumstances. Of those killed 2,400 (74 per cent) were killed by soldiers' violence apart from military operations.⁵ There is reason to expect under-reporting of deaths and violence at the hands of the Japanese soldiers, because of the fear of retaliation from the army of occupation. Indeed, under-reporting is clearly emphasized by the failure to record any violent deaths of young children, although not a few are known to have occurred.

Of the 3,100 receiving injuries under known circumstances, 3050 (98 per cent) were definitely by soldiers' violence aside from warfare. There was a noticeable tendency to ignore injuries from which some sort of recovery had been made.⁶

89 per cent of the deaths and 90 per cent of the injuries by soldiers' violence occurred after December 13, when occupation of the city was entirely completed

In addition to those reported killed and injured 4,200 were taken away under military arrest. Persons seized for temporary carrying or other military labor were seldom so reported. Very few of those here mentioned were heard from in any way up to June. The fate of others gives reason to think that most of them were killed early in the period.⁷

The figures for persons taken away are undoubtedly incomplete. Indeed, upon the original survey schedules, they were written in under the heading "Circumstances" within the topic of deaths and injuries; and were not called for or expected in the planning of the Survey. Thus they have an unusual significance, and are more important than the simple figures indicate. Thus those 4,200 must contribute an important addition to the number killed by soldiers.⁸

Ignoring many minor cases, the casualties of military operations and the sum of those killed and injured by soldiers' violence, and of those taken away, represents 1 person in 23, or 1 in every 5 families. This does not include cases of rape.

Of the 6,750 persons violently killed and injured, only 900 (or 13 per cent) came to grief through military operations.

The critical social and economic results of these killings are in part indicated by the following direct calculations from our listings. The number of women whose husbands were killed, injured, or taken away, was 4400.⁹ The number of children whose fathers were killed, injured, or taken away, was 3250.

If we analyze by sex and age those who suffered violence or abduction, we find that the per cent of males in the killed and injured was for all age 64, and reached for ages 3-44 the high percentage of 76. Able-bodied men were under suspicion of being ex-soldiers; many were killed for having callouses on their hands, supposed evidence of carrying rifles. Among the injured females, 65 per cent were between the ages of 15 and 29, although the terms and method of inquiry excluded rape *per se*.

A revealing picture of the tragedy is shown in the relatively large number of persons over 60 years old who were killed by soldiers, 28 per cent of all men so killed, and 38 per cent of the women. Elderly people were often the most reluctant to leave their homes in exposed areas, and they were considered in advance to be safe from wanton attack.

⁵"Military operations" is here used for shells, bombs or bullets fired in battle.

⁶Among the injuries reported to our Rehabilitation Commission by the 13,530 families applicants for relief, whom they investigated during March, was rape to the extent of 8 per cent of all females of 16-50 years. This figure is a serious under-statement, since most women who suffered such treatment would not volunteer the information, nor would their male relatives. While raping was such a common matter in December and January, people were much freer in admitting rape than under ordinary circumstances. But by March families were trying to hush up the fact women in their families had been raped. The matter is mentioned here as illustrating the acute insecurity from which the social and economic life of the city has suffered.

⁷The seriousness of "taking away" is underlined by the fact that all so listed are males. Actually many women were taken for shorter

or longer service as waitresses, for laundry work, and as prostitutes. But not one of them is listed.

⁸A careful estimate from the burials in the city and in areas adjacent to the wall, indicates 12,000 civilians killed by violence. The tens of thousands of unarmed or disarmed soldiers are not considered in these lists. Among the 13,530 applicant families investigated during March by the Committee's Rehabilitation Commission, there were reported men taken away equivalent to almost 20 per cent of all males 16/50 years of age. That would mean for the whole city population 10,860 men. There may well be an element of exaggeration in the statements of applicants for relief; but the majority of the difference between this figure and the 4,200 of the survey report is probably due to the inclusion of cases of detention or forced labor which the men are known to have survived.

⁹The 13,580 applicant families investigated by our Rehabilitation Commission during March, reported data which indicate that 14 per cent of all women over 16 were widows.

CRITIC BOOK-SHELF

THE BOOK TRADE IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

By Bohumit Janda

The position of the Czechoslovak publisher is by no means an easy one. The English or American publisher knows that there are nearly two hundred million English-speaking people, while the Czechoslovak publisher is limited to a population of 15,000,000, of which only 70 per cent speak Czech or its dialects.

According to statistics, 11,487 non-periodical publications appeared for these 15,000,000 Czechoslovaks, in the year 1936. Of these, 9,107, that is almost 80 per cent, were in Czech or Slovakian.

The intense curiosity of the Czechs (whose country is often called the heart of Europe, and which is crossed by the ideological arteries running from Paris to Moscow and Berlin to Rome), freedom of expression, and a democratic constitution have enabled Czechoslovak publishers to arrange a rich and varied literary menu which, for comprehensible reasons, is denied other publishers in Central Europe. It is probably due to the desire to have a true picture of the outside world that, if we are to believe statistics, the interest in translations is 12 per cent greater in Czechoslovakia than in England.

