This appointment of the new class of umdas as members of parliament is a result of not only political conflict between Nahhas and Sidqi, but also the change of the social structure of the rural areas, where the new emerging classes are confronting the old upper classes.

Both Sidqi and Nahhas carried out political tours all over Egypt to gain the support of rural notables. As these two political leaders toured the country, antagonism between their respective parties became deep, and violence expanded all over Egypt. Though the most violent incidents happened in Upper Egypt, in areas like Maniya and Beni Suweif, the flames of violence spread to Cairo as trains were burned and shops were destroyed.

Although Egypt witnessed this chaos in 1930, there was every reason for Sidqi to try to remove the Wafd from the parliament by any means necessary. Sidqi was never opposed to the concept of democracy, though he did consider, at least in the beginning stage of democracy, that only selected elites should be in charge of the democratic government, not the masses. Sidqi strongly opposed the ways of the Wafd, which mobilized the university students and the masses to accomplish their political goals and to ring the alarm bell of populism.

This question over Egyptian populism and mass mobilization by the dominant party remains unsolved even now, since the time of nationalism of 1950′ and 1960′ and through the democratization process after the 2011 revolution.

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Constitutional Government and the Local Administration System of Republican China

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In 1912, immediately after its birth, the Republic of China (ROC) enacted the Provisional Constitution of
the Republic of China’ (中華民國臨時約法), and the following year it commenced ‘Constitutional rule’ through the Parliament formed in Beijing. As the Provisional Constitution was temporary, a formal constitution would have to be endorsed to validate the Constitutional rule. The ensuing political events, however, frustrated the process and it was not until 1946 that the ROC Constitution was ratified and enforced. In other words, as far as the Constitutional rule is concerned, the thirty-eight years of the ROC period in China (1912–49) was spent in preparation for the establishment of the formal Constitution.

Studies on ROC’s Constitutional rule have largely focused on issues concerning human rights, separation of authoritative powers and political participation of the populace. The last problem, the political participation of the populace, has mainly been approached in regards to the people’s actual participation in national government and few studies have paid attention to local governmental systems concerning local autonomy. However, in a country as large as China, local administrative units such as provinces are considered sizeable social entities, and how to rule them is a matter of significant political concern. Further, what needs to also be contemplated is the guaranteed participation by the people in local government as a basic human right.

This paper will examine the ways in which the local government system, and people’s participation in it, was handled through the process of deliberation and enactment of the Constitution and its equivalent laws in the ROC. It will then consider characteristics of the ROC’s Constitutional rule.

The Provisional Constitution of the Republic of China, ROC’s first fundamental law, did not include the consideration of a local government system. One of the reasons for this omission is said to be that those who founded the ROC, including the Revolutionary cliques were unwilling to establish a system which could lead to the decentralization of power and threaten their own authority.

The ruling power shifted from the revolutionary Sun Wen (Sun Yat-sen, 1866–1925) to Yuan Shikai (1859–1916), a former high-ranking official of the Qing court. Despite having the Parliamentary majority, the Nationalist Party, which was formed around the Revolutionary Alliance, became the Opposition. The Parliament had the power to enact a constitution and in 1913 it produced a draft constitution called the ‘Temple of Heaven Draft’ at the Temple of Heaven (photo). The draft also lacked a provision for a local government system. It is said one of the reasons for this omission, was that the members of the Parliament hastily finished the draft fearing that Yuan (a centralist interfering with the draft), might dissolve the Parliament at any time. So, had the Parliament attempted to include provisions to recognise a provincial self-governing right, even stronger interference from Yuan could be expected. Shortly afterwards the Parliament was dissolved, halting the whole process.

After Yuan Shikai’s sudden death in 1916, one of his men Duan Qirui (1865–1936) took over the government. Parliament resumed and deliberation of the Temple of Heaven Draft recommenced. During the discussions, the old Nationalist Party proposed a provision on the local government system be included in the Constitution, which was approved. However, Duan and others disapproved some of the provisions including those specifically in regards to the local government. Hence Parliament was again dissolved in 1917, resulting in another setback to the
process.

A new Parliament was convened by Duan and others, who drafted a constitution that continued to omit provisions on a local government system. In the meantime, some members of the previous Parliament gathered in Guangzhou, reassembled a government and claimed legitimacy. No progress on the Constitution was made.

From 1920 the Provincial Autonomy Movement gathered momentum in Central and Southern China. Having provincial autonomy basically meant the popular election of the provincial governor and the right to establish a provincial constitution. Provincial governors had generally been appointed by the central government, so this was a movement towards the decentralization of that choice. It also became the basis for the Federalist Movement, which aimed to reunite the nation which had been divided into north and south, each with its own parliament and government; it was not a movement simply seeking local decentralization.