Among translations in Czechoslovakia those of western literature lead. Until 1931 France occupied the first place, but since then books written in English have come to the fore. In 1932, 23.3 per cent of all the books translated were written originally in the English language and in 1935, 25.5 per cent.

As to subject matter most of the book published in Czechoslovakia are scientific and didactic. In 1936, 69.2 per cent belonged to this class, leaving only 30.8 per cent to fiction, poetry and drama, *lettres-lettres*, art, etc. Perhaps that is to be expected of a nation whose scientific tradition dates back very far. Social and legal works predominate in scientific categories.

I have already mentioned some of the ideological foundations of the Czechoslovak book trade. Selling conditions naturally depend on them and vary from time to time. Czechoslovakia is chiefly a

The men taken away were often accused, at least in form, of being ex-soldiers; or were used as carriers and laborers. Hence it is not surprising to find that 55 per cent of them were between the ages of 15 and 29 years; with another 36 per cent between 30 and 44 years.

country of middleclass people engaged in agriculture and industry. The purchasers of books are mostly teachers, clerks, etc. and working-class people. This fact determines the nature of the books published. Literature for the masses is predominant.

The great majority of book purchasers look upon a serious book as a thing of lasting value. A book which has been read does not lose its attraction or value and in many families it is guarded in the bookcase as a family treasure for future as well as present generations.

In England or America most ordinary fiction has the same fate as Parisian fashions: the first purchaser pays a very high price but, after a time, when the novelty has worn off, a dress that used to be an exclusive model can be bought for a fraction of the original price. Speaking in publishers' language the latter corresponds to the reprint editions. The Czechoslovak publisher, knowing that the purchasers of books will defend the value of their beloved books with the same tenacity with which the French money-grubber defends his bank book, reduces the price of his books only in exceptional cases.

The standardization of prices and sizes of books has not gone far in Czechoslovakia. The middle classes have not much money to spend on books and they would rather buy three unbound books than two bound ones. They have the book bound later. Whereas the American publisher charges \$2 or \$2.50 for an ordinary work of fiction, the Czechoslovak publisher has usually to be satisfied with from 75 cents to one dollar for a book in paper covers.

The Czechoslovak publishers have adopted the chief principles of the Leipzig system, based on a fixed retail price of books and precisely defined regulations as regards the conduct of business between publisher and bookseller. A certain relaxation of these conditions, however, began with the economic depression, which caused such a decrease in the bookseller's turnover that large publishing houses tried to find new selling methods, without the collaboration of booksellers.

This policy of direct selling met with strong protests from the bookseller who, in Czechoslovakia, number almost 1,000. But the force of circumstances was too great and the new methods have prevailed. They have had their effect on the booksellers, who then tried to increase their sales in the only way possible; that is they rendered better expert service, widened the variety of their stock and tried harder to influence prospective buyers. The bookseller, moreover, par-

ticipates in all the enterprises of publishers, bookclubs and co-operative book societies.

Greater resources, better publicity and carefully planned distribution have enabled big publishing houses to accomplish great sales immediately. When the selling was done only through booksellers it used to take several years to build up very large sales. For example a Czech classical humorous book, Ignat Herrmann's "Konkeltik" has had, over a period of 40 years, a sale of 54,000 copies. In a series of cheap books published by Melantrich, one of the largest publishing houses in Czechoslovakia, 60,000 copies of it are issued in one month. All volumes so far issued in this are now out of print.

Czechoslovak publishers are now concentrating on attracting new book purchasers to secure constant sales. They are also endeavoring to develop the reading habit of the masses into a "buying habit." The importance of this lies in the fact that Czechoslovakia is a country in which every town or village is compelled by law to have a free public lending library. In big towns these libraries are very well stocked.

Many methods have been adopted to increase sales, and each publishing house has worked out its own individual system. Large newspaper concerns which, in Czechoslovakia, often own book publishing houses also, have tried to induce their newspaper readers systematically to buy their books too. Co-operative book societies have been created, after the manner of the German "Buchgemeinschaft"; the foremost society is the "Druzstevni Prace," which has a membership of 20,000. "The European Literary Club" (Evropsky literarni klub) has the same membership. There are several much smaller book clubs with special interests—political, religious, etc.

Nearly every leading publishing house employs house-to-house canvassers either for its complete list or for some of its special publications, such as encyclopedias, complete collections, dictionaries, etc.

The greatest advantage of selling directly to the public is that anyone can obtain any book and pay for it in small instalments. I believe I should not be far wrong in saying that the canvassers account for between 50 to 70 per cent of the turnover of big houses employing them. Sometimes several publishers work in conjunction and the agents employed by one of them sell also some books for the others. As a rule the publisher allows his agent great freedom as to the sales methods he employs.

Interest in new books is chiefly created by the newspapers, which devote much space to reviews. The dailies have, as a rule, special columns, sometimes even a whole page, devoted to cultural matters. Evening papers and women's