While the parliamentary process to establish a constitution had been halted, a civilian initiative for drafting one was completed in Shanghai in 1922. Influenced by the Provincial Autonomy Movement, this draft included a local government system, recognising the right of each province to elect its governor and to establish its own constitution. In the same year, the Parliament, which had been dissolved in 1917, was reconvened in Beijing by the Cao Kun (1862–1938) Government, and in the following year the Constitution of 1923 (中華民國憲法) was enacted. This was China’s first proper constitution and included provisions for a local government system very similar to one drafted by the civilian group. The Constitution, however, was not enforced as a coup d’état by Cao’s men overthrew the Cao Government in 1924.

In the following year Duan Qirui, who now led the new government, abolished the Parliament and drafted a new constitution. This draft recognized the right of a province to have its own constitution, but allowed the central government to intervene in the appointment of its governor. The next year, 1926, saw the demise of the Duan Government by Zhang Zuolin (1875–1928) and others, who had no intention to enact a constitution. In the same year, the Nationalist Party (CNP) or Guomindang (GMD), led by Jiang Jieshi (1887–1975), moved its army from Guangzhou to begin the Northern Expedition, eventually overthrowing the Beijing Government of Zhang Zuolin.

Once in power, the Nationalist Government began the ‘Tutelage period,’ an era of single-party rule which was laid out in Sun Wen’s Principles of National Reconstruction of the National Government (1924), as a process towards the development of Constitutional rule. But the people were critical of the government ruling without a fundamental law, so in 1931 the Party enacted and enforced the ‘Provisional Constitution for the Tutelage Period,’ or the ‘Tutelage Constitution.’ The Tutelage Constitution did not have provisions for local governments. As a step towards Constitutional rule the Nationalist Government endorse a draft constitution known as the ‘May Fifth Constitutional Draft’ in 1936. The draft constitution included a local government system, but did not recognise the popular election of provincial governors nor a provincial constitution.

During the Sino-Japanese War of 1937–45, politicians inside and outside of government and legal scholars proposed amendments to the May Fifth Constitutional Draft, some of which included the popular election of a provincial governor. In 1946, following the end of the Sino-Japanese War, the Nationalist Party and other parties met and agreed to amend the draft to include the popular election of a provincial governor and the right for a province to have its own constitution.

Both Sun Wen and Jiang Jieshi recognized prefectural autonomy but not provincial autonomy. In the Principles of National Reconstruction, however, Sun acknowledges the popular election of provincial governors and presents the idea of the equal division of power between the central and provincial governments. This
reference strengthened the arguments for provincial autonomy. Also, at the time, the antagonism between the Nationalist Party and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) was deepening, and the Nationalists could not afford to lose support of other parties by persisting in its party policy. As a result, the Constitution of 1946 (中華民國憲法), enacted in December that year, included provisions for the popular election of the provincial governor and the right of a province to its own self-governing laws.

Although the Constitution recognised provincial self-government, it was difficult to establish appropriate local authorities immediately. Also, because the Nationalist Government lost in the civil war, provincial self-government in China did not materialise. However, the Constitutional recognition of the sovereignty of the people at the provincial level marked a significant achievement of the ROC’s Constitutional government.

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The idea of constitution and constitutionalism has been one of the most cherished political ideas the humanity has been looking to achieve during the last two centuries. In fact, it has had an important place in our world's contemporary history, a history which can be written as an ongoing struggle between the proponents and the opponents of constitutionalism, rule of law and democracy. This struggle has influenced other aspects of socio-political life of most societies around the world. Though many developed societies have been successful in achieving this cherished goal, others have been and in fact are, lagging behind in the long march toward constitutionalism.

It might be this importance which encouraged Toyo Bunko to allocate a session of its annual international symposium of Inter-Asia Research Networks on “Integrated Study of Dynamism in the Supra-Regional Spheres of Islamic and Chinese Region,” to constitutionalism and parliamentarism. Concentrating on the four historically and geopolitically important countries in the Islamic and Asian region, i.e., China, Iran, Turkey, and Egypt, the Session 2 of this year symposium tended to shed lights on their experience of the struggle for democratization and civil society.

Mohsen Khalili, associate professor of political science at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, presented his analysis and explanation of “Two Dimensions of the Iran’s Constitutionalism: Familiar Notions, Lack of Theory.” Khalili argues that while Iranians did not created the theory of constitutionalism and the modern state, they were historically familiar with notions such as suppression, tyranny, corruption, despotism, and constitutional ideas such as justice. They also knew what the despicable situation of their life was, what would be the alternative desired situation and what the instruments for reaching the desired situation were. To support his argument, Khalili present two evidences of the Travelogue of Ibrahim Bey and the Treatises of Mirza Malkom Khan Nazem Al-Dole, the important socio-political works by two Iranian intellectuals of the mid and late 19th century. Through a content analysis of these two works and by showing the frequencies of the familiar notions, the indices of despicable and desired situations in both books, Khalili explains the existence of ideas of constitutionalism before the advent of the Constitutional Revolution of 1906 in Iran.

Sasaki Shin, assistant professor of Faculty of Humanities in Seikei University, in “After the ‘Second Empire’: